

**THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN
LANGUAGE READING INSTRUCTIONAL SYSTEM
FOR PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS AT RAJABHAT
UNIVERSITIES IN NORTHEAST THAILAND**

Thanaporn Pantawee

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the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in English Language Studies**

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การพัฒนาระบบการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับครูฝึกสอน
มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏภาคตะวันออกเฉียงเหนือ

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Thesis Examining Committee

(Dr. Sarit Srikhao)

Chairperson

(Dr. Maneepen Apibalsri)

Member (Thesis Advisor)

(Prof. Dr. Chaiyong Brahmawong)

Member

(Assoc. Prof. Dr. Kanit Khaimook)

Member

(Asst. Prof. Dr. Kanyarat Ketkham)

Member

(Prof. Dr. Pairote Sattayatham)

Vice Rector for Academic Affairs

(Dr. Peerasak Siriyothin)

Dean of Institute of Social Technology

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การวิจัยครั้งนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์ดังนี้ (1) เพื่อศึกษาปัญหา ข้อเสนอแนะในการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษ
ของครูฝึกสอนและการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษที่มีประสิทธิภาพ โดยใช้เทคนิคเดล-ฟาย (2) เพื่อ
พัฒนาระบบการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับครูฝึกสอน (3) เพื่อหาประสิทธิภาพของบทเรียน
ที่ใช้สอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับครูฝึกสอนตามเกณฑ์มาตรฐาน 75/75, (4) เพื่อศึกษาผลสัมฤทธิ์
ทางการเรียนของครูฝึกสอนหลังจากได้รับการสอนโดยใช้บทเรียนการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษ
สำหรับครูฝึกสอน (5) เพื่อศึกษาความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างความสามารถของครูฝึกสอนด้านความรู้ใน
การสอนการอ่านและความสามารถด้านการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษ (6) เพื่อศึกษาว่าความสามารถด้านการอ่าน
ของนักเรียนแตกต่างกันหรือไม่ หลังจากได้เรียนกับครูที่มีผลสัมฤทธิ์ทางการเรียนที่แตกต่างกัน
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และ (8) เพื่อติดตามผลการนำความรู้ที่ได้จากบทเรียนการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับครู
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การอ่านภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับครูฝึกสอน ประกอบด้วยการออกแบบวัตถุประสงค์การเรียนรู้ สื่อการ
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ประสิทธิภาพของบทเรียนการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับครูฝึกสอน ตามเกณฑ์ E1/ E2
ระยะที่ 4 ขั้นการนำบทเรียนที่พัฒนาขึ้นไปทดลองสอนกับครูฝึกสอน และติดตามผลการฝึกสอน
ของครูฝึกสอนที่ผ่านการเรียนจากบทเรียนการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษโดยให้ครูฝึกสอนทดลอง
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กลุ่มตัวอย่างที่ใช้ในการศึกษาครั้งนี้ แบ่งออกเป็น กลุ่มตัวอย่างที่ใช้ในการสำรวจปัญหา
การอ่านของครูฝึกสอนเป็นคณาจารย์จากมหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏในภาคตะวันออกเฉียงเหนือ

จำนวน 17 คน กลุ่มตัวอย่างที่ใช้ในกระบวนการพัฒนาประสิทธิภาพแบบจำลอง เป็นนักศึกษาสาขาภาษาอังกฤษ หลักสูตรครุศาสตรบัณฑิต ชั้นปีที่ 4 มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏมหาสารคาม และกลุ่มตัวอย่างในการทดลองใช้บทเรียนการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับครูฝึกสอน เป็นนักศึกษาสาขาภาษาอังกฤษ หลักสูตรครุศาสตรบัณฑิต ชั้นปีที่ 4 มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏร้อยเอ็ด จำนวน 25 คน กลุ่มตัวอย่างในการติดตามการประยุกต์ใช้ความรู้ของผู้เรียนที่เรียนโดยใช้บทเรียนการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับครูฝึกสอนในการทดลองสอน ได้แก่ นักศึกษาสาขาภาษาอังกฤษ หลักสูตรครุศาสตรบัณฑิต ชั้นปีที่ 4 มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏร้อยเอ็ด จำนวน 4 คน

เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการวิจัยประกอบด้วย เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการสำรวจปัญหาและข้อเสนอแนะการอ่านและการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษของครูฝึกสอน ได้แก่ การสัมภาษณ์ปากเปล่า และแบบสอบถามที่พัฒนาจากเทคนิคเดลฟาย 3 ชุด เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการเก็บข้อมูลการพัฒนาและทดลองใช้บทเรียนการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษของครูฝึกสอน ได้แก่ แบบทดสอบวัดความรู้ด้านการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษ แบบทดสอบวัดความสามารถด้านการอ่าน บันทึกประจำวันของผู้เรียน แบบฝึกหัด แบบสอบถามปลายเปิดเพื่อสำรวจทัศนคติของผู้เรียนที่มีต่อบทเรียนการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษของครูฝึกสอน เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการติดตามการทดลองสอน ของผู้เรียนที่เรียนโดยใช้บทเรียนการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับครูฝึกสอนในโรงเรียนระดับมัธยมศึกษา ได้แก่ บันทึกประจำวันของครูฝึกสอน บันทึกของผู้วิจัย และบันทึกของนักเรียนมัธยมศึกษา

ผลการศึกษาโดยใช้เทคนิคเดลฟายในการสอบถามความคิดเห็นของผู้เชี่ยวชาญด้านการอ่านพบว่า เป็นประโยชน์ต่อครูฝึกสอนทั้งในฐานะที่เป็นผู้อ่านที่มีประสิทธิภาพและในฐานะผู้สอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษที่มีศักยภาพ อีกทั้งสามารถนำข้อเสนอแนะที่ได้ไปวางแผนในการพัฒนาระบบการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศสำหรับครูฝึกสอนต่อไป

ในการพัฒนาบทเรียนการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับครูฝึกสอนมหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏร้อยเอ็ด ที่พัฒนาขึ้นมีค่าประสิทธิภาพ 75.54/75.50 ซึ่งสูงกว่าเกณฑ์มาตรฐานที่ตั้งไว้ ส่วนผลสัมฤทธิ์ทางการเรียนของครูฝึกสอนที่ได้เรียนจากบทเรียนการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับครูฝึกสอน มีคะแนนเฉลี่ยสูงกว่าก่อนเรียนอย่างมีนัยสำคัญที่ระดับ .01 ผลสัมฤทธิ์ทางการเรียนของครูฝึกสอนด้านความรู้ในการสอนการอ่านและความสามารถในการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษมีความสัมพันธ์กัน ($R = 0.40$) ผลสัมฤทธิ์ทางการเรียนของครูฝึกสอนด้านความรู้ในการสอนการอ่านมีความสัมพันธ์กันอย่างมีนัยสำคัญที่ระดับ 0.01 ($p < .001$) นอกจากนี้ ยังพบว่าครูฝึกสอนมีทัศนคติในเชิงบวกต่อบทเรียนการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับครูฝึกสอน และครูฝึกสอนที่ได้

เรียนจากบทเรียนการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับครูฝึกสอน สามารถนำความรู้มาประยุกต์ใช้
ในการฝึกสอนกับนักเรียนมัธยมศึกษาได้

สาขาวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ
ปีการศึกษา 2551

ลายมือชื่อนักศึกษา _____
ลายมือชื่ออาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา _____
ลายมือชื่ออาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาร่วม _____

THANAPORN PANTAWEE : THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN ENGLISH AS
A FOREIGN LANGUAGE READING INSTRUCTIONAL SYSTEM FOR
PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS AT RAJABHAT UNIVERSITIES IN
NORTHEAST THAILAND. THESIS ADVISOR : MANEEPEN APIBALSRI,
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PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS/ EFL READING INSTRUCTIONAL MODEL/
ENGLISH TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM/ SECONDARY SCHOOL
STUDENTS

The purposes of the study were: (1) to investigate the reading problems and obtain the suggestion in teaching EFL reading for pre-service teachers; (2) to develop an EFL reading instructional system for pre-service teachers; (3) to examine the efficiency of the lessons of an EFL reading instructional system for pre-service teachers; (4) to determine pre-service teachers' learning achievement after the experiment; (5) to investigate the relationship between pre-service teachers' reading ability and their knowledge of teaching EFL reading; (6) to determine secondary school students' reading ability whether their reading ability will be different when they are instructed by the pre-service teachers whose scores are above and lower than the median; (7) to investigate pre-service teachers' attitudes towards the EFL reading instructional lessons, and (8) to investigate how pre-service teachers apply the knowledge obtained from the model to their classroom teaching practice.

The research procedure comprised of five phases. First, Analysis Phase, the problems and suggestion of the EFL reading and the teaching of EFL reading for pre-service teachers were investigated by using the Delphi technique. Second, Design Phase included the design of learning objective, teaching materials, learners

identification, content selection and instructional environment and evaluation. Third, Development Phase included the development of the EFL reading instructional lessons based on the conditions of problems, tried out the research instruments and assessed the efficiency of the EFL reading instructional lessons for pre-service teacher based on E1/E2 formula. Fourth, Implementation Phase, the EFL reading instructional lessons were used with pre-service teachers. After completing the EFL reading instructional lessons, the pre-service teachers' teaching practice in secondary schools was investigated. Finally, Evaluation Phase, the effectiveness and efficiency of the instruction occurring throughout the entire instructional design process within phases, between phases, and after implementation.

Different samples group were used in each phase of the research. In the Analysis phase, the sample group consisted of 17 EFL reading teachers from 9 Rajabhat Universities in the north-east of Thailand. In the Development phase, the pre-service teachers who were studying in the fourth year of English teacher education program at Mahasarakham Rajabhat University participated in the assessment of the efficiency of the EFL reading instructional lessons. In the Implementation phase, the EFL reading instructional lessons were employed by 25 pre-service teachers who were studying in the fourth year of English teacher education program at Roi-Et Rajabhat University. In the Follow-up stage of the Implementation phase, two high achieving pre-service teachers and two low achieving pre-service teachers were selected and assigned to teach in four different secondary schools.

The research instruments employed at each phase were as follows. In the Analysis phase, three- round questionnaires using Delphi technique and oral interview were used for the exploration of the reading problems and obtain the suggestion in teaching EFL reading for pre-service teachers. In the Implementation Phase the pre-and post-tests of knowledge of teaching EFL reading and reading ability for pre-service

teachers, pre-service teachers' diaries, exercises, an open-ended questionnaire to investigate the pre-service teachers' attitudes towards the EFL reading instructional lessons were used. In the Follow-up stage of the Implementation phase, the instruments used were pre-service teachers' diaries, researcher's diaries, secondary school students' diaries, and the pre-and post tests of reading ability for secondary school students.

It was found that the three-round questionnaires with the help of Delphi Technique revealed important elements of EFL reading instruction beneficial to pre-service teachers, both as effective EFL readers and as potential EFL reading teachers. The information obtained from the questionnaires using Delphi technique were analyzed and used as a source to develop the content of the lessons.

The efficiency of the EFL reading instructional lessons for pre-service teachers was 75.54/75.50. The pre-service teachers learning achievement on teaching EFL reading significantly increased ($P < .01$). There is a significant relationship between pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL reading and their reading ability ($R = 0.40$). There is a significant relationship between pre-service teachers learning achievement and secondary school students' reading ability ($p < .001$). The pre-service teachers had positive opinion towards the EFL reading instructional lessons and were able to apply the knowledge obtained from the lessons to their classroom teaching practice.

School of English

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Student's Signature_____

Advisor's Signature_____

Co-advisor's Signature_____

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale of the study

Reading is one of the essential communication skills which supports writing, speaking and listening. The ability to read is highly valued and it is important for personal, social, and economic well-being. EFL students who do not have the exposure to English can learn English vocabulary, sentence structures, grammar, how to speak and write in English based on reading. According to Anderson (1999), reading is the most important skill to master. "With strengthened reading skills, ESL/EFL readers will make greater progress and attain greater development in all academic areas" (p.2). Therefore, knowledgeable teachers who provide quality instruction are crucial to helping students become successful readers. In other words, as stated by Strickland, Kamil, Walberg and Manning (2003), if the instruction provided by teachers is ineffective, learners may face with difficulty in learning to read. Accordingly, it is necessary that teaching EFL reading calls for more professional preparation of reading teachers to assist learners in becoming effective readers. In addition, the National Reading Panel (NRP) report concludes that

"professional development has a positive effect on the improvement of literacy instruction. If teachers changed their teaching as a result of professional development, the reading achievement of their students improved." (Strickland et al. 2003, p.21)

The studies conducted by Duffy, Roehler & Putnam (1987) also shown that in teaching reading the more the reading teacher could translate skills into strategies and the clearer they could teach their students, the more students' reading achievement improved. Therefore, the goal of professional development should be to teach teachers to transform knowledge and make judgments about how to adapt knowledge to different instructional situations and different student (Duffy, 2003).

In teacher education, Anders, Hoffman, and Duffy (2000) suggest that literacy instruction at the undergraduate level impacts on practice and philosophy of beginning teachers. A longitudinal study of 10 beginning teachers was conducted by Grossman, Valencia, Evans, Thompson, Martin, and Place (2000). The beginning teachers were followed from their last year of teacher preparation program into their first year of teaching. The findings showed that the teachers used many conceptual and practical tools introduced to them in their undergraduate education courses. It is obvious that the content taught in these method courses is essential. As Anders, Hoffman, and Duffy (2000) posits,

“The good news from these kinds of studies is that future teachers do learn what they are taught. The bad news is that questions of long-term effects and uses—and overall program impact on career development or on teaching effectiveness—have not been adequately address” (p.727)

However, 19,457 studies have been conducted in reading during the past 30 years (Anders, Hoffman, and Duffy, 2000). There were only 140 studies focusing on pre-service reading education. These studies varied in their methodological investigation and research rigor, leaving questions and concerns about the nature of

pre-service reading education. Seven key thesis statements were identified, providing supportive reflections that could prove useful as educators look at adding value to pre-service teacher education in reading. In addition, there have been some questions concerning the benefits of pre-service teacher education programs (Darling-Hammond & Sclan, 1996; Richardson, 1996; Weinstein, 1990). More content knowledge and lesson pedagogy are needed. The lack of changes in pre-service teachers' understandings about teaching and little or no application of learning from the teacher education program are critical.

In Thailand, one of the emphases of education reform in the National Education Act of 1999 is a concern with reform of teachers and educational personnel. It is stated that the teacher quality, pedagogy, and learning process pose serious problems for educational service of the country and have negative impacts on other aspects of the reform (Adireksarn, 2002). To meet the needs for quality teacher, the pre-service teacher education reform which is one of policies on the teacher reform is highlighted as a national policy. Teachers should have equal opportunity to develop their knowledge. In addition, top students should be attracted to the teaching profession because today pre-service teachers are tomorrow's teachers. Consequently, higher education institutions have been offering five year- bachelor degree programs in teacher education since the academic year of 2004. Its purpose is to support basic education according to the Ministry of Education, Religion and Culture's policy. It is expected that before graduation, the pre-service teachers should be provided with adequate knowledge of subject content and strong pedagogical skills including practical experience. However, one concern is whether the knowledge provided to the pre-service teachers in the 5- year program enables the pre-service teachers to teach secondary school students effectively.

As far as teaching EFL reading is concerned, a few studies were conducted on EFL reading comprehension employed by pre-service teachers (La-ongtong, 2002; Chinwonno, 2001). There is no research conducted on the practice of teaching EFL reading in pre-service teacher education in Thailand. The relationship between the content of the course provided for the pre-service teachers and their teaching practice have attracted the attention of the researcher. The researcher believes that if the teachers' role is to help learners to be good readers, the teachers must receive the instruction that prepare them to teach reading effectively.

As the result of the belief, in this present study, the content of EFL reading instruction lessons was designed as an instructional model for pre-service teachers. The pre-service teachers were provided with EFL reading skills, the necessary reading theory including theory of EFL reading instruction. These reading aspects were as a repertoire of techniques that enabled them to learn to read as well as read to learn independently. Therefore, after utilizing the EFL reading instruction it was expected that the knowledge the pre-service teachers received from the instruction improved their reading ability. In addition, when they were assigned to practice teaching, they were able to transmit their knowledge of EFL reading theory as well as methods of teaching EFL reading obtained from the proposed model into their teaching practice.

1.2 Theoretical background

Lyon, Vaasen, and Toomey (1989) state that the teaching of reading is a job for an expert. It is a complex activity. Mastering subject matter content and acquisition of teaching skill is a life-long endeavor for committed professional (California County Superintendents Educational Services Association, 1996). Wham

(1993) conducted the 2-year study focused on pre-service teacher's theoretical orientation to the reading process and examined the relationship of undergraduate course work and the students experiences to these orientations. The findings showed that half the students experienced no changes in theoretical orientation; for those who changed, coursework had greater influence than student teaching. It was also concluded that pre-service teachers should be encouraged to verbalize theories and analyze what they believe about reading in order to construct a philosophy about instruction.

In an analysis of current literature in the area of literacy development conducted by Swafford, Chapman, Rhodes and Kallus (1996), it was determined that content knowledge was important for effective instruction, and simply telling pre-service teachers about current trends in reading instruction was not adequate. Pre-service teacher can learn more about how to teach when they work in the field. In doing so, they had an opportunity to make decisions about instruction and have time to interact with others to reflect and build knowledge and beliefs related to the area of teaching reading. Similar findings were found from the study of pre-service secondary teachers that time must be provided for them to practice and reflect upon what they had learned in order for the content to be internalized (Dynak and Smith,1994). In

addition, Ashton (1996) found that content knowledge must be integrated with field experience for students to develop their pedagogical knowledge.

In reading instruction, Moats (1999) suggests that there are four areas of knowledge and skills for teaching reading to teacher candidates; understanding knowledge of reading psychology and development; understanding knowledge of

language structure which is the content of instruction; applying best practices in all aspects of reading instruction and using validated, reliable, efficient assessments to inform classroom teaching.

Dole and Osborn (2003) show that K-3 teachers need knowledge of the theory and practice of reading instruction, classroom organization, and assessment. For theory and practice, they clarify that teachers need to be provided with in-depth knowledge of reading process and how children learn to read. It is also suggested that in professional development, it is necessary to focus on the five components of reading instruction: phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension. Those five components can frame teachers' instructional decisions about what, when and how to teach. For classroom organization, it is essential for teachers to have knowledge about how to organize and schedule difficult instructional events. In terms of assessment, it is believed that teachers should learn how to give student ongoing feedback about which students are making adequate progress and which students require immediate attention and more practice.

In addition, The National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD, 2000) Report of the National Reading Panel recommends effective reading instruction according to the research review on causes of reading failure and methods of teaching. It was suggested that the prior knowledge and experiences of students should be linked to build on the strengths of students. With content instruction, integrating reading, writing, and critical thinking should be emphasized. In an organization of reading instruction, preparing for reading is very important such as to activates students' prior knowledge by brainstorming or summarizing previous

learning; to surveys headings and graphics; to predicts topics and organizational patterns; to sets goals/purpose for reading; to chooses appropriate strategies.

Considering the aforementioned on recommendations of reading instruction, it can be applicable to reading teachers of English as a foreign or second language. However, the difference between first and second language reading should be taken into consideration. Perkins (1983) explains that while reading process may be considered universal and while there may be similarities in the way that first and second language learners construct meaning in reading and writing, research suggest that there may be a limit placed on second language reading ability, a limit related to language proficiency.

William (1984) comments that one of the principal problems of L2 readers is that their knowledge of the language is incomplete and this may cause difficulties to their reading, although research also shows that L2 readers benefit from their experience and knowledge of the world as well as metacognitive knowledge. Eskey (1986) argues that good readers know the language. The teaching of the language and the training of strategies are then necessary in the L2 reading class. In L2 there is a continuum of 'reading through a language' and 'reading for a language'. William (1984) supports the use of reading through a language, claiming that it not only corresponds to the real life purpose of L1 reading but also to the academic demands of foreign language learners. The reading class should, therefore, aim at developing strategies for achieving the L2 ultimate aim of 'reading to learn' autonomously.

Generalizing several researchers' suggestion, there was no agreement about the content of professional development and how to design professional development programs in reading instructional practice. However, the aim of most second and

foreign language reading program is to turn “learning to read” into “reading to learn” (Carrell,1998). This implies that the reading teacher should help students overcome some of the problems of learning to read and transform a reluctant reader into a strategic reader who read to learn.

In this present study, there are 2 major components in the preparation of pre-service teachers to teach EFL reading : knowledge of reading theory, methods of teaching EFL reading. Firstly, pre-service teachers were encouraged to be aware of the reading theory in order to be able to anticipate the types of processes and potential problems their secondary school students may experience when reading in a second/foreign language (Aebersold and Field, 1997). Secondly, pre-service teachers were provided with teaching skills which were necessary in teaching EFL reading before, during and after reading as well as strengthened reading skills. As a result, the pre-service teachers were able to take a strategic approach to their teaching of reading as their main goal to help students apply effective reading strategies independently. Furthermore, they were able to decide the kinds of appropriate instruction and lessons to offer their own students. In addition, factors to consider when planning a lesson for a reading class, how to select reading materials and how to assess reading were included. Accordingly, the researcher designed the research investigation procedures from this framework.

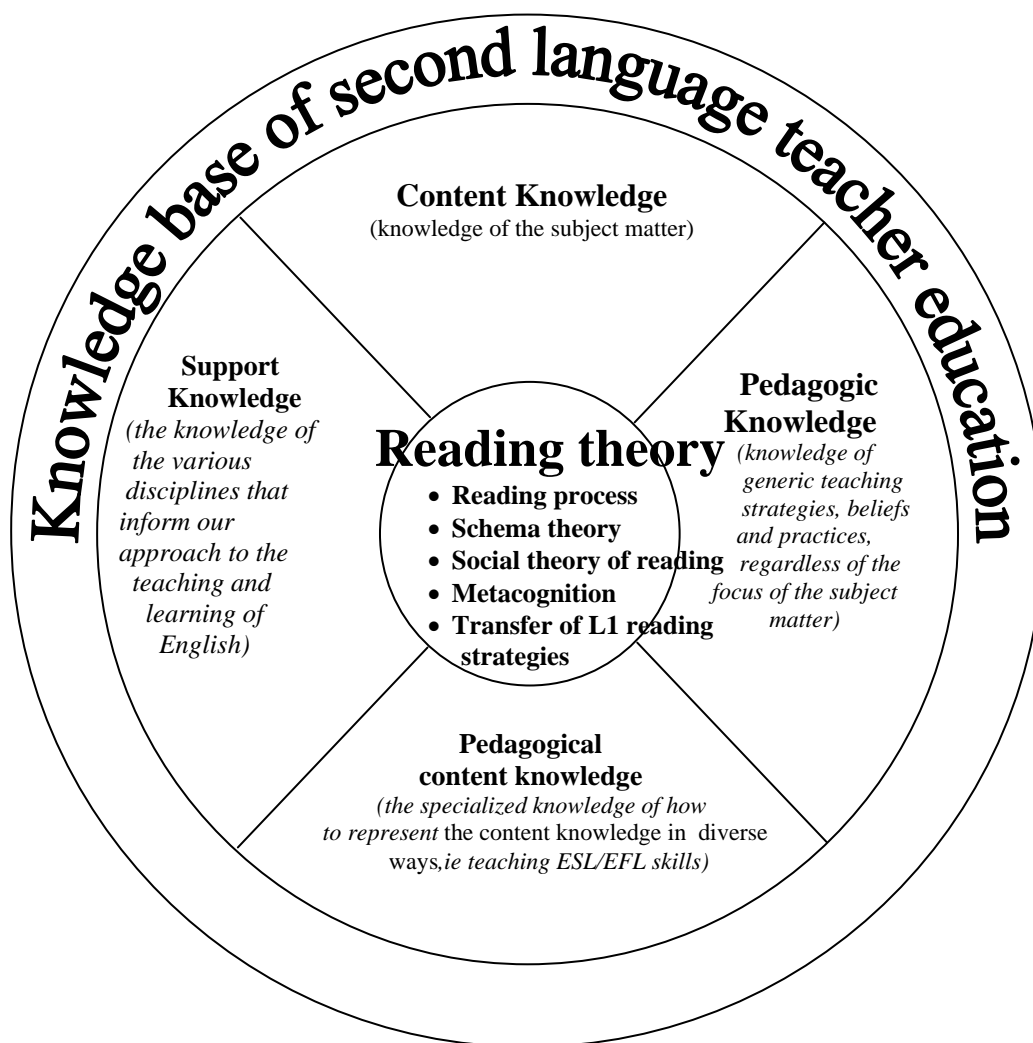


Figure 1.1 Theoretical framework

1.3 Purposes of the study

1. To investigate the reading problems and obtain the suggestion in teaching EFL reading for pre-service teachers.
2. To develop an EFL reading instructional system for pre-service teachers.
3. To examine the efficiency of the lessons of EFL reading instructional model.
4. To determine pre-service teachers' learning achievement after the experiment.

5. To investigate the relationship between pre-service teachers' reading ability and their knowledge of teaching EFL reading.
6. To determine secondary school students' reading ability whether their reading ability would be different when they were instructed by the pre-service teachers whose scores were above and lower than the median.
7. To investigate pre-service teachers' attitudes towards the EFL reading instructional lessons.
8. To investigate how pre-service teachers apply the knowledge obtained from the model to their classroom teaching practice.

1.4 Research questions

1. What are the pre-service teachers' problems in EFL reading and their teaching practice?
2. Does the instruction by using EFL reading lessons improve pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL readings and their reading ability? If so, how is the efficiency of the lessons related to their knowledge of teaching EFL readings and their reading ability?
3. Is there a relationship between pre-service teachers' reading ability and their knowledge of teaching EFL reading?
4. Is there a relationship between high and low pre-service teachers' learning achievement and secondary school students' reading ability?
5. What are pre-service teachers' attitudes towards the EFL reading instructional lessons?

6. What is the impact of the instruction of EFL reading lesson on pre-service teachers' practice?

1.5 Research hypotheses

- H1** : The efficiency of the EFL reading instructional lesson meets the 75/75 prescribed criteria.
- H2** : Pre-service teachers' scores from the post-test of the knowledge of teaching EFL reading is significantly higher than the scores from the pre-test.
- H3** : Pre-service teachers' scores from the post-test of reading ability is significantly higher than the scores from the pre-test.
- H4**: There is a significant relationship between pre-service teachers' reading ability and their knowledge of teaching EFL reading.
- H5**: There is a significant relationship between pre-service teachers' learning achievement in EFL reading instructional lessons and secondary school students' reading ability.

1.6 Significance of the study

As mentioned earlier, there is no research conducted in reading instruction for pre-service teachers in Thailand. There is a concern on the content knowledge providing in English reading instruction whether the content of the training course designed could improve pre-service teachers' reading ability and their teaching practice. The model of EFL reading instruction in this present study was designed to teach non-native pre-service teachers of English with the knowledge of theory of reading and teaching reading including necessary reading strategies. The content of

the course was designed on the basis of both the literature reviewed and the need analysis by using Delphi technique at the beginning of the study. The instructional procedure was presented based on the two aspects: the reading theories and the knowledge based of second language teacher education.

The results of the present study can be used to design appropriate pre-service teacher preparation programs to support pre-service teachers in teaching practice in secondary schools according to the national education reform. Pre-service teachers were expected to develop their ability as teachers in terms of problem solving as well as planning, evaluating and monitoring, encouraging lifelong learning.

1.7 Scope and Limitations of the Study

1.7.1 Subjects

1) The subject selection was limited to the fourth-year undergraduate students majoring in English in the teacher education program at Roi-Et Rajabhat University. There were only 25 students available at Roi-Et Rajabhat University. Therefore, all of them participated as the subject in this study. Accordingly, the result of the study cannot be generalized to the students who are in the same fields at other Rajabhat Universities since the students may have different backgrounds, learning environment and particular needs.

2) After the pre-service teachers were instructed by the researcher using EFL reading instructional lessons, they were categorized into high and low achieving pre-service teachers, according to the median of the total scores from the post-test. On a voluntary basis, two high-achieving pre-service teachers and two low-achieving pre-service teachers were assigned to participate in the follow-up phase of the study

1.7.2 Texts

The reading texts in the EFL reading instructional lessons were expository texts with the content of reading theory and teaching strategies. Thus, findings cannot be generalized to the other genre of text.

1.7.3 Findings

Findings of the study were restricted to the instruction by using EFL reading lessons, reading theory and methods of teaching EFL reading specific in this investigation. Generalizations beyond the model and/or reading theory and methods of teaching EFL reading and reading skills would be speculated.

1.8 Definition of Terms

The research question involves several terms that need to be defined:

Pre-service teachers were the fourth year undergraduates majoring in English enrolling in a five-year undergraduate teacher education program. This program has been offered to prepare the pre-service teachers since the academic year 2004 according to the education reform in the National of Education Act of 1999. The pre-service teachers started to practice English teaching in term two of the academic year 2007.

EFL reading instructional system referred to the instructional system of teaching reading in English as a foreign language used in this study. It was developed by the researcher to instruct pre-service teachers at Roi-Et Rajabhat University. The EFL reading instructional lessons designed included 10 lessons in the theory of reading and methods of teaching EFL reading.

Secondary school students were the students who studied in secondary schools and participated in this study. In the follow up phase, the pre-service teachers taught them EFL reading lessons.

English teacher education program referred to a five-year program with the concentration of English education basing on the reformed curriculum of the academic year 2004.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter discusses models of reading, factors influencing L2 reading, reading approaches, curriculum development in English language teaching, models and the knowledge base of second language teacher education and constructivism. Finally, it ends with reading teacher education.

It may take a span of one's professional time to explain what reading truly is. It seems that reading is not completely understood and cannot be described easily (Aebbersold and Field, 1997; Taverner, 1990; Urquhart and Weir, 1998). Definitions given by the dictionaries, however, do not seem to give a clear answer to the question what it is meant by the word "reading." Since reading is not just the eyes meet the text, but it is a communicative, developmental, and strategic process (Bosma and Blok, 1992). These plain definitions fail to reflect psychological and cognitive aspects and the mental process of how people come up with their understanding through visual inputs such as text or symbol.

Research on reading was first started more than a hundred years ago when Javal's (1979) remarkable study on eye movement during reading was published. Around six decades later, research on reading prominently changed its trend from human physical movement to more in-depth psychological aspects of reading, in order to build explicit models to describe the entire reading process. During the 1930s to the mid-1950s, in which positivism and behaviorism were having influential roles in

language pedagogy, research on reading mainly focused on the outside-view of reading, i.e. having interest in interrelationship of visual inputs such as printed words and word- recognition responses.

However, in the mid-1960s, when cognitive psychology was much developed and supported, the trend of research on reading moved away from visual signal perception and focused more on the process of how the mind of humans makes sense of visual information during fixations (Klein, 1988). Most of reading research in this period aimed on setting model-building framework, in which three modes of information processing, namely, the bottom-up approach, the top-down approach, and the interactive approach, were described. The three approaches to information processing will be described in the following section.

2.1 Models of reading

In this section, three types of reading approach: the bottom-up, the top-down, and the interactive approach will be reviewed.

Before the 1960s, behaviorism was dominant in language teaching, most research in reading was influenced by a behavioristic approach. Most theories about reading and reading models were under the concept of behaviorism, which rejected mentalism in psychology with more emphasis on observability of data. Therefore, events or behaviors that could not be observed, such as reading comprehension, were overlooked. Reading was a process of decoding orthographic signals into mental linguistic codes (Ellis, 1985, 1994; Pearson and Stephen, 1994). This approach focuses on the form and language structures of the printed texts. The texts were then linguistically analyzed into small components with different levels of processing,

namely, *letters* at the first level; *words* at the second level; *sentences* at the third level; and finally *text* at the fourth level. The act of reading was considered to be linear. The process of perception starts from letters, words, sentence, and text, respectively. Therefore, in the sense of behaviorism, reading was considered as translating visual input which is letters on a printed page into an oral code which is sounds of the letters (Pearson and Stephen, 1994). Reading comprehension was conceptually considered as the text (Brown, 1997). This linear and serial process in approaching reading comprehension is called the Bottom-up approach since it starts from the small part of the text, which are the letters, and ends up with the largest part which is the text itself.

Under this approach, **the bottom-up model**, therefore, describes the reading process as linear and unidirectional, starting from building symbols into words, words into sentences and sentences into general knowledge. A number of bottom-up reading models have been proposed. Gough (1972), for example, presented a reading model called “One Second Model of Reading,” which consists of a series of five main stages: the Scanner, the Decoder, the Lexicon, the so-called Merlin, and the Editor. In this model, reading starts when the Scanner scans visual input for known letters and passes the information to the Decoder, which converts the visual code into its equivalent phonological code. The phonological trace is, then, transformed into word with the help of the Lexicon. The information, then, proceeds to the so-called Merlin where the meaning and the grammatical structure of the complete sentence are analyzed. After that, the processed input is passed to the Editor to convert semantic code into muscle contractions capable of driving the muscles of the articulatory system. In line with Gough, Stanovich (1980) proposes that information processing flows in a series of discrete stages, starting with recoding the printed input, and working up from lower to the higher levels of processing.

Another model called Automatic Information Processing Model, in which the bottom-up approach was applied, was presented by LeBerge and Samuel (1974). Reading is considered to be a process of decoding from bottom to top, from part to whole, from surface to deep, and from external to internal.

The bottom-up models, in general, attempt to present a logical explanation of what happens while reading, starting from a small unit to a larger one. Yet, this model seems to overlook the importance of reading comprehension since the main focus is put on the understanding of linguistic knowledge rather than reader's schema, i.e. related cultural background and meaning of the text as a whole. Besides, findings from later empirical research have raised questions about the linear unidirectional nature of the model for a number of reasons.

For instance, the bottom-up reading model fails to explain how the meaning of the word and/or the meaning of the sentence is affected by the context in which it appears. While the readers process the text more than mechanical decoding is working, they also show the use of syntactic knowledge in dealing with unknown words. This suggests that the reading process cannot be a linear progression from lower to higher levels of processing. In spite of this inadequacy, the model accounts for an active role of the readers in using their knowledge about the rules of the language in decoding the text.

In the 1960s, a number of problematic points of the bottom-up approach were identified, while interest in research into a constructive role in reading was blooming. Researchers began to realize that reading was not as text-driven as it had been viewed in the behaviorism-based bottom-up approach. Researchers in the field of reading have observed that while the visual input plays an important role in reading comprehension, the non-visual information stored in the reader's mind even play a

greater role in reading comprehension (Goodman, 1970; Smith, 1985). The growing interest in constructivism in reading has led to the development of a new model to reading comprehension named “**the top-down model.**” Reading research based on this model has signified a shift of the focus of reading research from text-driven to data-driven or reader-driven (Carrell, 1988; Klein, 1988).

Based on the top-down approach, readers set hypotheses about words they are going to encounter and use only just enough visual information to test their hypotheses (Goodman, 1967). In the view of Goodman, reading is a psycholinguistic guessing game. The goal of reading is to construct meaning from text with the use of sound-symbol correspondences as well as syntactic and semantic cues. Readers normally do not read every word they encounter, but rather scan through the text in order to guess the meaning of the words or phrases. Though this view of guessing is at the lower level of letter and word recognition rather than an overall one, it emphasizes that readers contribute to meaning more than the printed text does.

Smith (1985) adds that reading comprehension depends on two kinds of information: (1) visual information, which is perceived through the printed text or symbols; and (2) non-visual information, which is already obtained by the reader’s understanding of relevant language, background knowledge of the subject matter, and their general ability in reading. He asserts that the relationship between visual and non-visual information is inverse. In other words, the more visual information the reader perceives, the less non-visual information is needed to comprehend the text, and vice versa.

In this approach, reading is not viewed as decoding the orthographic forms into sound signal as suggested in the bottom-up approach. Reading, on the other hand,

is treated as a process that begins with what the reader has already known, not the visual input from the text (Devine, 1986). Since the top-down approach to reading relies mainly on a reader's schema in reading, this can be one of its major drawbacks. When reading topics which are completely new to some readers, it is inefficient, impractical and perhaps impossible to make predictions about the reading.

In contrast to the bottom up model, the top down model starts from already-known information stored in the reader's mind to construct meaning of the text. Some reading scholars, however, believe that effective reading in either L1 or L2 requires both the bottom-up and top-down approaches operating interactively (Carrell, 1988). Goodman (1981) states that while reading, the reader uses print as input and produces meaning as output. However, the reader also forms input as well. He interacts with the text and uses some of the clues in the text selectively as necessary to construct meaning.

Likewise, Rumelhart (1994) asserts that successful reading is a perceptual and a cognitive process, as well as being a process of interaction among various sources of information. Reading is a process of understanding written language. This process starts when the eyes meet the printed text, and ends when the reader constructs the meaning and perceives the idea which the author intends to convey. To achieve this, readers, especially skilled ones, must be able to employ sensory, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic information interactively to carry out his reading task. For those reading theorists who recognized the importance of both the text and the reader in the reading process, an amalgamation of the two emerged as **the interactive model**.

The view about reading as an interactive process can be well described by the Rumelhart (1977) Model. In this model, the reading begins when visual signals or

graphic inputs are perceived and stored in a Visual Information Store (VIS). The information is then extracted for relevant features by a Feature Extraction Device, and forwarded to a Pattern Synthesizer. The Pattern Synthesizer, then, activates Syntactical Knowledge, Semantic Knowledge, Orthographic Knowledge, and Lexical Knowledge to process the obtained visual information, and consequently produces the most probable interpretation. This process enables higher-level processing to influence lower-level processing. This model emphasizes that the reading process is the result of the parallel application of sensory and non-sensory sources of information.

Another influential interactive model of reading was introduced by Stanovich (1980) who argues that readers are dependent on the concepts of both the bottom-up and top-down approaches simultaneously as well as the reading purpose, motivation, schema and knowledge of the subject. His model is basically constructed on the same ground as Rumelhart's but with the addition of a "compensatory mode" together with the interaction of the bottom-up and top-down processing. The Stanovich model holds a key concept that a process at any level can compensate for deficiencies at any other level of reading. Another essential idea for this model is that the interactive models of reading are based on the assumption that the input information is synthesized simultaneously from several sources of knowledge such as syntactical knowledge, semantic knowledge, orthographic knowledge, and lexical knowledge, as in Rumelhart's Model. If there is a deficit in any knowledge source, then the rest of the knowledge sources will communicate with each other to solve the problem. In other words, the rest of the knowledge sources will compensate for one another. With this feature, Stanovich's Model is alternatively called the "interactive-compensatory reading model."

From the discussion of the reading models above, it has shown that over the past three decades several models of reading were proposed. The focus has been on L1 reading. In the late 1960s and early 1970s, second or foreign language reading was viewed principally as a decoding process: the reader attempted to reconstruct the writer's intended meaning by recognizing the letters and words as meaningful units (Rivers, 1968, Plaister, 1968, Yorio, 1971). Many early pedagogical suggestions focus on the role of vocabulary in reading; the specialists making these suggestions simply assume that foreign language readers process meaning from words in the text.

Grabe (1991) has observed that two efforts to translate the top-down theory into ESL contexts have been extremely influential on ESL reading theory and instruction from the late 1970s to the present. First, Clarke and Silberstein (1977) encourage teachers to schematize their students to text content and organizational structure with pre-reading activities and to have students guess meaning from context. However, they also suggested that teachers provide students with strategies for dealing with difficult syntax and vocabulary. Second, Coady (1979) reinterpreted Goodman's model for L2 reading, arguing that, while beginners might need to focus on word identification, more proficient readers should concentrate on the use of prior knowledge and minimize the use of information in the text for confirming hypotheses and predicting. While Coady's work might be termed top-down-dominant, it nevertheless acknowledged a developmental element in L2 reading, a dimension that was to be developed more than a decade later.

Seeking an explanation for the dominance of top-down conceptualizations in the L2 reading literature, Paran (1996) speculates that there may be a time lag between developments in psychology and linguistics and developments in L2

teaching. Stanovich's (1980) interactive-compensatory model appears highly relevant. It might particularly apply to readers at relatively low levels of L2 proficiency who need to compensate for this deficiency.

Research evidence of the importance of word recognition in L1 reading shows a common finding which has been that skilled readers read words to identify them. For instance, while Biemiller's (1970) developmental study found increasing attention to graphic formation over a period of eight months in a class of children aged seven, Weber (1970) found greater attention to graphic information among better readers. Allington and Strange (1977), using a variant of an oral reading task on children aged ten, also found that their good readers paid greater attention to graphic information than their poor readers.

Juel (1980), researching the reading of children aged seven and eight, found that good readers were relatively context-driven. Likewise, Perfetti and Roth (1981) found good readers were less reliant on contextual information than poor readers. They argue that good readers decode faster than poor readers and so word recognition takes place before reliance on context becomes necessary; good readers can therefore be at once more sensitive to context and yet less reliant on it, due to the availability of information from other knowledge sources.

Similarly, Oakhill and Garnham (1988) claim that good readers may have greater awareness of context but that they do not need to use it while reading. West and Stanovich (1978) found that their less skilled child subjects relied more on context than their more skilled readers. They argue that the use of context supplements poor decoding skills. Parenthetically, this finding may well have led to Stanovich's (1980) interactive-compensatory model, a possible example of a research finding informing the evolution of reading theory.

In terms of contextual processing, while top-down theorists assume that fluent readers make considerable use of all higher level processes, Stanovich (1980) shows that good readers rely more on context for word recognition than poor readers. Later, Stanovich (1982) reviews twenty- two studies, none of which showed that good readers use context to help word recognition more than poor readers. However, as Stanovich and Stanovich (1995) observe, there is considerable evidence that good readers are better able to use contextual information to facilitate their comprehension processes (Baker and Brown 1984, Stanovich and Cunningham 1991).

To sum up, at first, there was a stark division between those who believed that reading involves mainly top-down processing and requires mainly bottom up processing. Later models, developed with the benefit of an increasing number of research findings, posited that reading is essentially an interactive process between reader and text. In the teaching of reading, some time must be devoted in the reading class to bottom-up concerns such as the rapid and accurate identification of lexical and grammatical forms. Even students who have developed strong top-down skills in their native languages may not be able to transfer these higher-level skills to a SL context until they have developed a stronger bottom-up foundation of basic identification skills. Some time must also be devoted in the reading class to top-down concerns such as reading for global meaning , developing a willingness to take chances and developing appropriate schemata for the proper interpretation of texts. In short, for second language readers, especially, both top-down and bottom-up skills and strategies must be developed conjointly since both contribute directly to the successful comprehension of text.

2.2 Factors influencing L2 reading

As reviewed above, the reading process is complex, involving the reader, the text, and the interaction between the reader and text. Turning to L2 reading, to understand this process it is important to explore what is going on while reading and consider factors influencing L2 reading. This part addresses some of the factors that influence reading in L2 /foreign language . The following factors should be examined.

2.2.1 L2 deficiency

One of the factors concerning second/foreign language (L2) reading research is that findings from research in L1 cannot be directly applied to L2 reading situations as L1 and L2 reading are distinctive in a number of perspectives. Firstly, L2 learners begin their L2 reading process with inferior language ability to L1 readers. Grabe (1991) indicates that L1 readers acquire approximately 5,000 to 7,000 words and good linguistic knowledge of grammar and structure before they formally start their reading lessons in schools. Read (2000) also estimates that fluent L1 readers have a vocabulary size of 10,000 to 100,000 words. L2 readers, in contrast, do not possess this substantial advantage. They start reading with relatively less knowledge of vocabulary and grammar as well as structures.

Several studies have provided evidence of the importance of language proficiency level in successful L2 reading. Analyzing oral reading errors in L1 and L2 readers of French, Cziko (1980) found that the less proficient L2 speakers of French in his study relied more on graphic information than either the more proficient speakers or native speaker of French. Using oral reading errors and cloze test results, Clark (1998) found that limited control of the language ‘short circuits’ the good

readers' system causing them to revert to poor reading strategies when confronted with difficult or confusing tasks in L2.

The study of Davis and Bistodeau (1993) found support for the 'short circuit' hypothesis. Using both L1 and L2 subjects introspecting concurrently with reading texts that had each sentence typed on a separate card, they found strong evidence to suggest that there was more bottom-up processing, especially with regards to vocabulary items, among the L2 readers than the L1 readers. However, they also noted that the L1 readers tend to express irritation with the writer when they could not understand something whereas the L2 readers tend to blame themselves for lack of comprehension. This variation in affective response may mean that L2 readers make more effort to decode text for comprehension than their L1 counterparts.

Royer and Carlo (1991) conclude that there is transfer of reading skills from L1 to L2 and that teaching reading skills in the native language may, in fact, facilitate the transfer. In other words, the more the reader has learned to be an adaptable, questioning, comprehension-monitoring reader in L1, the more likely that these behaviors will be exhibited in L2. The unskilled readers, will not have such skills, but can improve skills in their native language through reading skills and strategy instruction as shown in the result of the investigation of Anderson (1991), Block (1986), Hosenfeld (1977), Knight Padron & Waxman (1985).

Cummins (1985) states that the development of skills in L1 can transfer positively to L2. He points out that there seems to be an underlying cognitive academic proficiency that is common across languages. Transfer of academic skills and strategies occurs between the languages. This transfer is related to the level of proficiency attained by bilingual or second language learners. There may be a level

of proficiency that students must attain in both languages. While the studies to date in this area involved readers who were proficient in their L1, there is little information about the extent of that proficiency.

The differences in first and second language reading have led to the question of whether L2 readers read in the same way as L1 readers. This issue was first formulated by Alderson (1984) who posited two hypotheses: a) Reading ability in L2 is correlated to and is a result of reading ability in L1 and b) Reading ability in L2 is correlated to and is a result of L2 proficiency. These two hypotheses posed the provocative question of whether reading in a foreign language is “a reading problem or a language problem?” His survey points to both directions. Some researchers argued that second language reading depends crucially on L1 reading ability (Cummins, 1980). In this view L2 reading ability developed in L1 can be transferred to L2 and L2 reading problems are caused either by poor reading skills or failure in transferring them. Other groups of researchers, quoted by Alderson (1984), argued that L2 reading depends largely on the reader’s language proficiency (Macnamara, 1970; Yorio, 1971; Cziko, 1980).

A study by Clarke (1979), investigating whether proficient L1 readers transfer their skills to L2, also suggests no conclusive answers to this question. He noticed that good readers perform better than the poor ones in both languages, suggesting that there is some transfer of skills from L1 to L2 reading. However, limited language proficiency seems to exert a powerful influence on L2 reading, indicating an important role for language proficiency. Clarke thus proposed a short circuit hypothesis, claiming that low proficiency in L2 results in non-transfer of good reading strategies from L1 to L2.

Carrell (1991) re-examined Alseron's question in a large scale study. She distributed tests of L1 and L2 reading ability to a group of native speakers of Spanish and a group of students studying Spanish. The results showed that the native Spanish readers performed significantly better on the Spanish text than on the English ones, and the native English readers also performed significantly better on the English texts. Both first language reading ability and second language proficiency have significant effects on second language reading ability. Carrell, however, also found that in the native Spanish group, L1 reading ability was more important than knowledge of English (L2); but in the native English group, knowledge of Spanish (L2) was more important than L1 reading ability. Carrell suggested two possible explanations for this finding. Firstly, the outcome was due to the difference between the environments of the two groups of subjects. The first group was native speakers of Spanish using English as a second language whereas the other was a group of native speakers of English using Spanish as a foreign language. The other plausible explanation was in terms of the subjects' proficiency in the second language. She related this explanation to Clarke's short circuit hypothesis and a language threshold. Carrell, however, did not measure the subjects' general L2 proficiency in this study.

Bossers (1991) reports an empirical study with Turkish learners of Dutch as a second language. The students read passages both in L1 and L2 and answered multiple choice questions. His findings were in line with that of Carrell (1991). It was found that both L1 reading skill and L2 knowledge influenced reading comprehension scores. However, the knowledge of Dutch (L2) grammar and vocabulary was more important than level of reading skill in Turkish (L1). The finding also suggested that, at an initial stage, knowledge of the second language plays a dominant role but, at a

more advanced level, L1 reading becomes a prominent factor. The findings strongly support the threshold hypothesis.

Bernhardt and Kamil (1995) examined adult English speakers reading and working on comprehension tests both in English and Spanish. They claim that L2 linguistic knowledge is a more powerful predictor of reading ability than the level of L1 literacy. The former accounts for more than 30 per cent of the variance, compared to 20 per cent of the latter. They point out that the two factors are related to reading ability in L2. Evidently difficulties in L2 reading seem to be a dual problem of acquiring sufficient knowledge of the language itself and learning to use L1 reading skills in L2. However, below the threshold level, language problems were more influential. Alderson (2000) responds to his original question (1984) that the issue of a reading problem or a language problem is an ambiguous one and further argues that both factors of language knowledge and reading knowledge are vital. However, there is evidence that in L2 reading, knowledge of the second language is a more important factor than first-language reading abilities. He also agrees that a linguistic threshold exists and must be crossed before L1 reading ability can transfer to the L2 context. This language threshold, however, varies from task. It is highly dependent on task types and text difficulty; the more demanding the task, the higher the language threshold.

L2 readers, nevertheless, have an advantage over first language readers in the sense that most of them start reading in L2 at older ages so they are more mature and have considerable more knowledge of the world, which helps compensate for their linguistic deficiency. This advantage should be taken into account and be promoted.

2.2.2 Schema theory

Schema is a term used by cognitive scientists to describe how people process, organize, and store information in their minds (Widdowson, 1983). Similarly, Howard (1987) adds that schema is used to model how knowledge is represented in human minds and how it facilitates the understanding of the text through the use of one's world knowledge. Vacca and Vacca (1999) propose that schemata reflect the experience, conceptual understanding, attitudes, skills, and strategies that one brings to aid one's perception of a text. Moreover, schemata also represent networks of information that people use when faced with new stimuli, events, and situations; they, as a consequence, have been called "the building blocks of cognition" (Rumelhart, 1982).

Rumelhart (1980) highlights three main features of schemata. The first feature he points out is that schemata potentially embed an indefinite number of conceptual components and elementary units which serve as slots. Each slot contains relevant information that is obtained through individual experience. This experience is retrieved from memory when the schema is activated. A second feature is that schemata represent knowledge. They are designed to demonstrate how knowledge is represented in the human mind, and the degree of knowledge about one same thing may vary from person to person due to the different extent of their background knowledge. A final feature of schemata is that they are active processes. A schema may either be conceptually driven as in the top-down approach or data-driven as in the bottom-up process. When it is activated, it will evaluate the incoming information to finally provide necessary guidance for information processing.

Based on core features of schemata, schema theory offers an explanation of the construction and representation of meaning in human mind. It holds a strong belief that comprehension can be achieved through the use of one's knowledge of the world (Anderson et al, 1977, in Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983). In the perspective of the Schema theory, to understand a text is an interactive process between the reader's background knowledge and the text. In order for one to comprehend a text, the ability to relate the textual material to one's own knowledge is required. The process of comprehension involves more than relying solely on one's linguistic knowledge. Schema theory also posits that while reading is taking place, the bottom-up processing and top-down processing of reading occur simultaneously. Additionally, in the Schema theory, skill in reading depends on the efficient interaction between linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world. Readers understand what they read because they are able to take the stimulus beyond its graphic representation and assign its membership to an appropriate group of concepts already stored in the memory. During the reading process, the reader brings information, knowledge, emotion, experience, and culture to the printed word to make decisions about what something means.

Obviously, schema theory has shown that successful readers use prior knowledge of the content of the text to aid in comprehension. Therefore, a recent approach to teaching L2 reading emphasizes pre-reading preparation of L2 students in a reading lesson plan. Working with students before they begin reading a text help them get more involved. First, students learn background information to activate useful schemata (Johnson, 1982). Understanding the text beginning, students can then recognize textual landmarks as they meet them (Hudson, 1982). Finally, confident students are more likely to take risks in guessing words' meanings and anticipating

text content. They will be better strategy users while they read. Just as Tierney and Pearson (1985) put on the top of the eight suggestions for improving classroom practices. Intelligent selection and preparation before reading can make students' reading more efficient and enjoyable.

Alyousef (2005) expresses that, contemporary reading tasks, unlike the traditional materials, involve three-phase procedures: pre-, while-, and post- reading stages. He agrees with Zhang (1993) who briefs that comprehension is facilitated by explicitly introducing schemata through pre-reading activities. Thus the pre-reading stage helps in activating the relevant schema. Most teachers tend to neglect the pre-reading procedure claiming that there is not enough time. In fact, pre-reading activities motivate students before the actual reading takes place. For example, teachers can ask students questions that arouse their interest while previewing the text.

Similarly, Abraham (2002) states that an interactive approach “demands that the teachers activate the students' schema” during the pre-reading phase by helping students recognize the knowledge that they already have about the topic of a text such as through discussion of titles, subheadings, photographs, identifying text structure, previewing, etc. Such activities are called “pre-reading strategies”. Orasanu (1986) explicates the notion of “schema” or background knowledge which can be thought of as a framework containing slots to be filled by incoming text information. For example, if a reader is presented with a text about going on vacation, he or she would likely have a slot in the vacation schema for packing a suitcase. Text statements about folding clothes or carrying bags could then fill the slot. If a reader did not have a vacation schema with a "suitcase-packing slot", the information about clothes and bags might not be readily understood.

The aim of the while-reading stage, or interactive process is to develop students' ability in tackling texts by developing their linguistic and schematic knowledge. Hedge (2003) argues that although some oppose the interactive activities carried out during the while-reading phase, there are only a few research studies that show the effects of intervention and their outcomes. Moreover, many students report positively on the usefulness of while-reading activities. On the contrary, Paran (1996) believes that modern interactive reading models enable L2 readers to be less reliant on top-down processing and enable them to achieve greater reliance on bottom-up strategies as they become more proficient. It seems that teachers can use a balanced approach to teaching reading by incorporating both top-down and bottom-up processes, provided they are given flexibility in choosing the reading tasks.

Numerous studies have investigated the role of schemata in reading comprehension. In terms of background knowledge, Steffensen, Joag-Dev and Anderson (1984) presented separate letters about American and Indian weddings to university students whose native culture was either American or Indian. Wedding customs differ in America and India and subjects tend to recall information that was relevant to their culture. In addition, when recalling information about a culturally unfamiliar text, subjects tend to distort information and insert ideas from their own culture to overcompensate for absent schemata. Subjects were also found to elaborate the passages related to their own cultural experiences, and to read them faster. Koh (1986) also related understanding to the reader's prior knowledge and found that a combination of linguistic proficiency and prior knowledge is important for comprehension. The lack of either one, according to Koh, is sometimes compensated for by the presence of the other.

In terms of formal and linguistic schema and text comprehension, many studies have also examined the role of text schemata in relation to readers' comprehension. Most of these studies employed similar methodologies in that participants read text and then recalled information, for the most part in writing. For the most part, these studies suggested that different types of text structure affected comprehension and recall (Bean, Potter, & Clark, 1980; Carrell, 1984). Some studies also showed that there may have differences among language groups as to which text structures facilitated recall better (Carrell, 1984). For example, Carrell's (1984) study showed that Arabs remembered best from expository texts with comparison structures, next best from problem-solution structures and collections of descriptions, and least well from causation structures. Asians, however, recalled best from texts with either problem-solution or causation structures, and least well from either comparison structures or collections of descriptions. These results; however, must be taken as suggestive as further studies examining the interaction of language background with text structure are needed. Regardless of these findings, as previously stated, it is important to recognize that organizational structures in text will differ across cultures.

Stone's (1985) study examined whether language patterns found in English, which differed from those in Spanish, would have a significant effect on ESL learners' comprehension while reading English text. Average fifth grade readers were randomly assigned to either an initial Spanish-speaking group or an initial English speaking group. Nine stories were developed for the study, three for each of three different language patterns categories: similar, moderately similar, and dissimilar. Measures included a retelling and comprehension questions. Results showed that on

the retelling measures, the lowest scores were found on stories that were most dissimilar from the students' initial language, and oral reading errors increased as language pattern similarity decreased. The results support the contention that texts violating readers' expectations about language patterns can have disruptive effects.

Moreover, the field of contrastive rhetoric initiated by the work of Kaplan (1966) has also shed some light on the relationship of textual structure, textual schemata, and reading comprehension. Its areas of focus are the role of the first language conventions of discourse and rhetorical structure on L2 usage, as well as cognitive and cultural dimensions of transfer, particularly in relation to writing. For the most part, contrastive rhetoric identifies problems in composition encountered by L2 writers and by referring to rhetorical strategies of the first language, attempts to explain them. It is clear that such differences in text structure can lead to difficulties in reading.

Mauranen (1992) examined cohesion in both Finnish and English economic texts and found that Finnish writers employed relatively little metalanguage for organizing text and orienting the reader. In contrast, native English speakers used plenty of devices for orienting the reader in terms of what is to follow in the text and how the reader should understand the different sections of the text. This pattern was found in their writing as well. Finnish writers used less demonstrative references than native English writers. Lindeberg (1988), in her examination of text linguistic features, found differences between Finnish and English writers in terms of topic development and the functions of verbs. Numerous differences have also been found in terms of writing styles between American-English and other languages. American students for example will often comment on the more theoretical and abstract essays

of French writers whose essays lack the details and rhetorical patterns found in the American essay tradition. Chinese writing is often described as being verbose, ornamental, and lacking in coherence from a Western point of view, while Japanese writing has been noted for differences in text organization. It appears that they prefer a specific-to-general pattern placing the general statement at the end of paragraphs (Connor, 1996).

Lastly, it is important to point out that the differences between the writing systems and rhetorical structures of the native language and the target language may be another factor that influence reading. Orthographic systems vary widely and while some languages may contain many numbers of symbols, other languages contain a limited number. For example, Chinese calligraphy is a writing system with numerous symbols and one that has strong aesthetic elements thereby differing from English. Arabic also has a unique writing system in that it is written and read from right to left. These kinds of differences in writing systems can pose difficulties for second language readers. Undoubtedly, students reading in a second language will encounter such difficulties not faced by first language readers. In summary, teachers must therefore be explicit about the structures of the materials the students are reading in the L2 class through which students can become aware of culturally shaped expectations about text and language.

2.2.3 Social theory of reading

One area related to the discussion of prior knowledge, specifically content knowledge, is cultural and social environment. Many of the social reading theories (Street, 1984; Cook-Gumperz, 1986; and Barton, 1994) emphasize that reading has to do with human relations and purposes and that the way people derive

meaning is based on their interpretations of these aspects of the text. In addition, the way in which written texts are produced in daily social life means that they do not exist as isolated entities but often have previous histories or relations with other similar texts, which influence what choices of language are made in any one text (Hood, Solomon and Burns, 1996).

Similarly, Eskey (2005) agrees that the learners must be taught to read in some particular culture that employs written language for some particular purposes. In other words, the teaching of reading should include an emphasis on the context, purpose and structure of the text, the nature of written language, and the linguistic features of the language used in the text. The readers are relying on their previous social knowledge or other reading about the topic or issues with which the text deals. Because of these factors, reading was described as a contextualized or 'situated' social practice (Hood, Solomon and Burns, 1996). Accordingly, it is suggested that classroom discussion focusing on the relationship of the text content to the reader's own cultural and social experience should be included in reading instruction.

Many researchers have examined how sociocultural theory applies to classroom settings. These researchers support the value of sociocultural principles in students learning and development. Almasi (1994) studied the effects of peer-led and teacher-led discussion of literature on fourth graders sociocognitive conflicts over a period of 9 weeks. The students were matched into 2 groups on the basis of their reading comprehension scores, and they showed no difference in their ability to recognize and resolve conflicts prior to the study. On day 1 of each week, stories were introduced. On day 2, students read the entire story silently and recorded personal reactions, comments, and questions in their journals. On day 3 of each week, group

discussion of the story occurred. The peer-led group was decentralized and designed to facilitate optimal interaction among students as they constructed meaning from text. In the teacher-led groups, teachers directed discussion by asking students comprehension questions. The researchers found that children in the peer-led discussion group were better able to recognize and resolve episodes of sociocognitive conflict than children in the teacher-led group.

Dixon-Krauss (1995) found that students improved most in word recognition when peer social dialogue was integrated with teacher support to develop students' reading, writing, and thinking. The researcher matched 12 pairs of students, a more capable reader with a less capable reader. Each pair of students talked to each other about their reading and writing with teacher support. In reading, one student helped her or his partner by telling some strategies in sounding out the words, or constructing the meaning such as telling the partner to look at the pictures, or asking questions about the details of the stories. In writing, the students wrote about the book they had read, gave those journal writings to their partners, and the partners wrote the feedback. Teacher supported the students by setting mini-lessons and demonstrating how to sound out the words or interpreting the meaning of text by thinking out loud. In doing so, the teachers' assistance led to improvement in students' writing and use of a variety of strategies to share text meaning in verbal dialogue.

Placing reading in a social context mutually leads to literacy their lives will determine their approach to immediate reading task. Culture, as Parry (1996) states, is a dominant factor in the learner's choices of strategies in reading. The relationship between cultural membership and the differing reading strategies used by individuals from varied societies were examined. It was concluded that the students from Nigeria

and China, due to different experiences of the second literacy, had quite different choices of strategy. Another study as well by Kambhampati (2003) suggests that readers' attitudes towards their home language and beliefs about reading do affect reading behavior. It seems likely that once readers can read in one language, this knowledge transfers to any other language they learn to read. Koda (1996) pointed out that connections between words of the text and the context brought to the reading task by the reader are 'bidirectional' in that they interact and ultimately influence text comprehension overall. It was found that when students learn to read in L2 after the L1, there is greater probability that L1 experience effects interact with other factors in shaping L2 processing procedure.

2.2.4 Metacognition

Metacognition or metacognitive knowledge is a complicated concept and its definition is multifarious (Brown et al, 1983; Hacker, 1998). Flavell (1976) who was among the first researchers to use these terms define metacognition as one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes and products or anything related to it. He also adds that metacognition includes the active monitoring and consequent regulation in collaboration of information processing activities. In addition to Flavell's definitions, Baird (1990) asserts that metacognition refers to the knowledge, awareness, and control of one's own learning.

These terms are used widely in educational psychology and cognitive psychology to mean 'thinking about thinking', or regulation about execution of cognition (Baker and Brown 1984, Flavell 1987). Metacognition can be subdivided into three categories: knowledge of person variables; task variables, and strategy variables (Flavell, 1987). McNeil (1984) states that learners who have solid

metacognitive knowledge in their first language—the ability for readers to be aware of their reading purposes, know how to achieve those purposes and to perform appropriate behaviors to enhance their comprehension—will apply such knowledge in second language learning and reading.

Carrell (1998) states that the use of reading strategies requires knowledge of strategies, and motivation to use them. Metacognitive ability includes both the knowledge of cognition: declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge, or ‘knowing what, how and why’, and the regulation of cognition which is the ability to plan, monitor, test, revise and evaluate strategies (Tindale, 2003).

However, knowing that and how are not sufficient guarantees that learners will apply strategies appropriately. They also need to learn when and why such strategies should be employed to achieve different purposes. Paris *et al.* (1984) refer to this knowledge as ‘conditional knowledge’ – ‘knowledge why’. This conditional knowledge is necessary to readers since it helps them know whether or not the strategies they choose to deal with their reading tasks are appropriate as well as whether or not they are working effectively (Carrell, 1996), that is to say, it helps the readers evaluate their choices of strategies.

Anderson (1991) emphasizes the crucial roles of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in reading, asserting that successful reading comprehension is not simply a matter of knowing what strategy to use, but the reader must also know how to use it successfully and to orchestrate its use with other strategies. It is not sufficient to know about strategies, but a reader must also be able to apply them strategically.

This significance of cognitive and metacognitive strategies suggests that the learners should be trained in both of them, together with other essential reading

strategies that help equip them with the ‘knowing that’ and ‘knowing how’. These will, in turn, assist their ‘knowing why’. All of these strategies are essential since skilled readers have to be able to apply appropriate strategies to different comprehension goals. Paris *et al.* (1984) view good readers as good problem solvers who select reasonable goals and generate suitable means to accomplish them.

Van den Broek and Kremer (2000) also agree that it is not sufficient to simply teach learners reading strategies, since this does not result in their being able to transfer the knowledge about strategies to other contexts. They emphasize that, for transfer to occur across time and context metacognitive awareness is requisite. Readers must be aware of factors that affect strategy use and be able to monitor comprehension as well as detect whether comprehension is achieved.

Metacognitive strategies play an important role in comprehension monitoring. They assist the readers in identifying and solving reading problems. Wagoner (1983) identifies comprehension monitoring as a part of metacognition, which is viewed as an executive function, essential for competent reading, which directs readers’ cognitive processes as they strive to make sense of incoming textual information. Comprehension monitoring consists of any behaviors that allow readers to evaluate their comprehension, deciding whether it is occurring and how to take compensatory actions. These behaviors include evaluating one’s level of understanding, planning how to solve comprehension problems, and regulating comprehension. Good comprehenders continuously monitor comprehension and use appropriate strategies to improve comprehension (Baker and Brown, 1984; Casanave, 1988).

Carrell (1987) also argues for the roles of metacognitive skills in reading for a) clarifying the purposes of reading, that is, understanding both the explicit and

implicit task demands, (b) identifying the important aspects of a message, (c) focusing attention on the major content rather than trivia, (d) monitoring on-going activities to determine whether comprehension is occurring, (e) engaging in self-questioning to determine whether goals are being achieved, and (f) taking corrective action when failures in comprehension are detected.

In fact comprehension monitoring operates rather automatically, especially in good readers, and it is unobservable until some triggering events such as comprehension failure occur (Baker and Brown, 1984). Good readers, however, seem to have better awareness of whether comprehension is taking place or a comprehension problem has arisen. Findings from research show that poor comprehender's problems arise partly because they fail to monitor their comprehension or at least because they make less use of monitoring strategies (Baker and Brown, 1984 ; Block 1992).

Carell (1989) maintains that reading instruction should provide explicit information that enables readers to practice this metacognitive control. Strategy training implies that successful reading depends on appropriate strategy use and that learners can improve their reading comprehension by being trained to use effective reading strategies. Furthermore, strategy instruction develops student knowledge about the reading process, introduces students to specific strategies, and provides them with opportunities to discuss and practice strategies while reading.

Studies conducted on reading instruction and reading strategies (Bereiter & Bird, 1985; Carrell, 1985; Carrell, Pharis and Liberto, 1989; Cotterall, 1990; Palincsar and Brown, 1984) indicated that non-proficient L1 and L2 readers either do not possess knowledge about strategies or mainly engage in bottom-up strategies. The

findings of these studies also indicate that strategy instruction with a focus on comprehension monitoring can help less skilled readers overcome their difficulties in reading. The types of strategy instruction used in these studies mainly consist of teacher modelling of the strategies followed by student practice in the form of group work.

Bereiter and Bird in their study in the L1 context (1985) identified four repair strategies: restatement, re-reading, demanding relationship, and problem formulation. Using these four strategies, they conducted an experimental study which compared the effects of instruction consisting of modelling the reading strategies and explanation to instruction only modeling the strategies. The "modeling-plus-explanation" instruction included an explanation of situations in which the four strategies mentioned above could be used as well as the modeling of these strategies. In other words, the students were both helped to understand and imitate these repair strategies which led to comprehension monitoring. As a result of the study, the experimental group receiving modeling and explanation scores significantly higher on the comprehension post-test than the control group receiving only modeling. Bereiter and Bird concluded that students will not readily acquire reading strategies simply by imitating models; they also need comprehension-monitoring activities which consist of recognising comprehension problems and selecting repair strategies.

In another study in the L1 context, Palincsar and Brown (1984) analysed the effects of helping young L1 learners with special problems by teaching them to monitor comprehension. They called this instruction "Reciprocal Teaching." It trained the students in the use of four strategies: clarifying, identifying the main idea of a section of text, summarizing, and predicting. During instruction, the teacher modeled

the use of each strategy. Then the students were divided into groups and a student was assigned the role of the teacher and modeled the use of these four strategies as they read a text and conducted a group discussion on the use of these strategies. At the end of the instruction, the students were given a comprehension test. The experimental group which was exposed to this particular instruction scored higher than the control group which was not exposed to it.

Carrell et al. (1989) conducted a study in the L2 context to examine the combined effects of cognitive and metacognitive strategy instruction on reading comprehension. High-intermediate level adult ESL students of varied native language backgrounds participated in the study. The students were trained either in semantic mapping or the experience-text-relationship (ETR) method to activate background knowledge. Each group of students also received training in metacognitive awareness and regulation of the two strategies. Results showed that the combined effects of metacognitive and cognitive strategy instruction were effective in enhancing reading comprehension.

In an earlier study, Carrell (1985) found that overt teaching of the rhetorical organization of texts facilitated reading comprehension of English. She conducted a training study with 25 high-intermediate proficiency English as a second language (ESL) students. Carrell divided the students into an experimental and a control group. The experimental group received five successive one-hour training sessions. The training covered the four major expository discourse types such as comparison, causation, problem/solution, and description. At the end of the training, the students receiving instruction on text organization recalled more idea units (a single clause consisting of main, subordinate, adverbial, and relative clauses) than the control

group. Modeling her study on Carrell's study, Raymond (1993) also conducted a strategy instruction in the ESL context on text structure and obtained positive results on the comprehension post-test.

Another study that examined the possible effects of metacognitive strategy instruction on reading processes and reading comprehension was conducted by Cotterall (1990). She replicated Palincsar and Brown's (1984) study conducted in the L1 context. Cotterall analysed the effects of metacognitive strategy instruction on four Japanese and Iranian ESL learners. The findings indicated that the learners benefited from the strategy instruction. Song (1998) also replicated Palincsar and Brown's study in EFL context and found that strategy training enhanced the reading ability of Korean EFL college learners.

Auerbach and Paxton (1997) also brought metacognitive awareness training into their L2 reading classes through pre- and post-course reading interviews, reading comprehension questionnaires, strategy awareness questionnaires, reading inventories, and think-aloud protocols. The results indicated that the students' metacognitive awareness increased at the end of this one-semester awareness-raising program.

The diversity of the cognitive process in action as L2 learners read, as well as learners' awareness of them, can be used during the reading act to develop comprehension. The identification of mentalistic functions through the use of self-reflection procedures can facilitate the reading process. In the study of Cohen and Hosenfeld (1981), students, after being trained to 'self-observe' and to 'think-aloud', became aware of inefficient processing habits and were able to replace them with strategies that had been taught to them in class. Teaching the skill of contextual

guessing may improve reading comprehension and speed (Van Parreren and Schouten-Van Parreren, 1981). However, this method may be effectively used by advanced readers, but may not necessarily be appropriate for beginning L2 readers (Jarvis, 1979). The value of contextual guessing is best summarized by de Beaugrande (Zvetina, 1987) in presenting L2 reading as a problem-solving process: expect and accept errors as a stepping stone.

Obviously, many research studies suggest that teaching reading strategies can have a positive effects on the reading performance of second language learn. However, many reading specialists discovered that simply teaching students a list of cognitive strategies for reading did not help every student to become a better reader (Eskey, 2005). It is suggested that metacognition, or ‘thinking about thinking’ is essential to direct successful cognition and thinking. It is not just what strategies can be used but, when to use them and for what purpose.

2.2.5 Transfer of L1 reading strategies

In the study of the transfer of L1 reading strategies to L2 reading, researchers present conflicting findings (Clark, 1980; Yorio, 1971; Czike, 1978) and maintain that low L2 proficiency has a restrictive impact on reading performance. Clark argues that the reading skills of good L1 readers are not transferred to their reading in a second or foreign language due to the linguistic limits of the readers. Barnett (1989) states that an imperfect knowledge of a language hinders predicting ability. Moreover, Devine, Carell and Eskey (1987) demonstrate that reader strategies are related to competence level in the language. Lower proficiency readers place a heavy reliance on graphic and syntactic rather than semantic information in the text, thus inhibiting them from activating appropriate higher order schemata.

However, other reading theorists like Hudson (1982), Floyd and Carrell (1987), Goldmand and Reyes (1983), Johnson (1981), and Swaffar (1988a, 1988b) argue that linguistic ceiling is only one determinant of reading comprehension. In addition, induced schemata allow readers to override their linguistic limitations to a great extent. Despite her early argument that readers in a foreign language apparently do not access previous knowledge in the processing of new material as is done when reading in their native language, Carrell (1983, 1984), in her later studies, has showed that readers do indeed employ both content and formal schemata in the process of reading a second or foreign language. Even advanced second and foreign language readers use first language strategies when reading another language (Hauptman, 1979, Sarig, 1987).

The above factors show that there is no definite conclusion in the transfer of first language reading skill to second/foreign language reading. Unknown words and syntactic structures as well as cultural distance certainly impede a reader's comprehension of a text in L2. Logically, the reading processes of experienced readers in any language are more closely related than the processes of beginning readers. Yet research results indicate that individuals with stronger cognitive strategies and logical reasoning skills understand more than do readers tied to the graphic features of a text. One of the issues concerning second/foreign language (L2) reading research is that findings from research in L1 cannot be directly applied to L2 reading situations as L1 and L2 reading are distinctive in a number of perspectives.

Williams (1984) comments that one of the principal problems of L2 readers is that their knowledge of the language is incomplete and this may create difficulties in their reading. He also emphasizes that in fact a fundamental difference between native and nonnative readers is their reading purposes. The former use knowledge of

the language to help them read while the latter use reading to help them acquire the language.

L2 readers, nevertheless, have an advantage over first language readers in the sense that most of them start reading in L2 when they are older. So they are more mature and have considerably more knowledge of the world, which helps compensate for their linguistic deficiency. This advantage should be taken into account and be promoted. Research in L1 indicates that metacognitive abilities are dependent upon age; older and more successful readers know more about themselves as learners and they use more reading strategies (Baker and Brown, 1984; Paris, Cross and Lipson, 1984; Garner, 1987; Paris, Wasik and Turner, 1991). Older L2 readers thus tend to be able to use more metacognitive strategies which enhances effective reading. Carrell (1989) also claims that what L2 readers know about reading affects their reading behaviour and that monitoring skills are significantly related to reading performance. In addition, Block (1986, 1992) illustrates that both first and second language readers of English use similar comprehension monitoring processes in a language training programme as they read expository texts. Her studies were of L2 reader's capacity for using metacognitive strategies. However, studies in the area of metacognitive knowledge in second language reading are relatively few.

2.3 Reading approaches

How students learn to read in another language is often determined by the reading approach that teachers use. This can affect individual students' development of reading skills since they have different backgrounds and learning styles. Below are summaries of some of the reading approaches commonly used in language classes.

The approaches include intensive and extensive reading, whole language, skills building, and resource-based learning.

2.3.1 Intensive reading approach

This approach is commonly used in a regular reading class, where students work with short texts under the guidance of the teacher. The aim of intensive reading is to help students construct detailed meaning from the text; to develop reading skills, such as to identify the main ideas and recognizing text signals; and to enhance vocabulary and grammatical knowledge (Renandya, Sundara Rajan, & Jacobs (1999). Similarly, Nuttal (1996) claims that intensive reading is intended primarily to train reading strategies which students can use with different texts. She adds that intensive reading emphasizes two areas: skills-based and text-based teaching. In skills-based lessons the focus is on developing particular skills, such as discussing what inferences a reader can make, and understanding what is implied or stated. In order to do this the reader has to read many texts, which offer opportunities to practice the skills. On the other hand, the text-based lessons focus on the understanding of the text itself. Readers use all the reading skills that they have learned, such as skimming, scanning and previewing to comprehend the text at different levels—main ideas or details (Aebersold & Field 1997). Just as in the skill-based lessons, the reader needs a number of short texts for reading practice, usually followed by many exercises.

2.3.2 Extensive reading approach.

It is also referred to as Free Voluntary Reading, Book Flood, Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading (USSR), Drop Everything and Read (DEAR), and Silent Uninterrupted Reading for Fun (SURF) (Lituanas, Jacobs & Renandya,

2000). The key of extensive reading is that when students read, for general comprehension or for pleasure, large quantities of texts of their own choosing, their ability to read will improve (Aebersold & Field, 1997). Moreover, it is strongly emphasized that extensive reading focuses on the content being read, rather than on language skills. The main goals of the extensive reading approach are to help students to develop their positive aspects, which are attitude and motivation in second/foreign reading; to be aware of their purposes in reading; use appropriate reading strategies; to develop their word recognition ability and reading speed; and to learn how to choose reading materials appropriate for their interests and language ability (Day and Bamford, 1998). Students at higher levels can expand their content knowledge and reading skills through reading extensively.

2.3.3 Skills building approach.

Similar to intensive reading approach, the skills building approach is based on the idea that reading skills can be built up by accumulation of such skills as word recognition, comprehension and study (Burnes and Page, 1985). It is the teacher's responsibility to decide what skills their students are weak at, or need to comprehend a text. Then, the instruction and learning materials students need to achieve those skills can be prepared. The drawback of this approach is in the criteria the teachers use to decide what skills their students need and what difficulties they have in comprehending a text. To put it another way, "language learning is an activity where people have significantly different requirements from one another depending on who they are, what their goals are and what experiences and knowledge they bring with them" (Lian, 1996). It is critical to determine what skills students should learn in order to comprehend a text since each individual has different needs.

2.3.4 Whole language approach.

In the whole language approach, the development of literacy is emphasized. It is believed that the function of language, both oral and written, is to construct meaning or understanding, and that language is both personal and social; that is, it serves both thinking and communicating. In term of reading, learners need to predict, select, confirm and self-correct as they make meaning out of print in order to achieve the main purpose of reading, which is, comprehension (Wagner, 1989). Further, learners learn to read by reading the whole text, which is opposite to the traditional behaviourist approach, focusing on prepacked pieces of passages with exercises and drills. Similarly, the concept of reading and writing whole texts is reinforced (Weaver, 2000). Regarding the task assignments in a whole language classroom, while working with authentic materials, students have options to determine what they will do or learn, which requires them to take responsibility for their learning. At the same time, the teacher acts as a facilitator, supporter and monitor as needed. This means that the whole language learning environment creates opportunities for students to find out what they want to know.

2.3.5 Resource-based learning

Basically, resource-based learning stresses that it is the learner's job to work with resources in order to learn about the tasks through their experiences in problem solving. In this way, they can accumulate the necessary information strands to formulate meaningful knowledge about the task (Lavery, 1997). In other words, learners have opportunities to identify what they know about the topic and what they need to know, where to look for information, and how to reflect on their own learning. Therefore, the teacher may create predictable conditions that allow learners to engage

themselves in the rich contexts of the target language. It is emphasized that students, especially in higher education, should think critically about their problem-solving tasks and determine what they need to do to achieve their goals by using available resources.

2.4 Models and the knowledge base of second language teacher education

In the last thirty years, there has been an explosion in the teaching and learning of second languages, both in the actual teaching and in the education of second language teachers. This has been particularly rapid in the field of English as a second/foreign language (ESL).

English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education has been of concern throughout the world and has prompted calls for reform to preservice EFL teachers' practices in order to raise the standard of teaching and learning (Aiken & Day, 1999; Cook, 1996; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Luo, 2003; Richards, 1998; Velez-Rendon, 2006). This requires preservice teachers in countries where English is a foreign language to be prepared to meet the challenges and standards for EFL teaching (Lu, 2002; Smith, Basmadjian, Kirell, & Koziol, 2003; Vibulphol, 2004; Wertheimer & Honigsfeld, 2000). However, preservice EFL teachers have additional challenges as they attempt to teach English while using this language as the mode of instruction. Field experiences or practicum have long been a central part of preservice EFL teacher development in many countries and is crucial for implementing EFL education reform (Anderson, 2004; Beck and Kosnik, 2002; Ewell, 2004; Schulz, 2005; Stewart, 2004). These field experiences allow preservice teachers to make the connection between

current theoretical knowledge and school practices; yet understanding how to teach EFL effectively requires further investigation (Clift, Meng, and Eggerding, 1994; Johnson, 1996; Liu, 2005).

Day and Konklin (1992) claim that the knowledge base of second language teacher education consists of four types of knowledge. First there is, *content knowledge* which includes knowledge of the subject matter that ESL/EFL teachers teach as represented by courses in syntax, semantics, phonology, pragmatics, and literary and cultural aspects of the English language. The second type is *pedagogic knowledge*: knowledge of generic teaching strategies, beliefs and practices, regardless of the focus of the subject matter. This is how teachers teach and includes classroom management, motivation and decision making. The third type is *pedagogical content knowledge* which refers to the specialized knowledge of how to represent content knowledge in diverse ways that students can understand; the knowledge of how students come to understand the subject matter, what difficulties they are likely to encounter when learning it, what misconceptions interfere with learning, and how to overcome these problems. In another words, it can represent how the teachers teach ESL/EFL in general or how the teachers teach ESL/EFL reading or writing in particular such as teaching reading ESL/EFL skills, teaching English grammar, evaluating and developing TESOL materials, EFL/ESL testing, evaluating and developing TESOL program and curriculum, and using TESOL methods. The final type is *support knowledge* which refers to the knowledge of the various disciplines that inform the approach to the teaching and learning of English, such as psycholinguistics, linguistics, second language acquisition, sociolinguistics and research methods. Therefore, in order to design an EFL reading instruction model,

this study includes these types of knowledge as the conceptual framework of the instruction.

To prepare pre-service teachers for professional practice, it is important to consider the ways of teacher learning. Day and Konklin (1992) described the following three models for a second language teacher education program.

2.4.1 The apprentice-expert model

The apprentice-expert model is the oldest form of professional education and is still used today. In its most basic form, the apprentice-expert model consists of the trainee or beginner working closely with the expert teacher. Knowledge is acquired as a result of observation, instruction, and practice. In current ESL teacher education, the apprentice-expert model is not widely-used, as an overall approach to convey knowledge within a program. However, its conceptual basis is widely utilized in practicum courses in which students work with classroom teachers, often called cooperating teachers. Its use in one course in a program of ESL teacher education cannot be regarded as a model for an entire program.

2.4.2 The rationalist model

The rationalist model involves the teaching of scientific knowledge to students who, in turn, are expected to apply this knowledge in their teaching. Ur (1992:56) refers to this approach as the "rationalist learn-the-theory-and-then-apply-it model." As Wallace notes, the rationalist model, in his terms the applied science model, is the traditional and probably still the most prevalent model underlying most training or education programs for the professions(1991). Its basic assumption is that teaching is a science and as such can be examined rationally and objectively. The results of such rational and objective examinations are conveyed to the students by

experts in the field. Students are said to be educated when they have been exposed to the scientific knowledge which the experts believe are the fundamental elements of a given profession. An examination of the courses offered by a random sample of M.A. degree programs in ESL in American universities reveals that the rationalist model predominates.

In spite of its wide-spread usage, it has some shortcomings. Among the most serious problems is leaving students to apply on their own the scientific knowledge they have learned to teaching. Lasley (1989,i) observes, "Too many of us as teacher educators concern ourselves singularly with communicating content rather than attending to how prospective teachers transform that content into pedagogical practice." Another shortcoming concerns the separation of research and practice. Wallace (1991, p.p.10-11) discusses this separation, noting that those who do research and those who teach are different people. Under this model, a rather unusual situation has developed. Those who are engaged in teacher education are not the ones who actual teach English. These persons, often located in universities, are involved in creating and teaching the knowledge base but they have relatively little direct contact with the practice of teaching English. The shortcoming is the rationalist model's failure to address adequately many of the important issues in teaching English. There has been relatively little research that directly concerns the teaching and learning of English in the classroom.

2.4.3 The case studies model

The case studies model of professional education involves the discussion and analysis of actual case histories in the classroom. The objectives of this

model include the generalization of particular behaviors into broader understandings of the discipline. The case studies model is used in most of the leading law and business schools in the United States, and is being implemented in an increasing number of medical schools.

In contrast, the case studies model has not been as widely embraced in teacher education programs. Merseth (1991) reviews the early history of the use of case studies in teacher education and posits two reasons why the model was not adopted by teacher education at Harvard University, as it had been in both law and business. There was a lack of conceptual clarity about its purpose; and the lack of administrative and financial support for the writing of cases by faculty. Indeed, the problematic aspect of the case studies approach is the nature of the cases themselves. A story of a classroom event or experience is not necessarily a case. Shulman (1991, p.251) claims that a case has a beginning, a middle, and end, and is "situated in an event or series of events that unfold over time," with a plot "that is problem-focused with some dramatic tension that must be relieved." Furthermore, a compelling case is "embedded with many problems that can be framed and analyzed from various perspectives." If the case is written by a teacher, then it should include the teacher's thoughts and feelings of the account. Shulman maintains that teacher-written cases include reflective observations that explore what the authors learned.

Given the central importance of well-written cases in this method of professional education, it is not surprising that this method has not been adopted in second language teacher education. The profession is only beginning to gain the experience and perspective necessary to develop a compelling case literature. As Shulman (1991, p.251) points out, identifying a narrative as a case makes a theoretical

claim that it is a "case of something or an instance of a larger class of experiences." It is reasonable to anticipate the development of a case literature and the incorporation of a case studies approach into second language teacher education.

The case studies approach is an appropriate way to expose students to content knowledge, but is rather limited in its treatment of pedagogic knowledge, pedagogic content knowledge and support knowledge (Day and Knoklin, 1992). Like the rationalist model, the case studies model can only treat pedagogic and pedagogic content knowledge in a limited fashion. Students studying cases should be able to gain some valuable insights into both pedagogic and pedagogic content knowledge, particularly in such areas as teacher decision-making, planning and reviewing a lesson, and various activities and practices. However, it is believed that the best way to learn about teaching is through the experience of teaching. Similar to the rationalist model, the case studies model treats received knowledge. Students acquire knowledge through the study of cases, and not through the actual practice of teaching.

2.4.4 The integrative model

It should be clear from the preceding discussion of the three models that relying exclusively on any one of them would result in a failure to deal adequately with the knowledge base. Further, none of the three alone is able to cover the variety of experiences. Thus what is needed is an approach or a model that is able to incorporate the strengths of all three, allowing the learner to a full and complete exposure to the four types of knowledge in the knowledge base and the variety of experiences and activities outlined by the continuum. The integrative model is a systematic approach to second language teacher education that ensures that the learner gains pedagogic, content, pedagogic content, and support knowledge through a

variety of experiences and activities. However, merely exposing the learner to the four knowledge types through various activities and experiences does not ensure an integration of the four types of knowledge: 1). Content knowledge: 2). Pedagogic knowledge: 3) Pedagogic content knowledge: 4) Support knowledge that form the knowledge base. In order to accomplish this, a reflective practice component must be included in the program.

By reflective practice, the critical examination of all aspects of the knowledge base as the student is engaged in the experiences and activities in the professional knowledge source continuum. Simply being exposed to such experiences and activities does not necessarily mean that they come together in such a manner as to allow the student to gain critical insights that result in professional development and growth. Schon discusses "reflection in action"(1983), in which the teacher first acts, then reflects on the action, develops hypotheses which are tried out in more action. Thus, we can see a cycle of teaching, reflection, development of hypotheses, and additional action in which the hypotheses are tried out in the classroom. Cruickshank and Applegate (1981, p.553) define reflection as "helping teachers to think about what happened, why it happened, and what else they could have done to reach their goals." As Posner (1989, p.21) points out, reflective thinking is not new, and can be traced to the work of such early educational thinkers as Dewey (e.g., 1933). While reflective practice is often advocated for in-service teachers as a way helping them to become more effective teachers, it can be a crucial element of pre-service programs. Posner (1989, p.22) believes that reflective thinking helps students in practice teaching "to act in deliberate and intentional ways, to devise new ways of teaching rather than being a slave to tradition, and to interpret new experiences from a fresh perspective."

In addition, helping our students to develop reflective thinking will help them integrate the various types of knowledge that they receive during their program of studies to achieve a coherent and cohesive philosophical approach to teaching.

Incorporating reflective practice in an approach to second language teacher education offers the possibility of being integrative in that received knowledge provides the theoretical aspects for thinking about experiential knowledge, and experiential knowledge offers opportunities for trying out and testing received knowledge. It is found that journals, discussion groups, and specific exercises such as those in Posner (1989) are excellent activities to help students to begin to think reflectively. It is important to stress at this juncture that this fourth model of second language teacher education, to be effective, goes beyond the occasional use of a reflective practice activity in a course or two as students go through their program of studies. To be truly integrative, reflective practice activities have to be a critical part of the students' entire program of studies, and used in all courses, regardless of the type of knowledge with which they are concerned.

These four models have explicitly given implications for second language teacher education program. They present the development of teacher education program. As each model does have its drawbacks; there is a need for alteration. Starting with the apprentice-expert model, the experienced teacher acts as a mentor. It is claimed that novice teachers need to learn cooperatively by working closely with experienced teachers at the beginning. Gradually, they have gained pedagogic knowledge via observation, instruction, and practice. However, this model is not the typical model for every education program. The rationalist model then emphasizes that theoretical knowledge be educated during the pre-service training program while

neglecting the actual practice. Many students, though, are aware of the significance of the theory, but find less connection with authentic practice.

According to the case studies model, the deliberate study of behaviors of a case is meant to reflect vital insights into the language pedagogy. However, writing about what the researcher has learned from the study and is not an easy job. The findings should be, as mentioned, considered from various perspectives. Therefore, an ideal model which allows students to acquire the four types of knowledge should be created. The model not only allows learners to get imposed in a various activities and experiences, but also to experience themselves in a cycle of teaching, then reflecting on their teaching, developing a hypothesis and verifying it. This process is on-going until the reasonable result is met. This model seems to rid most worries that educators have.

In conclusion, a reliance on the apprentice-expert, the rationalist or the case studies approaches would be shortsighted. The ideal curriculum for a second language teacher education program is one which integrates experiential and received knowledge in some systematic fashion. The integrative approach, which combines aspects of the apprentice-expert, the rationalist and the case studies models with reflective practice, comes the closest to having this potential. The integrative model can systematically incorporate the strengths of the other three models, allowing us to ensure an adequate coverage of the four types of knowledge that form the knowledge base. In addition, it offers pre-service teachers an approach to practicing their profession that could last them for a lifetime of professional growth and development.

2.5 Curriculum development in English language teaching

A course design is the practice of setting a definite criterion for the success of a course. In English language teaching (ELT), linguists define the curriculum development as in the following details:

The term “curriculum development” in English language teaching, Richards (2001:1-2) suggests that English language curriculum development is an aspect of a broader field of education activity known as curriculum development or curriculum studies. It focuses on determining what knowledge, skills, and values students learn in schools, what experiences should be provided to bring about intended learning outcomes, and how reaching curricular goals and learning in schools or educational systems can be planned, measured, and evaluated. Besides, Briggs (1976:20) defines a term “instructional design” involving the curriculum development as the entire process of analysis of learning needs and goals and the development of a delivery system to meet the needs. It includes development of instructional materials and activities and experiments and revision of all instructions, learners and assessment activities. In addition, Dick, Carey and Carey (2001:2) introduce that it is an instructional design that involves a systematic process in which every component such as teacher, learners, materials, and learning environment is crucial to successful learning.

The perspective mentioned above is usually referred to as the system points of view, and advocates of this position typically use the systems approach to design instruction. The instructional process itself can be viewed as a system. The purpose of the system is to bring about learning. The components of the system are the learners, the instructor, the instructional materials, and the learning environment. These

components interact in order to achieve the required goal. In terms of English language teaching, it involves the components of the instructional system, which brings about learning both input and output of learning process. Finally, Brown (1995:1) views that English language curriculum is a system whereby all language teaching activities that can be classified into approaches, syllabuses, techniques, exercises or packaged pedagogies. This series of curriculum activities will provide a framework that helps teachers to accomplish whatever combination of teaching activities is most suitable in their professional judgment for a given situation, that is, a framework that helps the students to learn as effectively as possible in the given situation.

The definitions stated above support the English language curriculum development that covers the field of applied linguistics, Richards (2001:1-2) addresses the following issues of curriculum development: a) procedures that can be used to determine the content of an English language program; b) learners needs; c) how to determine learners needs; d) contextual factors need to be considered in planning an English language program; e) the nature of the aims and objectives in teaching and how they can be developed; f) factors involved in planning the syllabus and the units of organization in a course; g) how good teaching can be provided in a program h) issues involved in selecting, adapting, designing instructional materials, and i) measurement of the effectiveness of an English language program. These issues describe an interrelated set of processes that focuses on designing, revising, implementing, and evaluating English language programs.

Among wide areas of educational thought, practice and curriculum, and training manuals, Briggs (1977:1) additionally indicates and summaries an

instructional design that is a systematic approach to the planning and development of a mean to meet these instructional aspects: a) needs and goals, b) all components of the system covering objectives, instructional materials, tests, etc. These are considered in relation to each other in an orderly but flexible sequence of processes. The resulting delivery system is tried out and improved before widespread use is encouraged.

An instructional design approach provides and benefits educational development in various ways. Wager (1977:407-417) illustrates designing courses for higher education in the project of instructional technology and higher education. The tailored design steps comprise these processes: a) Need analysis and job analysis, b) goal and learning task analysis, c) the specification of behavioral objectives, d) analysis of constraints and resources, e) media selection, f) designing delivery systems, g) diffusion , h) assessing learner performance, i) designing instructional activities, j) formative evaluation and revision, k) teacher training, and l) summative evaluation.

General principles for designing a proportional syllabus that Yalden (1987:93-94) advises include stages of English language program development as in figure 2.1

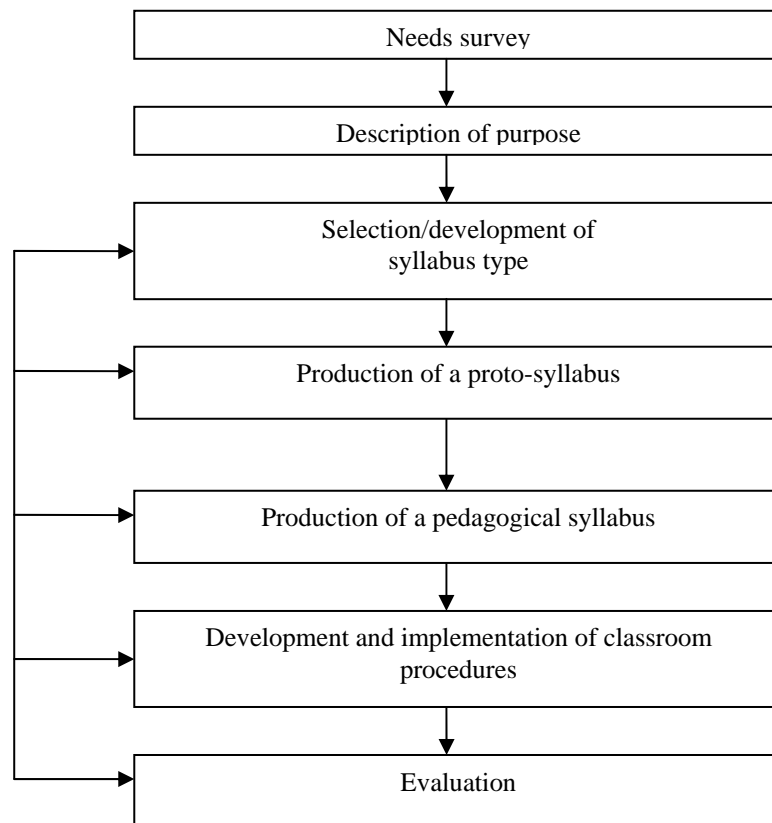


Figure 2.1: Stages in English language program development

More discussion on general curriculum planning in Dubin and Olshtain's (1986:2) classifies the curriculum processes for second or foreign language course designers in a brief review as: a) diagnosis of needs, b) formulation of objectives, c) selection of content, d) organization of context, e) selection of learning experiences, f) organization of learning experiences, and g) determination of what to evaluate and the means to evaluate.

The discussed processes can be concluded that the course design, curriculum development in this research include similar procedures. However, the first step of

needs analysis from all procedures in a course design is the most crucial that a course designer has to inevitably be aware of learners need in English language teaching.

2.6 Constructivism

In the area of foreign language/L2 education, a constructivist approach is one way to promote effective classroom instruction strategies. Constructivism has its roots in philosophy and has been applied to sociology and anthropology, as well as cognitive psychology and education. Perhaps the first constructivist philosopher, Giambattista Vico commented in a treatise in 1710 that "one only knows something if one can explain it " (Yager, 1991). Immanuel Kant further elaborated this idea by asserting that human beings are not passive recipients of information. Learners actively take knowledge, connect it to previously assimilated knowledge and make it theirs by constructing their own interpretation (Cheek, 1992).

Focusing on a more educational description of constructivism, meaning is intimately connected with experience. Students come into a classroom with their own experiences and a cognitive structure based on those experiences. These preconceived structures are either valid, invalid or incomplete. The learner will reformulate his/her existing structures only if new information or experiences are connected to knowledge already in memory. Inferences, elaborations and relationships between old perceptions and new ideas must be personally drawn by the student in order for the new idea to become an integrated, useful part of his/her memory. Memorized facts or information that has not been connected with the learner's prior experiences will be quickly forgotten. In short, the learner must

actively construct new information onto his/her existing mental framework for meaningful learning to occur.

The current American classroom, whether grade school or college level, tends to resemble a one-person show with a captive but often comatose audience. Classes are usually driven by "teacher-talk" and depend heavily on textbooks for the structure of the course. There is the idea that there is a fixed world of knowledge that the student must come to know. Information is divided into parts and built into a whole concept. Teachers serve as pipelines and seek to transfer their thoughts and meanings to the passive student. There is little room for student-initiated questions, independent thought or interaction between students. The goal of the learner is to regurgitate the accepted explanation or methodology expostulated by the teacher (Caprio, 1994).

In a constructivist setting, knowledge is not objective; mathematics and science are viewed as systems with models that describe how the world might be rather than how it is. These models derive their validity not from their accuracy in describing the real world, but from the accuracy of any predictions which might be based on them (Postlewaite, 1993). The role of the teacher is to organize information around conceptual clusters of problems, questions and discrepant situations in order to engage the student's interest. Teachers assist the students in developing new insights and connecting them with their previous learning. Ideas are presented holistically as broad concepts and then broken down into parts. The activities are student centered and students are encouraged to ask their own questions, carry out their own experiments, make their own analogies and come to their own conclusions.

Hanley (1994) explains that the first objective in a constructivist lesson is to engage student interest on a topic that has a broad concept. This may be accomplished by doing a demonstration, presenting data or showing a short film. Ask open-ended questions that probe the students' preconceptions on the topic. Next, present some information or data that does not fit with their existing understanding. Have students break into small groups to formulate their own hypotheses and experiments that will reconcile their previous understanding with the discrepant information. The role of the teacher during the small group interaction time is to circulate around the classroom to be a resource or to ask probing questions that aid the students in coming to an understanding of the principle being studied. After sufficient time for experimentation, the small groups share their ideas and conclusions with the rest of the class, which will try to come to a consensus about what they learned.

Assessment can be done traditionally using a standard paper and pencil test, but there are other suggestions for evaluation. Each small group can study/review together for an evaluation but one person is chosen at random from a group to take the quiz for the entire group. The idea is that peer interaction is paramount when learners are constructing meaning for themselves, hence what one individual in the group has learned should be the same as that learned by another individual (Lord, 1994). The teacher could also evaluate each small group as a unit to assess what they have learned.

Clearly, a lesson based on constructivism differs greatly from the traditional "teacher-as-lecturer" class type. In one evaluation (Caprio, 1994), the constructivist approach was employed and compared to the traditional lecture-lab format for the second semester of a two-semester anatomy and physiology sequence in a community

college. The two student groups were matched for academic ability and prerequisites. Both courses were night classes and most of the students were hoping to major in health-career programs. The testing instrument was the first exam. The same exam was given to both sets of students at midterm. A drawback to the study was that the two groups were studied seven years apart. The results showed that better exam grades were obtained by students taught by the constructivist methodology. The average exam score for the constructivist group was 69.7% (N = 44) while that taught by the traditional lecture-lab method was 60.8 % (N = 40). A t-test showed that the grade difference was significant ($p > 0.99$).

Caprio also offered many personal insights on his perception of student learning. The students in the constructivist group seemed more confident of their learning and he gave them more material for independent learning. The investigator found that this was necessary since constructive teaching methods are more time-consuming. This was done only with secondary topics. The students in the constructivist class seemed to like class better, had more energy and took more responsibility for their learning.

In summary, constructivist teaching offers a bold departure from traditional objectivist classroom strategies. The goal is for the learner to play an active role in assimilating knowledge onto his/her existing mental framework opens new avenues for learning as well as challenges for the teacher trying to implement it. Therefore, the researcher determines that "a constructivist approach" is appropriate to the purpose of classroom instruction strategies for the present study in terms of cooperative/collaborative learning.

2.7 Reading teacher education

To prepare teachers of reading, it is necessary to study the review of the literature on reading teacher education.

In Alvermann's (1990) review of the literature on reading teacher education, she described three approaches generally used as conceptual bases in the preparation of teachers of reading: (a) traditional craft, (b) competency based, and (c) inquiry oriented. Though there is some overlap existing among them, each approach can be clearly defined.

The traditional-craft concept is based upon field experience with a master or mentor teacher. It is hoped that during this experience novice teachers will have an opportunity to define and practice the information received from their education classes and their master teachers. The competency-based concept is based upon pre-assessment, learning activities, and a post-assessment to ensure that a set of skills has been mastered. This concept is still used in some pre-service teacher education programs. The inquiry-oriented concept is typically defined through one of two approaches. In the first approach the teaching-learning process is made problematic, and a situation is created in which teachers must reflect on what they know through coursework and from past experiences. This problematic situation enables the teacher to make implicit knowledge explicit. The second approach takes problematic situations with present practices and shows how changing they can make reading instruction better for all participants. Teacher decision-making and reflection play major roles in both approaches.

According to Commeyras, Reinking, Heubach, and Pagnucco (1993), as teacher educators have reflected upon their own practices and the practices in reading

teacher education, they have begun to make a shift from traditional-craft and competency-based models to an inquiry-oriented model. In their study Commeyras et al.(1993) found that, regardless of the instructor's approach, students expressed low levels of confidence in their abilities to teach reading, and field experience was cited by the students as an important component in feeling prepared to teach reading. Additionally, while students who were engaged in classes using an inquiry-based approach felt less confident in their ability to teach reading, it should be noted that this occurred when topics were ill-defined and the responsibility for learning rested solely on the students. The researchers called for more studies in this area and supported systematic changes which reflect constructivist views.

By playing an active role in learning, pre-service teachers are given an opportunity to construct knowledge. Risko, Peter, and McAllister (1996) used videocases with pre-service teachers to provide them with an opportunity to apply knowledge to hypothetical situations. The researchers found that learning was difficult for the students in decontextualized situations such as lecture-based formats. The videocases allowed the students to construct and integrate knowledge in order to apply it to a real situation. Dynak and Smith (1994) reported similar findings in their study of pre-service secondary teachers. They concluded that time must be provided for students to practice and reflect upon what they had learned in order for the content to be internalized. Ashton (1996) also found that content knowledge must be integrated with field experience in order for students to develop their pedagogical knowledge. Reflection and integration of knowledge allowed for intellectual stimulation while learning occurred. In addition, integration of knowledge makes

decision-making processes stronger as applied to reading and reading instruction (Roehler, Duffy, Herrmann, Conley&Johnson 1988).

Hodges (1982) found a strong need for contextualized situations in the development of pre-service teachers by following student teachers who were placed in a situation without the guidance of a master teacher. The student teachers tended to revert to teacher's guides because they felt unsure of how to implement reading instruction to meet all the student's needs. Hodges concluded that it was important to allow pre-service teachers time to make connections about practice and theory and gain confidence in knowing how to teach reading. This level of confidence remains low among pre-service reading teachers (Cheek,1982; Commeyras et al.,1993). In pre-service teacher's classroom practice, their students often perceive and internalize the meanings that the pre-service bring with them.

In a study conducted by Bondy (1990) two groups of first graders, one high ability and one low ability, were asked why people read. The high group's answers reflected reading as a form of meaning making while the low group's answers reflected reading as word calling and related to school work. Upon close examination of the instruction, Bondy determined that these responses were a result of the way in which the teacher was implementing instruction in the reading groups. Through discussion and reflection the teacher began to modify instruction and teach meaning-making with all the students. Two conclusions were drawn by Bondy as important considerations in the education of pre-service teachers: (a) the need to compare professional literature that has different perspectives and make decisions about the content in order to react to many teaching dilemmas in reflective processes, and (b) the need to be exposed to students who are in the process of becoming readers so that

they are able to collect data about the occurrence and draw conclusions about reading instruction. In this way pre-service teachers can use reflection to construct their own knowledge based to determine the practices that are most appropriate.

Obviously, the literature reviews and studies have emphasized the aspect of preparing novice reading teachers for effective reading instructions in a way that teachers are to be given opportunities to contextualize what they have learned from theories and, from their own insights, come up with the reading instructions that best suit reading purposes and their reading students' needs. Simply put, when given problematic situations; the novice teachers learn to clarify the problems, and make use of their acquired theoretical knowledge, and then make decisions on appropriate ways to solve the problems.

As can be seen, there is no research conducted with pre-service teachers on EFL reading instruction, in Thailand. Only a few studies were conducted on EFL reading comprehension employed by pre-service teachers (La-ongtong, (2002); Chinnowong (2001)). There is no research conducted on the effects of EFL reading instruction on the pre-service teachers' reading ability, knowledge of reading theory and methods of teaching EFL reading including their classroom reading practice in pre-service teacher education in Thailand. The effects of the content of the training and its application in teaching practice have attracted the attention of the researcher. The researcher believes that if the teachers' role is to help the learner achieve reading, the teachers must obviously receive instruction that prepare them to teach reading effectively.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study aims to respond to the research questions of the present study regarding the efficiency of an EFL reading instructional system for pre-service teachers in which the system seeks to assist pre-service teachers in improving their reading ability and enhancing their knowledge of reading theory and EFL methods for the teaching of reading.

3.1 Research methodology

This study considers four major concerns. First, pre-service teachers' reading problems and suggestions in teaching EFL reading were investigated by using the interviews and questionnaires according to the Delphi technique. Second, the lessons for an EFL reading model were developed, based on the subjects' information from the questionnaires. The efficiency of the lessons was tested by E1/E2 formula. Third, the pre- and post- tests were used to evaluate the pre-service teachers' reading ability and knowledge of methods of teaching EFL reading. In addition, pre-service teachers' attitudes towards the EFL reading instruction model was explored by using questionnaires and pre-service teachers' diaries. Finally, to investigate whether the pre-service teachers can apply the knowledge obtained from the model in their classroom teaching practice, the pre-service teachers' reading lessons were observed and their secondary school students' reading ability was tested. The statistical analysis

of the data includes T-test, arithmetic mean and correlation coefficients. Details of the research methods are described in the next section.

3.2 Subjects

The subjects in this study consisted of 25 pre-service teachers majoring in English. They were third year undergraduates in a five-year teacher education program according to the reformed curriculum of the academic year 2004. These subjects were admitted to Roi-Et Rajabhat University by passing the Rajabhat University entrance exam. All of them had previously taken the teaching methodology course. They started their English teaching practice in term one of the academic year 2007.

In the experimental phase, all of the subjects were instructed by the researcher using the EFL reading instruction developed by the researcher. After the experiment, they were categorized into high and low achieving groups, according to the median of the total scores from the post-test. On a voluntary basis, two high-achieving pre-service teachers and two low-achieving pre-service teachers were assigned to participate in the follow-up phase of the study. Their reading lessons were observed during their teaching practice in a secondary school.

3.3 Variables

3.3.1 Independent variables

The independent variable was the instruction by using EFL reading instructional lessons.

3.3.2 Dependent variables

The dependent variable were as follows: 1) pre-service teachers' learning achievement of both the knowledge of teaching EFL reading and their reading ability, 2) reading ability of secondary school students taught by pre-service teachers.

3.4 Instruments

The research instruments were used to answer the research questions as summarized in Table 3.1

Table 3.1 The research questions and the research instruments

Research Questions	Instruments	Purposes
1. What are the pre-service teachers' problems in EFL reading and their teaching practice?	Oral interviews	To investigate the reading problems and obtain the suggestion in teaching EFL reading
	Questionnaire: Delphi technique	
2. Does the instruction by using the EFL reading instructional lessons improve the pre-service teachers' knowledge of EFL methods for the teaching of readings and their reading ability? If so, how is the efficiency of the lessons related to their knowledge of EFL methods for the teaching of reading and their reading ability?	Pre-test and post-test	To determine pre-service teachers' learning achievement after the experiment.
	Pre-service teachers' score profile and post-test	To examine the efficiency of the lessons of the EFL reading instructional system
3. Is there a relationship between the pre-service teachers' reading ability and their knowledge of EFL methods for the teaching of reading?	post-test	To investigate the relationship between the pre-service teachers' reading ability and their knowledge of teaching EFL reading.
4. Is there a relationship between the pre-service teachers' learning achievement from the EFL reading model and the secondary school students' reading ability?	Secondary school students' pre-and post-test of reading ability	To determine whether the secondary school students' reading ability will differ if they are instructed by pre-service teachers whose scores are above or lower than the median.

Research Questions	Instruments	Purposes
5. What are pre-service teachers' attitudes towards the EFL reading instructional lessons?	1) Questionnaires 2) Pre-service teachers' diaries 3) Semi-structured interviews	To investigate the pre-service teachers' attitudes towards the EFL reading instructional lessons.
6. What is the impact of the instruction of EFL reading lessons on the pre-service teachers' practice?	1) Pre-service teachers' diaries 2) Researcher's diaries 3) Secondary school students' diaries 4) Semi-structured interviews	To investigate how pre-service teachers apply their knowledge obtained from the lessons to their classroom teaching practice.

The instruments used to accomplish the goal of the study are as follows:

1) To investigate the reading problems and obtain the suggestion in teaching EFL reading

a) Oral interview

Open-ended interviews were used to elicit EFL reading teachers' opinions about pre-service teachers' reading problems and suggestions on how to teach EFL reading for pre-service teachers. The categories of questions prepared by the researcher include the participants' personal backgrounds, teachers' experiences of EFL reading teaching pre-service teachers, EFL reading teachers' opinions about pre-service teachers' reading problems and suggestions on how to teach EFL reading for pre-service teachers. The interview was conducted in Thai. With the participants' permission, a tape recorder was used to record the entire session.

b) Questionnaires: Delphi technique

The Delphi technique is based on a structured process for collecting and distilling knowledge from a group of experts by means of a series of questionnaires including controlled opinion feedback (Adler and Ziglio, 1996). The purpose of the

Delphi technique is to make predictions, elicit experts' opinions, and seek consensus without bringing them together to avoid critical and political encounters (Stuter, 1996; Snell, 1997).

According to Boonorn (1979) quoted in Chuongthaisong (1997), statistics show that the number of people participating in the process affects the results of the study. The more people involved in the process, the less error there will be. The following table is modified from Chuongthaisong (1997).

Table 3.2: Number of people participating in the process

Number of Participants	Error	Error Rate
1-4	1.20-0.71	0.50
5-8	0.70-0.59	0.12
9-12	0.58-0.55	0.04
13-16	0.54-0.51	0.04
17-20	0.50-0.49	0.02
21-24	0.48-0.47	0.02
25-28	0.46-0.45	0.02

The procedures of the Delphi Technique for educational research can be summarized as follows.

1. The researcher selects experts or a group of concerning people and sends them letters asking for their cooperation to respond to questionnaires.
2. After agreeing to participate in the research, the experts or concerning people respond to the open-ended questionnaire for the first round.
3. The researcher collects the questionnaires, analyzes the responses and develops a scale-rating questionnaire based on the findings of the open-ended questionnaire.

4. The researcher sends the rating-scale questionnaires to participants and asks them to respond to the questions for the second round.
5. The researcher collects and analyzes the rating-scale questionnaires.
6. The researcher develops another rating-scale questionnaire including the median and interquartile range for each question item as well as a mark on the scale which each participant has made for that item in the previous rating-scale questionnaire.

The statistics used for data analysis of the questionnaire are:-

Median

$$Md = L_0 + \left[\frac{\frac{N}{2} - F}{f} \right] i$$

Md = median

L_0 = Lower limit of the class

F = cumulative frequency

f = frequency

N = sample size

i = class interval

The median obtained from the participants' responses is used to interpret the result according to the following criteria (Yanthong, 1989 cited from Chuongthaisong, 1997).

Less than 1.50	=	the participants least agree with the statement
1.50 – 2.49	=	the participants less agree with the statement
2.50 – 3.49	=	the participants moderately agree with the statement
3.50 – 4.49	=	the participants strongly agree with the statement
4.50 and up	=	the participants very strongly agree with the statement

Interquartile range (Srisa-ard, 1989 cited from Chongthaisong, 1997)

$$IR = Q_3 - Q_1$$

$$IR = \text{Interquartile range}$$

$$Q_3 = \text{Quartile 3}$$

$$Q_1 = \text{Quartile 1}$$

Quartile 3 and 1 (Wongrattana, 1994 cited in Chongthaisong, 1997)

$$Q_x = L_0 + i \left[\frac{\frac{NX}{4} - F}{f} \right]$$

$$Q_x = \text{quartile}$$

$$L_0 = \text{lower limit of the class}$$

$$i = \text{class interval}$$

$$N = \text{sample size}$$

$$X = \text{the position of the quartile}$$

F = cumulative frequency

f = the frequency of the score range that the quartile exists

The item or statement that has the interquartile range ≥ 1.50 shows the corresponding of the experts' opinions (Yanthong, 1990).

7. Then, the participants will be asked to respond to the questionnaire mentioned above for the third round. Their job is to reconsider their previous responses and decide whether they will confirm their responses. If not, they will need to make new ratings; and if their new ratings are out of the interquartile ranges, they will be asked to give reasons.
8. The researcher will collect the questionnaires for further analysis. The obtained results will be prioritized to indicate the students' problems from the highest rank to the lowest. (See the procedure chart below).

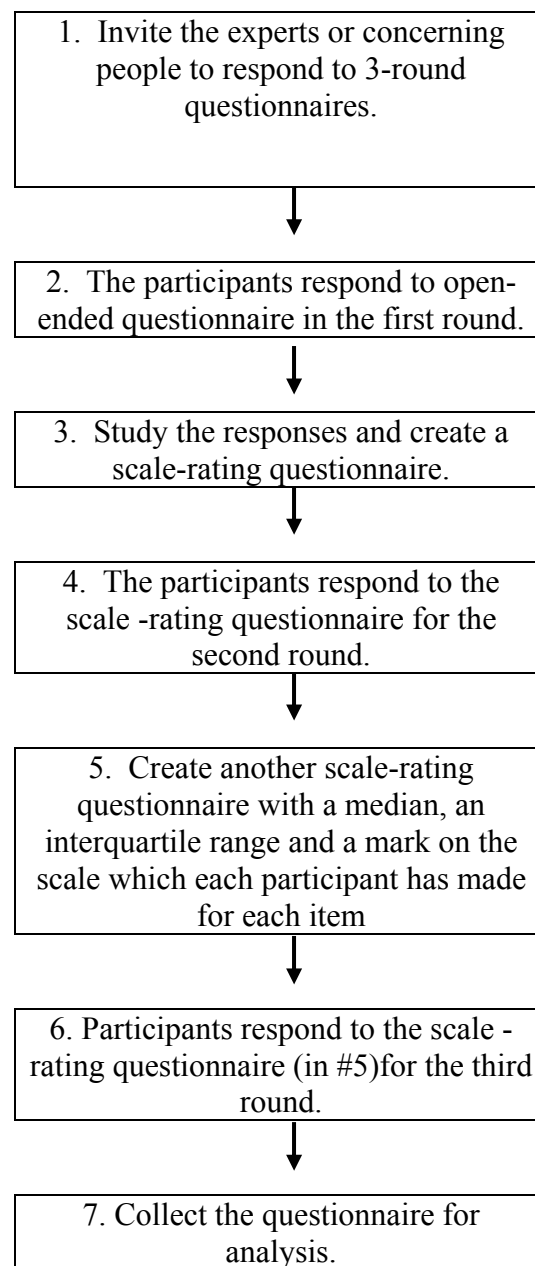


Figure 3.1: Delphi Technique Procedures

However, there are some constraints needed to be aware of. That is, the selection of the people involved may not include adequate experts or concerned people; questionnaires may be delayed or lost in transit; and the participants may feel bothered to respond to many questionnaires. However, these problems can be

solved. Researchers can limit the number of persons involved to the number of participants that still provide sufficient data with the least error. To prevent delay or lost of questionnaires, they can be collected by the researchers. The number of questionnaires can be done in two or three rounds as soon as the researchers get a consensus or agreement from most participants.

2) To develop and determine the efficiency of the EFL reading instructional lessons

The EFL reading instructional lessons were used to help improve the pre-service teachers' knowledge most subjects reported in the oral interviews and questionnaires. Therefore, the lesson design incorporated the subjects' information and that from the literature review. Passages from magazines, books, journals and on-line articles concerning EFL teacher education were used. The lesson activities included both instructional and practical activities, and exercises for each lesson based on the theory of reading and teaching EFL reading. The lessons were examined for efficiency according to the E1/E2 formula.

3) To determine pre-service teachers' learning achievement after the experiment. and to investigate the relationship between the pre-service teachers' reading ability and their knowledge of teaching EFL reading.

Pre and post-tests were developed to assess pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL reading and their reading ability, both before and after the EFL reading instructional lessons. Through achievement scores of the tests, the

researcher could see whether pre-service teachers improved their knowledge and their reading skills.

4) To determine whether the secondary school students' reading ability will differ if they are instructed by pre-service teachers whose scores are above or lower than the median

Pre and post-tests for secondary school students were developed to assess secondary school students' reading ability both before and after the reading lesson instructed by the pre-service teachers during their teaching practice.

5) To investigate the pre-service teachers' attitudes towards the EFL reading instructions

In this study, an open-ended questionnaire allowed the pre-service teachers to express their opinions or reactions about the advantages and disadvantages of the EFL reading instructional lessons, in terms of content, teaching strategies including some suggestions. In addition, pre-service teacher's diaries also allowed them to reflect to learning activities and materials, their learning progress or learning problems. The pre-service teacher's diaries was written both in Thai and English for the purpose of facilitating pre-service teachers expressing their feedback and opinions. A broad outline and some examples were provided for the pre-service teachers to record their overall feedback and opinions about the lessons. The pre-service teachers could also write any other issues relevant to the lessons in the diaries.

6) To investigate how pre-service teachers apply their knowledge obtained from the model to their classroom teaching practice

During the pre-service teachers' teaching practice in secondary schools in the follow-up phase, the secondary school students were asked to record

their attitudes in diaries in Thai towards the reading lessons taught by pre-service teachers. In addition, the researcher's diaries were used to record a description of the events in class during reading lessons. The information obtained was used to support whether the EFL reading instructional lessons influenced the pre-service teachers' classroom teaching.

3.5 Construction and Efficiency of the Instruments

The construction and efficiency of the instruments were carried out by consultation with a research professional, an educational material specialist and a statistician. The following are the procedures of instrument construction and the examination of their efficiency.

3.5.1 Teacher interviews

Sets of questions for student and teacher oral interviews were determined by the research questions based on the literature review, and prepared by the researcher. The questions consisted of participants' opinion on problems of pre-service teachers in reading English and pre-service teachers' teaching practice, including learning and teaching activities for reading classes students should receive. These sets of questions were proposed to and corrected by the research specialists for validity and reliability.

3.5.2 Questionnaires

According to Delphi Technique, there were 3 sets of questionnaires. The first set was consisted of three main parts: questions concerning EFL reading teachers' personal information, pre-service teachers' problems in EFL reading and

their teaching practice including the suggestions for the effective methods for teaching EFL reading.

The second questionnaire was written in the form of scale-rating statements, which were used to facilitate responses. The information derived from the first questionnaires was analyzed and categorized into groups in order to develop the question items. The content and wording of the questionnaires was examined and corrected by experienced researchers.

The last questionnaire was the same as the second one, but included the mean and interquartile ranges to allow the respondents to see their correspondences and to confirm their answers.

3.5.3 EFL reading instruction lessons

The followings are the steps for the construction of the lessons.

1. Review related literature on methods of teaching EFL reading and implications for teaching reading in a second language. In addition, the information obtained from the questionnaires using Delphi technique were analyzed and used as a source to develop the content of the lessons.

2. Study models in second language teacher education.

3. Determine the components of the lessons and content of the EFL reading model based on the results of the interview and questionnaires using Delphi technique and literature reviews. The lessons in the EFL reading model were employed to the subjects .after the pre-test.developed by the researcher. To evaluate the efficiency of the lesson, the examination was done in three steps of try-outs. The purpose of each try-out was to improve the lessons. The subjects for the try-outs studied the lessons, did the exercises and took the post-tests. The subjects'

achievement scores from both exercises and post-tests were computed for the efficiency of the lessons.

The one to one try-out

The first step was one-to-one try-out. Three pre-service teachers with different language proficiency levels, which represented able, moderate and less able pre-service teachers participated in this step. They were the pre-service teachers who were studying in the fourth year in English teacher education program at Mahasarakham Rajabhat University. The criteria of discriminating the samples into different levels of English proficiency are: an able pre-service teacher refers to the pre-service teacher who has the grade point average (G.P.A) more than 3.25, a moderate pre-service teacher got between 2.75-3.25 , and a less able student got between 2.00-2.74. The three pre-service teachers were asked to take a pre-test, and then they participated in the EFL reading instruction for 9 fifty-minute periods. After each lesson, they were asked to write in their diaries to express their feedback and opinions about the lesson. The researcher revised the pre-service teachers' diaries for the purpose of improving the quality of the EFL reading instructional program. The researcher clarified instructions, added some explanation in the materials and exercises.

The small group try-out

The following try-out was the small group, consisting of 10 pre-service teachers with three different levels of language proficiency. The same procedures were done with this group of pre-service teachers. After analyzing the data from the exercises and test scores, and pre-service teachers' diaries, the researcher revised the lessons as follows. The researcher simplified the content in each task and modified

exercises, and structures of the lesson instructions and deleting some abundant details in each lesson.

The field study try-out

The last step was the field study test. The EFL reading instructional lessons was carried out in extra classes without disturbing the teaching in the normal schedule, twice a week for 10 weeks. This step included 25 pre-service teachers. All of them were asked to do a pre-test. After studying the EFL reading instructional lessons for 10 two- hours periods, the pre-service teachers did a post-test. Pre-service teachers' achievement scores of the exercises and the post-test from the three trials were determined for efficiency of the EFL reading instructional lessons based on criteria of the 75/75 standard level (Brahmawong, 1978).

Achievement scores of the exercises and the post-tests from the trials were calculated for efficiency by using E1/E2 with the following formula.

The subjects' performance scores of the lesson exercises and the score from the post –test were calculated for efficiency of the lessons by using E1/ E2 according to the following formula.

$$E_1 = \frac{\overline{X}}{A} \times 100$$

E_1 = Efficiency of the process

\overline{X} = Average scores the subjects obtained from the exercises

A = Total score of the exercises in the lessons

$$E_2 = \frac{\overline{X}}{B} \times 100$$

E_2 = Efficiency of the outcomes

\overline{X} = Average scores students obtained from the post-test

B = Total score of the test in the lessons

(Brahmawong, 1978)

In testing the efficiency of the model developed for the purpose of language instruction, the results of the test should not be lower than 80/80 because the improvement of students' language skills cannot be changed and evaluated immediately after the students have finished the lessons. According to Taweerat (1995), the language improvement will only occur after a period of time.

To administer the pilot study, the evaluation of efficiency of the EFL reading instructional lessons was conducted as shown in the following figure.

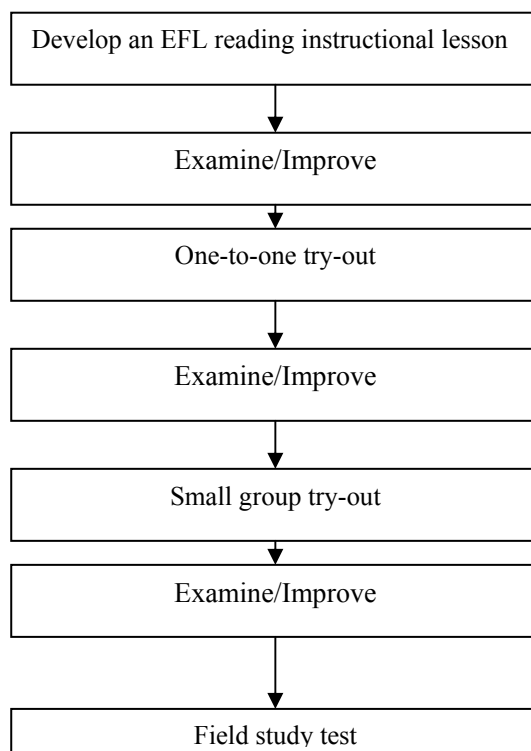


Figure 3.2 the evaluation of efficiency of the EFL reading instructional lessons

3.5.4 Pre-and post-tests

Two sets of pre- and post- tests were as follows: 1) Pre- and post- tests for the pre-service teachers and 2) Pre-and post tests of reading ability for the secondary school students.

1. Pre-and post tests for pre-service teachers

There were two set of the tests for pre-service teachers; a)The test of knowledge of teaching EFL reading consisting of 40 multiple choice questions concerning the knowledge of teaching EFL reading, b) The test of reading ability, consisting of eight reading passages with forty multiple choice questions.

2. Pre-and post-tests for secondary school students

Pre and post-tests of reading ability for secondary school students consisted of 30 multiple choice questions..

The testing objectives were set corresponding to the learning objectives in the lessons. In consultant with the specialists, the multiple-choice test with four alternatives were developed and the items of the test were improved and corrected. Then, the researcher conducted a pilot study with a class of English teacher education major students at Mahasarakham Rajabhat University. An item analysis was carried out from the data obtained from the pilot study. Each question was analysed for the level of difficulty and discrimination power (r) by using the Item Response Theory or IRT software programme developed by Assoc. Prof. Dr. Sirichai Kanjanavasi, Assoc. Prof. Kanit Khaimook, and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Suwimol Wongwanit, lecturers at Suranaree University of Technology. The criteria used to select the test items was $0.3 \leq p \leq 0.7$, and (r) is equal or more than 0.2.

Formula 1: Test Difficulty formula

$$P = \frac{R}{N}$$

$$P = \text{Difficulty of the test}$$

$$R = \text{Number of students who answer a test item correctly}$$

$$N = \text{Number of students who take the test item}$$

Formula 2: Discrimination formula

$$D = \frac{R_U - R_L}{\frac{n}{2}}$$

D = Discrimination index

R_U = Number of students who correctly answered in the high group

R_L = Number of students who correctly answered in the low group

n = Number of students in both the high and low group

Further revision was made with the inappropriate items. the revised test was administered to a class of English teacher education students. The reliability of the test was determined by using Kuder-Richardson's formula (K.R.20). The IRT software programme was used to calculate the reliability of the test and it was accepted at $KR-20 \geq 0.7$. The K.R. 20's formula is presented below.

Formula 3 : K.R.20

$$r_{tt} = \frac{n}{n-1} \left\{ 1 - \frac{\sum pq}{S_t^2} \right\}$$

n = Number of questions

p = The number of students who correctly answered each question

q = The number of students who incorrectly answered each question = 1 - p

S_t^2 = Variance of the total score

The test items in the post-test were derived from the ones in the pre-test. The rationale for using exactly the same test for both pre- and post-testing is to have an exactly comparable test, thus avoiding the problem of equating different forms of pre-test and post-test. The ten-week interval between administration was deemed long enough to control for any short-term memory effect, since the subjects were not be provided with the correct answers after the pre-test.

3.5.5 Semi-structured interview

The semi-structured interview was used to collect qualitative information. It is suggested that the semi-structured interview allows the interviewer to get information from the pre-set interview items. The interviewees can freely express their perceptions and feelings about the research issues. The researcher as the interviewer can obtain focused information and control the time of the interviews to a certain extent. In addition, the researcher can be more flexible with the way he or she guides the interview, based on his or her perception of what seems appropriate to ask, omit, clarify or include during the sessions (Robson, 1993; Yin, 1994).

Therefore, in this present study, the semi-structured interview was used to elicit the pre-service teachers' problems of reading for instruction planning, the good points and the weak points of the EFL reading model and some suggestions concerning the model. The interview was conducted in Thai to make sure that the interviewees do not have any linguistic problems when answering the questions. It took approximately 20 minutes per person. Sets of questions were determined by the research questions based on the literature review, and prepared by the researcher. These sets of questions were proposed to and corrected by the research specialists for validity and reliability.

3.5.6 Researcher's diaries, pre-service teachers' diaries and secondary school students' diaries

According to Bailey and Oschner (1983, p. 189)

“A diary study in second language learning, acquisition or teaching is an account of a second language experience as recorded in a first-person journal. The diarist may be a language teacher or a language learner but the central characteristic of the diary studies is that they are introspective:

The diarist studies his own teaching or learning.”

In terms of the purpose of diary studies, Richards et al.(1992) state that diary studies are often used to supplement other ways of collecting data, such as through the use of experimental techniques. They can provide information and insights into language learning which is unlikely to be obtained by other means (Nunan, 1989). Cohen and Scott (1996) point out that diaries are generated by the learners, usually unstructured, so the entries may cover a wide range of themes and issues. They may include learners' written reports of the cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategies they use dairy in language learning. Accordingly, in the present study, the pre-service teachers' diaries, secondary school students' diaries and the researcher's diary were used to validate the findings through triangulation.

The pre-service teachers were asked to record, for example, their opinions and reflection towards each lesson including learning progress or learning problems and the benefits they receive. In addition, in the follow-up phase, the four pre-service teachers were assigned to write diaries to reflect their own teaching

3.5.7 Questionnaire concerning the pre-service teachers' opinions towards the EFL reading model

Questionnaire is a useful instrument in collecting different types of data such as background, knowledge and behaviors, attitudes, values, opinions or beliefs from respondents (Punch, 1998). Also, questionnaires are defined by Brown (2001, p.6) as “any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers”.

In this present study, the questionnaire was used to examine what pre-service teachers think about the EFL reading instruction. It consists of three main parts. The first part was general information about the pre-service teachers. The second part aims at eliciting the pre-service teachers' opinions about the content of the lesson on reading theory, the EFL methods for the teaching of reading and reading skills in the EFL reading model. The third part asked the pre-service teachers' opinions towards the EFL reading lessons.

3.6 Research procedure

This study consisted of five phases. The first phase was to investigate the pre-service teachers' problems of EFL reading and suggestions to teach EFL reading via oral interviews and questionnaires. The second phase was to design an EFL reading instructional system. The third phase was to develop and determine the efficiency of the EFL reading lesson. The fourth phase was to investigate whether the pre-service teachers could apply their knowledge gained from the EFL reading lessons to their teaching reading practice. Finally, the effectiveness and efficiency of the instruction

occurring throughout the entire instructional design process within phases, between phases, and after implementation were measured.

This section describes the research procedure including the data collection as follows:

Phase I : Analysis

The purpose of this phase was to investigate the pre-service teachers' problems of English reading and opinions or suggestions about English reading instruction on the basis of the Delphi Technique. According to Choungthaisong (1997), the procedures of the Delphi Technique for educational research can be summarized as follows:

The researcher selected a group of specialists or a group of concerned people and sends them letters asking for their cooperation in responding to the questionnaires. After agreeing to participate in the research, the specialists responded to the open-ended questionnaire for the first round.

Then, the researcher collected the questionnaires, analyzed the responses and developed a scale-rating questionnaire based on the findings of the open-ended questionnaire. Next, the rating scale questionnaires developed were sent to the specialists. The specialists were asked to respond to the questions for the second round.

In the third-round, after the researcher collected and analyzed the rating-scale questionnaires from the second round, the researcher developed another rating-scale questionnaire including the median and interquartile range for each question item as well as a mark on the scale which each expert has made for that item in the previous rating-scale questionnaire. The specialists were asked to respond to the questionnaire

mentioned above for the third round. Their previous responses must be taken into consideration. The specialists decided whether they confirm their responses. If not, they were required to make new ratings; and if their new ratings were out of the interquartile ranges, they were asked to give reasons. Finally, the researcher collected the questionnaires for further analysis. The results obtained were prioritized to indicate the problems from the highest rank to the lowest. (See Figure 3.1)

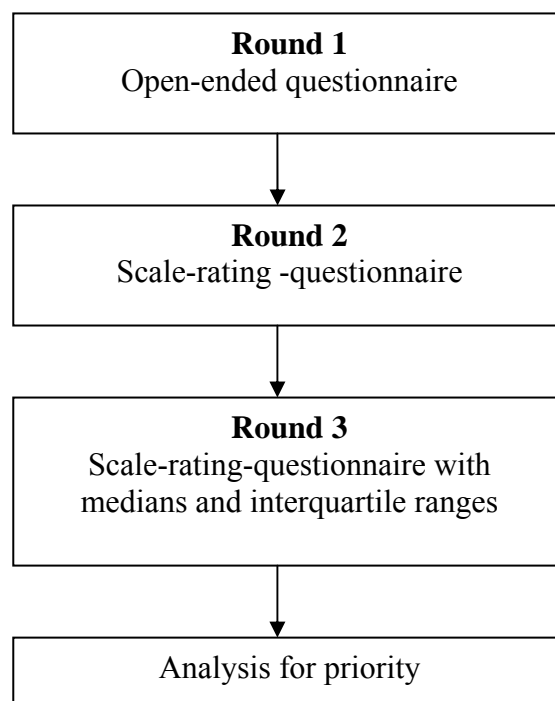


Figure 3.3 : The Delphi technique procedure

Hence, on the basis of the Delphi Technique, the research procedure in phase I is summarized.

Firstly, two EFL teachers of reading who have five years experience in teaching EFL reading were interviewed. The data gained from the interview was used partly for questionnaire construction. Then, the researcher send letters to 17 EFL

reading teachers so called ‘reading specialists’ each with at least five years experience in teaching EFL reading at Rajabhat Universities (RU) in north-east Thailand to respond to questionnaires using the Delphi technique. They included one each from Roi-Et, Buriram, Loey; two each from Mahasarakham, Sakonnakorn, Udonthani, and Surin, and three from Ubon Ratchatani, and Nakhorn Ratchasima.

After that, the researcher developed three round questionnaires asking about the pre-service teachers’ problems in English reading and suggestions for teaching EFL reading after the 17 EFL reading teachers agreed to participate. This process took 3 months. Finally, the information obtained from the questionnaires was analyzed and prioritized to indicate the problems of pre-service teachers in EFL reading from the highest to the lowest.

Phase II : Design

After analyzing the data obtained from the oral interview and the questionnaires using Delphi technique, the researcher reviewed the related literature on EFL reading and teaching EFL reading. Then the objectives of the lessons were written. Next, the researcher then identified the learners to determine which of the required enabling skills the learners bring to the learning task, selected content of the lessons and specified teaching methods. Finally instructional environment and evaluation were identified.

Phase III : Development

This phase includes the development of the lessons for EFL reading instruction for pre-service teachers which consists of 10 units. After developing the lessons, they were tried out to assess the efficiency of the lessons, including a single experiment, a small-grouped experiment, and a large-group experiment.

Developing a model

1. Develop the EFL reading conceptual framework.
2. Develop the content of the lessons on the basis of the information gathered in Phase I and the literature review.
3. Evaluate the content of the lessons by the experts in the area of instructional design and EFL reading instruction.
4. Draft the EFL reading model.
5. Try out the EFL reading model through the reading lessons package with 25 pre-service teachers majoring in English at Mahasarakham Rajabhat University. These pre-service teachers study the teaching of EFL reading strategies in class.
6. Finalize the model. The pre-service teachers' feedback and suggestion were considered.

Developing the tests

1. Construct the pre-and post test in relation to the revised content of the lessons.
2. Construct the tests of reading skills for the secondary school students.
3. Improve and correct the items of the tests for both pre-service teachers and secondary school students.
4. Pilot the tests.

Phase III : Implementation

A) Experiment

This phase is the experimental phase aiming to test the efficiency of the EFL reading model. The experiment was conducted before pre-service teachers'

teaching practice in the first semester of the 2007 academic year. The followings are the procedure for Phase III.

1. One day prior to the experiment, all of the subjects were tested on their knowledge of methods of teaching EFL reading and reading skills by a pre-test. The test was conducted on two consecutive days. The first pre-test on the first day aims to investigate the pre-service teachers' knowledge of reading theory and EFL methods for the teaching of reading. The pre-test on the second day aims to test the pre-service teachers' reading ability. Each test lasted two hours.
2. After taking the pre-test, the pre-service teachers received EFL reading instruction by the researcher. The instruction was conducted in extra scheduled classes without disturbing the teaching in the normal scheduled class, twice a week, for 12 weeks.

The teaching procedure started with a description of the lesson objectives. Next, the teacher presented new skills in short steps, giving several examples and using clear language. During the presentation, the teacher regularly checked whether her students understood the new skills, for example by stimulating them to give their own examples. At the end of the presentation, the teacher summarized and stressed the most important part of the new skills. Then she practiced new skills with her students. The goal of this guided practice was to process the new information through active practice under the guidance of the teacher until the students were ready to work on assignments independently. The teacher concluded every lesson with an

evaluation of the assignments that the students have done. Briefly, the teacher discussed the content of the lesson and summarizes what students have learned.

3. After each lesson, the pre-service teachers were asked to write a diary expressing their opinions or feedback. The feedback helped them to reflect their own opinions about the lessons and how the reading theories and reading strategies presented in the lessons. Also, the researcher as a teacher kept her own diary after each lesson.
4. After the course, a post-test was given to all subjects. The same process was used for the post-test as for the pre-test. The post-test was conducted on two consecutive days. The first day aimed to test the pre-service teachers' knowledge of methods of teaching EFL reading. The second day was to test the pre-service teachers' reading ability, taking approximately 3 hours for each test.
5. After taking the post-test, the questionnaires was followed by the semi-structured interviews which were administered to all subjects to investigate the students' opinions on the EFL reading model, and how the model could help them prepare their knowledge for the teaching of EFL reading and how it improves their reading skills.

B) Follow-up

This phase aims to investigate whether pre-service teachers' can apply their knowledge gained from the EFL reading instructional model to their teaching practice. Also, it is to determine the secondary school students' reading ability, that is whether their reading ability will be different if they are instructed by the pre-

service teachers whose scores are above or lower than the median. In this phase, all of them will practice teaching the 7th through 9th grade students in a secondary school.

The procedure of this phase is described as follows:

1. After the pre-service teachers were instructed by the researcher using EFL reading instructional model, they were categorized into high and low achieving groups, according to the median of the total scores from the post-test.
2. On a voluntary basis, two high achieving pre-service teachers and two low achieving pre-service teachers were selected to participate in the follow-up phase of the study.
3. Before the secondary school students were instructed by four pre-service teachers, a 2-hour pre-test was administered to measure their reading abilities.
4. During their teaching practice, three reading lessons of the four subjects were observed by the researcher, one each at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end of their teaching practice. The information obtained from the researcher's observations was recorded in the researcher's diary. After each reading lesson, the pre-service teachers were required to reflect their own teaching in their diaries. In doing so, they could listen to their own voices and become sensitive to their own instructional theories and how they might affect their practice and the students' learning. At the same time, the secondary school students in the pre-service teachers' classes

were asked to write diaries on their learning to read English after each reading lesson taught by the pre-service teacher.

5. At the end of the classroom practice, a post-test for the secondary school students were administered to test their reading ability.
6. Four pre-service teachers were interviewed so that the researcher could gain more data from their teaching practice. In addition, their opinion of the content of the lessons in the EFL reading model was sought in order to determine how it affects the forms of their teaching.

Phase V : Evaluation

This phase aims to measure the effectiveness and efficiency of the instruction occurring throughout the entire instructional design process within phases, between phases, and after implementation. Material uses, components of the class were observed and determined what worked best and need to be revised to improve learning process. The pre-service teachers' opinions and learning achievement were also investigated. The research design is illustrated in Figure 3.2

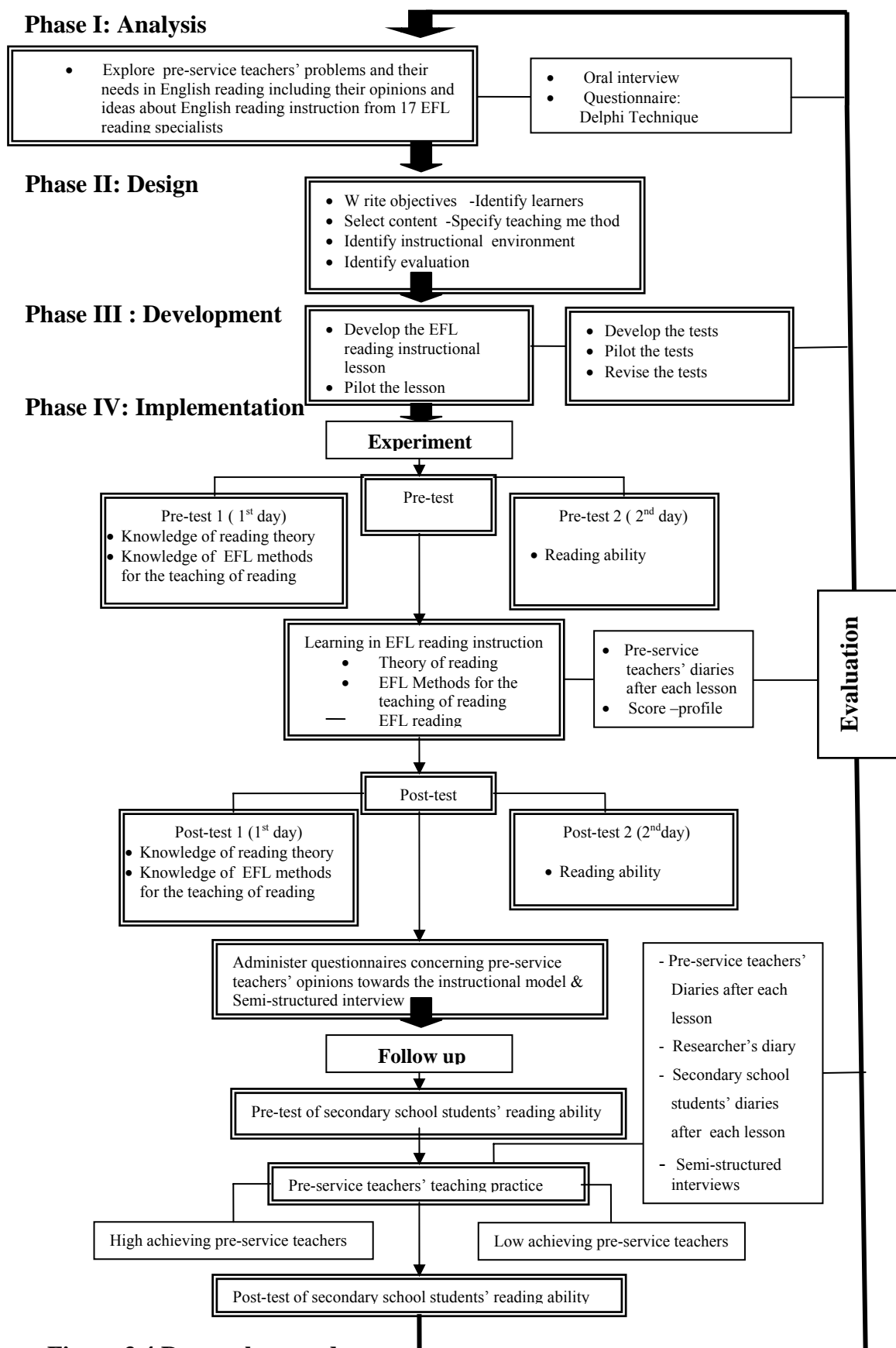


Figure 3.4 Research procedure

3.7 Process of data analysis

The data obtained was analyzed and interpreted to find the answers for the research questions as follows.

3.7.1 Analysis of data obtained from the interviews of the teachers of EFL reading and questionnaire using Delphi technique

The data obtained from interviews of the teachers of EFL reading was grouped into categories by the researcher and used as resources for developing the questionnaire later.

The results of the open-ended questionnaires were categorized in groups. For the scale-rating questionnaires, descriptive statistics, which are means, standard deviations, medians and interquartile ranges were used for the calculations. Consensus on the priorities of the items were determined by computing the interquartile range of each item. Items were ranked according to the medians and means from the highest to the lowest values.

3.7.2 Analysis of data obtained from the pre-test and the post-test

1) The data obtained from the pre-test and the post-test of pre-service teachers

The mean scores of a pre-test and a post-test was calculated to find their significant differences by using two tailed t-test to compare pre-service teachers' learning achievement after being instructed by using the EFL reading model. In addition, a correlation coefficient analysis was employed to determine the degree of relationship between the two variables: pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL reading and pre-service teachers' reading ability. In addition, the median of the total scores from the part of knowledge of teaching reading in the post-test was used

to categorize pre-service teachers' learning achievement into two groups ; high achieving and low achieving pre-service teachers.

**2) Analysis of the data obtained from the pre-test and the post-test
of the secondary school students**

The analysis of the secondary school students' scores from the pre- and post-tests was done by the arithmetic means (\bar{x}). Correlation coefficient was employed to investigate the relationship between the secondary school students' reading ability and the pre-service teachers' learning achievement from the EFL reading model.

**3) Analysis of the data obtained from pre-service teachers' diaries,
researcher's diaries, secondary school students' diaries and the
questionnaire**

After the data from pre-service teachers' diaries, researcher's diaries, secondary school students' diaries and questionnaires were collected from the participants, a content analysis was carried out. The researcher, then, categorized the findings into groups.

In conclusion, the data and the information obtained through each instrument was analyzed and interpreted to find the answers to the research questions as shown in

Table 3.3 Summary of research instruments and data analysis

Research Questions	Instruments	Data Analysis
1. What are the pre-service teachers' problems in EFL reading and their teaching practice.?	Interview	Content analysis
	Questionnaire using Delphi technique	Median and interquartile ranges
2. Does the instruction by using EFL reading lessons improve the pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL reading and their reading ability? If so, how is the efficiency of the lessons related to their knowledge of teaching EFL reading and their reading ability?	Pre- test and post- test 1)Pre-service teachers' score profiles 2) Post-test	Paired <i>t</i> -test E1/E2
3. Is there a relationship between the pre-service teachers' reading ability and their knowledge of teaching EFL reading?	post-test	Correlation Coefficient
4. Is there a relationship between high and low pre-service teachers' learning achievement and secondary school students' reading ability?	Quantitative approach: Secondary school students' pre and post test of reading ability	Correlation Coefficient
5. What are the pre-service teachers' opinions towards the EFL reading instructional lesson?	1) Questionnaire 2) Pre-service teachers' diaries 3) Semi-structured interviews	Content analysis
6. What is the impact of the instruction of the EFL reading lessons on the pre-service teachers' practice?	Qualitative approach: 1)Pre-service teachers' diaries 2) Researcher's diaries 3) Secondary school students' diaries 4) Semi-structured Interviews	Content analysis

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the research findings which are organized according to the research questions as stated in Chapter 1.

4.1 Analysis of pre-service teachers' problems in EFL reading and recommendations for EFL reading instruction

This part aims to answer to the Research Question 1 what the pre-service teachers' problems in EFL reading and their teaching practice are.

To investigate the pre-service teachers' problems in EFL reading and obtain the suggestion in teaching EFL reading for pre-service teachers, the researcher explored problems from teachers through oral interviews and questionnaires. Then, the data was grouped into categories and translated into English. The findings were as follows.

4.1.1 The results obtained from oral interviews

The teacher interview was composed of three parts. The first part was concerned with teacher background information; the second part was concerned with problems of pre-service teachers' EFL reading and their teaching practice; and the last part was concerned with teaching strategies that promoted pre-service teachers' reading instruction.

Two experienced teachers were interviewed for about half an hour, one at a time. Teacher A, who has been teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) for more than seventeen years, has taught EFL reading for pre-service teachers at Nakornratchasima Rajabhat University. Teacher B has taught EFL for more than ten years and has taught EFL reading for pre-service teachers at Roi-Et Rajabhat University. Both of them agreed that pre-service teachers had problems of EFL reading, which were those of vocabulary, grammar and reading techniques. In addition, Teacher A mentioned that most of the pre-service teachers' English proficiency was low, causing ineffective English language teaching, including reading. Accordingly, their teaching practices were still problematic. They also lacked prior knowledge of the text being taught and usually read and translated all English vocabulary in the text. The other stated that the pre-service teachers did not spend their time practicing reading in English, often lacked motivation to read, and frequently had no reading habits and purpose.

Concerning the factors that help pre-service teachers develop English reading comprehension, both teachers indicated reading materials and classroom instruction were crucial. Teacher A stated that authentic text should be used, whereas the other favored adapted texts. Regarding classroom instruction, both teachers added two more factors which are the curriculum and motivation to read also affected pre-service teachers' learning to read. The curriculum should integrate four language skills in each lesson, including various types of reading materials. Activities to create prior knowledge of the text should be used. She also added that English should be used as the medium of instruction. In the same vein, Teacher B pointed out that English

translation appropriate to students' levels should be used. However, students' native language could be used occasionally.

Regarding teaching reading strategies that promoted pre-service teachers' teaching practice, both teachers agreed that they should be provided with reading theories and motivation in order to ground their decision making in teaching effectively. Modeling strategic reading instruction such as teaching skimming, scanning, identifying main idea, etc, should be also presented in the teaching methodology course. In addition, the pre-service teachers should be prepared with the knowledge of enhancing students' motivation to read, utilizing a wide variety of reading materials and students' learning evaluation. However, a teacher said that pre-service teachers should first have good grammar skills and self-motivation to develop their own reading ability to become knowledgeable teachers.

4.1.2 The results obtained from questionnaires

The investigation was conducted through questionnaires using the Delphi technique. The results of open-ended questionnaires in the first round were categorized in groups. For the scale-rating questionnaires, descriptive statistics which were means, standard deviations, medians and interquartile ranges were used to calculate each item. Consensus on the priorities of the items was determined by computing the interquartile range of each item. Items were ranked according to the medians and means from the highest to the lowest values. The same statistics were used with the data from the third-round questionnaires. However, the findings for this round were ranked for top priority. The ranks were based on the medians and interquartile range of ≤ 1.50 level, which demonstrated the correlation of all participants' opinions on each statement. The median obtained from the participants'

responses was used to interpret the result according to the following criteria (Yanthong, 1989 cited from Chuongthaisong, 1997).

4.50 and up = the participants very strongly agree with the statement

3.50 – 4.49 = the participants strongly agree with the statement

2.50 – 3.49 = the participants moderately agree with the statement

1.50 – 2.49 = the participants less agree with the statement

Less than 1.50 = the participants least agree with the statement

The results from the questionnaires using Delphi Technique can be categorized into 3 parts as follows:

1) Factors affecting pre-service teachers' EFL reading

Table 4.1 below presents the ranked statements with which reading specialists had a corresponding opinion.

Table 4.1 Reading specialists' opinion on factors affecting pre-service teachers' EFL reading

Ranks	Factors affecting pre-service teachers' EFL reading	Medians	Mode	Interquartiles
1	• Lack of reading habits	5.00	5.00	1.50
2	• Inability to guess meaning from contexts	4.00	4.00	0.00
2	• Inadequacy of vocabulary to understand the texts	4.00	5.00	1.00
2	• Inability to find the main idea of the text	4.00	4.00	1.00
2	• Lack of knowledge about text types and pattern of organization.	4.00	4.00	1.00
2	• Inability to understand long and complex sentences	4.00	4.00	1.00
2	• Reading and translating the English text based on Thai patterns and structures	4.00	4.00	1.50
2	• Lack of understanding of the cultural background of English-speaking countries	4.00	4.00	1.50
9	• Lack of eye movement practice	3.00	3.00	1.00
9	• Inability to use dictionary effectively	3.00	3.00	1.50
9	• Insufficient knowledge of English grammar	3.00	3.00	1.50

Table 4.1 above shows 11 items upon which the reading specialists correspondingly agreed. The reading specialists very strongly agreed that lack of reading habits was the most important factor, followed by inability to guess meaning from contexts, inadequacy of vocabulary to understand the texts, inability to find the main idea of the text, lack of knowledge about text types and their organization, inability to understand long and complex sentences, reading and translating the English text based on Thai patterns and structures translating and lack of understanding of the cultural background of English-speaking countries. Lack of eye movement practice, inability to use a dictionary effectively and insufficient knowledge of English grammar were also agreed as factors that can cause pre-service teachers' difficulty in EFL reading.

2) The problems of pre-service teachers in their practice of teaching EFL reading

There were only 4 corresponding problems reading specialists agreed upon, as shown in Table 4.2

Table 4.2 Reading specialists' opinion on problems of pre-service teachers in their practice of teaching EFL reading

Ranks	Problems of pre-service teachers in teaching practice	Medians	Mode	Interquartiles
1	• Little experience in teaching reading	4.00	4.00	1.00
1	• Ineffective use of each reading strategies	4.00	4.00	1.00
1	• Inefficient use of questioning techniques	4.00	4.00	1.00
4	• Inadequacy of linguistic knowledge to develop teaching strategies	3.00	3.00	1.00

As shown in Table 4.2, the reading specialists strongly agreed that little experience in teaching reading, inefficient use of each reading strategies and questioning techniques were the first three ranked problems of pre-service teachers' teaching practice. They also agreed that inadequacy of linguistic knowledge to develop teaching strategies could make trouble for pre-service teacher's teaching practice. It can be explained that pre-service teachers' English proficiency was limited. This leads to their difficulties in comprehending the text, making the wrong sense of meaning when they teach their own students of how to read in English.

3) Recommendations on effective methods of teaching EFL reading applicable to pre- service teachers' teaching practice

Sixteen effective methods of teaching EFL reading were recommended as shown in Table 4.3

Table 4.3 Reading specialists' recommendations on effective methods of teaching EFL reading applicable to pre-service teachers' teaching practice

Ranks	Effective methods of teaching EFL reading	Medians	Mode	Interquartiles
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Activate students' background knowledge of the texts by providing vocabulary, grammar and content exercise as pre-reading activities 	5.00	5	1.00
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell students about purposes of reading 	5.00	5	1.00
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use a variety of teaching methods and select various contents relevant to the students' English ability and needs 	5.00	5	1.50
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrate reading strategies required for different purposes of reading 	4.00	5	1.00
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use authentic reading materials appropriate to students' needs and English ability 	4.00	5	1.50
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide supportive reading activities 	4.00	5	1.50
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide reading activities that stimulate both top-down and bottom up process in reading 	4.00	4	1.00
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encourage cooperative learning strategies 	4.00	4	1.00

Ranks	Effective methods of teaching EFL reading	Medians	Mode	Interquartiles
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teach text types and pattern of organization 	4.00	4	1.00
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teach students to use context clues when reading 	4.00	4	1.00
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teach students how to identify topics and main ideas 	4.00	4	1.00
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have students spend more time practicing reading skills by using extensive reading 	4.00	4	1.00
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assess reading comprehension regularly. 	4.00	4	1.50
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Motivate students to read more, such as, by posing a question or problem for them to find answers/solutions, or by using the recent topics in class 	4.00	4	1.50
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teach and demonstrate speed reading techniques 	4.00	3	1.50
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use internet-based instruction 	4.00	3	1.00

As presented in Table 4.3, the reading specialists highly recommended 3 teaching methods as the most effective, namely to activate students' background knowledge about the texts by providing vocabulary, grammar and content exercises as pre-reading activities; to tell students the purposes of reading; and to use a variety of teaching methods and select various contents relevant to the students' English ability and needs. Moreover, they strongly agreed that the rest 13 methods could be effective for their practice of teaching EFL reading.

4.2 The analysis of model's efficiency

This part aims to answer to the Research Question 2 whether the instruction by using EFL reading lessons improve pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL readings and their reading ability. If so, how the efficiency of the lessons is related to their knowledge of teaching EFL readings and their reading ability.

The main purposes for this part are to 1) determine the efficiency of the lessons of EFL reading instructional system for pre-service teachers at Roi-Et

Rajabaht University based on the 75/75 standard and 2) determine pre-service teachers' learning achievement after the experiment.

4.2.1 The development of EFL reading instructional lesson

There were three trials to evaluate EFL reading instruction lessons. They were based on the one-to-one, small group and field study trials. The results of three trials are shown in Table 4.4

Table 4.4: The results of the three trials

Trials	E1 (Efficiency of Process)	E2 (Effectiveness of Product)
One- to -one	72.50	71.67
A small group	75.30	75.25
The field study	75.54	75.50

It was found that the efficiency of the process and product for the one-to-one trial was below the prescribed criteria of 75/75. This could be explained that the content were not appropriate to pre-service teachers' learning abilities. According to pre-service teachers' opinions, it was found that they required more explanation and translation for some lessons. Moreover, the features and levels of difficulty of exercises did not match with the ones in post-test. Therefore, the lessons were revised and retried. Consequently, the result of the field study trials demonstrated that EFL reading instructional lessons got 75.54 for the efficiency of the process and 75.50 for the effectiveness of the product, which met the criteria of 75/75. This corresponded well to the first hypothesis in Chapter 1.

4.2.2 Pre-service teachers' learning achievement on knowledge of teaching EFL reading

The pre-service teachers took pre-and post-test to determine their learning achievement both before and after studying the EFL reading instruction lessons. The result showed that pre-service teachers learning achievement increased as illustrated in Table 4.5

Table 4.5: Pre-service teachers' learning achievement on knowledge of teaching EFL reading

Test	Mean	SD	n
Pre-test	19.12	3.96	25
Post-test	30.2	4.92	25

Table 4.5 shows that pre-service teachers got higher mean scores after studying the EFL reading instruction lessons. In addition, to examine whether their knowledge of teaching EFL reading increased significantly, pre-test and post-test scores were compared and calculated as illustrated in Table 4.6

Table 4.6: The statistical difference between pre- and post-tests of teaching EFL Reading

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Post_test Pre_test	11.080	3.69594	.73919	9.55439	12.60561	14.989	24	.000

According to Tables 4.6, it is apparent that there are significant differences between pre- and post-test scores at .000 level of significance ($p<.01$). This indicates that the pre-service teachers had better learning achievement after studying the EFL reading instruction lessons.

4.3 The relationship between pre-service teachers' reading ability and their knowledge of teaching EFL reading

This part aims to answer to Research Question 3 whether there is a relationship between pre-service teachers' reading ability and their knowledge of teaching EFL reading.

To investigate the relationship between pre-service teachers' reading ability and their knowledge of teaching EFL reading, the scores of the post-test of teaching EFL reading and those of reading ability were compared and calculated.

4.3.1 Pre-service teachers' reading ability

The pre-service teachers took pre-and post test of reading ability to determine their reading ability both before and after studying the EFL reading instructional lessons. See Table 4.7

Table 4.7 :Pre-service teachers' reading ability

Test	Mean	SD	n
Pre-test	25.48	5.5	25
Post-test	27.68	5	25

Table 4.7 shows that pre-service teachers got higher mean scores from the test of reading ability after studying the EFL reading instruction lessons. In addition,

to examine whether the scores of the pre-service teachers' reading ability increased significantly, pre-test and post-test scores were compared and calculated as illustrated in Table 4.8

Table 4.8 : The mean differences between pre- and post-tests of reading ability

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
	Post-test Pre-test	2.20000	3.85141	.77028	.61022	3.78978	2.856	24	.009

Table 4.8 illustrates that there are significant differences between pre and post-test scores at .009 level of significance ($p < .01$). This indicates that the pre-service teachers had higher reading ability after studying the EFL reading instructional lessons which corresponds to the hypothesis 3 in Chapter 1

4.3.2 The comparison of the pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL reading and their reading ability

To investigate the relationship between pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL reading and their reading ability, the scores from the post-test of teaching EFL reading and those of reading ability were analyzed by using correlation coefficient as illustrated in Figure 4.1

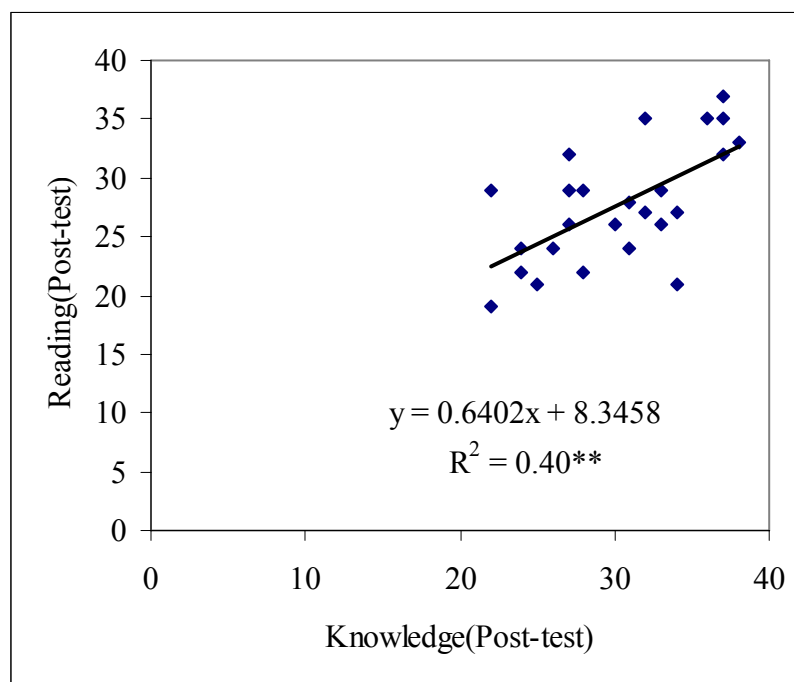


Figure 4.1 : The relationship between pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL reading and their reading ability

Figure 4.1 indicates that there is a significant relationship between pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL reading and their reading ability ($R=0.40$) which corresponds to the hypothesis 4 in Chapter 1.

4.4 Analysis of relationship between pre-service teachers' learning achievement and secondary school students' reading ability

This part aims to answer Research Question 4 whether there is any relationship between high-achieving pre-service teachers' learning achievement and low-achieving pre-service teachers' learning achievement in EFL reading instructional model and secondary school students' reading ability

After 25 pre-service teachers were instructed through the EFL reading instructional lessons, in the application phase, on voluntary basis, four pre-service teachers were required to teach students at different secondary schools. The secondary school students took pre- and post-test to determine their learning achievement both before and after studying the EFL reading lessons with different four pre-service teachers. This question aims to determine whether the secondary school students' reading achievement differ when they were instructed by pre-service teachers whose scores were above or lower than the median. The secondary school students' reading achievement and pre-service teachers' learning achievement were compared with correlation coefficients. The result is illustrated in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: The relationship between the pre-service teachers' learning achievement and the secondary school students' reading achievement

		Teachers	Students
Pearson Correlation	Teachers	1.000	.994
	Students	.994	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Teachers	.	.003
	Students	.003	.
N	Teachers	4	4
	Students	4	4

Table 4.9 indicates that there is a significant relationship between the pre-service teachers' learning achievement and the secondary school students' reading achievement ($P < .001$). This corresponded to the hypothesis 5 in Chapter 1

4.5 Investigation of pre-service teachers' attitudes towards the EFL reading instructional lessons

This part aims to answer Research Question 5 what pre-service teachers' attitudes towards the EFL reading instructional lessons are.

To investigate the pre-service teachers' opinion towards the EFL reading instructional lessons, the pre-service teachers were asked to response to an open-ended questionnaire after they completed all of the lessons. In addition, the pre-service teachers' diaries were analysed. The data was categorized into two major groups: advantages of EFL reading instructional lessons and their limitations which included suggestions for the EFL reading instructional lessons. The findings are presented as follows:

4.5.1 Advantages of EFL reading instructional lessons

1) Raising pre-service teachers' awareness of reading theory

affecting reading instructional preparation

The evidence from the open-ended questionnaire reveals that all pre-service teachers agreed that the content of EFL reading instructional lessons enabled them to be aware of the importance of the reading theories to their reading instructional preparation. They felt that understanding reading process and increasing knowledge of language guided them to plan their own reading lessons purposively, to design reading activities according to the purpose of the lesson as seen from the extract below:

"I have never been instructed on theory of reading and could not see the relation between theories and practice. After I learned I think it is very important to have knowledge on reading theory so that we can design the reading activities appropriate to my own EFL reading lesson."

“To know reading process help me plan for my future instruction as a teacher of reading a lot. To be grounded by how people read led me think about how to teach my students to read.”

“I agree that EFL reading teachers must understand language and reading process before I enter the class so that I can help students to learn more effectively.”

“I like the content of each lesson. It provided me more idea and remind me of the reason why and how to read. It would be beneficial to my future teaching as I could think about the purpose of what I am going to teach”

“ In this lesson, I can learn what I have never thought it can be beneficial to EFL reading. Understanding reading theories makes me have a good plan for my classroom teaching”

2. Raising pre-service teachers’ awareness of strategic reading instruction

The EFL reading instructional model could not only raise pre-service teachers’ awareness of reading theories for their instructional preparation but also increase their awareness of strategic reading instruction. Pre-service teachers had positive attitude in learning about strategic reading instruction. They realized that teaching reading strategies explicitly could help them clearly understand how to read step by step. The way the teacher modeled each reading strategy in class satisfied them and they thought it may be applicable to their own classroom teaching. The reading strategies pre-service teachers considered them important for their own classroom teaching were how to deal with different types of texts and skimming techniques. The data derived from the open ended questionnaire is revealed as follows:

“It would be beneficial for learners to be instructed on reading strategies explicitly. I think they need to know how to deal with different types of texts. ”

“I could have more idea on how to teach reading strategies. It is very important for the readers to learn the techniques to read effectively”.

“I like the way the teacher demonstrated how to teach reading. It reminded me of how I could transfer the skills to my own students”

“I prefer the activities on teaching skimming the most. ”

“It was very wonderful for the lesson today on how to teach reading strategies. It was not only important for my own reading but also I could make use of the strategies teacher modeled as the guidelines for my future reading classroom ”

3) Creating cooperative learning

In terms of teaching and learning process, generally, pre-service teachers found the lessons interesting. In reflecting on lessons, pre-service teachers commented that in most lessons they liked the activities, the lesson presentation, the ways they could share the idea in class and the examples provided by the teachers. As a result, the pre-service teachers were eager to learn and had positive feedback on EFL reading instructional lessons. In addition, most pre-service teachers asserted that activities in some lessons were enjoyable and challenged them. Their comments were:

“There are activities that helped me better understand the lesson step by step. Even though it seemed very difficult at the beginning, after brainstorming, I can get more idea from my friends. They are very beneficial. They stimulated me to learn, get involved in the activities. They are very interesting .”

“The ways the teachers gave us a chance to brainstorm in group really helped me getting more and new ideas to create activities applicable to my situation”

“ I like to share the idea with my friends about teaching reading techniques. I like the activitie that the teacher gave us some problems and let us think about the solution. It really challenged me and my group members.”

4) Increasing confidence in reading

Another advantage of the lessons was that the activities also required pre-service teachers to practice more about reading techniques before they were assigned to teach secondary school students. Therefore, the pre-service teachers should have a clear idea on many different reading techniques such as identifying the main idea, how to deal with different types of structures and text scanning. Moreover, they were required to use English as much as possible when practicing how to teach. This could make them feel more confident not only in teaching their students but also in their own reading. The pre-service teachers' comments were:

“I could understand how to find the main ideas very well. I was given a chance to practice while learning how to teach it. I think I can better understand the passage” .

“Learning like this is very good. The lesson promotes my English skills and I can also use this technique for my study”

“Actually, the lessons provided many examples. I think I can better comprehend the text more clearly”

“I have learned how to scan texts, which we need everyday to read English texts. I can read the text more quickly, too. I will also try to find related activities for my teaching”

“In this lesson, I can understand how to find the main idea without reading every word in a sentence. I just look briefly across the passage because there are key words frequently found in the text which are related to the main idea.”

Obviously, EFL reading instructional lessons created a positive attitude towards learning to teach EFL reading in terms of awareness raising of reading theory affecting reading instructional preparation and strategic

reading instruction, creating cooperative learning and increasing confidence in reading.

4.5.2 Limitations and suggestions for EFL reading

instructional lessons

In diaries, pre-service teachers mentioned some limitations of the lessons which can be summarized as follows. First, as pre-service teachers have different learning styles and needs, they required learning various materials and activities that better match their learning to better enhance their learning. Second, some pre-service teachers found it difficult to understand reading theories because of the unfamiliar technical terms. Although pre-service teachers were facilitated by the teacher during the instruction, some of them confused with the idea presented. Therefore, they requested more Thai explanation in the teaching materials and examples helping them to understand more about the theory of reading. Pre-service teachers comments were:

“I fairly understand reading theory on schema. However, it would be better if you (teacher) would provide some more Thai explanation in the text because I did not understand some linguistics terms in the materials.

“This lesson contained unfamiliar content and provided a lot of details. I did not understand much because it was difficult to guess the meanings of unknown words in the materials. I need materials presented in Thai and more examples. I think it was very beneficial if I have no language problems”.

Another concern is that some pre-service teachers found the level of difficulty of tests and exercises were inappropriate to their abilities. Two of five pre-service teachers commented that the exercises in the lessons of reading theory, selecting reading materials, reading assessment were too difficult. Since exercises were designed in English and for all levels of pre-service teachers’ abilities, EFL reading

instructional lessons included tasks and exercises with different levels of difficulty.

Pre-service teachers' comments were:

"The tasks were good practice, but I did not do well because I did not understand some of the vocabulary"

"I did not do well on exercises. The content of the lessons were good, but I could not understand all information which I realized that it was very helpful."

The last limitation of the EFL reading instructional lessons, mentioned in pre-service teachers' diaries, is that some pre-service teachers asked for the researcher's assistance to reinforce their understanding of the lessons. Their comments were:

" There are too many theories of reading with difficult technical terms. I spent too long time to make understanding of the lessons. It should be better if the teacher could provide us more examples and give more time to practice"

"If it is possible, I need more time to practice my teaching in class so that I can get more feedback from the teacher. It could help me to make a right decision in my teaching practice next term."

In summary, the feedback and opinions from the open-ended questionnaire and pre-service teachers' diaries indicated that pre-service teachers perceived EFL reading instructional lessons beneficial. This means pre-service teachers have a positive attitude towards the lessons even though the limitations and suggestions for the lessons were made.

4.6 The impact of the instruction of EFL reading model on pre-service teacher's teaching practice

This section aims to answer Research Question 6 what the impact of the instruction of EFL reading model on pre-service teachers' teaching practice is.

To investigate how pre-service teachers apply their knowledge obtained from the reading instructional lessons to their classroom teaching practice, the data obtained from pre-service teachers' diaries, researcher's diaries, secondary school students' diaries was categorized into groups.

4.6.1 The results from an investigation of how pre-service teachers apply their knowledge obtained from the reading instructional lessons to their classroom teaching practice

1) A comparison of the pre-service teachers' classroom teaching practice

To compare the four pre-service teachers' classroom teaching practice, their characteristics are described as illustrated in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10 Characteristics of pre-service teachers, secondary school students, and Classes

Pre-service teacher (pseudonyms)	Sex	Learning achievement	School	Class level	Number of students in a class
Suwit	M	High	A	Grade 8	35
Irawan	F	High	B	Grade 8	44
Sutawan	F	Low	C	Grade 8	28
Supreeya	F	Low	D	Grade 8	30

Suwit

Suwit taught his class with the belief that teaching students to read is training them to read explicitly. In each lesson, he aimed to focus on only one strategy at a time. He followed a format that had been presented in the EFL reading instructional lessons. Each of these lessons were divided into three parts: pre-reading activities, while-reading activities and post-reading activities. He considered that it was not necessary for him to rely mainly on the course book provided by the school. He could develop the simple supplementary exercises related to the content in the course book and planned the lessons depending on the targeted strategies: using context clues to guess unknown words, identifying topic and main idea of the passage and scanning. He paid very much attention to thinking about different teaching strategies used in each lesson. Group work and pair work were usually employed for his reading activities. Cooperative learning was promoted in his class in which students of all levels of performance work together to complete the tasks. He realized that cooperative learning could help improve positive attitudes towards learning especially when students had a chance to share their ideas among the group members to accomplish the goal. Students evaluated his teaching in every lesson. A KWL form was adapted for teaching and learning feedback. Students in his class were assigned to fill in the form after every class to give comments on the lesson. When he found that his lesson was boring, according to his observation and students' comments, he tried the new strategy for the next lessons. Suwit also assessed his students' reading comprehension by using the multiple-choice reading test before and after class. In doing so, he could find his students' reading difficulties and was aware of his own teaching strategies. He found that if he had a well-prepared lesson plan with different

reading activities he was sure that his teaching would be very successful. Only the time limitation caused him in trouble as he could not complete his plans.

Irawan

Irawan always started the class with pre-test on what she was going to teach. She usually told the students what they were going to study at the beginning of the class. After that, the reading passage was presented. Irawan didn't use the passage in her course book as she found that it was not interesting. She tried to find the new passages from the internet in which the content related to those in the course book and students' background knowledge. The supplementary exercises were developed by herself since she found that it was suitable for her student's reading ability and more convenient for her classroom teaching. At least three worksheets were distributed to each student. All three lessons observed, she presented a reading passage followed by comprehension questions. To start the lesson, she tried to elicit student's background knowledge to find some ideas on the content of the reading passage and to guess the meaning of the unknown words. She tried to check students' reading comprehension by using comprehension questions. To do so she found that it could help her to deal with students' difficulties in reading. Her students also mentioned in their diaries that even though they had a lot of work to complete, this could make them beware of how much they should try more for their successful reading. Irawan tried to help her students learn how to guess unknown words from the context clues, how to analyze the sentence structure and how to use referencing to deal with the text. She thought that her students' level of reading ability was not high, so they should be trained about text attack skills. However, she was unsatisfied with her teaching as it was found that she needed more time to try more interesting reading activities. She

also believed that if she could find more fun activities to motivate her students in reading, her students' reading ability should be highly improved.

Sutawan

Sutawan prepared reading activities for her class based on the form of lesson planning provided in the course. She said it could facilitate her teaching organization. Accordingly, three stages of reading activities were presented in all three lessons during observation. Sutawan liked to use games or songs to start her lesson. Her reason was to create good atmosphere for language learning. She realized that her students were not good at English. She just thought if her students could change their attitude in learning English, they would be ready for learning all four language skills. Accordingly, Sutawan thought that in EFL reading it should be better to ask students to read whatever they want to read as external reading which were assigned as a homework. She found that her students gave her positive feedback as they were eager to share the idea when they came to class. She presented her teaching techniques confidently but didn't focus much on how to teach students to deal with the text. Only guessing the meaning of the unknown words were presented and translation methods were also used. However, she was satisfied with her teaching, and she found that if she had more time for teaching practice she would be able to try more strategies she had been instructed from EFL reading model.

Supreeya

Supreeya's teaching style was more text book based as she seemed to be not confident to adapt the new teaching materials. She followed the idea in the lesson plans already provided by the school curriculum. Preeya didn't use any supplementary materials for her teaching. However, in her first lesson she could find one reading

activity that most of her students considered the most interesting and very beneficial to them. The activity is how to use a dictionary. She included a sense of competition during modeling how to recognize a part of speech by eliciting what the students already knew about it. The students seemed to enjoy this and could give the right answer. For the next two lessons, she spent much of class time translating words and explaining the meaning of texts for her students. In doing so, she felt that the class's atmosphere changed and became less interesting. The number of students attending the class started decreasing. At the same time there were many special activities at the school for students to attend. Her students told her they decided to skip her class for these activities. Supreeya was not happy with her teaching as she felt she could not control the class. She also felt that her English was very limited. The way she taught mostly depended on her understanding and what she had been taught by her secondary school teachers. However, the confidence she experienced from learning new methods for teaching reading was how to prepare the reading lesson.

Clearly, all the pre-service teachers created their lesson plans following the scope and sequence in the course book. Suwit and Irawan, the high achieving pre-service teachers, were very flexible and exhibited more confidence in teaching the targeted reading strategies. They seem to have board enough concept of reading skill development and have the clear objectives in teaching their reading lessons. They were able to teach beyond the course book as they could find more supplementary materials to make the lesson more challenging. During the lesson, Suwit and Irawan were able to use a variety of teaching techniques in one lesson. They drew upon what they knew about interactive reading and was able to help students use targeted reading strategies. Top-down reading processes were used to activate students' schema at the

beginning of the lessons. Both top-down and bottom-up strategies and skills were employed to help students during reading. The ways they taught students to read were to let them become aware of reading process. Cooperative learning were also promoted.

On the other hand, Sutawan and Supreeya, the low achieving pre-service teachers, used only one or two strategies when teaching. They relied primarily on the scope and sequence in the course book. One major difference among the four pre-service teachers was the degree to which they understood the nature of reading and their belief in reading instruction. As a result, they each had decidedly different emphases on their lesson presentation. For example, Sutawan and Supreeya's teaching approach was based on their reliance on bottom-up strategies as one way to help students to cope with difficulties in reading, such as learning a part of speech of vocabulary, guessing unknown words and translating.

Also, it was found that only Suwit paid much attention to classroom management and teaching evaluation and comprehension assessment. Moreover, the four pre-service teachers could realize the importance of motivation in reading as they all mentioned students' interest and background knowledge for their material choices. A summary of the four pre-service teachers' approach to classroom teaching is presented in Table 4.11

2) An application of pre-service teachers' knowledge obtained from the EFL reading instructional lessons to their classroom teaching practice

The four pre-service teachers applied their knowledge obtained from the EFL reading instructional lessons to their classroom teaching practice as follows:

Lesson planning

All the pre-service teachers created the lesson plans following the scope and sequence in the school curriculum. However, they tried to apply what they had been trained in the EFL reading instruction' lesson. The three teaching steps: pre-, while-, and post- teaching were created. They all accepted that they received a benefit from the course in similar ways as follows:

“It was convenient for me to follow the lesson plan. To remind myself to reach the goal for each step of teaching, I just rechecked the lesson plan already prepared during teaching . I think, inexperience teachers should learn how to prepare the lesson first so that they will be able to organize the idea for teaching ”

Irawan

“When I started planning a reading lesson, I have to take a look the form of the lesson plan I've got from the teacher. To focus on the objective of every step of teaching could direct me to think about how to properly present the lesson based on the reading theory”

Suwit

It was found that lesson planning the four pre-service teachers had learned from the course was applicable to their teaching practice. They thought that using the form of lesson planning provided in the course could facilitate their organization of the activities presented, even though they all had to follow the lesson plan form of their schools. They were able to formulate what the lesson was intended to accomplish and how its goals were to be achieved. However, they all designed their lessons in different ways based on their school's requirement. They agreed that they were provided with not only the good

understanding of lesson planning but also an awareness of objectives developed for each step of teaching.

Strategies used for vocabulary development

All four pre-service teachers considered vocabulary knowledge as important for their students' EFL reading. In every lesson, the focus of their lessons mainly aimed to help students understand the vocabulary. The pre-service teachers were able to deal with their own students' reading problems. They realized that using context clues, looking for the key vocabulary, analyzing part of speech of the unknown words and sentence structure could facilitate their students' reading comprehension.

"It is very important for them to learn more on word meaning. It seems that my students could not understand the text unless they know the meaning of all words that are not familiar to them. I have to look for more strategies on teaching vocabulary to teach them every lesson"

Irawan

"My first lesson started with using context clues. I believe that if students can guess the meaning from context clues without using dictionary, it would be beneficial to them when they take the university entrance exam."

Suwit

"I think the young learners should know the meaning of the words before they are going to comprehend the text. So I tried to elicit the meaning of the key vocabulary for each lesson first to facilitate their comprehension."

Sutawan

"I asked my students help each other to look up the meaning and a part of speech of the unknown words. I think if the younger learners know sentence structure and the function of each unit in a sentence, it could be beneficial for them in reading. So I tried this strategy in class, having them work in groups with competition. I found that students liked it. Hopefully they could learn more"

Preeya

As mentioned above, the importance of vocabulary knowledge in the EFL reading and the utility of vocabulary instruction were addressed. It could be said that focused vocabulary instruction could have a positive effect on the vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension.

Material preparation

During reading lessons, the four pre-service teachers described that their materials choices were based on the consideration of their mainstream classes, the topics of the text that the students are familiar with such as interesting places, the appropriateness of students' English proficiency and background knowledge. Moreover, asking students to select reading materials by themselves was also another way that one of pre-service teachers employed. The comments are as follows:

“I found that when I choose the text which the students are familiar with the topic such as attractions in Roi-Et province it seemed easier for them to follow the ideas in the text during my presentation. They also could discuss more about the interesting places in their hometown”

Irawan

“One thing that I learned from the EFL reading instruction course applicable to my lesson preparation is the importance of student background knowledge. To prepare the teaching materials, I used the topic which presented of daily routine. I found that when the vocabulary is not complicated, my students were happy to read. This is because they can guess the meaning of the unknown word by using their background knowledge of what they are facing in the real situation.”

Suwit

“I think that if students had a chance to choose what they like to read by themselves, they can understand the value of reading. Therefore, I assigned my students to look for a short passage in a magazine. They were eager to read for information so that they can let their friends know about their story. They said they preferred to continue reading at home”

Sutawan

“I could not find appropriate supplementary materials for my students. Following the activities provided in the course book made me more comfortable as I was sure that learning objectives would be achieved in terms of an appropriateness of students’ level of language proficiency and background knowledge.”

Supreeya

In conclusion, it can be said that after the four pre-service teachers had been instructed on EFL reading instructional lessons, they became more aware of factors affecting their own classroom teaching in terms of planning a reading lesson, strategies used for vocabulary development and materials preparation. It can be clearly seen that the four pre-service teachers were able to apply the knowledge obtained from the lessons to their teaching, although to widely varying degrees.

CHAPTER 5

AN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

READING INSTRUCTIONAL SYSTEM FOR

PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS

The chapter presents an English as a foreign language reading instructional system for the pre-service teachers. An overview of the EFL reading instructional lessons and the components of the lessons are presented.

5.1 Process for the design of an English as a Foreign Language reading instructional system for pre-service teachers

This section contains the formation of EFL reading instructional system for pre-service teachers. The elements of the system process was derived according to, Branch's procedure (2005) and Edu Tech Wiki and Branch (2006). It is suggested that the models incorporate fundamental elements of the instructional design process including analysis of the intended audience or determining goals and objectives. Models may be used in different contexts. One model can be used for an entire course of instruction or elements from multiple models can be combined. There are many instructional design models but many are based on the ADDIE model with the phases analysis, design, development, implementation, and evaluation. These phases sometimes overlap and can be interrelated; however, they provide a dynamic, flexible

guideline for developing effective and efficient instruction. The process can be summarized into five general phases as in Branch's procedure (2005) as illustrated in Figure 5.1.

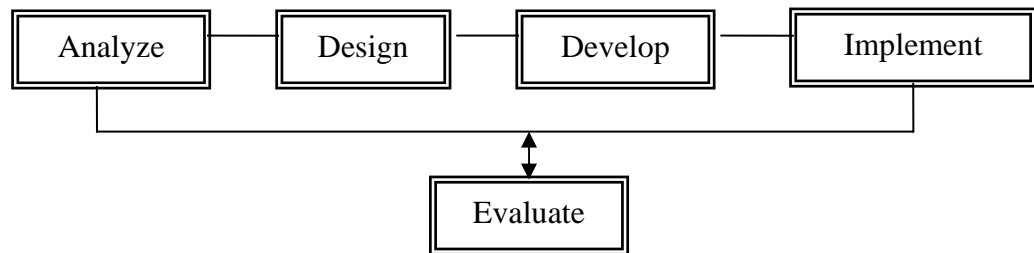


Figure 5.1 General instructional design

The **Analyze** phase is the foundation for all other phases of instructional design. This phase includes defining the problem, identifying the source of the problem and determining possible solutions. The outputs of this phase often include the instructional phase.

The **Design** phase involves using the outputs from the analyze phase to plan a strategy for developing the instruction. During this phase, the designer must outline how to reach the instructional goals determined during the Analyze phase and expand the instructional goal.

The **Develop** phase builds on both the **Analyze** and **Design** phases. The purpose of this phase is to generate the lesson plans and lesson materials. During this phase the designer will develop the instruction, all media that will be used in the instruction, and any supporting documentation.

The **Implement** phase refers to the actual delivery of the instruction, whether it's classroom-based, lab-based, or computer-based. The purpose of this phase is the effective and efficient delivery of instruction. This phase must promotes the students'

understanding of material, support the students' mastery of objectives, and ensure the students' transfer of knowledge from the instructional setting to the job.

The **Evaluate** phase measures the effectiveness and efficiency of the instruction. Evaluations should actually occur throughout the entire instructional design process within phases, between phases, and after implementation. Evaluation may be formative or summative. Formative evaluation is ongoing during and between phases. The purpose of this type of evaluation is to improve the instruction before the final version is implemented. Summative evaluation usually occurs after the final version of instruction is implemented. This type of evaluation assesses the overall effectiveness of the instruction. Data from the summative evaluation is often used to make a decision about the instruction such as whether to purchase an instructional package or continue/discontinue instruction.

According to the instructional design model earlier stated, every phase can be the guideline for the system formation intended to illustrate in this investigation called an EFL reading instructional system for pre-service teachers. Therefore, the elements of the EFL reading instructional system for pre-service teachers include five phases as follows:

1) Phase I : Analysis

This stage is to explore the problems of EFL reading faced by pre-service teachers by interviewing EFL reading teachers. In addition, the opinion of the reading specialists on EFL reading problems and suggestions for effective teaching EFL reading were investigated by using three-round questionnaire based on Delphi technique. The related literature on EFL reading teacher development was reviewed.

2) Phase II : Design

The EFL reading conceptual framework was developed. The information obtained from the problems exploration was analyzed and prepared for instructional design. Learning objectives was written. Learners' competencies were identified. Content, teaching method, instructional environment and evaluation were identified.

3) Phase III: Development

This phase includes the development of the lessons for EFL reading instruction for pre-service teachers which consists of 10 units. After developing the lessons, they were tried out to assess the efficiency of the lessons, including a single experiment, a small-grouped experiment, and a large-group experiment.

4) Phase IV: Implementation

The EFL reading instructional lessons were delivered to pre-service teachers. Then the pre-service teachers' teaching practice on teaching EFL reading were conducted. This is to investigate how the pre-service teachers apply the knowledge gained from the EFL reading instructional lessons to their classroom teaching.

5) Phase V : Evaluation

This phase aims to measure the effectiveness and efficiency of the instruction occur throughout the entire instructional design process within phases, between phases, and after implementation. Material uses, components of the class were observed and determined what worked best and need to be revised to improve learning process. The pre-service teachers' opinions and learning achievement were also investigated. After implementing the system, the designer may revise back to

earlier phases especially the initial phase to revise the needs analysis of reading specialists or those of pre-service teachers in terms of more needs on EFL reading instruction for pre-service teachers.

Finally, from overall aspects concerning the process of the EFL reading instructional system, they can be constructed in the model formation in Figure 5.2

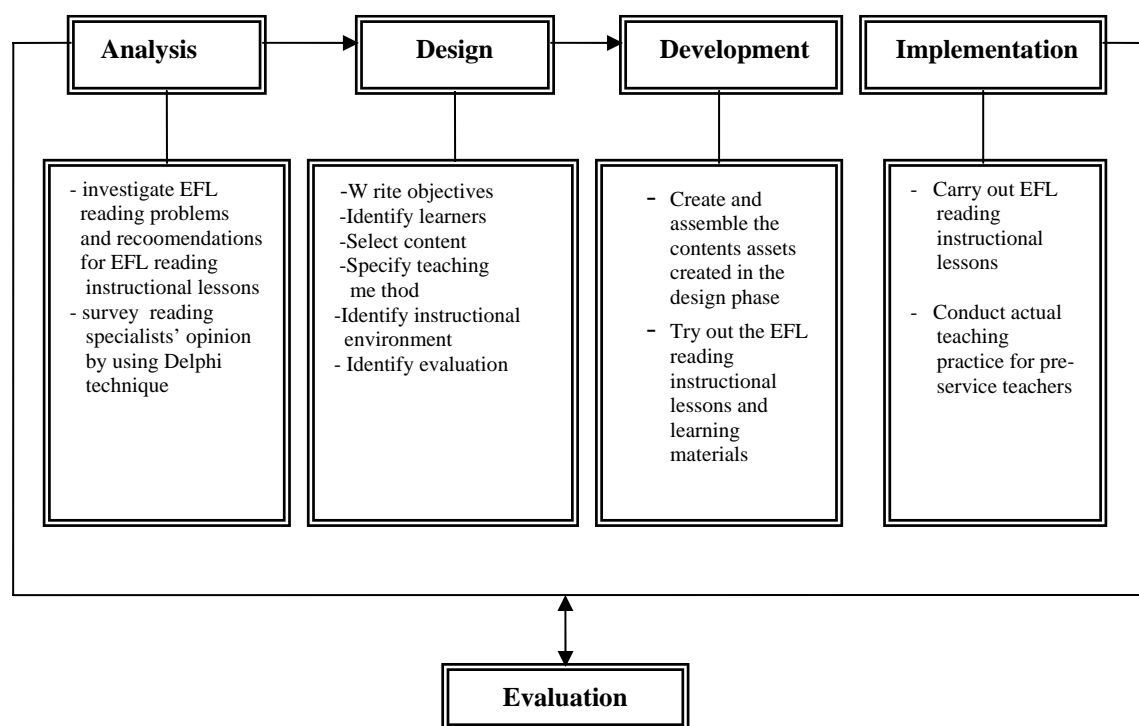


Figure 5.2 EFL reading instructional system

5.2 An overview of an EFL reading instructional lessons for pre-service teachers

The EFL reading instructional lessons for pre-service teachers was based on a constructivist approach in which the instructor teaches the pre-service teachers to

discover their own answers and produce their own concepts and interpretations (Marlowe & Page, 2005). In addition, a constructivist approach includes interactive and collaborative learning. Collaborative learning is an umbrella term for a variety of approaches in education that involve joint intellectual effort by students and teachers. Collaborative learning refers to methodologies and environments in which learners engage in a common task as well as a flexible curriculum (Brooks & Brooks, 1993).

The concept of EFL reading instructional lessons were to offer student-centered learning with an emphasis on experiences, knowledge construction and learning process based on the content of reading theories and teaching EFL reading. A form of teaching by question and answer gradually leading to the elicitation of certain truths. Moreover, brainstorming was used for group activities intended to generate a lot of ideas. The pre-service teachers as participants were encouraged at the beginning to think up the ideas no matter how unlikely or far-fetched. Every suggestion was recorded. Decisions about practicality were made later.

The EFL reading instructional lessons for pre-service teachers consist of 10 units as illustrated in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 The EFL reading instructional lessons for pre-service teachers

Unit	Title	Content
1	How do we read?	-models of reading -knowledge and skills important to reading process
2	Activating background knowledge	-importance of activating background knowledge in reading and classroom implications -predicting what will come next in a story and previewing
3	What is reading strategies?	-different strategies required for different reading purposes -knowledge required in reading text and how to teach reading strategies
4	Vocabulary development	-guessing vocabulary in context -analyzing pre-fix, suffix -using dictionary -vocabulary development through extensive reading including classroom activities
5	Different ways of teaching reading	-how to identify reading strategies used for each stage of teaching
6	Text selection	-select appropriate materials for teaching reading purposively
7	Analyzing text structure	-different types of text structures
8	Increasing reading rate	-reading strategies to increase reading fluency such as timed reading, paced reading and repeated reading
9	Assessing reading	-alternative methods of assessing reading
10	Planning for instruction	-comprised components of a lesson plan, factors that influence planning for teaching reading

The examples of the EFL reading instructional lessons are presented in Appendix E.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATION

This chapter is to summarize the findings of the present study in order to make recommendations for future research. The summary includes the purposes of the study, the sample, the instrumentation, the research procedure, and the results. Followed are the discussion, recommendations for the study. Suggestions for further research are made in the final section.

6.1 Conclusion

The present study has been conducted with the researcher's attempt to develop an EFL reading instructional system for pre-service teacher at Roi-Et Rajabhat University.

6.1.1 Research procedure

The research procedures were divided into four main parts as follows:

Phase I : Analysis

This phase aims to investigate the pre-service teachers' reading problems and obtain the suggestion in teaching EFL reading through an oral interview with 2 EFL teachers and 3-round questionnaire using Delphi Technique with 17 EFL teachers from 9 Rajabhtat Universities in North-east of Thailand. The data obtained was used to design an EFL reading instructional lessons.

Phase II : Design

This phase includes the procedures of material design, writing objectives of the lessons, learner identification to determine which of the required enabling skills the learners bring to the learning task, content selection, teaching method specification and instructional environment and evaluation identification.

Phase III : Development

This phase includes developing EFL reading lessons and the tests for the experiment. The EFL reading instructional lessons were examined by the experts and then tried out to determine the efficiency. The lessons were tried out with three students in the individual test, ten students in the small group test, and thirty students in the field study test.

Phase IV :Implementation

There are two stages in this phase which are the experiment and the follow up stage.

a) Experiment

There was a comparison of pre-service teachers' learning achievement on teaching EFL reading and their reading ability including exploration of pre-service teachers' opinion towards learning the EFL reading instructional lessons. After taking the pre-test, the 25 pre-service teachers were given the EFL reading instruction lessons. After each lesson, the pre-service teachers were asked to write a diary expressing their opinions or feedback. Also, the researcher as a teacher kept her own diary after each lesson. After the course, a post-test was given to all subjects. After taking the post-test, the questionnaires was followed by the semi-structured interviews which were administered to all subjects to investigate the

students' opinions on the EFL reading model, and how the model could help them prepare their knowledge for the teaching of EFL reading and how it improves their reading skills.

b) Follow up

This stage was to investigate whether pre-service teachers could apply their knowledge gained from the EFL reading instructional model to their teaching practice. Also, it was to determine the secondary school students' reading ability, that was whether their reading ability was different if they were instructed by the pre-service teachers whose scores are above or lower than the median. On a voluntary basis, two high achieving pre-service teachers and two low achieving pre-service teachers were selected to participate in this phase.

Before the secondary school students were instructed by four-pre-service teachers, a 2-hour pre-test was administered to measure their reading abilities. The reading lessons were observed by the researcher during the pre-service teachers' teaching practice. After each reading lesson, the pre-service teachers were asked to record their own teaching in their diaries whereas the secondary school students in the pre-service teachers' classes were asked to write diaries on their learning to read English. At the end of the classroom practice, a post-test for the secondary school students was administered to test their reading ability.

Phase V: Evaluation

This phase aims to measure the effectiveness and efficiency of the instruction occurring throughout the entire instructional design process within phases, between phases, and after implementation. Material uses, components of the class were observed and determined what worked best and need to be revised to improve

learning process. The pre-service teachers' opinions and learning achievement were also investigated

6.2.2 Findings

The finding of the research can be summarized as follows:

1. The reading problems of pre-service teachers that reading specialists very strongly agreed were lack of reading habits, followed by inability to guess meaning from contexts, inadequacy of vocabulary to understand the texts, inability to find the main idea of the text, lack of knowledge about text types and their organization, inability to understand long and complex sentences, reading and translating the English text based on Thai patterns and structures including translating and lack of understanding of the cultural background of English-speaking countries. Lack of eye movement practice, inability to use a dictionary effectively and insufficient knowledge of English grammar were also agreed as factors that can cause pre-service teachers' difficulty in EFL reading.

2. Concerning the problems of pre-service teachers in their practice of teaching EFL reading, the reading specialists strongly agreed that little experience in teaching reading, inefficient use of each reading strategies and questioning techniques were the first three ranked problems of pre-service teachers' teaching practice. They also agreed that inadequacy of linguistic knowledge to develop teaching strategies could cause pre-service teachers' trouble teaching practice.

3. The reading specialists highly recommended three teaching methods as the most effective, namely to activate students' background knowledge about the texts by providing pre-reading activities concerned with vocabulary, grammar and content to tell students the purposes of reading and to use a variety of teaching

methods and select various contents relevant to the students' English ability and needs.

4. The efficiency of the EFL reading instructional lessons for pre-service teachers at Roi-Et Rajabhat University was 75.54/75.50 which was higher than the prescribed criteria 75/75.

5. The pre-service teachers' learning achievement on teaching EFL reading significantly increased ($p < .01$).

6. There is a significant relationship between pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL reading and their reading ability ($R = 0.40$).

7. There is a significant relationship between pre-service teachers' learning achievement and secondary school students' reading ability ($p < .001$).

8. Pre-service teachers had positive attitudes towards the EFL reading instructional lessons in terms of raising their awareness of reading theory and strategic reading instruction which could affect reading instructional preparation. In addition, learning through the EFL reading instructional lesson could create cooperative learning and increase pre-service teachers' confidence in reading.

9. The four pre-service teachers could apply the knowledge gained from the EFL reading instructional lessons.

6.2 Discussion

6.2.1 Pre-service teachers' problems in EFL reading and recommendations on teaching EFL reading suggested by reading specialists

1) Factors affecting pre-service teachers' EFL reading

Clearly, according to the results from the questionnaire using Delphi technique, it can be seen that the most important factors affecting pre-service teachers' EFL reading was the lack of a prior reading habit. It can be argued that the readers may not be willing to engage in the process of literacy when reading has not been formed as a habit. A similar result appears in the study of Yang (2007) stating that Asian readers were reluctant readers and needed to be trained how to cultivate the reading habit on their own. This is because English has been learned for taking English examination rather than daily life communication. The four key factors that influence learners' attitudes about L2 reading are suggested; a) learners' attitude towards reading in their L1, b) possible previous experiences with reading in a second language, c) learners' attitude towards the target language, culture and people, and d) the second language classroom environment (Day and Bamford, 1998). This implies that the more readers find reading in another language relevant and meaningful to their needs and interest, the more they are eager to read (Diaz-Santos, 2000).

The findings also reveal that pre-service teachers were less successful in EFL reading because they were faced with new and unknown vocabulary. This is in line with Alderson (2000) and Kitao (1989) who found that reading ability in the second language was closely related to vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, inadequacy of vocabulary knowledge seems to be the problem for the readers to overcome.

Less familiarity with different text types and cultural convention were also found as the factors. Singhal (2006) indicates that the ability to comprehend the texts laden with culture-specific knowledge will depend on the readers' educational background, personal interests and their environmental context. Therefore, lack of textual and cultural schemata may be obstacles to comprehension. Ketchum (2006) makes a conclusion according to many scholars' points of view on content schemata from the past 20 years that reading in a foreign language can be greatly facilitated by developing students' background knowledge about the culture represented in the text.

Moreover, reading specialists agreed about the effects upon reading of limitations of linguistic knowledge. It was indicated that pre-service teachers could not understand the text because of long and complex sentences, and insufficiency of grammatical knowledge. Singhal (2006) in agreement, offered that sentence complexity can be an impediment to grasping specific details, thereby affecting the learners' ability to adequately comprehend even the gist of the text. Aebbersolds and field (1997) also agree that L2 language proficiency is another strong factor in L2 reading. This is related to Alderson (1984) who states that L2/FL readers will not be able to read as well in the foreign language as in their first language until they have reached a threshold level of competence in that foreign language. Obviously, EFL readers must also have a certain level of proficiency in English to be able to read a text in English. In addition, the finding showed the agreement that some pre-service teachers may also have misconceptions because they tried to understand the text by direct and possibly imprecise translation. Misinterpretation arises when their sense of meaning in the target language are conditioned by their experiences with grammar in their Thai language.

Additionally, inability to use reading strategies such as finding the main idea of the text, practicing eye movement and using dictionary were also found as the reading problems. Tomitch (2000) explains why identifying the main idea can be problematic. It is stated that this knowledge of relative importance seems to be intuitive, that is, it is procedural, not easily verbalizable, and not declarative. It is easy to recognize what is important in a text but it is difficult to explain why this is so.

In terms of eye movements, it was also found that the slowness of eye movement was another factor in reading difficulty. Pre-service teachers should be trained to use eye movement for fluency reading. This finding is related to Adams (1990), Rayner, (1975), McConkie, et al, (1982) who found that the slowness of L2 readers is often because their eye fixation are longer than native speakers.

It was also found that dictionary skill plays an important role in EFL reading. Tepsuriwong (2001) and Intaraprasert (2005) found that both less proficient and proficient EFL readers most often tried to solve vocabulary difficulties while reading by using a dictionary the most. However, the more proficient ones were superior to the less proficient ones in the way they chose the appropriate meaning. Accordingly, it can be seen that it is important to train pre-service teachers to use a dictionary effectively. This is because when the word is mistakenly identified and the readers do not use context to verify their guesses, serious comprehension problems will occur (Huckin and Bloch, 1993). Nuttall (1996) suggests that the first step is to train the readers to decide which word to look up in the dictionary. Also Aebbersold and Field (1997) comment that the most important step is to consider when to use and when not to use it.

Moreover, the factors that influence EFL reading are interactive. The factors of language proficiency in L2 influences the use of readers' reading strategies and affects their success in reading (Singhal, 2006). It is also suggested that the second language readers who have a strong background in the metacognitive knowledge of their L1 may be able to apply such knowledge to their L2 reading process (McNeil, 1984). Therefore, the teacher should be responsible for material selection appropriate to learners' interests and level of language proficiency at the early stages of learning to increase motivation for reading and text comprehension.

2) Problems of pre-service teachers in their practice of teaching EFL reading

In terms of problems of pre-service teachers in their practice of teaching EFL reading, pre-service teachers do not have a strong foundation on strategies and the relationship each has with reading comprehension.

Richard (1990) points out that effective EFL reading teachers who understand reading process will look for classroom strategies that encourage second language readers to use an appropriate combination of processing strategies when they approach a text. This implies that not only the nature of reading the pre-service teachers need to learn but also the adequate knowledge of how to transfer the effective reading behaviors in learners. However, the study suggested that pre-service teachers of reading needed to be encouraged to prepare themselves in terms of English language proficiency for effective classroom teaching. As Hedge (2003), suggests, building the learners' language knowledge will facilitate their reading ability.

3) Recommendations on effective methods of teaching EFL

reading applicable to pre-service teachers' teaching practice

The first three effective methods of teaching EFL reading recommended by the reading specialists in this study focus on preparing the learners to read. The reading specialists also highly recommended the use of a variety of teaching methods and materials selection. Clearly, the value of strategy instruction was suggested to classroom instruction.

To prepare the learner to read, the study reveals that activating students' background knowledge about the texts by providing pre-reading activities concerned with vocabulary, grammar and content were highly recommended as the most effective method. This can be seen that it is necessary to have students be aware of how and why they are reading a text selection. Aebersold and Field (1997) point out that there are three main reasons for preparing students to read: (1) to establish a purpose for reading a given text, (2) to activate existing knowledge about the topic and thus get more out of reading the text, and (3) to establish realistic expectations about what is in the text. Therefore, pre-reading practices gives students the chance to learn, practice, and internalize habits that will make them better L2/FL readers (Johnson, 1982).

Apart from preparing learners to read, the study shows the reading specialists' consensus on teaching reading strategies. These process may involve activating background knowledge and conceptual frameworks, previewing, predicting, making semantic associations, learning not to read every word, scanning, reading faster, improving bottom up processing, word knowledge for skilled reading, identifying topics and main ideas, identifying pattern of textual organization,

skimming and summarizing (Mikulecky, 1990). It can be said that teaching readers how to use strategies should be a prime consideration in the reading classroom to assist students in becoming more effective and efficient readers (Anderson, 2003; Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary&Robbins, 1999; Janzen, 2001; Singhal, 2006; Weaver&Cohen, 1997a, 1997b). The results also suggests that reading teachers should identify reading strategies required for different purposes of reading. Singhal (2005) recommended that when teaching reading strategies, teachers should demonstrate their uses, give the students time to practice applying the strategy and show the students how to evaluate the effectiveness of the strategies and what to do if they do not not work..

Additionally, all reading specialists agreed that authentic materials which are relevant to student's interest and English reading ability used both in classroom teaching and as external reading to motivate learners to read more. Several recent topics and various contents were strongly recommended. The results also revealed the importance of sensitivity to the prior knowledge demand of the text, suggesting that teachers conduct pre-reading activities to activate learners' background knowledge in terms of content- matter, vocabulary, language knowledge, cultural knowledge, and knowledge of text structure. As a result, text-selection and text-adaptation must be considered seriously. Day and Bamford (1998) suggest that the teachers should choose the text that are at the appropriate level of the students' linguistic difficulty. Authentic texts should be adapted if needed to avoid frustrating the students' reading and to create positive attitudes towards both reading and L2 acquisition. The consensus seemingly shows that materials and attitudes are related to

motivation in reading; thus, teachers should also take into account the central issue of motivation in lesson preparation.

With regards to EFL reading assessment instruction, it was suggested that teachers should assess students' reading comprehension regularly. In other words, the students should be provided with the ongoing process of feedback on their reading ability so that they could monitor their reading ability. Therefore, learning to use appropriate assessment throughout the students' learning process, and to develop lesson to support responsive instructional decision making and reflection are reading teachers' responsibility (Aebersold and Field, 1997).

6.2.2 The development of EFL reading instructional lessons

In terms of developing and examining the efficiency of EFL reading instructional lessons, the lessons were implemented in three trials. When efficiency of the process (E_1) is higher than that of the product (E_2), it is possible that the procedures and features of the process or exercises did not relate to those of the product or post-tests. Since the exercises had different features and levels of difficulty from those of the post-tests. The other reason is that the post-test required them to response the multiple choice questions. For the present research, the efficiency of EFL reading instructional lessons was at a level of 75.54/75.55 after the trials. This indicated that the effectiveness of the reading lessons for the present research has met the prescribed criteria of 75/75.

1) Pre-service teachers' opinion towards, the EFL reading instructional lessons

Regarding the pre-service teachers' opinions and feedback about the EFL reading instructional lessons, the open ended questionnaire and pre-service teachers' diaries indicated that they stated positive attitudes towards the lessons. The pre-service teachers commented that the content and activities provided in the lessons could help them be aware of their own reading instructional preparation. It could raise pre-service teachers' awareness on reading theories applicable to future classroom teaching. In addition, explicit reading strategic instruction were preferable to their instructional planning. The findings also supported the recommendations of the reading specialists who recommended on the content of reading teacher preparation program in the first phase of the present study. It can be asserted that to prepare pre-service teachers to teach EFL reading, the pre-service teachers must develop a thorough understanding of reading development as well as an understanding of learning theory to ground their instructional decision making effectively (International Reading Association, 2007).

Moreover, it was found that the pre-service teachers expressed positive attitude towards the activities in the lessons and the way they could share the idea in class. It showed that the EFL reading instructional lessons could promote pre-service teacher leadership and collaboration. The pre-service teachers could actively take knowledge in individual contexts and through social negotiation, exposing to alternative viewpoints. In doing so, pre-service teachers found the lessons they learned enjoyable. This finding is related to Caprio's (1994) study based on constructivism in which the activities are student- centered. Students are encouraged to ask questions, carry out the experiments, make analogies and come to conclusions.

The finding showed that the students in the constructivist class seemed to like class, had much energy and took more responsibility for their learning.

However, there were some limitations in terms of the difficulties of the content concerning theories of reading and unfamiliarity of the technical terms. Since activities and exercises in the lessons were designed for all levels of learners' abilities, the explanation in Thai during instruction and in the teaching materials is needed.

Macaro (2001) pointing out that in EFL context it is impossible to avoid the use of L1 during the strategy instruction. The use of L1 as a medium of instruction may be an effective means to facilitate learners' understanding.

2) The improvement of pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL reading and their reading ability

The results showed that the pre-service teachers' learning achievement increased. Their average scores of the post-test ($\bar{x} = 30.2$) was higher than average pre-test score ($\bar{x} = 19.12$). The results correspond well to the second hypothesis that pre-service teachers' scores from the post-test of the knowledge of teaching EFL reading was significantly higher than the scores from the pre-test. It can therefore be concluded that EFL reading instructional lessons improved pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL reading.

In addition, the study reveals that there was a relationship between pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL reading and their reading ability.

The pre-service teachers' reading ability improved after they were instructed by using EFL reading instructional lessons. It is possible that the content and learning activities in the lessons influenced pre-service teachers' reading ability. This finding

is related to the findings from open-ended questionnaire and pre-service teachers' diaries which reveals that the EFL reading instructional lessons could help them aware of their own reading. Although it was not the purpose of the study to improve pre-service teachers' reading ability, the scores of their reading ability increased.

3)The relationship between pre-service teachers' learning achievement and their secondary school students' reading ability

The results show that the secondary school student's reading ability were higher after they were instructed by the pre-service teachers. However, the result shows that there is a relationship between the secondary school students' reading ability and the pre-service teachers' learning achievement. Similarly, Hammond (1999) reports that newly trained teachers have a strong positive influence on student achievement. On average, in the 1992 and 1994 assessments, 4th grade students of teachers who were fully certified, and who had had professional coursework in literature-based instruction did better than other students on reading assessments (NCES, 1994).

However, there are some suggestions from many studies that beginning teachers who just start teaching once they graduate from teacher preparation program must be engaged in processes that teach them how to create a dynamic learning environment for their future students (Walker & Ramseth, 1993; Wilson, Konopak, & Readence, 1993). The research indicates that learning to teach reading cannot happen after a single course, but requires intensive study of instructional methods and materials over several semesters (Roskos & Walker, 1993; Walker & Ramseth; Wolf, Carey, & Mieras, 1996b). Similarly, other studies concerning program assessment have revealed a lack of relationship between

classroom content in preparation programs and the fieldwork performed by beginning teachers, leading programs to redouble their efforts (Wideen, Mayer-Smith&Moon, 1998).

In this study, four pre-service teachers volunteered to participate the follow up stage in an implementation phase after completing the EFL reading instructional lessons. They were willing to try their own teaching strategies and ready to be observed during their teaching practice. This may be also one of the factor that enabled their students to be active in learning. As Murnane (1985) suggests, it is not only the knowledge acquired with ongoing professional development which may represent more recent advances in the knowledge base but also the teacher's enthusiasm for learning that relates to increased student achievement.

6.2.3 An investigation on how pre-service teachers apply their knowledge obtained from the EFL reading instructional lessons to their classroom teaching practice

The findings show a clear vision of the four pre-service teachers' EFL reading instruction based on the knowledge gained from the EFL reading instructional lessons. The pre-service teachers paid attention to steps of teaching which they all included a three-part lesson: pre-, while-, and post-reading activities. The purposes for the activities were clear. In addition vocabulary development, along with overall comprehension was implemented. The pre-service teachers considered vocabulary knowledge an important factor for the students' understanding of individual texts. The importance of vocabulary knowledge in the L2 -proficient reading K-12 readers and the utility of the vocabulary instruction have been frequently addressed (Au, 2000; Bernhardt, 2003; Droop & Verhoeven, 2003; Garcia, 2000; Gersten & Geva, 2003).

Moreover, strategic reading instruction focusing on instruction and practice of specific skills and strategies were employed obviously by one of the high achieving pre-service teachers.

To sum up, it is also illuminating to discuss differences in teaching reading of high- and low- achieving pre-service teachers in relation to applying reading theories to an EFL reading classroom. The high achieving pre-service teachers started teaching with introduction of terminology for each strategy and clearly explain how it can facilitate reading comprehension. This finding corresponds to Richard (1998), who stated that the second or foreign language reading teacher who understands the differences between top-down and bottom-up processing and what schema and background knowledge play in reading comprehension will look for classroom strategies that encourage second language readers to approach the text by combining processing strategies appropriately. Likewise a familiarity with differences between effective and ineffective reading strategies can help the teacher look for effective reading behaviors in learners, encourage wider use of these strategies, and be on the lookout for learners using less effective strategies. This can help developing students' metacognitive awareness of how and when they use strategies (Qian, 2005). It is obvious that high achieving pre-service teachers have deeper understanding of the content of teaching.

In case of Suwit, each of his effort was made to enable students to establish a relationship between the reader and the author of a text so that the students can share the idea reflected to the text. This implies that he has developed the sufficient pedagogical content knowledge to be able to make the content comprehensible to others. On the contrary, the low achieving pre-service teachers

strictly follow the steps of teaching presented in the school course books. Richards, Li and Tang (1998) suggest that a limited understanding of the nature of second language reading led the novice teachers to see limited potential for using the story as the basis for a reading lesson.

In terms of motivation, the four pre-service teachers explained how they explicitly helped their students realize the value of reading. According to Day & Bamford (1998) and Kim & Krashen (1997), motivation is connected to instructional techniques, such as extensive reading, providing a flood of books that are both of interest to students and on their levels. However, the teaching practice of the four pre-service teachers has not clearly shown some issues that the pre-service teachers identified as being very important, particularly working with students with different proficiency levels.

To prepare teachers of foreign language reading, Janzen (2007) suggested that teacher educators should simultaneously address three challenges: practice, goals, and context. Method courses must also encourage teachers to explore the goals of instruction. Teachers may then move beyond a narrow focus on vocabulary or content to student mastery of the linguistic demands of academic genres and the cognitive behaviors exhibited by proficient readers and writers. Moreover, explicit reading strategic instruction, that includes clear explanation with good examples, modeling, and opportunities for practice could enable pre-service teachers to develop self-awareness. This was also transferred to their own reading classroom, obviously by the high achieving pre-service teachers.

It was obvious that the pre-service teachers modeled reading strategies to their students in the same way as the researcher did in the experimental

class. However, it is clear that the four pre-service teachers did not use the full range of their instructional practices. This might be because of time limitations according to the curriculum administration. They might need more time for practice during the lessons. Similar findings from studies in reading instruction revealed that teachers often emerge from their preparation programs equipped with the latest information regarding word-recognition and comprehension strategies and familiarity with instructional materials, but they cannot implement approaches and use materials effectively in the reading classroom.(Fielding-Barnsley and Purdie, 2005; Mottley and Telfer, 1997; Pearson and Gallagher, 1983; Wham,1993). Perhaps the emphasis on instructional approaches and material preparation was not strong enough for them to apply to their own situation. However, the low achieving pre-service teachers could make use of the materials on lesson planning provided in the EFL reading instructional lesson.

It is obvious that teaching is not merely the process of applying the right content to the right situation—it includes selecting the best available instructional approach and materials (Risko, 1995; Wolf, Ballentine and Hill, 2000; Wolf, Hill, and Ballentine,1999). Naturally, re-service teachers learn how to use pedagogical knowledge by being exposed to real students. Teaching practices provided an opportunity to combine understanding of material with the task of teaching. Pre-service teachers learned to use their understanding of which instructional formats and materials which were best suited for the situation at hand. During pre-service teachers' teaching practice, they were also learning about different aspects of teaching reading. These field experiences become more sophisticated, comprehensive, and demanding as students progress in their education, ensuring that pre-service teachers

are exposed to the requirements in the curriculum. The pre-service teachers' growing knowledge base was buttressed with real-world applications in the classroom.

The present research showed that the four pre-service teachers were placed at different secondary schools with different school administration policy. As Supreeya' comment, there were so many special activities provided by the school for her students. Accordingly, she could not manage the time efficiently for her teaching. In Suwit's and Irawan's case, their schools highly support the students' learning. They provided computers to support English study while the schools where Supreeya and Sutawn taught could not. Similar findings were reported by Dowhower (1990). Placing student teachers in the unsupportive setting may lead them to ignore the content and strategies presented in the preparation program. It may cause inefficient and ineffective teaching practice. On the other hand, placing undergraduates in contact with classroom teachers who serve as excellent models of the vision and teaching philosophy produces good results of the teacher preparation program. (Roskos& Walker, 1994; Shefelbine& Shiel, 1990).

In conclusion, the EFL reading instructional lessons including experience during teaching practice have helped the four pre-service teachers gradually develop their understanding on how to model, guide and develop strategy use and employ a discourse approach to texts when working with their students. They may need to learn while teaching. It is also interesting to gain insights into their reflections and their decision-making processes. They may move forward to learn from what happens, to get feedback from others and to increase openness to the possibility of change (Li and Willhelm, 2008)

“Learning teaching is an awareness and active use of the experimental learning cycle in one’s own life and work. Learning teaching is a belief that creativity, understanding, experience and character continue growing throughout one’s life.”

(Scrivener, 2002).

6.3 Recommendations for the further study

According to the results of the present study, the following suggestions are proposed for further study.

6.3.1 There should be similar research conducting with other groups of pre-service teachers or in-service teachers. According to the research findings, the pre-service teachers armed with an understanding of the reading process and equipped with some ideas about the development of reading skills are not easily able to implement these ideas in the reading lesson and even if they did successfully implement these new ideas they may not be able to prove their success to a wider audience.

However, the content of the instructional lessons could be simplified and adapted for further instruction since students in the other groups may have different levels of language abilities, their pace of learning a language also varies. Thus, to design learning materials, Thai explanation of some technical terms should be included to facilitate pre-service teachers’ understanding.

6.3.2 The EFL reading instructional system should be constructed through web-based instruction for general English teachers to evaluate the model quality in terms of self-access learning.

6.3.3 Microteaching should be included with the EFL reading instructional system for pre-service teachers to give them more opportunities to practice. In doing so, they also have more guidance from the others participants and experienced teacher with explicit feedback to further learning during their teaching practice. When pre-service teachers are found to have specific deficiencies in their understanding of the reading program, the preservice teachers should be required to return to the university for additional coursework following their practice teaching. If the preservice teachers are deficient in their instructional techniques, the apprenticeship program must be prolonged until the necessary level of competency is demonstrated.

In addition, pre-service teachers who are assigned to one classroom during their practice teaching experience should have time allocated to participate in an observational program that allows them to gain experience with students at different grade levels. However, in terms of assessment, the teacher educators need to reexamine the criteria they use to evaluate pre-service teachers during the practice teaching experience to ensure that a passing grade in practice teaching or student teaching is in fact a passing grade where the pre-service teachers have completely demonstrated a level of competency in their teaching.

6.3.4 Teaching is a lifelong process during which a great deal of experimentation and knowledge building occurs. Accordingly, the research on professional development may need long term investigation. Also, universities need to establish a follow-up program to ascertain their graduates' views concerning the impact and usefulness of the pre-service teacher-education program on their teaching.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire I

(for Delphi Technique)

Objectives

The purpose of this questionnaire is to investigate your opinions about the problems of teaching English reading for pre-service teachers and ask for the recommendation to prepare theme for the teaching of EFL reading in a secondary school.

Instructions

Please respond to all questions in the questionnaire honestly. Your anonymity and confidentiality will be preserved at all times. The information obtained from the questionnaires will be used for this study only.

Part I Personal Information

1. How long have you been teaching English as a foreign language?

_____years.

2. How long have you taught English at _____?

_____years

Part 2 Problems of teaching English reading for pre-service teachers

1.From your teaching experience of teaching reading, have you found any problem when you teach English reading?

☐ Yes ☐ No

(If no, skip the next two questions and continue with question number 2)

1.1 What are the problems you usually have?

1.2 How did you solve the pre-service teachers' English reading problems?

2. What do you think are the factors that affect pre-service teachers' reading in English? Please give examples.

Part 3 Effective methods of teaching English reading

What do you think could be the most effective strategies that help pre-service teacher to improve their reading skills?

Part 4 Learning how to teach EFL reading

1) What do you think could be the most efficient teaching method that pre-service teachers can use in their teaching reading?

2) What do you think could be the problems of pre-service teachers in their teaching EFL reading practice?

Thank you for your kind cooperation

Questionnaire II

Objectives

The purpose of this questionnaire is to prioritize each statement from your opinion expressed in the open-ended questionnaire. They were categorized into 3 parts ; (1) Factor affected pre-service teachers' EFL reading, (2) Problems of pre-service teachers in their teaching EFL reading practice, and (3) Recommendations on effective methods of teaching EFL reading applicable to pre-service teachers' teaching practice.

Direction: Make a check mark (✓) in a rating box which best describes your opinion about each statement below. If you have any additional comments, please write them in the '*Other*' section at the end of each questionnaire.

5 = very strongly agree

4 = strongly agree

3 = agree

2 = slightly agree

1 = least agree.

Part 1: Factors affected pre-service teachers' EFL reading

Statements	Rating Scales				
	5	4	3	2	1
1. Lack of reading habits
2. Lack of motivation to read
3. Use of excessive time for reading
4. Lack of skills in eye movement
5. Inability to find the main idea of the text
6. Lack of knowledge about text types and their organization
7. Lack of prior knowledge about the text
8. Reading and translating the English text based
9. Inability to make a summary after reading
10. Inability to use dictionary effectively
11. Inability to understand long and complex sentences
12. Insufficiency of English grammatical knowledge
13. Differences in cultural background
14. Inadequacy of vocabulary to understand the texts
15. Inability to guess meaning from contexts
16. Instructor's knowledge and skills of English
17. Negative attitude towards English
18. Other (Please identify)
.....
.....
.....
.....

Part 2: Problems of pre-service teachers in their teaching EFL reading practice

[illegible]

**Part 3 : Recommendations on effective methods of teaching EFL reading
applicable to pre-service teachers' teaching practice.**

Statements	Rating Scales				
	5	4	3	2	1
1. Use 3 steps in teaching; presentation, practice and production
2. Activate students' background knowledge about the texts by providing pre-reading activities concerned with vocabulary, grammar and content
3. Provide reading activities that stimulate both top-down and bottom up processing
4. Provide supportive reading activities
5. Model reading strategies required for different purposes of reading
6. Teach students vocabulary development skills
7. Use a variety of teaching methods and select various content relevant to the students' English ability and needs
8. Let students know purposes of reading
9. Encourage cooperative learning strategies
10. Use internet-based instruction
11. Have students spend more time practicing reading skills by using external reading
12. Teach and demonstrate speed reading techniques

APPENDIX B

The Evaluation of the Efficiency of

EFL reading Instructional lessons

The individual trial for effectiveness evaluation of EFL reading instructional lessons

Student	Pre-test score	Exercise score	Post-test score		
Number	(40 points)	(20 points)	(40 points)	E ₁	E ₂
1	21	13	24		
2	17	14	29		
3	21	16.5	33		
Total score	59	43.5	86		
Mean score	19.67	14.50	28.67		
Percentages	49.17	72.50	71.67	72.50	71.67

$$\bar{x} = \frac{43.50}{3} = 14.50$$

$$E_1 = \frac{14.50}{20} \times 100 = 72.50$$

$$E_2 = \frac{28.67}{40} \times 100 = 71.67$$

The small group trial for effectiveness evaluation of Computer Assisted Instruction for reading lessons

Student	Pre-test score	Exercise score	Post-test score		
Number	(40 points)	(20 points)	(40 points)	E₁	E₂
1	23	16	34		
2	21	15.20	27		
3	15	15	32		
4	17	15.20	31		
5	16	15.40	32		
6	25	14.60	30		
7	20	14	26		
8	21	15.60	29		
9	21	15.20	33		
10	23	14.40	27		
Total score	202	150.60	301		
Mean score	20.20	15.06	30.10		
Percentages	50.50	75.30	75.25	75.30	75.25

$$\bar{x} = \frac{150.60}{10} = 15.06$$

$$E_1 = \frac{15.06}{20} \times 100 = 75.30$$

$$E_2 = \frac{30.10}{40} \times 100 = 75.25$$

The field trial for effectiveness evaluation of Computer Assisted Instruction for reading lessons

Student Number	Pre-test score (40 points)	Exercise score (20 points)	Post-test score (40 points)	E₁	E₂
1	18	13.50	22		
2	13	14.70	24		
3	12	14.10	25		
4	25	16.60	37		
5	21	16	33		
6	19	15.80	34		
7	20	16.20	37		
8	25	15.80	32		
9	11	14.90	22		
10	17	15.30	30		
11	21	15.70	32		
12	25	15.70	38		
13	18	13.70	27		
14	23	15.10	27		
15	20	14.90	31		
16	21	15.30	27		
17	24	15.70	37		
18	18	15.10	24		
19	17	14.30	34		
20	15	15.70	28		

Student Number	Pre-test score (20 points)	Exercise score (20 points)	Post-test score (20 points)	E₁	E₂
21	19	13.60	26		
22	21	15.70	36		
23	23	15.00	33		
24	16	14.90	28		
25	16	14.40	31		
Total score	478	377.70	755		
Mean score	19.12	15.11	30.20		
Percentages	47.80	75.54	75.50	75.54	75.50

$$\bar{x} = \frac{377.70}{25} = 15.11$$

$$E_1 = \frac{15.11}{20} \times 100 = 75.54$$

$$E_2 = \frac{30.20}{40} \times 100 = 75.50$$

APPENDIX C

The result of the secondary school students' pre-and post-test scores :School B

Student Number	Pre-test Score (30 points)	Post-test Score (30 points)
1	14	23
2	12	18
3	16	19
4	19	24
5	13	18
6	16	19
7	18	23
8	16	26
9	20	25
10	17	27
11	19	24
12	15	23
13	18	22
14	16	20
15	15	18
16	19	25
17	19	24
18	15	22
19	16	20
20	15	21
21	17	25
22	15	20
23	16	18
24	17	25
25	16	21
26	17	24
27	18	18
28	18	23
29	17	21
30	17	25
31	15	25

Student Number	Pre-test Score (30 points)	Post-test Score (30 points)
32	14	19
33	17	24
34	15	23
Total	557	752
Mean	16.38	22.12
Std. Deviation	1.826	2.705

The result of the secondary school students' pre-and post-test scores: School A

Student Number	Pre-test Score (30 points)	Post-test Score (30 points)
1	23	26
2	23	28
3	22	24
4	21	25
5	16	20
6	20	26
7	19	23
8	19	21
9	19	23
10	19	21
11	18	22
12	18	23
13	18	24
14	18	24
15	18	20
16	18	21
17	17	20
18	16	18
19	16	20
20	15	19
21	15	23
22	15	22
23	15	21
24	15	20
25	15	19
26	15	20
27	13	18
28	15	21
29	13	19
30	19	21

Student Number	Pre-test Score (30 points)	Post-test Score (30 points)
31	18	20
32	16	22
33	14	20
34	20	25
35	17	22
36	19	23
37	12	19
38	20	26
39	18	23
40	14	19
41	19	25
42	18	27
43	17	21
44	20	25
Total	765	969
Mean	17.39	22.02
Std. Deviation	2.599	2.547

The result of the secondary school students' pre-and post-test scores: School C

Student Number	Pre-test Score (30 points)	Post-test Score (30 points)
1	14	18
2	19	23
3	16	17
4	13	16
5	15	18
6	14	19
7	15	20
8	13	16
9	12	17
10	13	18
11	14	18
12	14	19
13	13	19
14	13	17

Student Number	Pre-test Score (30 points)	Post-test Score (30 points)
15	15	21
16	18	23
17	13	18
18	12	18
19	16	20
20	15	18
21	14	19
22	16	21
23	14	12
24	11	16
25	12	17
26	12	17
27	13	20
28	12	19
29	11	15
30	14	17
Total	416	546
Mean	13.87	18.20
Std. Deviation	1.871	2.250

The result of the secondary school students' pre-and post-test scores: School D

Student Number	Pre-test Score (30 points)	Post-test Score (30 points)
1	16	19
2	16	18
3	16	20
4	18	19
5	17	24
6	13	20
7	16	23
8	18	20
9	13	19

Student Number	Pre-test Score (30 points)	Post-test Score (30 points)
10	14	19
11	16	22
12	17	20
13	16	15
14	15	20
15	17	19
16	13	15
17	15	17
18	15	16
19	16	20
20	15	20
21	15	18
22	17	15
23	19	23
24	15	17
25	12	21
26	14	17
27	14	13
28	21	23
Total	439	532
Mean	15.68	19.00
Std. Deviation	1.964	2.722

APPENDIX D

Test of knowledge of teaching reading

Directions : Read the selections below and choose the best answer for each item.

1. The words enjoyable, impossible and applicable best illustrate that.....
 - A. the addition of a suffix can alter the spelling of its root word
 - B. the spelling of a suffix varies depending on its root word
 - C. the accented syllable of a root word can shift when certain suffixes are added to it
 - D. the pronunciation of a suffix can change when added to certain root words

2. If a text includes some unknown words, the strategies used to develop the students' vocabulary is
 - A. explaining the meaning of the unknown words to the students before they read
 - B. giving some examples and show the students how to analyze the word parts: suffix, prefix,...
 - C. having the students add the word in their list of vocabulary and look up its definition in a dictionary..
 - D. asking the students to paraphrase the sentence that contains the word by substituting a synonym for the word.

3. If a teacher asked students to create a semantic map of words associated with transportation, the strategy used to develop the student's vocabulary is.....
 - A. showing them how structural analysis can be used to determine the meaning of new vocabulary.
 - B. helping them to categorize, visualize, and remember new vocabulary.
 - C. guiding them to discover the multiple meanings of new vocabulary.
 - D. providing them with frequent, varied reading experiences using the new vocabulary

- 4 would be the most effective strategy in promoting reading comprehension.
- A. Giving students meaning of the unknown words directly.
 - B. Activating students' prior knowledge about the topic and provide visual aids.
 - C. Giving students vocabulary definitions and ask them to construct their own sentences.
 - D. Looking up unknown words in a bilingual dictionaries and add it in a vocabulary list in both languages.
5. When a teacher ask the student to stop while they are reading, then he asks the students what will happen in the passage, this activity is useful in showing the students that.....
- A. oral reading fluency facilitates comprehension.
 - B. texts generally have only one correct interpretation.
 - C. readers need to recall story events in a sequential order.
 - D. readers interact with the text and construct meaning as they read.
6. In reading a text, a teacher asks their students the following questions;

- 1. What is the author's opinion on the issue?
- 2. How might the author's background influence his or her opinion?
- 3. What evidence does the author use to support his or her opinion?

The teacher's purpose in asking the above questions is to.....

- A. monitor comprehension.
 - B. identify the theme in the text.
 - C. draw inferences from the text.
 - D. analyze the author's point of views.
7. The teacher is demonstrating his reading process verbally. The following is an example:

“The moon does not shine on its own. The sun's light reflects off the noon. Hmm. I'm imagining that the sun is like a flashlight shining on the moon in the dark.

As the moon rotates, only the part that faces the sun is visible from the Earth. I'm not quite sure what "visible" means, but it sounds kind of like vision, which I know has to do with eyes. It probably means the part that we can see from the Earth. Now, that makes me wonder why do we see different amounts of the moon at different times? Let's see if the next part of the chapter explains this. . ."

This practice is most likely to promote students' reading proficiency by.....

- A. exposing the students to new vocabulary in context.
 - B. modeling metacognitive comprehension strategies.
 - C. giving the students an example of fluent oral reading.
 - D. summarizing the main ideas of an expository text.
8. Skimming is likely to be the most effective strategy in.....
- A. analyzing text structure.
 - B. synthesizing information in a text.
 - C. recognizing the key sentences of a text.
 - D. evaluating the validity of information in a txt.
9. The purpose in giving students guide with several questions to answer while they are reading the text is to.....
- A. encourage them to interact with the text
 - B. support their development of reading fluency
 - C. foster their motivation to read cooperatively
 - D. teach them to adjust their reading rate based on text difficulty
10. Use the information below to answer the question that follows.
A teacher has students work in small groups to begin to develop
A KWL chart before they read a text about the human brain.

The Human Brain		
K	W	L

Using a KWL chart in this way is most likely to help the students.....

- A. visualize the terms and concepts in the chapter.
- B. identify main ideas and supporting details in the passage.
- C. synthesize information from various sections of the passage.
- D. connect their background knowledge to information in the passage.

11. The teacher asks students to locate and mark places mentioned in the passage on a map as they read. This activity is most likely to help students.....
- A. identify the text's main ideas and supporting details.
 - B. paraphrase content to make the text more understandable.
 - C. connect elements in the text to their background knowledge.
 - D. use visualization to facilitate their comprehension of the text.
12. An advantage of using assessment tools such as portfolios and scoring rubrics is that they.....
- A. offer more reliable assessment data.
 - B. ensure consistency among different evaluators.
 - C. provide more objective results than multiple-choice tests.
 - D. promote student participation in self-assessment activities.
13. Comprehension is a process which readers achieve the meaning of the text by.....
- A. reading every individual word
 - B. the reader's prior knowledge of the world
 - C. the ability to decode every word on every page
 - D. using the comprehension questions as the guidelines
14. Readers generally have more difficulty comprehending expository texts because of.....
- A. little experience in reading this kind of text
 - B. the lack of knowledge in patterns of text organization
 - C. no expository text is used in classroom teaching
15.is the activity that does not provide students with reading purpose.
- A. Structured previews
 - B. K-W-L strategies
 - C. Anticipation guides
 - D. Post-reading comprehension questions.

16. The strategy that reading teacher shows the students how to perform a task by thinking aloud is called.....
- A. Checking.
 - B. Evaluating.
 - C. Monitoring.
 - D. Modeling
17. Frequently-used organization patterns of expository text include all of the following except.....
- A. cause-effect.
 - B. storytelling.
 - C. comparison
 - D. problem-solution.
18. To comprehend text thoroughly, a reader must be able to use the information to.....
- A. make inferences.
 - B. read critically.
 - C. read creatively.
 - D. All of the above.
19. Children who read with a purpose tend to comprehend what they read.....
- A. depending on the purposes the teacher has set for them
 - B. about the same as those readers who have NO purpose for reading
 - C. read better than those students who have NO because they concentrate on the text.
 - D. read less well than students who have NO purpose because a purpose often confuses them.

20.show the students the examples of how to perform the task.
- A. Retells and K-W-L
 - B. Talk-aloud and think-aloud
 - C. Skimming and scanning.
 - D. Cloze procedures and syllabic chunking.
21. Pre-reading activities are often intended to.....
- A. eliminate the need to read the selection, if possible.
 - B. have the class silent before the students start reading
 - C. allow teachers time to prepare before reading the story.
 - D. activate students' problem-solving behaviors and their motivation to read.
22. Good readers are those who
- A. consider reading as a decoding process
 - B. monitor their comprehension constantly
 - C. use the same reading techniques and rates for all passages
 - D. do not make self- corrections in oral reading
23. When students are asked to identify the main idea in their reading, teachers should help students to recognize that.....
- A. all paragraphs have topic sentences
 - B. main ideas are always explicitly stated, never implied
 - C. a topic sentence often states the main idea of a paragraph
 - D. topic sentences are always in the beginning of an expository paragraph
24. A guideline for teachers who wish to improve their questioning techniques would include.....
- A. increasing the number of "tricky" questions they ask
 - B. asking various questions to check the students' reading comprehension
 - C. asking more difficult questions to check if some students prepare for their reading lesson
 - D. asking questions that a person who has not read the material can answer correctly.

25. Student-generated questions can
- A. take the pressure off the teacher to create all the questions
 - B. eliminate the need for teachers to model good questioning strategies
 - C. ensure that every student will actively participate in the reading selection
 - D. motivate peers to respond and make the questioner to have more interest in the response
26. If readers have had no or limited experience in the text they read,.....
- A. their comprehension will be very limited
 - B. they will be more motivated to read about the topic
 - C. they will focus more carefully on new vocabulary and therefore comprehend better.
 - D. their comprehension will be just as good as the comprehension of readers who have had some experience with the topic
27. Readers who do NOT attempt to connect what they read to their experiences....
- A. usually come close enough to the intended message of the writer
 - B. are still able to make sufficient use of clues in the text to comprehend it
 - C. can easily understand the text because the meaning is primarily 'in the text'.
 - D. may produce nonsense words that are graphically similar to the ones in the text.
28. Giving students background information on a topic before they read.....
- A. may make the text to be boring and repetitive
 - B. may take too much time away from real reading
 - C. is not necessary since most students have enough schema for all kinds of reading
 - D. is likely to enhance reading comprehension, especially inferential comprehension

29. The 'preview and predict' strategy, a technique for activating prior knowledge, is most effective when.....
- A. used mainly with narrative texts
 - B. the students already have some knowledge of the topic
 - C. the teacher, not the students, works to set the purpose for reading
 - D. the students use the strategy on their own, without the support of teacher modeling
30. Schema plays a part in the roles of both readers and writers when they.....
- A. construct, or reconstruct, meaning
 - B. use prior knowledge about a reading or writing topic
 - C. have expectations about how text might develop, based on their experiences
 - D. all of the above
31. When students have erroneous or incomplete knowledge about reading a topic, before the students start to read, the teacher.....
- A. should ask them to try again and add to their knowledge base as they read the new material
 - B. should place them in a group with other readers who can explain difficult material to them
 - C. help them to construct meaning in the text more successfully by adding new information to their knowledge base
 - D. should use vocabulary flashcards containing difficult words from the text as the primary means of schema development
32. By observing students' responses during a schema activation/development activity, teachers.....
- A. should not assess their levels of prior knowledge before reading a text
 - B. can decide on the need for additional prior knowledge development activities
 - C. will still not have enough information and should give a test to assess it more comprehensively
 - D. None of the above

33. The strategies for activating and developing prior knowledge that are best used with expository text are.....
- A. Brainstorming and picture walks
 - B. Structured previews and art projects
 - C. Pre-questioning and quick writing
 - D. Semantic mapping and anticipation guides
34. Prior knowledge of narrative text are determined by the story line, whereas the knowledge of expository text are determined by its.....
- A. topic
 - B. main ideas
 - C. structure of the text
 - D. All of the above
35. Students continually build their recognition of the meaning vocabulary.....
- A. only during reading activities
 - B. simultaneously through reading and writing experiences
 - C. separately through unrelated reading and writing experiences
 - D. by memorizing ten new words and their meanings weekly
36. Words that sound alike with different spellings and meanings are called.....
- A. antonyms.
 - B. homographs.
 - C. homonyms.
 - D. appositives.
37. The structural analysis can help determine word meaning. When studying the word parts, a reader might consider
- A. roots, prefixes and suffixes
 - B. compound words and contractions
 - C. inflectional endings.
 - D. All of the above.

38. When a fluent reader comes over an unknown word, she could try all of the following strategies except.....
- A. pronouncing the word out loud
 - B. looking for the base word, prefixes or suffixes she knows
 - C. rereading the sentence or paragraph and using the context to figure out the meaning
 - D. skipping the word, because one word usually makes little difference to Comprehension
39. Some good approaches in building vocabulary are.....
- A. word sorts and word banks
 - B. semantic maps and word webs
 - C. vocabulary self-collections and matching words with definitions
 - D. All of the above
40. When a teacher uses direct instruction to teach vocabulary related to a social studies reading, he should.....
- A. relate new vocabulary to known words and concepts
 - B. relate the new vocabulary to the students' prior knowledge
 - C. involve the students in making their own sentences with the new vocabulary after they have been discussed
 - E. All of the above
-
-
-

APPENDIX E

A SAMPLE OF EFL READING

INSTRUCTIONAL LESSON

UNIT ONE : HOW DO WE READ ?

Objectives – To demonstrate major concepts important to reading

Pre-service teachers will be able to

- describe the knowledge important to reading and reading process and end up with a working definition of reading
- understand differences between reading in a first and in a second/foreign language

Preliminary Questions:

- 1) Can you remember what happens when we read and how we understand the messages of written text?
- 2) What knowledge do you use in reading?

TASK 1.1

Instructions : a) Look at the following experiment described by Frank Smith (1978) adapted from Focus on Reading (Hood, Solomon and Burn, 1996). Glance quickly at a line of 26 letters randomly selected (You are allowed to take 2- 3 seconds for each) Then, answer the questions which follow.

1. a w e r t y u i o p q s d f g h j k l z x c v b n m

Can you remember all of them?

2. quiz horse next answer jump dog

How many words and letters can you recall?

3. Do not stand on the toilet seat.

Questions

- 1) Why the last set was easiest to remember?
- 2) What knowledge did you use to understand the last sentence?

b) Read the paragraph below. Then answer the questions which follow.

Zing quackles and randles estrates were zickled. While zickling the quackles frumpled, zooped and finally predacked. All quackles generally predick, but if immigted prior to zickling, they sometimes will not predack and may only frumple and zoop.

Questions

- 1) What were zickled?
- 2) What happened to them during zickling?
- 3) How do you prevent predacking?
- 4) What knowledge did you use to answer the questions?
- 5) What do you do when you read in your own language?

TASK 1.2

- Instructions:** a) Read the paragraph below. Try to figure out what the paragraph is about. Then answer the questions which follow.
- b) Write a quick note of the strategies you used while reading this text . (e.g. rereading words or phrases, using syntax to understand grammar and meaning)

ความจริงอันหนึ่งในอริยสัจ ๔ ประการ ที่เราเข้าใจกันดีและยอมรับมานานแล้ว ดังคำกล่าวว่

“เมื่อเวลามาแล้วย่อมถึงที่
ใครจะอยู่ค้ำฟ้าทั้งตาปี
พระสุลธิ์นทร์จันทรย์อมบรรลัย์”

แต่ที่ทำให้นักวิทยาศาสตร์ค้นคว้าก็คือช่วงแห่งชีวิตมีลักษณะอย่างไร? มีการเปลี่ยนแปลงอย่างไร? มีวัยเจริญเติบโตตรงไหน? อะไรทำให้คนโบราณตั้งข้อสังเกตลักษณะประจำวัยต่างๆ ของชีวิตมนุษย์ เช่น

สิบปี อานน้ำป่นหนาว
ยี่สิบปี แบนเสน่ห์สาวบ่ื่อ
สามสิบปี ลูกแต่ปามาเรือน.....

If

- 3) Which one of these (vocabulary, syntax and /or background knowledge hindered or prevented you from understanding the passage?
- 4) Do you use your previous knowledge when trying to understand the meaning of an L1 passage?

TASK 1.3

- Instruction :** a) Read the paragraph below. Try to figure out what the paragraph is about. This time it is in English. Then answer the questions which follow.

b) Write a quick note of the strategies you used while reading this text . (e.g. rereading words or phrases, using syntax to understand grammar and meaning)

A newspaper is better than a magazine. A seashore is a better place than the street. At first it is better to run than to walk. You may have to try several times. It takes some skills, but it's easy to learn. Even young children can enjoy it. Once successful, complications are minimal. Birds seldom get too close. Rain, however, soaks in very fast. Too many people doing the same thing can also cause problems. One needs a lot of room. If there are no complications, it can be very peaceful. A rock will serve as an anchor. If things break loose, however, you will not get a second chance.

Derived from Farrell (2002)

- 1) What is this paragraph about ? How can you figure it out? If you could not give the answer, what made it difficult?
- 2) Was it your background that helped you to understand?
- 3) Which one of these (vocabulary, syntax and /or background Knowledge) hindered or prevented you from understanding the passage?
- 4) Can you think of any differences between reading in a first and in a second/foreign language?

TASK 1.4

Instructions : *a) Look at the two paragraph below. Then answer the questions which follow.*

The chassis is a tabular space frame with alloy sheeting covering the holes. At both ends the suspension is double wishbone with Bilstein adjustable gas shock absorbers, fully independent with adjustable anti-sway bars. Bakes are drilled and cross cut ventilated discs. It's wider than a normal M1 racer (by about two feet) and the engine is mounted a little further forward.

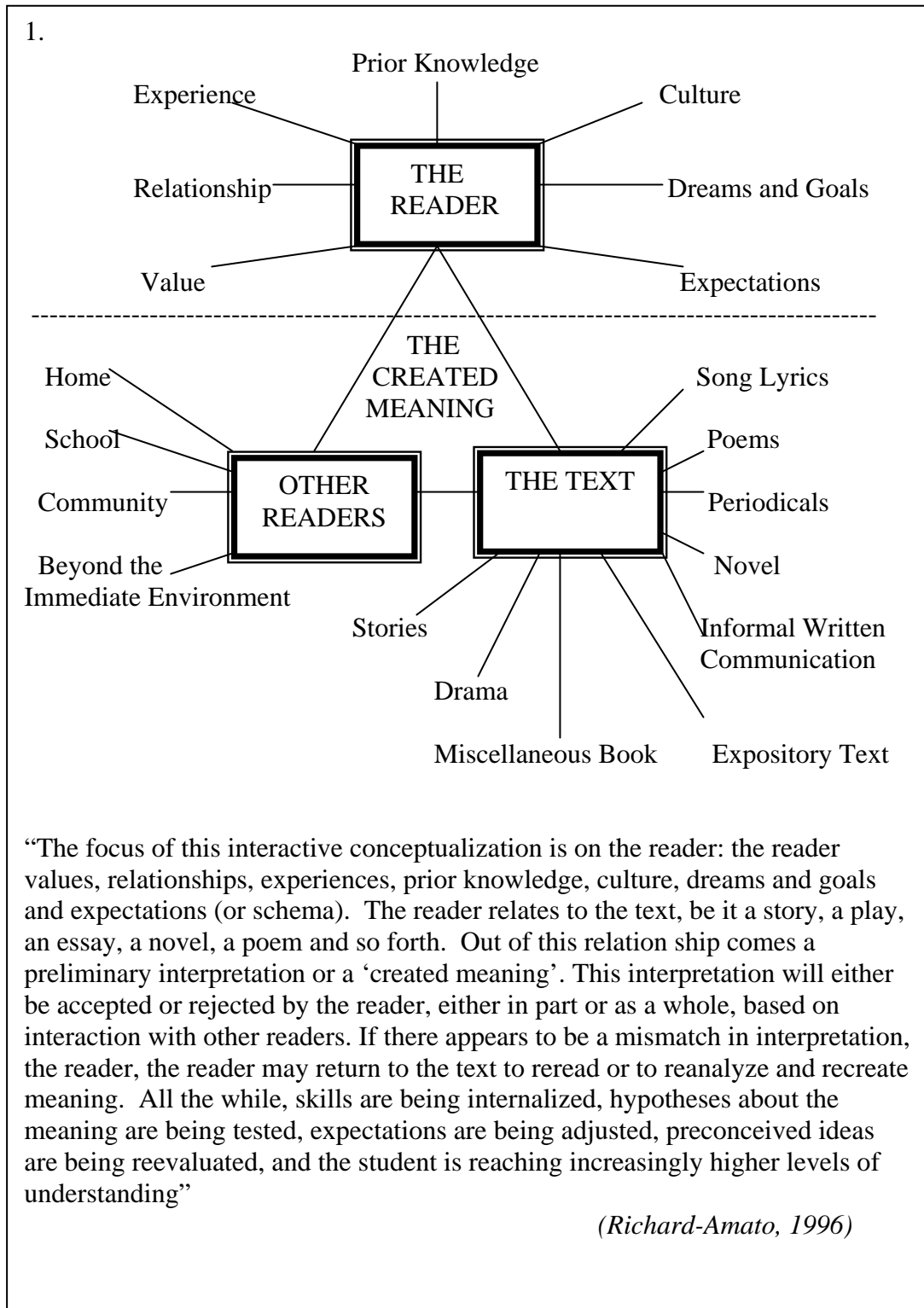
There are many possible reasons for studying a language. We may wish to spend our holidays in the country concerned, to find our way around more easily and be able to participate in a number of everyday situations. We may find ourselves living either temporarily or permanently in another country and need to be able to use the target language to survive or for work or business purposes. We may simply enjoy learning languages or want to find out more about different cultures or to read some of the literature of that culture.

Questions

- 1) Which of the two paragraphs did you find easier to read?
- 2) Why did you find this paragraph easier?
- 3) Was the structure of each paragraph is difficult?
- 4) Which vocabulary items were difficult to process?
- 5) Why do you think these items were difficult to understand?

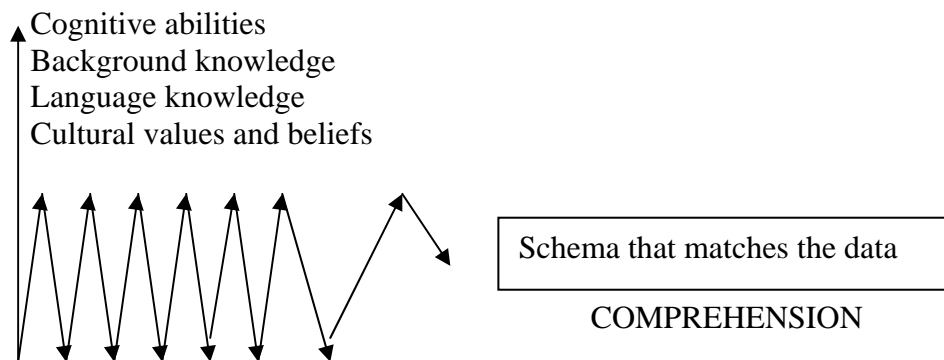
TASK 1.5

Instructions : a) **Brainstorm in a group of four to write a diagram to describe your own reading process. In the process, think about the relation between a reader and a text in reading, what knowledge the reader uses in reading and what information the text provides. Then compare the diagram describing your own reading process with the following diagrams:**



2. Model of the Reading Comprehension Process

The reader processes the text in light of established schemata:



The text provides new information to be processed:

- Grapho-phonetic information
- Syntactic information
- Semantic information
- Illustrations
- Genre information

(From Mikulecky(1990),based on contribution from Goodman (1977), Rumelhart (1980), Smith (1973) and others.

“ When reading the text, the reader samples the printed material (arrow pointing down) and instantaneously compares the data with what is already known (arrow pointing up), trying to find a match. The actual information activates prior knowledge, and the prior knowledge, in turns, activate expectations about what is in the text. This primarily unconscious, interactive process continues until the reader is satisfied with the match between text and prior knowledge, and comprehension has occurred”

Question

Can you think of an example of your own reading related to the diagrams presented above?

TASK 1.5

Instructions : Think about “what is reading?”. Then write down your own definition of reading on a note card provided. Discuss with your friends which elements you feel are most needed in a concise definition of reading according to what you have learned from each task. Then compare your definition with the one presented in this text:

Reading is the process of constructing meaning through the dynamic interaction among the reader's existing knowledge, the information suggested by the written language, and the context of the reading situation.

(from Anthony, Pearson, & Raphael, 1993:284)

SOME CONCLUSIONS

In looking for ways to describe the interaction between the reader and the text, some researchers created models that describe what happens when people read.

Bottom-up model : Barnett (1989) explained that in this model, a reader constructs the meaning from the smallest unit (letters to words to phrases to sentences) found within the text and then processes the text in a series of discrete stages in a linear fashion. The incoming data from the text must be received before the higher-level mental stages of understanding transform and recode the data. The process is used when an initial reading leaves the reader confused. Perhaps the readers cannot believe that the apparent message was really what the writer intended. This can happen if he or she lacks of schemata, or if the writer's point of view is very different from the reader's.

Top-down model : Nutall (1996) agreed that in the top-down model, the reading process moves from the top. The higher level mental stages down to the text itself. The reader also uses general knowledge of the world or of particular text components to make intelligent guesses about what might come next in the text. The readers use their schemata (background knowledge see more information in Reading A) to make predictions in order to comprehend the text. This approach is used when the readers interpret assumptions and draw inferences.

Interactive model : This can be explained as the reader using both top-down and bottom-up models to process the text. This means that apart from using his or her

expectations and previous understanding to guess about text content, the reader is still dependent upon what is in the text. Both top-down and bottom-up processes can occur either alternatively or simultaneously (Aebersold & Field, 1997).

In summary, readers use both top-down and bottom-up strategies to comprehend a text and the mixing of those types of strategies constitute the interactive process. The bottom-up strategies provide a linear or sentence building of comprehension. They may use top-down approaches, such as discourse-level strategies and aid readers' comprehension of larger pieces of text, such as a paragraph or section. In addition, reading also involves cultural, social and personal knowledge, and the ability to bring this knowledge to our sampling and our standing of its meaning when reading for different purposes which is called new literacy approaches (Tindale, 2003). The reading teachers need to develop the ability to analyze components of reading process. Then they can prepare reading for the students in order to make them succeed in their reading.

Further reading

- Carrell, P L. (1984). Schema Theory and ESL Reading: Classroom Implications and Applications. *Modern language journal*, 68 (4), 332-343
- Aebersold, J.A., and Field, M.L. (1997). **From reader to reading teacher: Issues and strategies for second language classrooms**. New York: Cambridge University Press.

UNIT TWO : ACTIVATING BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE

Objectives : - To develop pre-service teachers awareness of activating background knowledge in L2 reading
 - To model strategy instruction

Pre-service teachers will be able to

- Discuss how important is activating background knowledge in their reading.
- Use the reading strategy “Activating background knowledge” to prepare their own reading and apply the strategy for their classroom situation.

Preliminary questions :

- What do you think this unit will be about?
- What do you know about the benefit of activating student’s background knowledge when we teach reading?
- What have you learned about the topic?

TASK 2.1

Instructions : a) Discuss with your friends and your teacher about the preliminary questions. Then, with your partner, list what you think you know about the topic .

b) You are going to practice using a strategy for preparing to read by activating background knowledge. This strategy can help you to understand the content of your reading. What you have already known can help you to relate new information to what you know, anticipate events and understand what we are reading.

The strategy you are going to use is called ‘previewing’. You can use this strategy to find out about what you will read. If you look over the text before you read, you will help yourself to understand and remember what you read. Before you are going to preview a news story, study the steps in previewing as follows;

Steps in Previewing

1. Read the title.
2. Look at any pictures.
3. Notice if the text is divided into parts.
4. Read the first sentence of each paragraph.
5. Read the last paragraph or at least the last sentence.
6. Notice names, numbers, dates and words that stand out.

(Adapted from Mikulecky, 1990)

You will have 1 minute to preview the following news story. Then work with a partner and answer the questions which follow.

Panic and fear arrived this week in Brazil's largest city Sao Paolo. Criminal gangs are searching the streets for targets. Their hit-list includes police officers and prison guards. Six policemen were murdered on the streets on Thursday. The local people are very worried about the sudden increase in violence. Most of the city's bus companies stopped operating out of concern for the safety of drivers and passengers. Almost seventy buses have been torched in the last few days. Plainclothes police officers have been riding the buses to try and stop the criminals. The attacks are the work of the First Command of the Capital gang, also known as the PCC. The group runs many Sao Paolo prisons and has a large control of the city's drug trafficking.

The violence has been a part of city life for most of this year. The PCC were responsible for five days of chaos in June when they killed over 200 people. Leaders of the group are organizing events on the streets from their prison cells. The current killing is in protest at the possible transfer of leaders to tougher prisons. They also want revenge after the police killed dozens of gang members in a crackdown in May. City officials said the police force would protect people. The officials also warned the gang it would lose its battle. The secretary for public security stated: "There will be no white flag....There will be more clashes and they are going to come off worst; under no circumstances can they win. We will not be held hostage."

- Question**
- 1) What is this story about?
 - 2) What kind of text is it?
 - 3) What do you already know about this?
 - 4) Is the story difficult for you?
 - 5) What are some of the names, dates, numbers, or other important words you noticed.
 - 6) Did you learn anything new? What?
 - 7) Did 'previewing' help you read? How did it help? Would you use it again?

TASK 2.2

Instructions : a) Read the information of prediction strategy provided in the box.

Before you read, you can do something to improve your understanding. You can guess what will be in the passage. This is called *predicting*. When there is a title, a picture, or some other information about what you will read, stop and think! When you predict, you find out:

- a) what kind of text you will read. Is it a newspaper article, a story, an advertisement, a textbook, a recipe, a letter, or what?
- b) what you already know about what you will read.
- c) how carefully you want to read it. Will you read to remember every word? Will you scan, for one or two pieces of information? Will you read for pleasure, with no need to remember?

(Adapted from Mikulecky,

1999)

b) Your teacher is going to demonstrate the text prediction strategy. Try to listen to what your teacher is going to say during her demonstration.

c) Read the following passage independently. Try to use the same strategy as your teacher demonstrated.

TASK 2.3

Instructions : a) Read what the researcher says in the box provide below. Then discuss with your friends and your teacher about the usefulness of the two strategies related to activating prior knowledge. Also compare between what you have learned and the ideas that you wrote in Task 2.1

“Both L1 and L2/FL reading comprehension research tells us that readers benefit in three main ways from having an introduction to the topic of an informational text before they begin to read. First, an introduction helps students to recall any information that they may already know about the topic (content schema), either from personal experience or other reading. If the students keep this knowledge in mind as they read, they increase their opportunities to make sense of the information they find in the text. An introduction may also bring to mind cultural factors that help them understand the new material, thus enhancing comprehension. Second, getting the students to start to think about the topic should increase their interest in the topic and thereby motivate them to read the text. Third, if the introduction activity is conducted in the L2/FL, it will also review or introduce the relevant vocabulary for that topic.”
(Aebersold and Field, 1997)

b) Can you think of any other activities that you can adapt for activating your students’ background knowledge? Work in group of four to brainstorm and think of any other activities that you can adapt for your own classroom situation. Then present the ideas to the whole class.

SOME CONCLUSIONS

Many students begin to read a selection without identifying or thinking about the topic beforehand. This means that they are probably not aware that what they already know is an essential factor in understanding the material to be read. It is nearly impossible for students to understand material that they have been given to read if they have little or no personal knowledge of the topic.

Schema theory suggests that readers have prior knowledge about a topic before they read. This prior knowledge can be similar to what the readers will encounter in a new text. Students who think about what they already know will be better prepared for and more successful in their second language learning. By having in mind what they already know, it will be easier for them to understand and learn new information by relating it to existing knowledge. They can also better predict and infer while reading after activating their background knowledge.

According to Barnhardt (1997) activating background knowledge should be taught explicitly to all levels of students and can be used in all phases of learning. Explain what it means to students by providing a definition and rationale of why and when to use it. Model for students how the teacher uses it on a language task. Prompt

students to use the strategy by providing them with lots of practice opportunities. As students master the strategy themselves, fade explicit prompts. Finally, ask students to evaluate the usefulness of the strategy and to think of other situation in which it might be valuable.

Further Reading

Christen, W. L.& Murphy, T. J. (1991) Increasing comprehension by activating prior knowledge. ERIC Digest,

Stott, N. (2001) Helping ESL students become better readers: schema theory applications and limitations. **The Internet TESL Journal**, VII (11).

UNIT THREE: WHAT IS READING STRATEGY?

Objectives : - To raise pre-service teachers awareness of metacognition in second language reading strategies
- To model strategy instruction

Pre-service teachers will be able to

- Identify reading strategies required for different purposes of reading
- Know how to teach reading strategies

Preliminary questions :

- Do you want to know how the good readers read in L2?
- How and when do you use different reading strategies?

TASK 3.1

Instructions Look at the reading materials provided in the box. Present the class how you go about reading each kind of material. Then answer the questions which follow.

Newspaper article**Job advertisement**

Invite the object	Support Engineer
Job Number	5
Job Address	Shenzhen
Wages Treatment	Personally discuss
Release Time	2009-5-11
Expiry Date	30
Job Request	Skilled full in computer applications software and development software. Experience: Over 3 years
Click: Accept appointment this post.	

Flight time table

To Aberdeen-Dyce Airport (ABZ) from London Gatwick (LGW)										
VALIDITY										
From	To	Freq	Term	Dep	Arr	Flight	AVC	Stops	Elapsed	
07-May	08-May	123456-	S	0925	1110	BE7282	E95	Non-Stop	01:45 hrs	Book flight
07-May	08-May	1234567	S	1445	1625	BE7294	E95	Non-Stop	01:40 hrs	Book flight
07-May	08-May	12345-7	S	1925	2105	BE7296	E95	Non-Stop	01:40 hrs	Book flight

Novel**Academic textbook**

- Question**
- 1) Do you read every word in TV schedule?
 - 2) What kind of clues can the presentation of the material give?
 - 3) How much time do you spend reading the newspaper? Do you read every single word?
 - 4) What kind of assumptions do you make when you read the first few lines? (i.e. Once upon a time...)
 - 5) How much time do you spend reading the various types of materials?
 - 6) Can you identify the reading strategies required for different materials?
 - 7) Do you know what knowledge is required when they use reading strategies?

TASK 3.2

Instructions : a) Think about your reading strategies used in UNIT ONE when you read the text in English. Then work in pairs to discuss with your partner in order to list reading strategies that you think a good reader use or you think they should use when they read for comprehension even though you do not use them.

b) Compare your list(s) to what researchers have suggested good readers use to understand reading passage in the box provided below.

-Skip words they do not know
 -Predict meaning
 -Guess the meaning of unknown words from the context
 -Do not always translate into their L1
 -Have some knowledge about the topic
 -Draw inferences from the title
 -Ask someone when they do not understand a word
 -Reread to check comprehension
 -Make use of all the information in the paragraph
 - Try to figure out the meaning of a paragraph by the syntax of the sentence

Carell (1998),p.3

Question : Do you use the same reading strategies as them? If so, when ?

TASK 3.3

Instructions a) Read the following sentence. Your teacher is going to guide you which strategy should be used and why you should use it at a time. You should think what you should do while teacher is modeling and try to answer the questions which follow.

The *misogynist* manager disliked all the women in his office, so they all resigned.

Questions : 1) What do you do if you are reading an English text and do not understand a specific word?
 2) What does '*misogynist*' mean? If you don't know, guess what it might be.
 3) What part of speech is a '*misogynist*' (i.e. verb, noun, preposition etc.)
 4) How did you arrive at your guess? Which clues did you use?

- b) Read the Reading Clues for Task 2.3 provided below. Then discuss with your classmates what strategies they actually used.

Reading Clues

Deduction – What does the sentence concern? Which words does the unknown word seem to relate to?

Part of Speech- Which part of speech is the unknown words? Is it a verb, noun, preposition, adjective, time expression or something else?

Chunking- What do the words around the unknown word(s) mean? How could the unknown word(s) relate to those words? This is basically deduction on a more local level.

Vocabulary Activation – When quickly skimming through the text seem to concern? Does the layout (design) of the text give any clues? Does the publication or type of book give any clues to what the text might be about? Which word can you think of that belong to this vocabulary category?

Questions :

- 1) Do you think the Reading Clues provided can help you develop flexibility in your choice of strategies?
- 2) Can the reading strategies be taught? Think about how you can teach reading strategies?

TASK 3.4

Instructions a) The mnemonic method (M-I-R-R-O-R-S) provided below is claimed as an effective way for teaching reading strategies. Read and discuss whether it is helpful and useful.

M-I-R-R-O-R-S for Teaching Reading Strategies

- M** Model the strategy
- I** Inform the students about when and how to use it
- R** Remind them to use the strategy
- R** Repeat the strategy with lots of practice
- O** Outline the strategy's usefulness by giving feedback frequently
- R** Reassess the student's performance as a result of using the strategy
- S** Stress strategy importance

Farrell (2002)

TASK 3.5

Instructions : a) **Read the descriptions of reading techniques (Look at the reading**

activities(A-K) provided below.

- b) **Look at the reading activities (A-K) from course book. Which reading techniques do they practice? Write the corresponding letter of each reading activity (A-K) in the right hand column of the table. Two examples have been done for you.**

(This task is derived from Tanner and Green, 1998)

Reading techniques and their purposes		
Reading technique	Description and purpose	Activity
1. Skimming	Reading a passage quickly to grasp the main idea (or gist).	
2. Scanning	Reading a passage quickly to find specific information.	
3. Contextual guessing	Making guesses about the meaning of words by looking at the surrounding words or situation.	
4. Cloze exercise	Fill-in the blank exercise, in which some words are omitted, designed to measure how well the reader understands how a text is linked together.	
5. Outlining	Note-taking technique designed to help the reader see the overall organization of a text	
6. Paraphrasing	The ability to say or write ideas in other words; measures the reader's understanding of the main ideas of a text.	<i>A, F</i>
7. Scrambled stories	Also known as 'jigsaw reading' : the reader re-orders the mixed up pieces of a text to show he understands how a text fits together.	
8. Information transfer	Exercise which requires readers to transfer information from the text into another form of related text or drawing (e.g. filling in a chart, tracing a route on a map); designed to measure comprehension.	
9. Making inferences	'Reading between the lines': the reader understands what is meant but not stated in a passage.	
10. Passage completion	Finishing a reading passage (orally or in writing); involves predicting a logical or suitable conclusion based on a thorough understanding of the text.	
11. Intensive reading	Reading carefully for complete, detailed comprehension, (e.g. main ideas, details, vocabulary).	
12. Extensive reading	Reading widely in order to improve reading comprehension, reading speed and vocabulary.	<i>A</i>

Reading Activities A-K

Reading activity A

Read another short story of your choice. Write a journal entry summarizing the main point of the

Reading activity B

Read the story and decide how it should end. What happens next? Write a conclusion.

Reading activity C

Read the first part of the story. What do you think these words mean?
clever create dead living experiment successful

Reading activity D

Read the story and fill in the blanks. There is one missing word for each blank.

I used to live in Roi-Et. While I was _____, I studied Esarn folk _____ and music. There is a great tradition of dance and _____ in this province- in fact, there are thousands of _____ dances one can learn.

Reading activity F

Dialogue

Man : I've lost my dog.

Luna: What does it look like?

Man: What do you mean-'it'? My dog is a 'she'

Luna: Oh, sorry. What does she look like?

Man: Well, she's got four legs...

Luna: Really?

Man: Yes. She's quite big, and she's white with brown eyes.

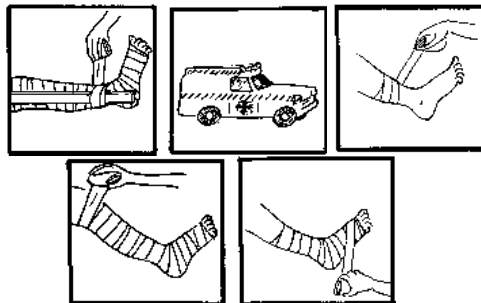
Luna : How big is she?

Man : Well, quite big, not very big. She's about this big. And she looks a bit like me.

Luna: Like you?

Reading Activity E

Match the instructions with the pictures. The pictures are in the correct order; the instructions aren't



1. Put a wide firm bandage around the bitten area.
2. Bandage from the bite to the toes, then upwards to cover as much of the leg as possible.
3. Make the bandage as tight as possible without cutting off the blood supply.
4. Attach a splint (eg a flat piece of timber) to the leg using a second bandage.
5. Do not allow the person to stand or walk. Get an ambulance for the person.

Read the dialogue again. Which sentences mean the same as these?

1. Please describe it.
2. Please describe her.
3. My dog is female.
4. Please describe the dog's size.
5. Look! This is her size.
6. The dog's face and my face are not very different.

(Taken from Mosaic 1)

SOME CONCLUSIONS

As can be seen, the reading teacher must become a reflective reader. In teaching reading strategies, the teacher should first become more aware of what these effective strategies are. You, as a reading teacher, should ask yourself why you read, what you read and what you do as you read. This may be able to encourage the same type of reflection. (Farrell, 2002)

Carrell (1998) stated that reading strategies are of interest not only for what they reveal about the ways readers manage their interactions with written text, but also for how the use of strategies is related to effective reading comprehension. The use of reading strategies requires knowledge of strategies (metacognition), and motivation to use them. Metacognitive ability includes both the knowledge of cognition (declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge, or 'knowing what, how and why'), and the regulation of cognition (the ability to plan, monitor, test, revise and evaluate strategies) (Tindale, 2003)

Carell (1989) maintains that reading instruction should provide explicit information that enable readers to practice this metacognitive control. Strategy training implies that successful reading depends on appropriate strategy use and that learners can improve their reading comprehension by being trained to use effective reading strategies. Furthermore, strategy instruction develop student knowledge about the reading process, introduces students to specific strategies, and provides them with opportunities to discuss and practice strategies while reading.

Further Reading

Carell, P.L. (1998). Can reading strategies be successfully taught? **Australian Review of Applied Linguistics**, 21(1), 1-20

Singhal, M. (2001). Reading proficiency, reading strategies, metacognitive awareness and L2 readers. **The Reading Matrix**, 1(1),

UNIT FOUR : DEVELOPING VOCABULARY

Objectives : To create activities that foster vocabulary development

Pre- service teachers will be able to

-

Preliminary questions : 1) How do you choose words to learn?
2) How do you learn new words?
3) Are some words easier to learn? Why?

TASK 4.1

Instructions : a) Write down five or more words or phrases that you have recently learnt while studying a foreign language or that you remember learning in a particular situation in the past which have remained in your memory.

b) Write down the reasons why you learnt those particular words, and perhaps not others which were presented to you. What made the experience memorable and effective? i.e. *briefcase: The teacher showed us her briefcase and we learnt what it was called: actually seeing and touching that green briefcase helped me remember its name.*

c) Share two words or phrases that you each learnt and discuss your reasons for learning them.

TASK 4.2

Instructions : Examine the following sample activities with your partner. Then answer the questions which follow.

Sample Activity 4.1

Directions : Read the clues and try to guess what xxxxx is.
Work with a partner

Mystery Word: What is xxxxxx?

- a) He was used to having many xxxxx in his room, so his new room seemed dark.
- b) He studied at the library, where there were more xxxxx.
- c) The best part about xxxxx is that you can open them in warm weather, to get a breeze.

1) What is xxxxx ?.....

Sample Activity 4.2

Directions Read each sentence. Try to guess the meaning of the word. Work with a partner.

- a) She was aware that her boss was a *misogynist* soon after she started working for him.

Guess: A *misogynist*

is.....

- b) It is difficult for a woman to work for a *misogynist* because she is never sure of the reasons for his criticism.

Guess : A *misogynist*

is.....

- c) She knew that no woman would advance in his company, so she told the *misogynist* that she was resigning.

Guess : A *misogynist*

is.....

Guess : A *misogynist* is a person who dislikes women. Think of something a misogynist might do in a family.....

Sample Activity 4.3

Directions : The words in each list are members of the same group. Write the name for each group.

- 1 *Sport*.....
baseball, basketball, foot ball, swimming
- 2
black, red, yellow, blue
- 3
pineapple, banana, strawberry, apple

Sample Activity 4.4

Review the list below. Each word has the suffix *less*. This suffix means ‘without.’ Discuss each word in the list with your partner. Then choose the best word to complete each sentence. Write that word in the blank. You will use each word one time only. Cross out each word in the list as you use the word. When you have finished, discuss your answers with your partner.

Hopeless homeless fearless senseless painless

1. There is usually no reason for violence. It is.....
2. “Don’t worry,” said the doctor. “This won’t hurt. It will be”
3. Many of the people who live on the streets have no other place to live. They are.....

Sample Activity 4.5

Directions: For each sentence, find the word in the list below that has the same meaning as the underlined word. Then write each sentence using the word from the list. You will use each word one time only. Cross out each word as you use it.

unsafe impolite illegal

1. It is against the law to use firecrackers in the city.
.....
2. It is bad manners to cough without covering your mouth.
.....

Sample Activity 4.6

You cannot always guess the meaning of a word from its context, that is, from the words and sentences that are around the word. Sometimes you need to look up the word in a dictionary. Use a learner's dictionary because it is generally written clearly and show the words in sentences. To choose the correct definition, follow the steps below:

1. Look at the word in the sentence to get a general idea the word. What part of speech is it? A verb? An adjective ? An adverb?
2. Here are the abbreviations that are used in most dictionaries to show the parts of speech :

Noun= n

Verb = v

Adjective= adj

Adverb = adv

3. Look at the sentence and determine the part of speech of the word. Choose the definition that is the correct part of speech and makes the most sense in the sentence.

Directions : Read the following sentences and choose the dictionary definitions (adapted from Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English) that best fit the meaning of the underlined word in the sentence.

1. That witch put a spell on me.

spell /sp l/ n. a condition caused by magical power. *I fell under the spell of his wonderful green eyes.*

spell /sp l/ v. to name in order the letters of a word. *He spells his names S-M-I-T-H.*
 spell /sp l/ n. a period of time during which a specific activity or type of weather has occurred. *We've had a cold spell all month.*

Definition number.....

2. At the close of the meeting, no one was speaking to any one else.

close /kloz/ v. to shut, make no longer open. *Close your mouth when you chew!*

close /kloz/ n. the end of an activity or period of time. *At the close of the day, the crickets start to chirp.*

close /kloz/ adj. near *Don't stand so close to me!*

Definition number.....

- Questions**
- 1) Which activities do you usually prefer? Why?
 - 2) Which activity do you consider the least effective ? Why?
 - 3) What are the advantages and disadvantages of each activity?
 - 4) Which activity will you select to teach before, during and after reading?

TASK 4.3

Instructions: As a teacher of English reading, can you think of any other activities (e.g. using concept maps) ? Work in group of four to design an activity for pre-teaching vocabulary to increase reading comprehension.

TASK 4.4

Instructions : Develop your own dictionary based on your own reading. You may either make a card for it or list it in a notebook which has been paginated alphabetically. You should write down the word, the sentence you found it in, and interpretation of its meaning in that context. For example,

word	
meaning	
pronunciation	
Other forms	n. adv. Adj.
Examples of word used within sentences	
note	

Adapted from Teaching Reading,(Tindale,2003)

SOME CONCLUSIONS

A major difference between native speakers learning to read and nonnative speakers learning to read in English is the amount of vocabulary each has when approaching reading. Building vocabulary is an essential feature of learning a second language.

According to Nation (1990) in teaching and learning vocabulary, the following categories of knowledge about a word are identified as the following:

Form: Readers recognize the word in print and distinguish its various grammatical forms (noun, verb, adjective, adverb).

Position: Readers know the grammar patterns and structures in which a word can occur and the words that frequently appear before or after it, the collocation.

Function: Readers know how common or rare the word is and in what types of situations and texts it would most likely occur

Meaning: Readers know the various meanings and nuances of a word as well as its synonyms.

As can be seen from bottom up implication, vocabulary development and word recognition have long been recognized as crucial to successful bottom-up decoding skills. However, schema theory has shed new light on the complex nature of the interrelationship of schemata, context, and vocabulary knowledge. Unlike traditional views of vocabulary, current thinking converges on the notion that a given word does not have a fixed meaning, but rather a variety of meanings that interact with context and background knowledge. Knowledge of individual word meanings is strongly associated with conceptual knowledge -- that is, learning vocabulary is also learning the conceptual knowledge associated with the word. On the one hand, an important part of teaching background knowledge is teaching the vocabulary related to it and, conversely, teaching vocabulary may mean teaching new concepts, new knowledge. Knowledge of vocabulary entails knowledge of the schemata in which a concept participates, knowledge of the networks in which that word participates, as well as any associated words and concepts. However, teachers must become aware of the cross-cultural differences in vocabulary and how meaning may be represented differently in the lexicons of various languages.

References

- Mikulecky, B. (1990). **A short course in teaching reading skills**. MA: Addison – Wesley.
- Nation, P. (1990). **Teaching and learning vocabulary**. Newbury House, New York
- Tindale, J. (2003). **Teaching reading**. Macquarie University: National Centre for English Language teaching and Research

UNIT FIVE : DIFFERENT WAYS OF TEACHING READING

Objectives -To learn different ways of teaching EFL reading
 -To compare reading L1 in real life with reading EFL in classroom

Pre-service teachers will be able to

-Identify the reading activities/strategies used for each stage of teaching EFL reading lesson

Preliminary Questions:

- 1) What kind of reading activities will you use for your reading class?
- 2) Why will you use these activities?

TASK 5.1

Instructions : Read the quotes from experienced teachers from around the world . As you read, underline any new ideas about teaching reading that appeal to you. Then answer the questions which follow.

Juana

I like to use English language newspaper or magazine articles with all of my learners some of the time. My colleagues ask me, How can you do that with beginning readers? I can't ! I think they imagine that I ask my learners to sit down and read a whole article, which I never do. In fact, I only use selected parts of the articles from the paper. Sometimes I just ask them to match headlines to pictures, other times to find three words in an advertisement describing a product. Or they might scan for the name of the country that an article was written about. These are pretty simple tasks, but the learners seem to like knowing that they can understand parts of a real English – language newspaper.

Invariably, when I give my learners a text to read, I first ask them to read it once very quickly for the main ideas. Once everyone has got the general idea, they read the whole passage again, then one or two of them tell me in their own words that they understood. Next, I usually ask them to work detailed questions : they always read the more at least twice more to scan and find the answers. By doing it like text, and there's plenty of learners – to – learner interaction, too.

Britt

I've been teaching for ten years and in my reading lessons I always go around the class, asking individual learners to read aloud in turn. In this way, the other learners understand clearly: they can hear something as they follow in their books and I can also check their pronunciation. They seem to like being the ones to 'shine' – at least, when they pronounce the sentences correctly!

Astrid

I discourage the use of dictionaries in the classroom: learners can become over – dependent on them. I try to get my learners to guess words that they don't know. or if they can't manage that, then I try to help them to find out the meaning by asking leading questions. If they can look it up in their dictionaries at home.

Ahmed

When I teach reading, I give the learners the text to read and ask them to read it aloud, one by one. Then we go over any unfamiliar vocabulary, when I try to have learners guess the meaning. If they can't, I give them the equivalent word in their native language. Then I ask them a couple of basic questions to check their comprehension of the main ideas. After that learners work in pair to answer comprehension questions and then we re – assemble into one class and check all the answers.

Xu

A lot of teacher I have worked with often ask their learners to read aloud. When a learner reads aloud, he often feels tense, and that can't really help him to grasp new language, can it? Besides, after he's read aloud, he usually can't even answer a basic question: he has to reread the passage silently to try to find the answer. So I don't think it's helpful at all and I don't do it any more I wish more my colleagues agreed!

Annemaire

I always give my class the activity that they are to do at the same time as I give out the text; I never ask them just to 'read the text' because they wouldn't have a reason, then, to read. So I explain the activity and they can do it while they are reading.

Orlando

Kate

When I teach reading, I like my learners to use the other skills, too. I do various things. For example, before reading a passage, my learners discuss the topic or brainstorm vocabulary they predict they will hear; or they listen to a short passage on a related topic and discuss it. At the reading stage, I make sure to spell out why they are reading. We read a passage more than once, each time with a new task. The learners fill in a chart, or match pictures to paragraphs or answers true/false questions. Finally, I save enough time for a follow – up, like a role – play or group work where the learners write a different ending or discuss the issue in the text.

When I prepare to teach a reading passage, I read it once or twice and underline essential words that the learners might not know. I circle the words which might be similar to the learners' first language or which might be easily explained by the context surrounding the word; I then decide how many of the remaining underlined words to pre – teach. I only pre – teach a few new key words – maybe five in a passage that's two or three paragraphs long – because I don't want my learners relying on me for every single definition. With the circled words, I often write the sentences in which they occur on the boards and the learners work in small groups to guess the meaning from the context. After they've read the text, I often do an activity, such as a role – play or a game, to practice the new vocabulary they have come across.

Liu

In my Intermediate – level, I try to get my learners to read as much English as possible; the only way learners will really become good readers is by reading. We have assembled an attractive – looking English reading shelf in the classroom, collecting as much interesting information as possible, such as teenage magazines or articles that we've taken from newspapers or course books. I don't make the learners read anything specific, but they have to choose and read three passages in a week and keep a log of what they've written. In the log, I just ask them to write a couple of sentences about what they found interesting about each text they read. After all, their ideas really matter.

Isabella

(Derived from Tanner, R. and Green, C. (1998))

Questions 1. Identify four pre- reading activities from the quotes.

What are the aims of each one?

2. On the topic of reading aloud, which teachers do you most agree with, Ahmed or Annemarie? What is the aim of reading aloud? Do you think reading aloud is effective? Why or why not?

3. Kate and Xu's quotes outline two different models for teaching a reading lesson. Briefly outline these two models? What is one advantage and one disadvantage of each of these models?

4. Several of these teachers give their students activities to do as they are reading. Why do they do this? Do you like this way of teaching reading? Why or why not?

5. Why dose Britt advocate reading for the main idea before reading for details?

6. Identify five post reading activities from the quotes which students do after they have understood the text. What is the aim of each one?

TASK 5.2

Instructions : You are going to teach a reading lesson, read a passage provided in the box. Think of how to teach reading. The new words are in italics in the text. Then answer the questions which follow.

A doctor who worked in a village was very *annoyed* because many people used to stop him in the street and ask his *advice*. In this way , he was never managed to earn much money. He made up his mind to put an end to this. One day, he was stopped by a young man who said to him, Oh, doctor , I'm so glad to see you. I've got a severe pain in my left side'. The doctor pretended to be interested and sail, "Shut your eyes and stick your tongue out of your mouth ". Then he went away, leaving the man standing in the street with his tongue hanging out.. And a large crowd of people laughing at him.

Questions

1. Which words would you present before reading?
2. Which words could you leave for students to guess, and deal with afterwards?
3. How would you introduce the text? Decide exactly what you would say.
4. Look at these possible guiding questions.
Choose the two which you think would be best.
 - a) Was the doctor rich?
 - b) Was the doctor unhappy?
 - c) What was the young man's problem?
 - d) Where was the man's pain?
 - e) What did the doctor advise?
5. Think of a series of the short simple question which you could use to check comprehension and focus on important words and expressions. Write them down.

TASK 5.3

Instructions : Any of these activities could be done after reading the text in TASK 5.2 Which type of activity do you think is most useful? Which is least useful?

Discussion questions

Do you think he was a good doctor?
How do you think the young man felt?

Reproducing the text

Tell part of the story from these prompts:
Doctor – Village – annoyed.
People – stop – street – advice.
Never paid – never – money.

Role play

Act out the conversation between the doctor and the young man.

Gap- filling

Copy and fill the gaps:

One day, the doctora young man.

The Doctor.....interested.

He left the man.....in the street with his tongue.....out.

TASK 5.4

Instructions Choose a text from the textbook you are using, or from an other suitable textbook. If the text is long, choose one part of the text only. Plan an introduction to the text, and one or two guiding questions.

- Decide which words you would present before students read the text.
- Plan an introduction to the text, and one or two guiding questions.
- Prepare a series of comprehension question to ask after the reading, and decide how to present other new words in the text.

SOME CONCLUSIONS

In considering the reading process, it is important to distinguish between two quite separate activities: reading for meaning (or 'silent reading') and reading aloud. Reading for meaning is the activity we normally engage in when we read books, newspapers, road signs, etc; it is what you are doing as you read this text. It involves looking at sentences and understanding the message they convey, in other words 'making sense' of a written text. It does not normally involve saying the words we read, not even silently inside our heads; there are important reasons for this, which are outlined below.

Reading aloud is a completely different activity; its purpose is not just to understand a text but to convey the information to someone else. It is not an activity we engage in very often outside the classroom; common examples are reading out parts of a newspaper article to a friend, or reading a notice to other people who cannot see it. Obviously, reading aloud involves looking at a text, understanding it and also saying it. Because our attention is divided between reading and speaking, it is a much more difficult activity than reading silently; we often stumble and make mistakes when reading aloud in our own language, and reading aloud in a foreign language is even more difficult.

The possible procedures for teaching reading are summarized in the following table.

Further reading

Tanner, R and Green, C. (1998). **Tasks for teacher education: trainer's book.** Longman Thornbury.

Droff, A. (1988). **Teach English : A training course for teachers.** Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Profile 2

Student B is in an EFL class at an intermediate level. She has little contact with English outside the context of the class. She has well developed reading strategies in L1. She is highly motivated and she is interested in learning English in order to do tertiary studies in Australia.

Description _____

Profile 3

Student C is at beginner level in spoken and written English. She has 12 years of formal education in L1 and has well developed literacy skills in his first language, which is a non-roman script. She is very keen to learn English 'quickly' so that she can find a job commensurate with her qualifications and skills.

Description _____

Description A

Texts likely to be relevant to this student might include texts that:

- Provide the opportunity to this student to transfer L1 reading skills to English reading practices;
- Extend her current contact with English language texts;
- Promote her understanding of English academic texts and encourage appropriate reading strategies;
- Give her the opportunity to compare and contrast a range of English and L1 text types in terms of purpose, format and style.

Such texts might include brochures and booklets with tertiary study course information, community notices, newspaper and magazine articles.

Description B

Texts likely to be relevant to this student might include:

- Texts in which the content matter has relevance to her life experiences-the content matter needs to be familiar to her as such personally relevant content will help her understand that print is a medium of communication;
- Texts with a lot of contextual clues, such as pictures or logos, so that she can draw on her knowledge of these to make some sense of the texts;
- Texts which are 'available' to her as part of her life outside the classroom, so that she can transfer her learning in the classroom to other contexts;

Such texts might include shopping advertisements, bank forms, school notices, household accounts, appointment cards, notices about community activities and street and public transport signs.

Description C

Texts likely to be relevant to this student might include texts that:

- Have relevance to his life experiences and goals-the content matter needs to be familiar to him in order to motivate him to read for meaning;

- Match L1 text types with which he is familiar so that he can compare and contrast the English and L1 versions in terms of purpose, format and style;
- Have a lot of contextual clues, such as pictures or logos so that he can use these to guess the meaning of the text;
- Cover the range of text types that relate to his language learning and occupational goals.

Such texts include classified advertisements (eg. job advertisements in newspapers and employment offices), notices about community services, educational programs and employment, resumes and application letters.

TASK 6.3

Instructions : Find one or more text for your students. Use the guidelines for analyzing texts and the model analysis in the box provided to help you make notes about the language of the text. Would the text be at an appropriate level of difficulty for your learners?

Guidelines for analyzing texts

Guidelines	Notes on sample text
1 Consider the purpose and context. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What kind of text is it? ● Who wrote it, for whom? ● What is it about? 	
2 Look at the overall organization of the text. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Can you identify stages in the text (eg a Beginning, a middle and an end stage)? ● Can you describe the function of each stage? 	
3 consider how cohesive the text is and how cohesion is achieved. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Are conjunctions used ? ● Is cohesion achieved through reference backwards and forwards in the text by the use of pronouns? ● Do the choices of vocabulary Throughout the text help to tie the text together? 	
4 Consider the significant grammatical features in the text, for example: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Does the writer use mainly declaratives (statements), interrogatives (questions) Or imperatives (commands)? ● Does the writer use modal verbs like could, would, may, must etc? ● Are there patterns in the use of types of verbs (ie. Action, mental, verbal, being or having verbs)? ● Are there patterns in the choice of verb tenses? ● What is the percentage of multiple clause sentences? ● Are there patterns in theme, or what comes first in sentences or clause? ● Does the writer use long noun groups? ● Does the writer use many prepositional phrases indicating the circumstances around events? 	
5 Consider the vocabulary choices in the text. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Are technical words used or more everyday terms? ● Are there relatively few or many content words in the text? ● Are there a lot of descriptive words in the text? ● Do the choices of vocabulary carry strong feeling, emotion or judgment, or are they fairly neutral in this regard? 	
6 Consider the layout and the script. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Is the layout an important clue to the meaning of the text? ● Are some parts of the text emphasized in the layout? 	

Some conclusions

Issues on the selection of texts for teaching reading include:

- the relevance of the content to the student based on students' cultural and linguistic knowledge and skills and experiences, their expressed needs, and the teaching and learning goals and objectives; levels of text difficulty and some of the factors that influence this including the reader's knowledge and experiences, the nature of the task and the purpose for reading the text, as well as the language of the text itself;
- the simplification of texts, including some cautionary notes on changing the meaning of texts through simplifying the language;
- the ability to analyze the language of texts, depending on teachers' linguistic knowledge. The analysis of language of the texts will also identify important features to focus on in a lesson to encourage students awareness of language. Such awareness of language is a vital aspect of the of the students' reading ability to read critically.

Further reading

Day R. R. (1994) Selecting a passage for the EFL reading class 32 (1) Jan-March
p. 20-23 English Teaching Forum

UNIT SEVEN : ANALYZING TEXT STRUCTURE

- Objectives :**
- To activate pre-service teachers background knowledge of text structure.
 - Increase pre-service teachers' ability to apply their structural knowledge of text structure for their teaching

Pre-service teachers will be able to

- recognize words commonly used in every types of text
- identify graphic organizers suitable for types of text

Preliminary questions:

- How important are the patterns used in English reading?

TASK 7.1

Instructions : a) Study the four simplest and most common of the patterns provided below. Then answer the questions which follow.

Generalization/ Detail (Listing of related ideas)

Example : The peer group serves a number of important functions. It not only gives individuals experiences which they cannot obtain within the family, but it also provides for the development of social skills. In addition to these functions, the existence of a peer group gives individuals a chance to achieve status by their own efforts. The peer group also provides friends as well as potential marriage partners. Moreover, by the natural mixing of people from different backgrounds, the peer group helps to integrate different community groups.

Time Order (Chronology, Sequence, Process)

Example: Alan was checking his bicycle to make sure they had enough air. Then, he cleaned the frame and the rims of the tires. Next, he oiled the axle. After that, he checked the cable for the gears. And finally, he examined the brakes to make sure they were adjusted for quick stops in city traffic.

Comparison and Contrast

Example: In some ways English breakfasts are very similar to American breakfasts. In both countries people usually eat large breakfasts. English and American breakfasts both include several dishes. They may include some fruit juice, cereal, and then eggs and toast. In both places, there may also be some meat with the breakfast. However, most Americans prefer coffee. The English usually do not eat sweet things for breakfast, but many Americans like sweet bread or coffee cake.

Cause-Effect

Example: Some children do not work hard in school. Thus, they do not achieve as much as they can. Why does this happen ? One reason may be a fear of failure.

Children are expected to achieve too much. They are afraid they may not succeed, so they do less. Another cause for failure may be inner conflict. Children may be worried about certain problems at home. As a result, they devote less attention to their studies. Poor teaching is another possible cause for underachievers. Sometimes the teacher fails to make the subjects interesting. This can cause children to become bored and not work hard. As we see, the reasons are varied and complex. In each individual case, parents, teachers, and psychologists try to find the real reasons for a child's failure in studies.

(Mikulecky, 1990)

- Questions**
1. Can you underline the signal words for each pattern?
 2. Can you identify the main idea and the topic of all paragraphs?
 3. As a reading teacher, how can you find a passage for teaching your students how to recognize patterns of organization?

TASK 7.2

Instructions : Discuss with your friends on the advantages of recognizing text structure. You may need to compare your answers to the following information provided in the box below.

Writers structure their texts so that more important ideas are highlighted. Studies have indicated that:

- Important ideas are remembered better.
- Good writers use writers' signaling devices to understand texts.
- Students who are trained to recognize these text structures do better in comprehension.
- Knowledge of text structure transfers to student writing.

If students are taught how texts are structured, they may be able to do the following:

- Distinguish between main ideas and supporting details.
- Identify main ideas.
- Write summaries.
- Understand how parts of the text are related and recognize cohesive devices that writers use.
- Use this knowledge to write more clearly.

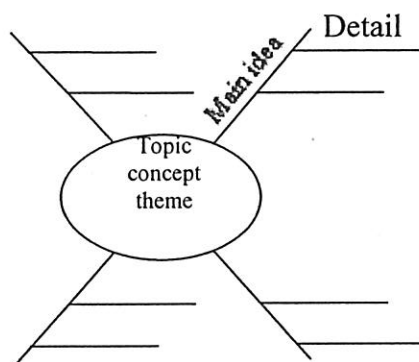
Farrell (2002)

TASK 7.3

Instructions : Study the following graphic organizers that are designed to be used in teaching the lessons or in reinforcing the ways students understand text.

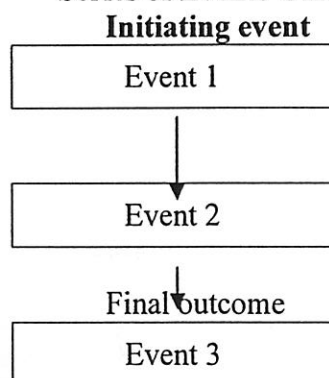
Graphic representations are visual illustrations of verbal statements. Frames are sets of questions or categories that are fundamental to understanding a given topic. Here are shown nine ‘generic’ graphic forms with their corresponding frames. Also given are examples of topics that could be represented by each graphic form. These graphics show at a glance the key parts of the whole and their relations, helping the learner to comprehend text and solve problems.

Spider Map



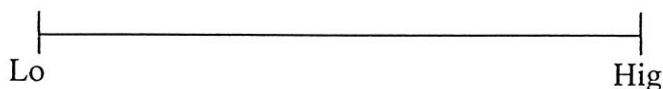
Used to describe a central idea: a thing (a geographic region), process (meiosis), concept (altruism) or proposition with support (experimental drugs should be available to AIDS victims). Key frame questions: what is the central idea? What are its attributes? What are its functions?

Series of Events Chain



Used to describe the stages of something (the life cycle of a primate); the steps in a linear procedure (how to neutralise an acid); a sequence of events (how feudalism led to the formation of nation states); of the goals, actions and outcomes of a historical figure or character in a novel (the rise and fall of Napoleon). Key frame questions: What is the object, procedure or initiating event? What are the stages or steps? How do they lead to one another? What is the final outcome?

Continuum/Scale



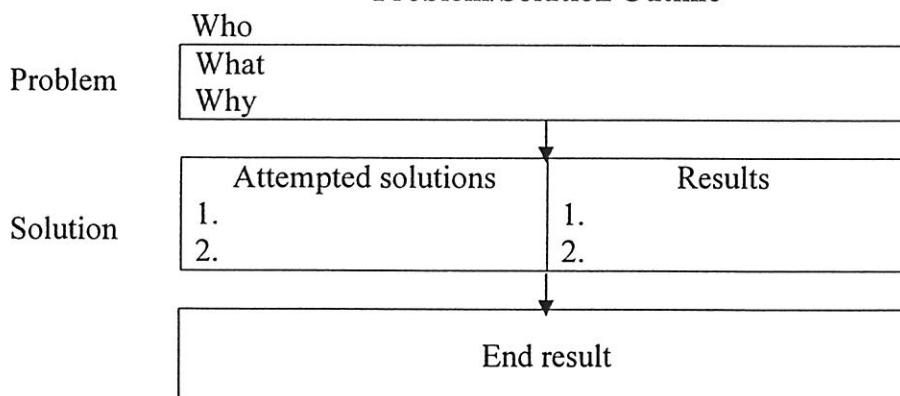
Used for time lines showing historical events or ages (grade levels in school), degrees of something (weight), shades of meaning (Likert scales) of ratings scales (achievement in school). Key frame questions: What are the end points?

Compare/Contrast Matrix

	Name 1	Name 2
Attribute 1		
Attribute 2		
Attribute 3		

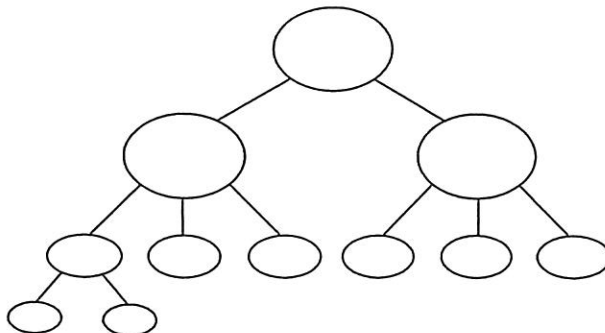
Used to show similarities and differences between two things (people, places, event, ideas, etc.). Key frame questions: What things are being compared? How are they similar? How are they different?

Problem/Solution Outline

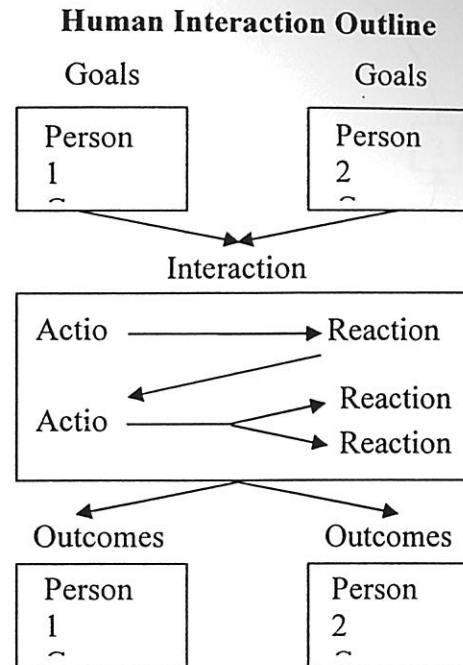


Used to represent a problem, attempted solutions and results (the national debt). Key frame questions: What was the problem? Who had the problem? Why was it a problem? What attempts were made to solve the problem? Did those attempts succeed?

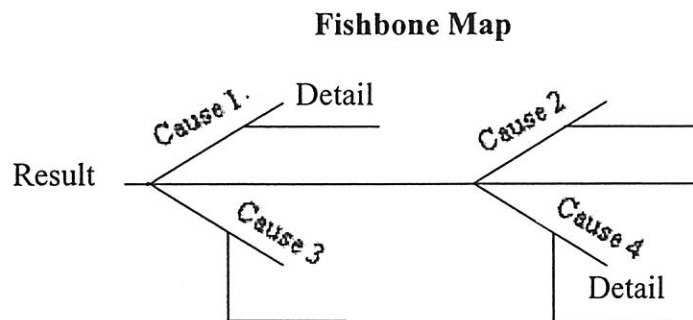
Network Tree



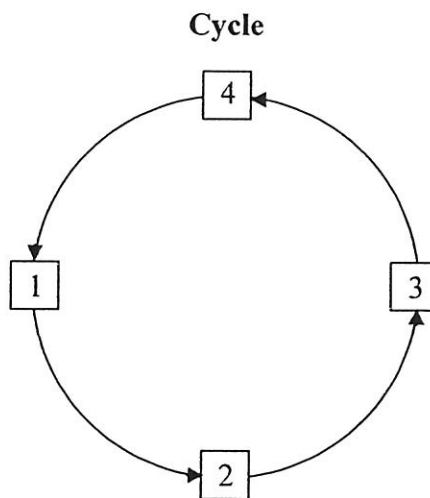
Used to show causal information (causes of poverty), a hierarchy (types of insects), or branching procedures (the circulatory system). Key frame questions: What is the superordinate category? What are the subordinate categories? How are they related? How many levels are there?



Used to show the nature of an interaction between persons or groups (European settlers and American Indians). Key frame questions: Who are the persons or groups? What were their goals? Did they conflict or cooperate? What was the outcome for each person or group?



Used to show causal interaction of a complex event (an election, a nuclear explosion) or complex phenomenon (juvenile delinquency, learning disabilities). Key frame questions: What are the factors that cause X? How do they interrelate? Are the factors that cause X the same as those that cause X to persist?



Used to show how a series of events interact to produce a set of result again and again (weather phenomena, cycles of achievement and failure, the life cycle). Key frame questions: What are the critical events in the cycle? How are they related? In what ways are they self-reinforcing?

KWL graphic organizer

Before reading

After previewing

After reading

K What do I already <i>know</i> about this topic?	W What do I <i>want</i> to know about this topic?	L What did I <i>learn</i> after reading about this topic?
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.	1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.	1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.

TASK 7.4

Instructions : Supposing you are going to prepare a lesson of reading expository text, in your group, find two or three expository texts which can be used with some types of graphic organizers.

SOME CONCLUSIONS

Readers who know how an expository text is organized have a better idea of how to read and understand its content. When they know a text has a cause and effect structure, they can focus on finding the cause(s) and result(s) that the text is highlighting. Once they know what to focus on while they are reading, they get a clear frame of the text, which helps them better comprehend content. Awareness of text pattern is indispensable for readers (Peregoy and Boyle, 2001). Since expository texts contain specific text structure, it is useful for readers to know each text frame. If readers know they are reading passages that compare and contrast two things, events, or concepts, they can categorize information into appropriate groups. Koda (2005) points out the effectiveness of teaching how texts are organized by using first language experiences or knowledge. Reading a text with the understanding of its text framework helps readers organize information.

Graphic organizer is a visual frame used to represent and organize information that can help students build a schema before reading. Students can generate lists of ideas and words related to the key concept. Then organize these ideas graphically to provide a visual construct of ideas. These graphic organizers provide structured overviews which activate and build knowledge prior to reading, and help students make connections among ideas. This facilitates their reading comprehension.

Further reading

- Farrell, T. S. C. (2002). **Planning lessons for a reading class. (RELC Portfolio series; v. 6).** Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre
- Koda, K. (2005). **Insights into second language reading: A cross-linguistic approach.** Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Mikulecky, B. (1990). **A short course in teaching reading skills.** MA: Addison – Wesley.
- Peregoy, S. F., and Boyle, O. F. (2001). **Reading, writing, and learning in ESL: A resource book for k-12 teachers (3rd ed.).** New York: Longman.

UNIT EIGHT : INCREASING READING RATE

Objectives

Pre-service teachers will be able to

- create the reading activities to improve reading fluency

Preliminary Questions:

- How important is reading rate for second/foreign language readers?

TASK 8.1

Instructions : a) **With your pairs, discuss the following questions.**

What are the reasons for learning to read faster ?

- b) **Read the following sentence one word at a time. How do you feel? Is it harder to understand?**

What really happens when we read? If you read slowly, the separate words become separate pieces of information that you must remember. By the time you get to the end of a sentence you may have forgotten the beginning.

- c) **The followings are certain bad habits that may be slowing you down. Check your reading habits according to the statement provided below.**

.....Do you try to pronounce each word as you read?

.....Do you usually move your lips while you read silently?

.....Do you follow the words in the text with your finger or a pencil while you read?

.....Do you translate into Thai as you read in English?

.....Do you often write translation of words in English text?

- d) **Discuss with your friends what a fluent reader is.**

TASK 8.2

Instructions : Study the following four reading-rate activities which can be used in the second language reading class to increase student reading rates. These activities are based on reading-rate development theories and practice in first and second language reading (Anderson 1983 and Spargo and Williston 1980). The activities do not require specially developed texts or equipment and therefore can be implemented by classroom teachers using class texts or materials. Furthermore, the activities are short and can fill small units of time.

Rate-buildup reading.

In this activity students have 60 seconds to read as much material as they can. They are then given an additional 60 seconds to read again from the beginning of the text. They must read more material during the second 60-second period than in the first. The drill is repeated a third and fourth time.

The purpose of this activity is to reread "old" material quickly, gliding into the "new." As their eyes move quickly over the old material, students actually learn how to process the material more quickly. The exercise does not really emphasize moving the eyes quickly; instead, the material should be processed and comprehended more efficiently. As students participate in this rate building activity, they learn that indeed they can increase their reading rates.

Repeated reading.

The repeated reading activity develops reading rates as students read a short passage over and over again until they achieve criterion levels of reading speed and comprehension. For example, students may try to read a 100-word paragraph four times in two minutes. The criterion levels may vary from class to class, but reasonable goals to work toward are criterion levels of 200 words per minute at 70 percent comprehension.

As learners do repeated reading exercises, they come to realize how this activity can improve their reading comprehension. They understand more when reading something twice at a faster reading rate than when reading it slowly only one time. This activity helps empower second language readers and strengthens their metacognitive awareness of the merit of faster reading rates.

Class-paced reading

The class-paced reading activity allows the class to set a goal for a minimal reading rate. Involving the learners in determining this minimal rate goal incorporates principles of student-centered learning. Once the class establishes the goal, students calculate the average number of words per page of the material being read and determine how many pages need to be read in one minute in order to achieve the class goal. For example, if the class goal is to read 200 words per minute (wpm) and the material being read has an average of 100 words per page, the class would be expected to read one page every 30 seconds. As each 30-second period elapses, the teacher tells the class to move to the next page. Students are encouraged to keep up with the established class goal. Of course, those who read faster than 200 wpm are not expected to slow down their reading rates. As long as they are ahead of the designated page, they continue reading. For those readers who are not able to keep up at the designated pace, continued reading-rate practice is recommended.

The teacher should carefully review a class-paced reading goal. If it is too high, adjustments may be necessary to allow students to meet the class-paced challenge. This reading activity encourages and supports learners as they work together at improving their reading rates.

Self-paced reading

Self-paced reading allows students to determine their own reading-rate goals and the amount of material they need to read in 60 seconds to meet their set reading rates. For example, if a student's objective rate is 180 words per minute and the material being read has an average number of 10 words per line, the student needs to read 18 lines of text in one minute to meet the goal. The activity proceeds nicely when each student marks off several chunks of lines and reads silently for five to seven minutes with the instructor calling out minute intervals. Students can then determine if they are keeping up with their individual reading-rate goals.

TASK 8.3 Examine your own reading rate. Take a timed reading and learn what your average reading rate is. What was your reaction to your own reading rate? What is your reaction to this measurement? Then work in group of five to create a reading activity to improve your students' reading fluency.

SOME CONCLUSIONS

Automaticity plays a critical role in the development of strong reading skills. When reading rate becomes more automatic, readers will be able to use their cognitive skills for comprehending what they are reading. They will be able to spend thinking time analyzing and synthesizing what they are reading and not moving through a passage one word at a time. The readers must approach the reading task with automatized skills. They should not have to be thinking about each of the steps involved in what they are doing. The joy of reading is being able to pick up a book and comprehend without having to struggle through the task.

Further reading

Anderson, N. (1983). **Rapid reading in the ESL classroom**. Paper presented at the meeting of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Toronto, Canada.

Anderson, N. (1999). **Exploring second language reading: issues and strategies**. Boston :Heinle & Heinle. Publisher.

Spargo, E. and G. Williston. (1980). **Timed readings**. Books 1–10. Providence, RI: Jamestown Publishers, Inc.

UNIT NINE : ASSESSING READING

Objectives :

Pre-service teachers will be able to be aware of how to monitor their own students' progress by using alternative forms of assessment.

Preliminary Questions

Why do you want to assess your students' reading in English?

What do you want to know about your students' reading?

TASK 9.1

Instructions : Read a clarification of the purpose of different types of assessment provided in the box. Then answer the questions which follow.

Placement assessment

To find out what students can or cannot do in order to place them in an appropriate class or group.

Diagnostic assessment

To find out in more detail what students want or need to read and what their particular strengths and weakness are in reading in order to design an appropriate program of learning for them.

Formative assessment

To find out as the course progresses how students are managing particular tasks and to monitor their learning.

Summative, Achievement or Competency assessment

To judge at the end of a course or unit of work how well students progressed in terms of the objectives of the program.

- Questions**
1. A teacher new to a class wants to find out who are the stronger readers in the class and who are the weaker ones so that he can arrange for mixed ability groups to work together on a reading task. What kind of assessment should be undertake?
 2. A teacher has planned a reading task for her class. She is unsure whether all the students will be able to manage it. For future planning, she wants to find out who had difficulty with it and why. What kind of assessment should be undertaken?

TASK 9.2

Instructions : Think of what you want to know about students' reading in English. List as many things as you can. The information in the box provided below may give you some ideas.

In assessing reading, you will be concerned on the one hand with the process of reading; that is, what is, what strategies the student uses and whether they employ those strategies effectively. On the other hand you will be concerned with the product of that process or the outcomes of reading; that is, what was under-stood. You may also want to identify other information such as attitudes to reading and reading experiences.

In fact, reading assessment may include information gathering to answer any or all of the following questions:

- What kinds of texts or genres can students confidently manage?
- What kinds of texts or genres present difficulties?
- What are their attitudes to reading in English?
- What are their previous experiences with reading in English?
- How fluently can they read particular kinds of the texts?
- What range of strategies do they use to read, and how appropriate are these strategies for the text type and reading purpose?
- Are students aware of how they read, of what strategies they use?
- What language(text organization or discourse structure, grammar, vocabulary) presents difficulties?
- Can they get at explicit meaning in texts?
- Can they get at implicit meaning in texts?
- What information do they get from the text?
- What do they understand of the writer's attitude to the subject matter and/or to the reader?
- Can they read critically for underlying assumptions made by the writer?

Questions

Consider 3 or 4 of the questions in the list above. What would you ask students to do to give you the information you are seeking?

TASK 9.3

Instructions : The followings are the alternative methods of assessing reading. Working in pairs, find three different places where you could employ the alternative assessment methods. Compare your plan with the plan that another pair of students has produced.

Alternative methods of assessing reading

Journals –A journals is a notebook or other semi-permanent container housing the writing of one student. Students in literature classes are frequently asked to keep journals in which they respond in writing to reading assignments. The journals can help students understand textbook material. Often, student make connections between what they read and their owns lives, connection they sometimes do not make in more formal writing assignment. The journals also allows students to make connections between various selections they have read. They frequently pay attention to writers' styles because the journals encourages student to read more carefully.

It is important to note that teachers do not evaluate the journals for mechanics and usage. The entries, in essence, are rough drafts. However, teachers do respond to the content of the writing, pushing student to go beyond obvious or superficial comments and plot summary. Journals may be used as a basis for further student writing about topics found in the journals, topics which often deal with point of view, character analysis, or comparison and contrast. Students can also be asked to share entries with the class, and this frequently results in lively discussion because students have already done a great deal of thinking about the topic. The following is a list of beginning sentences that are useful in helping students start a reading journals:

- I like/dislike this idea because...
- This character reminds me of someone I know because...
- This character reminds me of myself because...
- This character is like [name of character] in [title of work] because...
- I think this setting is important because...
- This scene reminds me of a similar scene in...
- I like/dislike this writing because...
- This section is particularly effective because...

Journals can be adapted in many ways and a number of authors provide effective examples of how journals can be used in the reading classroom(Green & Green, 1993) Student journals can be a highly effective way to keep learners involved in the processes of monitoring comprehension, making comprehension visible, applying knowledge, and gaining language proficiency.

Portfolios –portfolios are systematic collections of student work over time. These collections help students and teachers assess student growth and development. It is essential that student develop a sense of ownership about their portfolios, so they can understand where they have made progress and where more work is needed. The content of portfolios will vary with the level of the student and will depend on the types of assignment they are given in class. The portfolio may include the student's journal, drafts of writing assignments for the class, homework exercises, tests, summaries of articles or other reading assignments, and statements of goals for reading. Reading logs and audiotape recordings can also be included. As portfolios

are assembled, it is important that students keep them in a place where they have easy access to them. Students should be encouraged to browse through their portfolios and share them with classmates. Portfolio evaluation often occurs at three levels: the student, the student's peers, and the teacher. For each piece selected, students may be asked to describe briefly why they chose it, what they learned, and what their future goals. Since the goals and weighting of the various portfolio components has been predetermined, assessing the portfolio is not difficult. The following examples of assessment tools such as rating scales can be used and adapted according to a teacher's needs. Because students have invested a great deal of effort and time in their portfolio, it is recommended that the teacher provide feedback on the portfolio that is more than just a grade. One possibility might be to write a letter about the portfolio which details the strengths and weaknesses and generates a profile of a student's ability, which is then added to the portfolio. Teacher must also have short individual meetings with their students to discuss their progress and future goals.

Reading Logs – Student can maintain a log of all their independent reading at school and at home. The log should include work completed and work started but not completed. In addition to the name of the book (article .etc) and author, the log should include personal reactions to the selection. Periodic discussions of these logs will provide insight on how

The student is developing as an independent reader and suggest ways in which the teacher can give added encouragement.

Checklists – Checklists can be completed by both readers and students. For example, a checklist can be used by a teacher to assess word and letter knowledge. The first step is to develop a list of the concepts to be tested. The student is then asked to demonstrate understanding of these concepts using a real book. The teacher uses the checklist to identify those concepts that have been mastered and those that need further work. Students can use checklists to review their own work. Teachers and students can prepare a list of specific skills that need to be worked on and students can then use this list to check their own work.

Further reading

Hood, S., Solomon, N., Burns, A., (1996). **Focus on reading**. Sydney: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research.

Singhal, M. (2006). **Teaching reading to adult second language learners. Theoretical foundations, pedagogical applications, and current issues**. Lowell, MA: The Reading Matrix.

UNIT TEN : PLANNING THE READING LESSON

Objectives

- Pre-service teachers will be able to
- explore and experience a reading lesson
 - create a reading lesson

Preliminary questions:

- What planning decisions would you make for your own reading lesson?

TASK 10.1

Instructions :

Read the quotes from experienced teachers provided below. Discuss with your friends. Then answer the questions which follow.

When I teach reading, I like my learners to use the other skills, too. I do various things. For example, before reading a passage, my learners discuss the topic or brainstorm vocabulary they predict they will hear; or they listen to a short passage on a related topic and discuss it. At the reading stage, I make sure to spell out why they are reading. We read a passage more than once, each time with a new task. The learners fill in a chart, or match pictures to paragraphs or answer true/false questions. Finally, I save enough time for a follow-up, like a role-play or group work where the learners write a different Ending or discuss the issue in the text.

Ann

When I prepare to teach a reading passage, I read it once or twice and underline essential words that the learners might not know. I circle the words which might be similar to the learners' first language or which might be easily explained by the context surrounding the word; I then decide how many of the remaining underlined words to pre-teach. I only pre-teach a few new key words- maybe five in a passage that's two or three paragraphs long- because I don't want my learners relying on me for every single definition. With the circled words, I often write the sentences in which they occur on the board and the learners work in small groups to guess the meaning from the context. After they have read the text, I often do an activity, such as a role play or a game, to practice the new vocabulary they have come across.

Tom

When I teach reading, I give the learners the text to read and ask them to read it aloud, one by one. Then we go over any unfamiliar vocabulary, when I try to have learners guess the meaning. If they can't, I give them the equivalent word in their native language. Then I ask them a couple of basic questions to check their comprehension of the main ideas. After that learners work in pairs to answer comprehension questions and then we re-assemble into one class and check all the answers.

Pong

Questions

1. a. Identify four pre-reading activities from the quotes.
b. What are the aims of each one?
2. a. Ann and Pong's quotes outline two different models for teaching a reading lesson. Briefly outline these two models.
b. What is one advantage and one disadvantage of each of these models?
3. a. Identify five post-reading activities from the quotes which students do after they have understood the text.
b. What is the aim of each one?

TASK 10.2

Instructions: Re-order the reading lesson provided. The reading passage for this lesson is entitled 'Fads and Trends in the USA'. Be ready to tell the rest of your class why you arranged the lesson in this order.

a. Reading activity: 'True or False?' Students decide if statements about the main ideas in the text (Fads and Trends in the USA) are true or false.

b. Pairs. Students do exercise 'Guessing Vocabulary'. Students guess the meaning of key vocabulary (lifestyle, in fashion, out of date, influence, slang) from context, looking at example sentences from passage. Check students understand.

c. Groups. Discussion-elicitor/suggest a recent trend (e.g. mobile telephones, computers, a recent fashion); in groups, students discuss advantages and disadvantages of the trend they choose.

d. Assign homework: 'Building Vocabulary and Study Skills: Fads and Trends'

e. Give/ask for answers to 'True or False?' Clarify any problems.

f. Collect answers to reading structure exercise.

g. Pairs. Students do exercise 'Understanding Reading Structure': identifying topic sentence of each paragraph from article.

h. Look at pictures related to fads and trends in the US. Students discuss pictures in pairs: predict topics article will mention.

i. Introduce topic of new unit: fads and trends. Pre-teach or elicit fad and trend. Students brainstorm examples from their own experience: collect on board.

j. Collect ideas about students' predictions on board.

Questions

1. Which of the stages of this lesson are:
 - a. pre-reading activities?
 - b. while reading activities?
 - c. post-reading activities?
2. What elements of lesson plan would you like more in your own lesson plan?

TASK 10.3

Instructions : Work in pairs. Evaluate the reading lesson provided. Think about the purpose of each step.

LESSON PLAN (from Farrell, 2002)

Time: 12 p. m to 12:35 p.m **Subject:** English Language **Class:** secondary 2 English
Language Focus: Reading **Topic:** Sport

Objectives:

To teach the students to skim to find the main idea of the passage

Prior Knowledge

Students have learnt how to locate information by reading and finding the main sentence of each paragraph. This lesson is to practice increasing their reading speed within scanning and skimming for information.

Materials:

1. Reading materials-article from book on sport
2. Overhead projector/OHT's
3. Whiteboard

Step	Time	Tasks (Teacher)	Tasks (Pupils)	Interaction	Purpose
1	5-10 mins	Opening: Introduction to the topic sport. T activates schema for sport. T tasks students to help him/her write down as many different kinds of sport on the whiteboard within 3 minutes. T asks students to rank their favorites sports in order of importance.	Listen Ss shout out the answer to the question as the T writes the answers on the board T writes the answers	T ↔ Ss (T=Teacher; Ss=Students)	

2	5-7 mins	Teacher distributes handout on sports schedule from the newspaper. T asks Ss to read it quickly and answer the true /false questions that follow it within 3 minutes. T goes over the answers.	Ss read the handout and answer the questions. Ss call out their answers to the T. answers.	T ↔ Ss Ss ↔ T	
3	15 mins	T tells students that they just practiced skimming to get the general meaning or gist of a passage. T gives another handout on sport from the textbook (New Clue). T asks the Ss to read and answer the true /false questions written on the paper within 7 minutes. T asks Ss for answers and writes them on the board.	Ss read the handout and answer the questions Ss call out their answers to the T. Ss check their answers.	T ↔ Ss Ss ↔ T (S ↔ S possible) T ↔ Ss	
4	5 mins	T summarizes the importance of reading a passage quickly first in order to get the gist. T gives homework of reading the next day's Newspaper front-page story and writing down in 4 sentences the gist of the story. Follow-up: Next lesson: To teach the students to find the main idea of the passage.		T ↔ Ss	

(Format of lesson plan designed by English Language and Literature Academic Group,
National Institute of Education, Singapore)

Questions

What is the aim of each step of the lesson plan presented above?

TASK 10.4

Instructions : a) With the others in your group, write a lesson plan based on the reading selected for your group. You will have 15 minutes to present your lesson to the class. Everyone has all of the reading, you will be able to have your friends actually do some of the activities. Make sure the following is covered in your outline:

- three stages: pre-reading, while reading and post reading
- the specific aims of each activity
- logical transitions from one stage of the lesson to the next

b) Give feedback to the teacher (s) involved in teaching by discussing the feedback questions?

- Did the teacher (s) motivate you to want to read?
- How effectively did the activity help you to comprehend the entire reading text?
- How would you improve the activity?
- Which reading skills were highlighted?
- Are the reading skills in the activity useful in real life?
- Any further comments on the teaching?

SOME CONCLUSIONS

As teachers of reading, the following points are recommended for preparing effective second/ foreign language reading lessons:

1. The reader brings something important to the text previously acquired schemata. These schemata are networks of prior interpretations and they become the basis for comprehension. The text is filtered through these pre-existing schemata and the reader will try to match these pre-existing schemata with what he/she reads in the text.

2. The meaning of the text is then constructed by the reader. The reader actively tries to make connections between the text and what he/she already knows about the world based on his/her cultural values, native language and discourse processes.

3. The process of comprehension is a combination of top down and bottom-up processes. When the reader tries to comprehend there is a 'bouncing back-and-forth' between the reader and the text, between a readers' top-down knowledge of the topic and the text. Comprehension is reached. If it is not, readers will make readjustments until comprehension is reached.

4. The teacher of reading should provide training in both the top-down and bottom-up processes. However, if the students are seen as stronger in 'one area, then compensatory instruction may need to be directed to the deficit area.

5. Consequently, teachers of second/foreign language reading should develop focused lesson plans that have their students practice strategies that enable them to read successfully.

Furthur reading

Aebersold, J.A., and Field, M.L. (1997). **From reader to reading teacher: Issues and strategies for second language classrooms**. New York: Cambridge University Press.

CURRICULUM VITAE

Ms. Thanaporn Pantawee was born in Roi-Et on November 26, 1972. She received a Bachelor of Arts in Translation from Kasetsart University and Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics from King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi. Since 2003, she has joined the doctoral program in English language studies offered by Suranaree University of Technology (SUT). She also had a three-month research leave at Macquarie University in Sydney, Australia developing her research instruments under the supervision of Prof. Denise E Murray, an Executive Director of the National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research (NCELTR). Her research interests include teaching EFL reading and English teacher education.