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Improving reading skills in college-level English instruction in Korea

Seoung-Hoon Han

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IMPROVING READING SKILLS IN COLLEGE-LEVEL ENGLISH INSTRUCTION IN KOREA

A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
In
Education

by
Seoung-Hoon Han
June 1998
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ABSTRACT

Reading in English is highly recommended for Korean students in order to continue their studies or obtain a well-paid job. Even though significance is attributed to reading by many teachers and students, strategies of teaching reading are not well developed. Teachers teach largely by means of grammar-translation methodology and students spend their valuable time reading for surface meaning.

Therefore, new methods are needed to improve students' reading comprehension skills. In this project, there are six main problems in the English reading classroom; solutions are suggested from theoretical research on a reading model. The goal of this project is to offer a variety of teaching strategies over six lessons based upon a model of the reading process.

In this project, there are five chapters. Chapter One is an introduction providing background information on English instruction in Korea. It also discusses six main problems in current reading pedagogy. Chapter Two contains a literature review that explores six key concepts derived from Chapter One, and presents a variety of research-based theoretical frameworks. Chapter Three features a proposed model of the reading process and its suggested strategies for application in the classroom. Chapter Four includes a curriculum design which contains one unit with six lessons. This chapter explains how the unit is created based on the model of reading process. Chapter Five survey the
strategies contained in the teaching unit that assess reading comprehension using both formative and summative tests.
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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

The Korean English education system is undergoing rapid changes in response to international conditions. Since the present president, Kim Young Sam, was elected in 1992, the government has made efforts to change the old, inefficient system to a new and competitive system. President Kim decided to open the door and adapt to the changing international situation. He has led a new movement called globalization (segyehwa), a movement that has affected both the economy and education. To overcome international economic barriers and develop international competitiveness, Korea needs to vary its educational system. President Kim has made education reform one of the keystones of his globalization drive, and reform of English education is considered crucial in helping Korea cope with the pressures of a global economy (Niederhauser, 1995/1996). Therefore, the reform of English education has been a growing concern.

English education was formerly focused on grammar, which was needed only for purpose of translation. However, studying language only for preparing to pass examinations ignores the original function of language. Moreover, in that situation, reading became a kind of burden, but not a pursuit which was fun. Students have been forced to read a lot when they study English, but they have not had a chance to enjoy reading.
The goal of this curriculum design project is not only to address those problems in the EFL classroom but also to lay the foundation for future instruction. A successfully managed teaching class will incorporate reading skills and strategies to enhance comprehension and increase enjoyment.

The Role of English in Korea

For a long time Korea has had only one language, Korean, so at first people were very exclusive about accepting foreign languages. They thought using a foreign language meant losing their own language and culture. They did not feel good in learning English because they did not want to lose their proud traditions. So it was very hard for people to understand why English was so important. Therefore, there were always undercurrents against using English broadly in Korea. This prejudice against foreign language, in fact, was one of the main reasons for constraining English to the status of no more than just a foreign language. The situation nowadays has changed and people gradually have placed much weight upon teaching and learning English. People realized that they could not avoid using English in the international market, because if they could not speak English, they could not sell anything to the world. Thus, they tried to find ways of teaching English more effectively. Recently, the Ministry of Education has made English classes mandatory in elementary school starting in third grade.
English Education in Korea

The reason why students who study English do not read in everyday life is that they think English is just a means for getting knowledge from a foreign country instead of a language which can be creative and enjoyable. Up to now English was a useful tool for accepting cutting-edge knowledge, but not a tool for people to communicate with one another. However, these days, the international situation requires Koreans to change their opinion that English is only the medium for exchanging culture, merchandise, knowledge, technology, and so on. English education in Korea has been changed from focusing only on grammar to focusing both on speaking and reading, especially speaking. Now, many Americans who have baccalaureate degrees contract with Korean private institutions to come to Korea to teach English conversation. According to 1997 statistics, the number of native English speakers in Korea has reached 40,000. They are not all Americans, but most are. Some of them are teaching English in the regular junior high or senior high schools but most teach English in private foreign language institutions. In these private schools, huge numbers of students spend a lot of money and time to learn what they did not learn during their school terms. This amounts to 30 billion dollars annually. This is one of the weaknesses of Korean education system: schools cannot satisfy students’ educational goals. Because of the increased demand for English, teaching in school classroom plays an ever more crucial role.
Target Teaching Level

College students are my target level to teach in Korea, so my target teaching level will be adults. Formal education is considered irrelevant to real life and their future careers, because they have studied English only as a subject for the National Entrance Examination. There is a huge gap between studying English and using it, so it was natural that they often lost their interest in studying English. My goal is to close this gap, and make them not only happy to study but also successful in their study. The reason I chose this level is that considering Korea's situation, education at the college level is at the forefront of the globalization movement. Students in this level are in a crucial period in their lives, facing future studies and jobs. Some of them will study abroad, especially in America and the other countries; and some of them will work at companies where they can meet international business workers. College education is very important because of its position at the leading edge of Korean society.

How Do I Prepare for College Teaching?

As there are four major skills in English (reading, writing, listening, and speaking), there are also four components to the teaching of English. It is naturally accepted to Koreans that Korean speakers who study abroad will teach grammar. Because people thought that teaching grammar could mean making a lot of money, many teachers want to teach grammar in Korea. Moreover, there are a lot of Americans in Korea who teach English conversation. My intent is to teach reading through the proper use of grammar. Even though, in fact, writing is
very important, actually it has not been considered salient. Reading is an essential part in studying when students attend school abroad or get a job which is related to international business. Many students who go abroad have a hard time because they lack reading skills. As a result of their failure in reading, some students gave up their study and go back to Korea. This meant that their education of grammar had little impact upon their reading skills. This also affects trade companies; sometimes they sustain great damage because of mistakes which are caused by a lack of translation skills.

Actually, it is hard for me to teach reading because I did not know enough about American culture. However, my goal for teaching reading is not focused on examinations which have right or wrong answers but in giving students interest in studying English and a connection between reading and the other skills. Adequate education in reading extends students’ pleasure to the other parts of English (speaking, listening, and writing).

If my teaching methods are effective and helpful, for me, teaching English in my future job will be very a creative and also interesting job; and for students, studying English will be something in which they will feel pleasure and excitement.

Problems with the English Reading Class in College

In Korea, from 1945 to 1960, the number of colleges increased from 19 to 85. The number of universities, colleges, and junior colleges in 1988 grew to 260, and there were more than 1.3 million students attending these schools. In
spite of external growth, education did not change significantly. The huge gap between grammar and usage is one of the serious problems in college classes. The students in college classrooms have passed the National Entrance Examination, so they already have enough knowledge of grammar to comprehend reading in English. Although the students have a lot of grammar knowledge, they cannot apply the grammatical rules when they actually read. Although Korean college students may be eager to study and master English, students usually try to memorize texts and grammar as they did when they were in high school.

The purpose of this project is to address these problems and give teachers a guide to teaching reading in the college classroom. To accomplish this goal, teachers should be aware of what is lacking. The following are five problems associated with the teaching of reading in Korea.

Lack of Understanding of the Reading Process

Traditionally, teaching reading has not been taken seriously. Both instructors who teach reading and students who learn reading do not think reading is a fit subject for study. The teachers do not have a clear concept of the reading process because they were taught in the traditional way. Many teachers think that improving reading does not require the teaching of skills but rather is acquired by the students themselves. That is the teachers' belief: that teaching reading does not depend on teachers' teaching strategies but students' individual reading skills. Some teachers try to break apart and isolate all the textual
elements to improve understanding, but others do not intervene in reading until finishing the whole content.

Teachers should adopt the reading process as a meaningful concept and try to apply in their reading classroom. Understanding the reading process will provide a proper guide for teachers as well as students.

Lack of Knowledge of Transfer of L1 Reading Proficiency to L2 Reading

Since English was first introduced in Korea, English has not been a tool of communication but just a foreign language. As English becomes more and more important, however, Korean students will have the chance to study English starting in elementary school. Despite the large amount of time devoted to English, it is still a foreign language to students. There are many causes for low English proficiency. One of the biggest problems is students’ lack of understanding of the relationship between the first and second language (L1 to L2). Both teachers and students do not think that reading proficiency can transfer from the first language to second language. They do not think reading in Korean can affect reading in English, and English reading skills have nothing to do with their first language skills. Therefore, the instructors do not try to connect the background knowledge of their L1 with L2.

Lack of Acknowledgement of Textual Comprehension: Inference, Cohesion and Coherence

Inference, cohesion, and coherence are important features of text. However, many instructors and students lack insight into the importance of
textual comprehension, so they do not understand the need of teaching this to students. Korean students are often taught to decode at the word and sentence level, but they are not taught skills at the textual level. Instructors think that if they teach word and sentence level comprehension, decoding the rest of the comprehension process is up to students themselves. It is not that teachers shrink their responsibility, but they do not understand what it is necessary for teaching reading.

Lack of Using Metacognitive Skills in Reading Comprehension

Instructors in Korea think that assessment of the text is always performed after reading, so there are almost only summative tests. Korean traditional tests are all focused on how much students can remember about the facts they read. This method leads students to study English, but it gives too much pressure for students to take tests.

Therefore, teachers should give students the idea that tests are not solely for evaluation but for helping students to understand both the reading content and way to select and apply strategies. This metacognitive approach will give students a lot of room to find their strengths and weaknesses in reading. This method also gives students chances to apply their acquired knowledge to further their comprehension in reading.
Lack of Techniques to Teach Word and Sentence Analysis in Reading Comprehension

In Korea, English is considered as a foreign language and is not studied in a content-based approach. Therefore, English class is separated from other subject classes. That is the reason that students and teachers do not think of reading as obtaining knowledge, but solely as exercise of the English language itself. Therefore, teachers in English classroom usually focus only on vocabulary and grammar, separated from reading comprehension. In addition, students are forced simply to memorize all the words without context. This lack of techniques for teaching reading causes students to lose their interest in reading. The teachers’ role in the classroom does not end at just teaching a few new words and some sentence translation skills, but rather teachers need to take responsibility for the full course of reading.

Ignorance of Genre Analysis and the Reading Process

Teaching genres in the English classroom is not consonant with the traditional method of teaching. Except in English literature class, the purpose of studying English is all for acquiring basic translation skills to translate academic textbooks and passing the tests that are required for school, company, and career. Therefore, although English is widespread and students study English starting at elementary school, they do not think reading in English is fun at all. Teaching reading with ignorance of genre is one of the most important causes. Showing students various genres could give them chances to find what genres
interest them, and lead them to read independently when they are out of the
classroom.

Teaching several genres can help readers to predict what writers want to
say, what kind of textual knowledge they need, and what will happen next in the
text. Identifying genre patterns will also help readers to apply their background
knowledge throughout the reading process.

**Content of the Project**

This project presents contemporary research in reading and draw together
key ideas in a proposed theoretical framework for use in reading instruction at
the college level in Korea. Also included is a curriculum unit that features various
genre of nonfiction to provide varied reading content upon which to practice
reading strategies and methods.

**Significance of the Project**

Formal reading instruction at the college level in Korea currently has
several misunderstood and neglect aspects. The purpose of this project is to
present better strategies – based on a theoretical framework – for teaching
reading in English as a foreign language. The curriculum in this project can
provide both teachers and students new opportunities to implement enhanced
methods, and promote students’ success not only to improve reading
comprehension skills but also to increase reading enjoyment.
The Reading Process

What is reading? The answer to this question is described in many ways by different people. Reading has been described as a thinking process; as the reconstruction and interpretation of meaning beyond the printed symbols; as the process of understanding written language; and finally, as a transaction between the reader and the text (Roe, Stoodt, & Burns, 1998). Many teachers consider reading to be the intellectual foundation of academic work. Reading is a process that involves not merely the decoding of text, but also the reconstruction of meaning, an interaction between the text and the reader's capability to draw upon short- and long-term memory to match the meaning of the text to prior knowledge, linguistic ability, and experience (Barnitz, 1985; Rumelhart, 1977, 1980). In order to make meaning, then, readers must also be familiar with the discourse community from which the text is drawn. Thus, through acquiring and practicing literacy, readers are dealing with reading beyond just the mechanical action of reading and comprehension. This acquisition process can be accomplished more effectively through reading in a rich context, in which students engage in group activities, work collaboratively, and read and write texts for communicative purposes (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

Comprehension is the central purpose of reading. If understanding breaks down, reading actually has not occurred (Roe et al., 1998). Therefore, the goal of reading is to accomplish understanding of the text. However, understanding
is not the entire goal of reading; specific goals must be decided by individual readers who want something from their reading. Readers’ purposes for reading and criteria of comprehension are various and also changeable, depending on the particular reading task. In some cases, the reader may be satisfied with just an overview of content, but other readers may want more details or need all the information and ideas that the text contains. The decision whether to process deeply or actively or merely to skim the surface is totally dependent on the reader’s needs (Brown, 1979). In summary, reader’s purposes are distinct, leading to different means and modes of text processing.

The nature of the reading process changes as students grow. In the early stages, readers may concentrate on word identification, but later they are able to expand their reading ability to include such aspects as pleasure, appreciation, knowledge acquisition, and functional purposes. Proficient readers can manipulate ideas to fulfill such varied purposes as completing job applications or appreciating Shakespearean plays. Moreover, proficient readers vary their reading styles from narrative to expository writing, and they learn to process various types of text like literal, interpretive, critical, and creative writing.

According to Barnett (1989), the reading process consists of three steps: *prereading, during reading, and postreading*. In each step, there are several theories and strategies in the process. In the prereading step, schema theory plays a very important role in the reading process; in the during-reading step, strategies for reading comprehension as well as word, structure, and paragraph
analysis have a place; and in the postreading step, several strategies for comprehension and follow-up are used to increase students' understanding and application of knowledge to their real lives.

Prereading

People usually have some interesting ideas about reading before they begin. However, foreign language learners do not naturally have such interest nor do they always expect to find meaning there. Teaching before reading the text, the prereading step, helps students get more involved. Many prereading techniques can be adapted for the class as a whole, for pairs or small groups, or as homework, depending on the text and students.

Barnett (1989) argues that the prereading step assists students in defining the main theme of a story or the major argument of an essay and improves students' comprehension. Barnett details three steps in the prereading stages. First, students must make useful schemata active and refresh their background information and vocabulary which are associated with the content. Second, students must recognize textual landmarks as they meet them. Finally, with these two steps behind them, students are more likely to guess word meanings and try to anticipate content. Well-prepared prereading causes students to feel more confident about their reading (Barnett, 1989).

During Reading

Teachers can ask questions about text segments, offer hints to aid comprehension, or have readers talk about what they are thinking about while
they are reading (Melendez & Pritchard, 1985). Reading strategies should be practiced in the during-reading step. Proficient readers use a combination of reading strategies after first practicing single strategies. In this way, students will develop the strategies to become proficient readers, ultimately decoding syntax and sentence structure to predict the context of the text.

Inference is required to understand textual meaning completely. To infer effectively, readers should regard a text as a whole, rather than as a collection of independent elements. In any case, teachers need to encourage learners to find the implied meaning of the text. Otherwise, readers can neither rise to the efficient reading levels defined by models of interactive text processing nor achieve cultural or literary analysis. Helping students apply strategies during reading is not simple. It is very difficult to choose one single strategy because students have individual characteristics and needs. Applying several strategies in each text enables students to synthesize and master various strategies for effective reading. Teacher’s coupling of appropriate strategies with texts enhances students’ individual capacity for understanding (Barnett, 1989).

Postreading

After reading, teachers and students have to examine how well students comprehend the text. Because traditional comprehension checks generally focus on text details, students learn only how to manage facts; this does not lead to an interrogation of the text. Moving beyond comprehension questions, several activities such as discussions, grouping, and presentation help students to
analyze a text. Analytical questions stimulate critical thought and encourage students to compare ideas and reactions (Sacco, 1987). These questions should lead students to think about what they have read, and should be asked during and after their reading. Teachers should also create transferable follow-up exercises which are related to previously taught strategies. Students can then rehearse these strategies. At the beginning, the teacher makes students choose which strategy they will use, because some specific strategies and texts are particularly suitable to independent work. Finally, students who have approached and understood texts with useful strategies can read without the teacher's guidance (Barnett, 1989).

**Transfer of L1 Reading Proficiency to L2 Reading**

Foreign language reading is not a simple decoding process of unknown vocabulary or grammar. The text is still essential, and comprehension depends on the reader's content, formal schemata, linguistic proficiency, first language reading skill, reading strategies, and interest and purpose in reading. An individual reader's characteristics create a unique and particular text. Teachers have to meet the goal of cultivating appropriate knowledge and techniques to teach students appropriately.

Especially in a foreign language, the reader's schemata play a vital role in understanding texts. Cultural experiences and background knowledge are essential for understanding target texts (Barnett, 1989). Thus, readers need to understand how to activate their background knowledge and knowledge of text.
structure, as well as learn to discover new information from the text through reading. Barnett (1989) also states in his book that the development of students' language is usually a primary concern for foreign language teachers and, in fact, occupies more class time than does reading. Although students learn their reading strategies normally in first language reading, experience has shown that they can develop equally well in foreign language reading (Hosenfeld, 1979, 1984; Kern, 1988).

Readers' interest in a text produces a semantic motivation for reading. Thus the goal of training reading strategies is not only to help students interpret texts acceptably, but also to prepare them to activate relevant knowledge and productive strategies in various situations. Well prepared prereading causes students to feel more confident about their reading.

The Role of Schemata in ESL Reading Comprehension

While reading, there is an interaction between the reader's preexisting knowledge (background knowledge) and the written content (Roe et al., 1998). The significant advantage of using a schema is that schemata expand, refine, and increase comprehension (Abu-Akel, 1996). From the schema-theoretic point of view, reading comprehension is an interaction between the writer's purposes in text and the reader's background knowledge (Adams & Collins, 1979; Rumelhart, 1980). Reading comprehension involves the reader's knowledge, which is culturally based and culturally biased (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983). Another influence on a reader's comprehension of the text is the way that the text
content is organized and explained (McKeown, Beck, Sinatra, & Loxterman, 1992).

Thus, Carrell (1984) states the distinction between formal schemata (background about and expectations of differences among rhetorical structures—stories, letters, articles, and so on) and content schemata, which are about the content of a text, such as economy, history, and politics. Therefore, teachers have to understand the different roles of schemata in ESL/EFL reading comprehension. If a reader fails to use appropriate schemata, the reading process results in various degrees of non-comprehension (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983). This failure may be due to the reader's lack of either content or formal schema. Another factor is that the text does not provide readers with sufficient information to effectively utilize a bottom-up processing mode to activate schemata (Abu-Akel, 1996).

A number of researchers have shown the general effects of content schemata on ESL/EFL reading comprehension. As described by Henk and Helfeldt (1986), the main objective of content schemata is to determine the influence of prior knowledge on ambiguous text interpretations. Anderson, Reynolds, Schallert, and Goetz (1977) imply that readers will choose to focus on parts of the text which agree with previously activated schemata. Henk and Helfeldt wanted to record responses during the reading process. Their method contrasted with Anderson's study, in which multiple choice statements are given after the reading (p. 144). Henk and Helfeldt (1986) used the methodology of
Anderson et al. (1977), except they asked questions during the reading process instead of afterwards. The study has shown that readers try to fit incoming information into their prior knowledge of structure. In spite of using different methods, both Anderson et al.'s and Henk and Helfeldt's studies point toward an influence of prior knowledge and schema orientations on the interpretation of texts.

Moreover, Henk and Helfeldt's study supports the schema-theoretic view that background knowledge affects the interpretation of written text, which is one major aspect of reading comprehension. Henk and Helfeldt (1986), Carrell and Eisterhold (1983), and McKeown et al. (1992) all support the hypothesis that comprehension is an interactive process between the text and the reader. This interactive process is a combination of both the formal and content schemata. Henk and Helfeldt focus on the significance of content schemata in the process of interpreting an ambiguous text, while Carrell introduces the notion of formal schemata. These researchers develop each factor separately, but McKeown et al. focus on how these schemata interact with each other in order to obtain an optimum level of text comprehension.

Providing background information and previewing content for the reader seem to be the most obvious strategies; these are particularly important for low-level proficient language students. Less proficient readers, in particular, need familiar content selections or content preview. Illustrations which involve cultural key concepts may be appropriate for minimal-proficiency-level students.
Teachers should consider both content and formal schemata in order to improve EFL reading comprehension. Background knowledge and knowledge of the rhetorical organization of texts play essential roles in reading comprehension. Therefore, teachers might consider these two factors when they choose teaching materials and course books. Moreover, teachers should be aware that reading is a highly interactive process between text and students' prior knowledge. Assessment of reading comprehension should not test students' memory or their general knowledge but provide students with necessary background knowledge in combination with knowledge about textual organization which can facilitate students' confidence and self-esteem (Abu-Akel, 1996).

L1 Reading Models and Implications for L2 Reading

**Bottom-up models.** Gough (1972) studied readers' processes from the first moment of looking at the text until the time when meaning is derived from the words. Gough (1972) hypothesized that the reader's eye fixation on the text leads to the formation of an icon. It takes about 100 milliseconds for readers to differentiate between the lines, curves, and angles of the patterns of letters. Gough's study, an inquiry on bottom-up processing, focuses on the letter and word level of the text instead of on the reader's process of comprehension.

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, second or foreign language reading was viewed as a decoding process, meaning that the readers try to reconstruct the writer's intention by decoding the letters and words as meaningful units.
(Rivers, 1968; Plaister, 1968; Yorio, 1971). Many specialists emphasize that the role of vocabulary in the EFL process reading is also the same as in L1.

Top-down models. The theory of Kenneth Goodman and Frank Smith are examples of top-down views of reading (Bernhardt, 1986). Second language reading is viewed as a psycholinguistic process by Goodman (1968) and is defined as "an interaction between reader’s attempts to reconstruct a message from the writer" (p. 15). Goodman argues that readers use their knowledge of syntax and semantics and make predictions about the grammatical structure in a text, then they confirm whether their predictions are right (Barnett, 1989).

Bernhardt’s constructivist model. Bernhardt’s recent (1986) constructivist model of second language reading is influenced by reader schemata. The reader’s recognition of words and syntactic features brings prior knowledge to the text and links it to the text (metacognition). Bernhardt states that text-based components include word recognition, and phonemic/graphic decoding (recognition of the relationships between words). Extra-text-based components consist of intratextual perceptions (the reconciliation of each part of the text to preceding and succeeding elements), prior knowledge (whether the text makes sense with respect to the reader’s schemata), and metacognition (the extent to which the reader is thinking about the reading process indicated by question marks and notes in the recall protocols). Interactive and multi-dimensional components work in a circular fashion and in different ways for individual readers to read particular texts (see Figure 1).
Do First Language Reading Skills Transfer to Second/Foreign Language Reading?

Some researchers wonder whether second language readers’ reading skills are based upon their first language skills. For beginning and intermediate readers, complicated and difficult second language texts normally become simple when texts are translated into their first language (Kern, 1988). Naturally, such
attention has been focused on good first language readers in the hope that teachers might be able to learn from their skills (Barnett, 1989).

Second language reading and reading comprehension are processes which include various degrees of successful or unsuccessful interaction between the second language reader and the text. Reading is an active and an interactive process between the readers and writers (Goodman, 1967). However, the interactive view of reading has been acknowledged recently in second language reading. Early work in second language reading focused on passive bottom-up points of view and decoding processes through recognizing the letters and words and building up a semantic representation from the bottom to the top (Rivers, 1968; Plaister, 1968; Yorio, 1971). In recent years, ESL reading specialists began to think of ESL reading as an active process and began to apply a top-down approach to second language reading (Steffensen, Joag-Dev, & Anderson, 1979; Carrell, 1981, 1982; Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983; Johnson, 1981; Hudson, 1982). In this view of second language reading, the reader is an active participant making predictions, processing information in the reading process, and tying their prior experience and background knowledge to the process. Most recently, several researchers emphasize that efficient and effective second language reading requires both top-down and bottom-up strategies (Rumelhart, 1977, 1980; Sanford & Garrod 1981; Carrell & Eusterhold, 1983).

The subjects used in Carrell's 1984 study consisted of eighty Spanish, Arabic, and Asian (Korean and Chinese) native language groups. Depending on
the native language background of the ESL reader, different discourse types affect the number of items recalled. Readers who perceived the text's original discourse type and used it as a recall protocol were able to recall more information (Carrell, 1984).

McKeown et al. (1992) note that the view of reading changed from that of a "simple process of lifting the message of a text to that of an active, complex process in which a reader draws on information from several sources concurrently, to construct a representation of a text's message" (p. 79). Previous studies investigated one or other aspects of the schema-theoretic view (formal or content schemata) and their influence on ESL reading comprehension. McKeown et al. (1992) tried to check the effects of background knowledge on comprehension. Roller (1990) considers the nature of the relationship between knowledge and text structure as coherence and asserts that the familiarity of text content determines the comprehension level of text. In foreign and second language reading, syntactic contrasts interfere with readers' comprehension only when the conceptual content of the text is difficult to understand (Ulijn, 1981; Strother & Ulijn, 1987).

Some researchers emphasize syntax more than others. It has been noted that students read a syntactically familiar first language passage faster than a random passage; however, reading times for differently constructed second language texts show no differences. Therefore, knowledge of syntax appears to help readers to understand content and read faster (MacNamara, 1967). Second
language readers tend to understand a target language text in terms of native language syntactic structure (Cowan, 1976); thus, in their reading process, syntax is dominant. ESL students give more attention to form class (the morphemes or structure units of a word) than to comprehension (Guarino & Perkins, 1986).

Cziko (1978) finds that syntactic, semantic, and discourse constraints serve as important sources of information for fluent first or second language readers and hypothesizes a developmental order in the second language reader's ability to use contextual constraints and syntactic constraints. As ESL students develop their reading proficiency, they show steady improvement in processing both syntactic and semantic cues (Devine, 1987). Conversely, Hauptman (1979) finds that advanced foreign language students make fewer syntactic errors but more semantic errors. He hypothesizes that this difference comes from an increased willingness to guess word meanings. Knowledge of syntax and vocabulary interacts to allow American readers to understand French text (Barnett, 1986). According to these research results, teachers have to consider all the aspects of language proficiency to develop better second and foreign language readers.

**Textual Comprehension: Inference, Cohesion and Coherence**

Proficient readers make inferences and use their prior knowledge and experience in real-world relations to read between the lines. Klein-Konigsberg (1984) asserts that inference is an active process, a process of expansion, and
even a process of survival. Readers reconstruct and make things fit together when they try to organize, absorb, and retain information (Johnson & von Hoff Johnson, 1986). Hummel (1985) emphasizes the effects of coherence in assisting readers' usage of background knowledge and cultural understanding. In addition, the ability to draw inferences is a cognitive skill divorced from linguistic ability (Lee, 1987).

Cohesion as defined by De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) as the way that the surface elements of a text are arranged and connected within a sequence. This definition includes all means of signaling grammatical dependencies. Cohesion is an outcome of cognitive processes by readers. De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) state that a text maintains coherence not by itself but through the relation between text-presented knowledge and the text reader's prior knowledge. According to Mentis and Prutting (1987), "cohesion is achieved through the linguistic interdependence of elements within a text" (p. 88). Cohesion rises in a text where the meaning of a text can only be derived by reference which is contained somewhere else in the text.

On the other hand, many researchers have considered cohesion in discourse, narratives, and reading comprehension. Ackerman (1986), for example, formulated hypotheses about the relationship between cohesion and other aspects of organization and processing. Ackerman studied the relation between people's abilities to make accurate causal inferences and their abilities to recognize and understand linguistic cohesion. The study showed that the
more people understand causal relations, the more they can understand causal coherence. He concluded that what children can and cannot do must be studied from various points of view. Teachers, then, might think about the structure and content that they use and about the appropriateness of certain texts for the development of cohesion. An application of that work might help students develop better comprehension and organizational strategies (Abu-Akel, 1996).

The coherence in a text influences the reader's comprehension. Carrell (1984) studied the possibility of differences among ESL readers who have various language and cultural backgrounds, in relation to their interaction with texts of different rhetorical organizations. This study was based on the belief that "reading comprehension is an interaction between a reader's background knowledge of processing strategies for text structure, on the one hand, and rhetorical organization of text on the other hand" (p. 441).

If the writer wants the text to be meaningful, the text must be coherent. Coherence is not always based on what is said or written in the text but on proficient readers' ability to deal with sentences and information with relative ease (Blank & Marquis, 1987). Skilled readers can catch implicit connections and fill in the unwritten parts. Topic coherence is made explicit through using meaningful and structural codes (Ripich & Spinnelli, 1985). For example, competent readers add information to statements or restate points to make meaning more clearly. Competent readers also make statements relevant to the
topic to maintain coherence, use specific linguistic devices to express connections between the lines, and go beyond sentence boundaries.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) use the term cohesive devices, those which can contribute to build the coherence of a text. Various types of cohesive devices are used in discourse situations, purpose, text genre, and a number of story episodes by children and adults (Liles, 1987). Mastering cohesive devices is part of achieving competence in a second language, but teachers must also consider other factors which influence reading and reading comprehension, including background knowledge which influence many parts in reading (Devine, Carrell, & Eskey, 1987).

Coherence concerns “the ways in which the components of the textual world, that is, the configuration of concepts and relations which underlie the surface text are mutually accessible and relevant” (De Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981, p. 4). Concepts are transformations of prior knowledge, and relations are links between textual lines. The role of cohesion and coherence and the relationship between cohesion and coherence have recently become important in second language text production and reception. Cohesion and coherence are the two most basic standards of textuality and indicate how the component elements play their roles to make sense. De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) support the idea that cohesion and coherence cannot transfer the distinct meaning alone. According to De Beaugrande and Dressler, there are seven standards of textuality in the reading process in a second language: cohesion,
coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality. Cohesion is the principle of the connectivity among the surface elements of the text. Coherence is the principle of the connectivity among the concepts and relations in the text. Intentionality is the writer's will to produce cohesive and coherent text for some goal. Acceptability is the attitude of the text receiver. Informatively is an index of the extent. Situationality is a measure of the text relevant to a current or recoverable situation. Intertextuality is the measure of how the production or comprehension of the text depends on knowledge or experience with other texts (De Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981).

One meaning of comprehension is "the way that ideas and meanings relate to each other." Halliday and Hasan (1976) define five first-language cohesive devices and show how they tie together: (1) reference denotes words that are used to refer to others: e.g., pronouns, demonstrative adjectives; (2) repetition is the use of words to repeat themselves, often with a definite article; (3) substitution means using a synonym to often used to repeat without repeating the word; (4) ellipsis means substitution by zero; and (5) conjunctions are cohesive because of their meanings: e.g., and, but, therefore. Halliday and Hasan insist that cohesion (the semantic functions realized in the surface-level features of the text) leads coherence (the reader's understanding of the text as a coherent entity). Researchers try to investigate discourse in a text by analyzing the mastery of cohesion in foreign or second language reader's ability.
From studies of foreign language learner’s difficulties in recognizing cohesive ties, Williams (1983) emphasizes the importance of the cohesion characteristics of text and suggests ways to teach it (Rizzardi, 1980). More works need to be focused on how cohesive ties can be used for improving reader’s comprehension skills (Barnett, 1989). Roller (1990) suggests that the influence of structure is dependent on how familiar readers are with text content. Therefore, McKeown et al. (1992) attempted to investigate ways of providing background knowledge to readers that would make the content more familiar than enhanced textual coherence. Knowledge and coherence interacting with each other provided an advantage over of what knowledge and coherence provided separately. The study implies that background knowledge is very helpful if the text is coherent, so the prior knowledge can be combined with text information to comprehend texts easily. According to schema theory, a higher level of coherence can fill knowledge gaps. Therefore, the proposed model (see Chapter 3) suggests that they are both effective, but they cannot completely compensate for inadequacies in the other (Abu-Akel, 1996).

In conclusion, perceiving textual structures and devices such as inference, cohesion, and coherence help readers not only to understand the gist of the content but also a logical basis for understanding the content.

**The Role of Metacognition in Reading Comprehension**

To teach successfully, it is important to know how students get information and what influences their learning. Studies in cognition can be a good starting
point. The following are terms which refer to the types of thinking which are related to reading comprehension (see Brualdi, 1996). Literal understanding means that the reader recognizes the meaning of words and sentences and gets ideas and information directly from the printed material. Interpretive understanding occurs when readers' prior knowledge, experience, and imagination create hypotheses. Therefore, interpretive understanding implies that the readers' ideas and information are not written in the text, and the reader needs to understand deductive reasoning and make assumptions. Critical comprehension requires the readers to make judgments about the given content through comparing it with external criteria. Creative understanding has been related to the readers' emotional responses to print material and their ability to create new ideas based on the reading. Therefore, creative understanding is based on literal, inferential, and critical comprehension (Brualdi, 1996).

These types of understanding show how various cognitive processes are applied to the reading process. Metacognitive skills are the actions of monitoring and regulating cognition to comprehend the text in the reading process.

Multiple Intelligences

There are numerous conceptualizations of human organizing principles, described as models of cognition, thinking, or intelligence. One of these models is Gardner's multiple-frame model of intelligence (1983). It provides the structural framework for many language-learning strategies. Howard Gardner (1983) presents linguistic intelligence in terms of the traditional categories,
including semantics, syntax, and phonology. He considers each as a primary component of linguistic intelligence. Gardner enlarges the concept of intelligence including both mathematical and linguistic ability and also music, special relations, and interpersonal knowledge. Gardner defines intelligence as "the capacity to solve problems or to fashion products that are valued in one or more cultural settings" (Gardner & Hatch, 1989). Gardner (1983) insists that there are both biological and cultural bases for the multiple intelligences, and they play a vital role in the development of students' intelligences. Neurobiological research finds that various types of learning results in different areas of the brain, and students are often highly influenced and motivated by their cultural values. Moreover, according to cultural diversity, the particular intelligences might be different depending on individuals' characteristics.

Using biological and cultural research, Gardner illustrates seven intelligences, which differ from traditional intelligences that only describe verbal and computational intelligences (Brualdi, 1996). Logical-Mathematical intelligence is the ability to detect patterns, reason deductively, and think logically. This intelligence is mostly associated with scientific and mathematical thinking. Linguistic intelligence is the ability to manipulate language to express oneself rhetorically or poetically. This also allows one to use language as a means to remember information. Spatial intelligence is the ability to manipulate and create mental images in order to solve problems. This intelligence is not limited to visual domains. Musical intelligence is the ability to recognize and
compose musical pitches, tones, and rhythms. Bodily-Kinesthetic intelligence is the ability to use one's mental abilities to coordinate one's own bodily movements. Personal intelligence, which includes Interpersonal intelligence, is the ability to understand and discern the feelings and intentions of others. Finally, Intrapersonal intelligence is the ability to understand one's own feelings and motivations.

Although Gardner divides intelligences into seven categories, he claims that these seven intelligences do not act independently, but rather process simultaneously and act as complements to each other to solve problems. Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences provides a theoretical foundation for recognizing the potentials of students. Teaching students with these various manners will allow a wider range of students to participate successfully in classroom learning (Brualdi, 1996).

Everyone is born with these seven intelligences, but all students have their own unique strengths and weaknesses within this set of intelligences. Thus, students learn more when their lessons fit with their learning styles. Many learning styles can be found within one classroom (Lazear, 1992). Accepting Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences, teachers should think of all intelligences as equal. This is one of the biggest differences with traditional education systems which typically emphasize verbal and mathematical intelligences. Another rule to follow is that teachers should teach with material that includes most or all of the intelligences (Brualdi, 1996). Therefore, students
should understand their own intelligence – this constitutes a basic metacognitive strategy. Competent readers minutely monitor comprehension (metacognitive) strategies when they read. They constantly ask if they understand all the contents and check what they should do to supplement their lack of understanding.

**Metacognition in Reading**

Vygotsky (1962) describes two aspects of understanding reading. One is automatic unconscious acquisition, and the other is seated between cognitive and metacognitive aspects of performance. Metacognition refers to the action of readers’ conscious control of their own cognition (Brown, 1980). It also refers to, among other things, the active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of these processes in relation to the cognitive objects or data on which they bear, usually in the service of some concrete goal or objective (Flavell, 1981). Flavell (1981) defines metacognition as “knowledge or cognition that takes as its object or regulates any aspect of cognitive endeavor” (p. 37). Baker and Brown (1984) extend Flavell’s (1981) definition to include actions such as people’s knowledge about their own cognitive resources, regulation of learning activities to check comprehension, and decisions about what kind of strategic action to take and when to take it. Understanding readers’ metacognitive process enriches the understanding of why some groups of readers understand what they read more successfully than others. Attention is
thus given to social factors in reading, such as context and purpose, cognitive process factors, meaning construction, and comprehension monitoring.

Metacognition is monitoring and regulating one’s cognitive processes. The goal of reading instruction is to make students independent readers with better comprehension. To reach this goal, readers must not only recognize how to read and how to stimulate active reading, but they must also monitor their own comprehension. They must be aware of their reading processes and know when they are lost and when they must change the process. Metacognition involves knowing what is known already, knowing when understanding of new material has been accomplished, knowing how the understanding was reached, and knowing why something is or is not known (Guthrie, 1983).

Competent readers know how to perceive reading demands, identify important parts of texts, and focus on significant parts of text. Proficient readers use metacognitive skills in their reading through consciously coordinating thought and reading. On the other hand, poor readers do not know the fact that they have failed to understand. Therefore, teachers need to help students acquire metacognitive skills. To do this, teachers often find that it is helpful to use content in their own subject areas to show metacognition because they have substantial background experience with the related content (Roe et al., 1998).

The skills of metacognition are attributed to many executive parts of theories of human memory, machine intelligence—predicting, checking, monitoring, reality testing, and coordination—and control of attempts to study,
learn, or solve problems (Brown, 1978). These basic characteristics of thinking efficiently in learning situations include but are not limited to effective reading. Reading is only one type of monitoring activity that has been observed by educators who are interested in study skills. Thus, studying metacognitive skills is important because they appear in real-world, everyday situations. People can check the results of applying metacognitive skills in everyday life to other skills such as solving a math problem, reading for meaning, memorizing a prose passage, following a recipe, or assembling an automobile or piece of furniture. Self-assessment of metacognitive skill during reading or any problem-solving task is an essential skill in a wide variety of situations (Brown, 1979).

Comprehension monitoring is the ongoing process of evaluating a reader's understanding of written text (Baker & Brown, 1984). Beyond basic decoding of words, phrases, and sentences, comprehension monitoring is an essential set of skills for successful reading. In L2 reading, however, monitoring comprehension has tended to be neglected for a focus on text content and form. Bartlett (1932), for example, began to study people's abilities to transfer a culturally unfamiliar story to culturally familiar knowledge. He was the first to emphasize the reader's use of a schema to reconstruct unfamiliar content.

The extension of schema theory might be useful for readers to incorporate less concrete factors into this framework to simultaneously generate explanations that they cannot fully understand. In addition, this expanded version of schema theory may be able to adjust how to identify and resolve comprehension
breakdowns without losing interest (Casanave, 1988). For example, Pressley & Levin (1983) trained their students to monitor their comprehension. When students increased their conscious knowledge, they became more proficient in reading, and this knowledge helped students increase their levels of awareness. Thus, young readers and adult L2 readers who are unpracticed at reading in their native and second languages would benefit similarly. The classroom technique of monitoring comprehension might help students overcome the comprehension obstacles from low L2 proficiency and activate existing strategic knowledge. Comprehension monitoring activities can potentially benefit students and teachers in many ways; they encourage students to participate actively in their reading, they provide language, concepts, and strategies to help students resolve comprehension difficulties that may be encountered while reading, and they provide the teacher assessment methods for understanding how and how well students understand what they read. Moreover, comprehension monitoring aids students in recognizing that such knowledge is linked with better comprehension while showing teachers how to take strategic action when students' comprehension falters (Casanave, 1998).

In summary, teachers have to determine how students set out to read and how closely they monitor their progress of reading and understanding the text (Brown, 1980). Students also need to employ metacognitive skills to increase understanding.
Metacognitive Strategies

When students confront difficult words, they need to apply their semantic and syntactic knowledge to identify the words (Bos & Vaughn, 1994). Ives, Bursuk, and Ives (1979) suggest the language cuing systems including seven strategies to identify words. Readers should use these strategies to identify words which need to comprehend the context. There are as follows:

**Visual configuration** means using graphic or distinctive visual features to help students identify the word. Several types of visual configuration clues are used to identify a word such as word length, word shape, presence of double letters and repetition of letters, use of capitals, hyphens, apostrophes, and periods, and the graphic characteristics of individual letters.

**Picture clues** means using pictures, graphs, diagrams, maps, and other types of pictured representations to aid in word recognition.

**Semantic clues** means using the meaning of the text to help identify the word. Semantic clues also help readers determine what words are good to use in particular sentences.

**Syntactic clues** means using grammar to identify a word. For example, in the sentence, “John walked down the ______,” the reader can find knows that the word in the blank must be a noun. Therefore, context clues are from combining semantic and syntactic clues.

**Structural analysis or morphemic analysis** means using the morphemes
which are the units of meaning to identify the words' meaning. They can be classified into the categories of roots, prefixes, suffixes, and inflections.

*Phonic analysis or phonics* is using the sound of letters as clues of identifying words. Phonic analysis stresses on finding the relationship between speech sounds and the sounds of written language.

*Syllabication* is using syllables to divide the words into pronunciation units. Dividing a word into syllables will often aid students to apply phonic analysis in multisyllabic words.

Both teachers and students can apply metacognitive strategies. Properly applied, metacognitive skills will lead teachers to know how students acquire the information and which factors affect their comprehension in reading. In addition, teachers might be aware of students' unique strengths and weaknesses in order to meet students' needs. Monitor students' reading process can increase students' reading comprehension level by applying appropriate intervention, and students who self-check and self-regulate their reading process can improve their reading comprehension and enjoyment.

The Role of Word and Sentence Analysis in Reading Comprehension

The Role of Text Elements

It is obvious that readers' formal schemata interact with texts prove the influence of text type and structure on the ease or difficulty with readers' comprehending written texts (often called text readability). However, there are different points of view which emphasize different text variables. Some consider
text type as a determining factor in text readability (Laroche, 1979; Schulz, 1981). The ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) Proficiency Guidelines (1986) consider the text type as a major component to define reading level. Researchers are curious about how certain textual elements, especially vocabulary, syntax and semantics, and cohesion, affect readers' comprehension.

Some of the earliest works on second and foreign language reading focused on whether certain text elements can influence comprehension. Teachers defined the aspects of language knowledge as crucial because words make up a text, hence vocabulary must play a central role. Questions have been raised about when discrete lexical knowledge is necessary. Other researchers have studied the relative importance of semantics and syntax. Closely associated with syntax and semantics, textual cohesion is also an important factor to study further. Several researchers have tried to ascertain the relative importance between text syntax (grammatical structures) and semantics (the meanings, mostly contained in groupings of words, the lexicon or vocabulary). According to the psycholinguistic and interactive reading theory of first language, readers use the syntactic, lexical, and semantic levels for comprehension (Goodman, 1967).

Students who acquire content concepts can comprehend textbooks, newspapers, magazines, and other written materials. Since the printed materials are composed of words, knowing the words means comprehending the reading.
Therefore, teachers need to focus on vocabulary instruction. As students read about new things, they build their understanding of concepts (Roe et al., 1998).

Context analysis is a good strategy to expand vocabulary. Through analyzing context, students increase their vocabularies by listening and reading (Sinatra & Dowd, 1991). Readers and listeners use their conceptual knowledge to delimit a word’s meaning. Context can play an essential role in vocabulary and conceptual development, but context is used by reader’s prior knowledge. Students learn words and concepts through experiences within a broad context as they acquire knowledge structures or schemata (Nagy & Herman, 1987; Sternberg, 1987).

Vocabulary

Foreign and second language students often say that vocabulary recognition is a major problem in reading (Kern, 1988; Yorio, 1971). Hague (1987) states that advanced language students need to learn vocabulary, since they must acquire new concepts through new vocabulary. Roe et al. (1998) state that word identification skills assist reading. Words, labels for concepts, form meaning in written language. Thus, word knowledge and conceptual development are connected to readers’ experiences. Word meanings and concepts play a vital role in the background knowledge that readers use for understanding print. Word knowledge and the ability to use it for reading is related to reading comprehension, intelligence, thinking abilities, and academic achievement (Nagy & Herman, 1987). Students who know the important words
in a reading are getting more new concepts and ideas from written content (McKeown & Curtis, 1987; Nagy, 1988; Anderson & Nagy, 1993). Conversely, students who cannot read well have more trouble learning new words (Sheffelbine, 1984).

Reading specialists suggest ways of teaching vocabulary to improve students' reading proficiency. Readers who lack word identification abilities are not able to make these associations. According to Carrell (1987), teachers must continue to examine the effect on comprehension of preteaching vocabulary and the role of incidental exposure to vocabulary.

According to Roe et al. (1998), learners need to learn three kinds of vocabulary. The first is general vocabulary, representing generally accepted meaning. These words appear in both content reading materials and general reading materials. The second, specialized vocabulary, consists of both general and specialized meaning words. The last one is technical vocabulary, which is made up of words standing for specific concepts that are related to specific content subjects. Students face all three types of vocabulary not only in textbooks but also in reading materials encountered in daily life. Therefore, teachers can use authentic reading materials to help students develop vocabulary by having them guess and make predictions about unknown vocabulary in the text. This gives students strategies for catching both the meaning of the vocabulary and the meaning of the content as well.
Morphological Analysis

Nagy (1989) and others state that morphological analysis helps students learn vocabulary (White, Power, & White, 1989; Ruddiman, 1993). Morphological knowledge makes students identify words quickly and more correctly. Roots of words provide the base meaning of the words. Affixes, primarily prefixes and suffixes, change the base meaning. For example, migr is a root that means “move.” Prefixes are added to the front of roots, and suffixes are added to the end of roots. Figure 2 shows how the root is changed by adding prefixes or suffixes. Morphological analysis is especially useful when readers face special terminology in specific subjects. If this method is properly used, morphological analysis can replace some of the students’ need to memorize vocabulary independently. Students can create a web of words structured for effective study. Figure 2 illustrates a web using the root migr.

Sentence Structure

Generally, sentence structures are divided into four kinds: simple sentences, compound sentences, complex sentences, and compound/complex sentences. For example, Mary writes is the simplest form of a simple sentence. A sentence can be long and complicated but still remain a simple sentence. John writes, and Mary telephones is a compound sentence, which consists of two independent clauses. Complex sentences consist of independent clauses and dependent clauses, and each has subject and predicate, but the dependent clause depends on the independent clause. John, who is my grandson, does not
Figure 2. A web graphic organizer (Roe, Stoodt, & Burns, 1998)
write anymore contains the dependent clause who is my grandson. The clause who is my grandson is not an independent clause but an adjective clause which modifies John. They wanted to go on writing and telephoning, but after they moved into my house I told them to stop has two independent clauses extending up with the comma, so it is a compound sentence. The second independent clause is modified by the dependent clause after they moved into my house, so the sentence is a complex sentence. Thus this sentence is a compound/complex sentence. In compound/complex sentences, at least one of the independent clauses is modified by a dependent clause (Johnson, 1991).

The use of semicolons, colons, dashes and hyphens is also very important in understanding ideas in reading. Yet, these small marks are sometimes overlooked. Therefore, to understand a writer’s thoughts correctly, the basic knowledge of mark usage is very important to ESL/EFL reading. We are going to discuss it, and then we will decide what to do is a compound sentence that has two independent clauses. We are going to discuss it can stand alone as a complete sentence, and so can Then we will decide what to do. When joined by and, the clauses are separated by a comma. If and is omitted, a semicolon could be used. However, and if and is supplied, a comma is better.

The semicolon has two main uses. The first one is to separate independent parts of a sentence. Its second function is to separate elements of a series when some of the elements already contain commas. It can be used as a very strong comma and has both connecting and separating functions. The
specific characteristic of a colon is to marshal something that is related to prior parts of the sentence. The dash has many uses. It can interrupt a sentence in some places that a colon can and also other places that colon cannot. “A pair of dashes can enclose a parenthetical construction, as a pair of commas or parentheses can. Any castaway on a desert island who is allowed only one mark of punctuation could do worse than choose the dash, which might even be useful for spearing fish” (Johnson, 1991).

Using punctuation is one of the most difficult acts for foreign language students. Sentence structure determines the function of punctuation in the sentence. Without exact knowledge of punctuation knowledge, students cannot get the exact meaning that the writer intends. Therefore, teachers have to teach the function and usage of punctuation in the sentence.

Commas, semicolons, colons, dashes, and parentheses separate words from one another, while periods, exclamation points, and question marks separate sentences from one another. The hyphen is the only mark of punctuation that join words together. Words that are joined with hyphens are called compound words. However, for example, high school and schoolteacher are compound words but they do not contain hyphens. Therefore, the use of hyphens is determined according to the particular compound words (Johnson, 1991).
Thus, the study of sentence structure can enhance readers’ ability to determine the meaning of the text. Semantics, which closely related to syntax, will then be improved based on the ability to translate syntax.

**Genre Analysis and the Reading Process**

Readers need to recognize the various types of composition that are composed for various purposes and audiences. Teachers not only have to help students get involved with reading activities but also have to help students understand the purpose and audience for which a text is written. Each genre has specific characteristics that guide the reader in interpreting the text. Each genre has different discourse patterns that are used in a specific context. Exposing students to various genres' will help them find similarities and differences among genres. Teachers can build students' knowledge of English texts in different genres such as stories, poems, plays, fantasies, romances, newsletters, recipes, literature, and so on. Students can benefit from a wide exposure to the writing featured in English-speaking cultures (Johnson, 1981).

**Genre Analysis**

Reading teachers usually provide short and varied selections because of classroom conditions, but these never give students a chance to realize the author's style, to become familiar with the specific vocabulary of the topic, or to develop sufficient information to obtain knowledge. Students can find that the more they read on either a single topic or a single author, the easier it is to comprehend the text. Readers build background knowledge to adjust to specific
topics or to the particular style of the writer. The repetitions of vocabulary and structure also help readers (Abu-Akel, 1996).

Text Genres

Many text genres have well-established forms with patterned structures and predictable content. Literary genres include detective stories, novels, poetry, suspense stories, science fiction, dialogues, fables, and so forth. Some nonfiction genres are well-defined such as newspaper articles, editorials, research reports, Reader's Digest articles, philosophical treatises, and biographies. If students can recognize that a text belongs to a certain genre, many unfamiliar words and even sentence structures may become easier to interpret. Usually, first language readers know the genre of a text which they are going to read. Foreign language students also have to know about the genre and how to classify the text into a certain genre (Barnett, 1989).

The Concept of Genre

The use of genre relevant to this study is glossed by Webster's Third Dictionary as "a distinctive type or category of literary composition"; however, the dictionary's citation usefully expands the context of literary to include "such improvising genres as Indian Treaties, colonial promotional tracts, and theological works" (Swales, 1990). Indeed today, genre is quite easily used to refer to a distinctive category of discourse of any type, spoken or written, with or without literary aspirations. According to Swales (1990), however, the use of genre as a structuring device for language teaching is doomed to encourage the
unthinking application of formulas, or whether such an outcome is an oversimplification brought about by pedagogical convenience.

**Differences among Genres**

Genres are different significantly according to various factors. According to the purposes, genres are various from a simple recipe to the very complex political speech (Nystrand, 1986). These various genres include research papers, letters of personal reference, poems, recipes, news broadcasts, and so on. Various genres also depend on expressing styles or media. For example, in modern times, poems in western cultures have been a dominant written form (Gregory, 1967). Applying the different points of view of genres is useful to understand contexts such as recipes and news broadcasts.

**Genres, Schemata and Acquisition**

As the genre-centered approach gives particular attention to the rhetorical organization of texts, a relevant set of issues concerns the role of schemata, their characteristics and their relationships to genre acquisition. The concept of schemata was introduced by Bartlett in 1932 to explain how the information carried in stories is rearranged in the memories of readers and listeners to fit in with their expectations. There have been many further studies in both L1 and L2 contexts that have shown that human beings consistently overlay schemata on events to align those events with previously established patterns of experience, knowledge, and belief (Sanford & Garrod, 1981; Carrell, Devine & Eskey, 1988).
According to Figure 3, our prior knowledge consists of two main components: our assimilated direct experiences of life and its manifold activities, and our assimilated verbal experiences and encounters. As the arrows show, both types of experience contribute to our accumulated store of facts and concepts. These sources provide, among other things, background knowledge about the content area of a discourse, which in turn allows us to evaluate propositions in terms of their truth, and contributes to the evaluation of appropriacy and relevance. Cognitive activities of this kind are thus invocations of content schemata (Swales, 1990). Figure 3 suggests that procedures may derive from both previous experience and prior texts and contribute to the formation of formal schemata—“background knowledge of the rhetorical structures of different types of texts” (Carrell, 1983, p. 81).

Teaching Genre

**News stories.** Many foreign language educators have tried to apply current events, realia, and technology in course design to promote relevance, language acquisition, critical thinking skills, and problem solving abilities. The benefits of using English language newspapers are that they are widely available in Korea. Most college students have never read an English newspaper nor consider it a good source of studying reading. Teachers can use selected newspaper article in class rather than an entire newspaper.
Figure 3. Background knowledge of the rhetorical structures of different types of texts (Swales, 1990).
Forrest (1997) states, "Reading the newspaper offers a different style of reading in which scanning for articles of interest is a significant part of the experience. This is an empowering process, reinforcing independence and individual choice on the part of the students" (p. 21). Generally, university students already have the necessary schema and background knowledge to catch the topics in an average English newspaper.

Forrest also suggests, "a significant advantage of using newspapers is that students usually have some background knowledge of current events, often enabling them to predict the contents of an article and more readily guess at word meanings" (p. 21).

Another fundamental reason for using newspapers is to help learners gain cultural knowledge. When they have an entire newspaper and try to find interesting sections and read them, they also absorb the culture of the target language. A primary objective of a structured newspaper class is to give students a chance to think critically. Students can discuss and write opinions about what they read. Davidson (1994) explains, "an instructor's challenge is to lead students step-by-step along the path of becoming able to analyze and think for themselves. The first step is to make them conscious of various distinctions among types of statements and media representations" (p. 23). Thus, a goal of the newspaper reading is not only to read the paper but also to think critically according to social situations and cultural differences (Johnson, 1997).
Short stories. Short stories are often the best way to introduce literature in the foreign language classroom. For the teacher, short stories offer a lot of benefits. First, their practical length makes it possible to be read entirely within one or two class lessons. Slightly longer works like novels or plays can be modified in some way and still be completed in a few lessons. Second, students can read and reread on their own. Short stories are also suitable for home assignments. Students get the feeling of achievement quickly when they come to the end of a whole work. Finally, students can get a great variety of topics and content. These can be about such popular topics as sports, or they can be topics of interest from the students' culture or the target culture. Teachers can choose different types of short stories, and these give students great opportunity to find something that fits each individual's tastes and interests.

Collie and Slater (1987) state that short stories allow for more creativity in presenting and exploring the text than longer works. They are so compressed that if students are not careful, they may lose the content. This is of course what makes students delight in seeing the writers' successful encapsulation of experience with a masterly economy of language and imagery. However, this compression can make it difficult for foreign readers to appreciate the quality of the work, even when they understand its surface meaning. For this reason, care and preparation are needed for successful presentation of short stories. In reading short stories teachers should diversify the class procedure to make it
more enjoyable. Teachers should also encourage students to go back over the pages to read and look more closely at the details.

Collie and Slater (1987) argue that students do not need to devote all the class time to reading short stories. Sometimes teachers give some ideas about the stories and suggest that students read for gist without stopping to look up every unknown word. Also, teachers can activate the plot or theme of a particular story and leave the rest for students to read on their own. If classwork is to promote students' reading habits, students must enjoy the reading to become independent readers in the foreign language. If this happens, later they will choose other books in their own language, too.

**Biography.** In discussing nonfiction books for students, there are three essentials: facts, a concept that facts relate to, and an attitude toward the subject and the reader. Biography, which is the history of an individual, has a similar nature. First, the facts must be true, and up-to-date. The biographer must include or omit events and details according to suit the readers' interests. As for the subject, it must be worth reading and reflect the interest and enthusiasm of the writer (Lukens, 1995).

**Technical reading.** Technical reading is the process of transmitting technical information to readers. The goal of technical reading is for people to understand context easily and use information safely, effectively, and efficiently. Most technical communication is used to carry out procedures and solve problems. It includes a great variety of texts like textbooks, phone books,
cookbooks, procedure manuals, environmental impact statements, journal articles, and automobile manuals. In technical reading, there are a lot of pictures, graphics, features, and charts to make content practical and to help readers understand a subject or carry out a task. For example, pictures and text in an introductory biology text help students understand the fundamentals of plant and animal biology and perform basic experiments. A user's manual for a software program describes and illustrates how to use the program effectively (Markel, 1988).

**Characteristics of technical communication.** Understanding the characteristics of technical communication helps building basic knowledge of written text. Perhaps the most significant characteristic of technical text is that it is addressed to particular readers. Technical writers start with a much more specific profile when they think of creating technical documents. Technical reading usually does not express the writer's creativity or does not work to entertain readers. Instead, it helps readers learn something or do something.

People read technical communication to help them solve problems. Technical texts use design features to make their documents more effective. Design features have three basic purposes. First, writers make the document more attractive and professional, so the reader is more likely to read them. Because a technical document can be long and complicated, and most readers want to read only parts of it, design features help readers understand the organization of the document. Virtually every technical document is a
combination of words and graphics. "Graphics help the writer perform five main functions: communicate and reinforce difficult concepts, communicate how-to instructions and descriptions of objects and processes, communicate large amounts of quantifiable data, with nonnative speakers of English, make the document more interesting and appealing to readers" (Markel, 1988).

As information technology becomes more powerful, easier to use, and less expensive, technical reading is now an unavoidable situation. Therefore, reading teachers must teach students how to read technical text effectively to give students more confidence in reading practical material.

In summary, this chapter dealt with the studies of the reading process, the essential factors that affect reading comprehension level, and crucial reading strategies such as metacognitive strategies and genre analysis. Based on this theoretical framework, a model of the reading process will follow in Chapter Three.
CHAPTER THREE: A MODEL OF THE READING PROCESS

Description of the Model

The literature review has explored several factors that can influence comprehension in reading. Based on these several factors, a model (Figure 4) of the reading process and its interaction is possible. This model will help EFL teachers understand the reading process in English as a Foreign Language. Although there are several steps in this model, these steps are not separate but integrated with each other. These interactions between factors result in reading comprehension; but sometimes this reading comprehension may not occur because of various causes such as readers’ problems, texts’ problems, or social/psychological factors. Dividing the reading process into several steps may seem irrelevant for understanding meaning because people usually do not consider sentence structure or grammar while they are reading; people usually think reading is simply getting ideas from the authors. However, this model can be helpful in finding the problem when readers get stuck in the reading process. Therefore, acknowledging what happens in each step is very crucial for finding problems in reading. In the reading process, there are three major steps: prereading, during reading, and post reading. In each step of the reading process, comprehension occurs in the brain of readers.

First, in the prereading step, the first box in Figure 4, teachers offer various activities such as brainstorming to bring out students' background
Figure 4. A model of the process of teaching reading
knowledge and prior knowledge. These activities add to readers' background knowledge and also they activate their imagination for further reading.

Reader's type of understanding are not all the same but very individual. Therefore, teachers must try to use various skills and methods to accomplish the prereading goals. For EFL classroom, especially, teachers have to realize that the target language is not the same structure as their L1. However, some proficiency can be transferred from the first language to the second or foreign language, so readers have enough prior knowledge for the reading. Moreover, the more a reader knows about their first language, the more opportunity he/she will have to achieve a higher level of reading comprehension in L2. The teachers' goal of the lesson in this stage is not just teaching the translation of their text, in expanding students' ability to get involved in the next stage of the reading process.

Second, the meaning stage and the structure stage coexist during the second reading step which stands between the prereading and postreading steps. Even though these two stages are divided, they happen simultaneously. This second step is the place that the actual reading occurs. The structural point of view deals with word and text analysis. These analyses are based on the structure of sentences, including grammar. The other part of the during-reading step is the meaning stage, in which readers try to comprehend what the author might have wanted to convey. Metacognitive strategies are very useful here. The skills of metacognition are attributed to the executive parts of theories of
human memory: predicting, checking, monitoring, reality testing, and coordination and control of attempts to study, learn, or solve problems (Brown, 1978).

Third, the last step, postreading, is the step of recalling what students read and have learned from the text. In this step, teachers can do a lot of diverse activities like assigning writing essays, discussion in class, tests or quizzes, and so on. Before this step, students already have some kinds of built-in image in their minds. Through this step, teachers can assess what students have acquired from the text and what they did not follow. The role of English as a foreign language in universities is very crucial for students' future study, so teachers should concentrate on how to read the textbooks in English which relate to their major. The postreading activities are very crucial because they show students how to measure their reading results.

Finally, genre-based knowledge is not limited to just one step but it influences the whole reading process. The arrows from genre-based knowledge toward to each step mean that this knowledge affects every step to help reading comprehension. The genre of a text influences such characteristics as reading proficiency, textual comprehension, metacognition in reading comprehension, and word/sentence analysis. Therefore, genre-based knowledge functions as readers' background knowledge to promote reading comprehension.

In summary, although these boxes and categories are divided by functions according to their place in the reading process, teachers should always keep in
mind that these are not separate components; they interact with one other while reading. Therefore, teachers should not try to teach them separately, but try to integrate and teach students this step as a series without breaking them apart. Last, the teacher should not focus on each step but teach students how to make the lesson a whole thinking process.

**Suggested Instruction for the Reading Process**

This model of the reading process yields some suggestions for instructors. Overall, the model can be applied in order to (1) activate background knowledge and obtain specific information of given content; (2) analyze the role of words and sentences; (3) acknowledge text structures; (4) use metacognitive strategies; (5) analyze text type of genre-based knowledge; and (6) test students' level of understanding.

**Activate Background Knowledge and Obtain Specific Information from Given Content**

The first impression of reading is very important because readers usually decide whether they want to read or not at the very beginning. For further reading, ESL/EFL teachers have to increase students' interest before they can really anticipate reading. Before reading there are hundreds of skills that teachers can put into practice. Sharing personal experience with classmates or teachers is fine for not only brainstorming but also developing students' speaking abilities. Making inferences about cultural differences is another concern in reading. “From a psychological and linguistic viewpoint, however, it is necessary
to create modifications in learners' concepts and schemata by a process of further socialization and experiential learning in the foreign language, which itself embodies the foreign culture" (Byram, 1988). Showing a title, pictures, features, and charts helps students increase their curiosity for the reading. It also prepares them for extended reading. Other skills—skimming for main ideas, reading a shaded map, recalling background knowledge, recognizing historical significance, and previewing and extended reading—can also be applied.

**Analyze the Role of Words and Sentences**

Analyzing word and sentences structure brings clear understanding to reading. According to several researchers, the first difficulty for ESL/EFL reading is unknown words. Although teaching vocabulary seems very simple for teachers, it has to be considered carefully in teaching because students easily feel bored with simple strategies. Therefore, teachers must create new ways of teaching vocabulary.

Guessing meaning by breaking down words is one method of acquiring vocabulary effectively. For college students, learning terminology is very important for their future study and career. Studying word parts such as suffixes, affixes, infixes, and prefixes, can extend students' vocabulary capability and give them confidence in reading especially. “Understanding acronyms and abbreviations” and “Stories behind words” are activities a teacher could consider for teaching vocabulary. More difficult parts than the unknown word are idioms and colloquial phrases. These difficulties are caused because idioms and
colloquial phrases do not have any particular rules like word parts. Therefore studying idioms and colloquial phrases with related ideas will assist students' comprehension.

Teaching sentence structure is also a crucial part in reading foreign languages. Teachers can teach the types and functions of sentences. This knowledge not only prevents students from confusion over syntactic ambiguity but also makes it possible to understand the foreign language clearly. Moreover, punctuation markers are usually considered lightly, but teaching punctuation will obviously be helpful.

Use Metacognitive Strategies

The goal of reading instruction is to make students independent readers by increasing their comprehension. To reach this goal, readers must not only recognize how to read and how to stimulate active reading, but also monitor their own comprehension. Metacognition involves knowing what is known already, knowing when understanding of new material has been accomplished, knowing how the understanding was reached, and knowing why something is or is not known (Guthrie, 1983). Therefore, teachers must provide the criteria of how to find what students already know and how to check their progress during reading. Teachers have to examine how well students comprehend the text. For these students' understanding level, teacher can use the following strategies: recalling main ideas and details, drawing conclusions by using charts, summarizing an
article, finding support for or against a hypothesis, identifying a bias, identifying and evaluating the point of view, and finding a moral for the story.

**Acknowledge Text Structures**

In text structure analysis, the types of writing patterns, inference, and coherence are possible topics. Using predictions to aid comprehension, using clues to make inferences, and applying inferences to fill unstated meaning all increase the level of understanding. Reading between the lines is an essential skill in this process. De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) define cohesion as the way of connecting sentences. Cohesion is the outcome of cognitive processes by readers. Many researchers state that cohesion in discourse, narratives, and reading comprehension has to be considered. Teachers might consider the structure and content of each genre and also think about the appropriateness of materials for developing students' levels of understanding. Skilled readers can catch implicit connections and fill in the unwritten parts. Topic coherence can be made explicit through using meaningful and structural codes (Ripich & Spinnelli, 1985). Coherence concerns “the ways in which the components of the textual world, that is, the configuration of concepts and relations which underlie the surface text are mutually accessible and relevant” (De Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981, p. 4). Concepts are transformations of prior knowledge and relations are links between textual lines. These are recommended strategies: identifying facts and opinion, recognizing point of view, predicting action, making inferences, and reading between the lines.
Analyze Text Type of Genre

Readers need to recognize the various types of composition produced for various purposes and different audiences. Teachers not only have to help students get involved in reading activities but also help them understand the purpose and audience for which a text is written. Each genre has specific characteristics that guide the reader in comprehending the text. Different genres (feature stories in the news, cultural stories, sport stories, biography, and technical reading) also have different discourse patterns that are used in a specific context. Exposing students to various genre of text will help them find the similarities and differences among genres. Teachers can build students' knowledge of English texts from different genres such as stories, poems, plays, fantasies, romances, newsletters, recipes, literature, and so on. Students of English can benefit from a wide exposure to the writing featured in English-speaking cultures (Johnson, 1997).

Identifying genre should help students understand and predict the topics in the text. The following strategies are recommended for identifying genre characteristics: distinguishing facts and opinions, recognizing an ironic tone, coping with technical terms, stories behind words, some gender words, and recognizing point of view.

Test Students' Understanding Level

Simply reading the text is not the end of the reading process. The following steps constitute cognitive strategies for continued thinking. Shifting
beyond comprehension questions, several activities help students analyze texts. Analytical questions stimulate critical thought and encourage students to compare ideas and reactions (Sacco, 1987). These questions should lead students to think about what they have read. Teachers should create transferable follow-up exercises which are related to previously taught strategies (Barnett, 1989). Several teaching skills can help teachers teach students to move one step further. Summarizing from a different point of view and speaking in front of people are useful strategies to arrange acquired knowledge and improve speaking skills. Paragraph writing practice for short essay questions also develops writing skills and thinking skills simultaneously. Solving problems in groups can be a good strategy for engaging students’ cooperative skills.

Finally, students who approach and understand texts with useful strategies can read in the foreign language without the teacher’s guidance (Barnett, 1989).
CHAPTER FOUR: CURRICULUM DESIGN

Curriculum Organization

There is one unit in this curriculum, built around six authentic reading lessons (see Appendix). The unit focuses on reading materials that can be used for college level students. The texts include selections from newspapers, textbooks, and juvenile literature that can be used in college general elective courses. The unit contains six lessons; each lesson contains three kinds of task chains: Analysis, Strategies, and Critical Reading. The steps of the task chains correspond to the reading process. Task Chain One teaches basic skills to analyze the textural elements at the word and sentence level. Task Chain Two features various strategies for reading with comprehension. Task Chain Three includes postreading activities which deal with various thinking skills to improve comprehension skills and applications. Some texts have very long content and they cannot be taught in one class session. Therefore, each subdivision may be useful for one class.

In this unit, there are six lessons with lesson plans; each lesson has several work sheets, focus sheets, and test sheets. The lesson plans are for teachers, and they provide ideas and activity orders for teaching. The topics of Lessons One to Six are as follow: Feature Stories in the News, Cultural Stories, Sports Stories, Biography, Technical Reading, and Technical Reading in Biology. These samples are edited and revised to fit in the classroom situation. Some original texts are too long to finish in one lesson period, so parts are
omitted. Classes provide a minimum amount of time for teachers and students to teach and understand whole stories. Therefore, assignments are needed for students to complete the lessons at home. Teachers take note what they teach in the class and use the next class to refresh students’ memories. Students will get more knowledge through this teaching method because they have time to think about the ideas in the texts. There are three kinds of teaching materials in this unit; the focus sheets contain texts for reading, the work sheets contain during-reading activities, and the test sheets (which some lessons do not have) have different items assessing students’ learning.

From Model to Curriculum

The curriculum design is derived from the model in Chapter Three, and the model, in turn, is derived from six keywords. Therefore, the following explanation of keywords will show how these fit together, as well as show details of how they match to lessons to accomplish the teaching goals.

The Reading Process

Although there are a number of ways of analyzing the reading process, in this project, the reading process is divided into three parts: prereading, during reading, and postreading. These three sections are based not only on the time order, but also on how much information and understanding the readers obtain through the reading process.

According to these categories, genre-based knowledge always affects three sections. Knowing the nature of genre assists students to catch the
meanings quickly and to predict what the content has. Each lesson features a
different nonfiction genre. Studying various reading genres will encourage
students to identify their favorite. Reading is often considered a chore for
ESL/EFL students, but if students find their pleasure in reading, they can become
independent readers.

Reciprocal Relation Between L1 and L2 Reading

This unit is for college-level students, so they already have enough
background knowledge, comprehension skills, and reading strategies in their L1.
Proficiency in L1 is proven to be transferable to L2. In a foreign language, the
reader's schemata play a vital role in understanding texts; cultural experiences,
and background knowledge are essential for understanding target texts (Barnett,
1989). Barnett (1989) also states in his book that "the development of students'
control of language is usually a primary concern of foreign language teachers
and, in fact, occupies more class time than does reading. Although initial reading
strategies normally develop in first language reading, experience has shown that
they can develop equally well in foreign language reading" (Hosenfeld, 1979,

In this point of view, teachers have to realize that they already have their
favorite reading style. Therefore, teachers show several various reading
strategies for students and give them their own choice according to their aptitude
and interest.
Expanding Vocabulary

Vocabulary is an important personal asset that can directly contribute to success in college study. Considerable research evidence suggests that the students who are the most successful in school have the largest vocabularies. Expanding vocabulary depends on word awareness, familiarity with information sources, and a system for learning new words. Developing a sense of word awareness means paying attention to and noticing words. Specialized terminology, those words used within an academic discipline, are especially important to learn. While reading textbooks, students have to pay special attention to these words. In Lesson Six, there is a vocabulary chart system to provide an easy way to learn. Each subject area has their own specialized terms to make it possible to describe and discuss accurately topics, principles and concepts, problems, and occurrences related to the subject area.

Vocabulary study is taught in all lessons, and especially new terminology is dealt with in Lessons Five and Six. Teachers teach how to mark new terminology and store them separately. As students progress, a more organized, systematic approach to learning unfamiliar new terms is needed.

Text Comprehension

Because the textbook is most often the primary source of information in a college level, teacher should need to become familiar with techniques for effective teaching. Teachers teach students how to understand as they read and how to acquire new knowledge as they read. Then, teachers also need to teach
strategies of how to identify and organize the important information. When students read poorly organized materials, an outline is very useful strategy to help students determine the relationship of ideas. While summaries are lacking, writing summaries is appropriate. Among several strategies, explicit training in use of inference, cohesion, and coherence is useful to make text understandable and comprehensible. Lesson One offers practice of acknowledging patterns of organization, and Lesson Four contains a summarizing method of understanding text. Throughout the lessons, particular techniques are applied to illustrate particular aspects of effective textbook reading.

**Understanding Content**

The paragraph is a group of related sentences about a single topic. Understanding paragraph structure is a useful strategy in understanding and remembering what has been read. This will also help students know how to write paragraphs more effectively. In Lesson One, Task Chain Analysis, and in Lesson Two, Task Chain Strategies deal with how to identify the topic, how to find the main idea, where to find the topic sentence, and finding unstated main ideas. Once students know paragraph structure, they can apply this to their own paragraphs.

A topic sentence expresses the main idea of the paragraph and directly states the main idea of the paragraph. Students can use this knowledge in their own writing.
**Metacognitive Strategies**

Each lesson contains task chains of critical reading. The goal of these tasks is to comprehend the text clearly. There are a lot of activities to teach metacognitive strategies. Like many daily checking activities, students should check their reading comprehension as they read. Students should assess their performance, in addition to teachers assessing students' understanding. However, because reading is a mental process, it is more difficult to assess than other things. There is very little clear, observable evidence to suggest whether one is on the right track when reading. Comprehension is also difficult to monitor because it is not always either good or poor. One may understand certain ideas one has read and be confused by others. At times, comprehension may be incomplete—students may miss certain key ideas and not know they missed them. Lesson Five and Six present SQ3R and thinking level strategies. Through teaching these skills, teacher can increase students' understanding and check students' progress.

**Genre: Text Characteristics**

The nature of the materials is a key factor in deciding how to approach reading text. The basic knowledge of special genres helps readers to comprehend and predict content easily. The genres displayed in these lesson plans are News Stories, Cultural Stories, Sports Stories, Biography, and Technical Reading. These chosen texts are all from nonfiction and represent typical kinds of content that appear on English tests in Korea. Lesson One
contains analysis for typical vocabulary study in the news genre and a presentation of the elements of the news genre. Lesson Three is for students who like sports stories. This lesson gives students interest in reading, which will lead students to be independent readers. Lessons Five and Six are for college students, to teach the ability to read their major textbooks.

In summary, studying differences in reading genres will give readers different points of view in reading. Therefore, teachers should introduce genre specifics, genre analysis, and strategies in reading based on genre background knowledge. Teachers have to identify difficulty factors in reading and go to the next step to select a strategy to compensate for these factors. The way writers write, the words they use, how they put words together, and how clearly they express ideas all contribute to ease in reading a passage and speed of reading.
CHAPTER FIVE: ASSESSMENT

Purpose of Assessment

In the past, for Korean students, English was not a pleasing subject because students were evaluated only by the score they got from tests. Therefore, no matter what the students knew, the score was the only measurement of how much they had learned in English. For that reason, the students disliked tests. So far, the new trends in English education have changed this shortcoming very little. It has to be clear that the purpose of assessments is not just for grading for students, but for evaluating students’ abilities in specific areas to find the weak points for further improvement. Therefore, the main focus in this chapter is not only on summative assessments but also formative assessments that introduce various checking strategies to improve students’ comprehension.

Cooter (1990) states that the purpose of reading assessment is to provide teachers with an appropriate starting place to begin instruction. That implies not only understanding which reading subskills or abilities students do or do not know, but also knowing something about their background of experiences, subjects for recreational reading that interest them, their family reading habits, and their attitudes about reading. In gaining this important information, reading specialists are confronted with this paradox—we need to gain as much information about the student as possible, but we must never overtest and run the risk of alienating the student (Cooter, 1990).
Perhaps one answer to the question is to select tests and diagnostic procedures adequately in order to provide an accurate cross-section of the student's ability. Then the teacher can begin at a logical starting point and attempt to learn what remains unknown through the art of diagnostic teaching. There are two questions that may help reading specialists to construct this kind of reading diagnostic survey. The first issue is what teachers expect from a student in terms of reading at various placement levels. The second one is how we may assess these abilities in an economical way (Cooter, 1990).

Teacher should check the tests that they use in four integrated areas: reading, listening, writing, and speaking. Results can be combined to determine how a student comprehends the whole content. Teachers should learn how to apply scores on formative tests with principles of instructional design.

**Reading Assessment Strategies**

In fact, some students do not understand what they read until they are questioned in class or to take an exam. Some teachers find that students understand materials only on a surface, factual level, but do not recognize more complicated relationships and implied meanings. Therefore, teachers should select tests with care, and apply the results in class cautiously (Roe et al., 1998).

Teachers shall give students two kinds of tests. Summative tests evaluate students' comprehension level; formative assessments improve and guide students' reading process. Summative tests are usually in written form, such as multiple choice or essay tests, and have standardized criteria for
comparing the students’ score to other students’. Formative tests include both written and oral tests in forms such as discussion, presentation, role play, and so on. Formative tests check the test taker against a given performance criterion as a predetermined standard. Formative assessments include thousands of activities which teachers can create depending on their skill.

**Application of Reading Assessment**

The reading assessment strategies in this chapter are based on the model presented in Chapter Three (Figure 4). Teachers observe whether students have the reading skills which are necessary to deal with the course materials. To do this evaluation appropriately, teachers must be knowledgeable about reading and study skills. There are various assessments that match the steps of the reading process: (1) Prereading assessment; (2) During-reading assessment; (3) Postreading assessment. Each procedure is an important tool and serves certain purposes.

First, in the Prereading stage, the teacher might assess not for the result of the teaching but to focus on what students already know. The main purpose of the assessment in Prereading is bringing out students’ prior knowledge. Because the students’ background knowledge plays a vital role in their comprehension, it is good to assess background knowledge before students read the content. Background knowledge may be assessed through a brainstorming session discussing the topic, by writing the facts that students already know about the topic, and making bridge to connect to further reading. In prereading
steps, teachers can assess students' background knowledge what students already know and do not know. Based on this, teachers determine the ways to teach. Teachers can also provide some basic knowledge for understanding what they will teach in the class. Lesson One and Two stress the assessments on brainstroming, Lesson One and Four focus on drawing students' background knowledge, and Lesson Five and Six emphasize on guessing the meaning of unknown vocabulary. Table 1 shows all the assessments in Lessons One through Six according to the steps of the reading process.

In the During-Reading stage, most assessments are performed. The goal of this stage is in decoding and comprehension, so the assessments are focused on checking the students' progress, finding their weak points, and remedying them for ongoing reading. Among those assessments, metacognitive skill is one of the great skills and will contribute much in the During-Reading stage. Metacognition involves knowing what is known already, knowing when the comprehension of new material has been accomplished, knowing how the understanding was reached, and knowing why something is or is not known (Guthrie, 1983). There are four main study methods for expository texts. SQ3R is for content area reading. ROWAC is for the reading/writing connection and it emphasizes the importance of organization more than SQ3R does. EVOKER is for reading narrative prose, poetry, and drama rather than expository text. Last, SQRQCQ was developed for use with statement or word problems in
mathematics (Roe et al. 1998). The SQ3R study method is tried in the Lesson Five, task sheet 5.3.

Finally, in the Postreading stage of college level reading, teachers not only want students to understand reading materials, but they also want the students to read and acquire the information for their further study. The teacher in this stage will become more aware of what students need to retain. In content reading, this step of the reading process is the main stage of assessment; the summative assessment is in this stage. The kind of assessment shown on Lesson Four, Task Sheet 4.3, II. Discussion and Debate is not familiar to Korean students. However, students need to exercise these kinds of activities not only for the topic but also get familiar with discussion (Cooter, 1990). The following table shows all the formative (F) and summative (S) assessments in this project in the task sheets and the test sheets.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task Sheets</th>
<th>Prereading Assessment</th>
<th>During-Reading Assessment</th>
<th>Postreading Assessment</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>I. WARMING UP</td>
<td>II. WORD USE IN CONTEXT (F)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BRAINSTORMING (F)</td>
<td>III. MAIN IDEA (F)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>I. FEATURE NEWS GENRE (F)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>II. THE IMPORTANCE OF PATTERNS (S)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>I. DECISION MAKING (F)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>II. ROLE PLAY (F)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Sheet</td>
<td>Prereading Assessment</td>
<td>During-Reading Assessment</td>
<td>Postreading Assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Task Sheet 2.1 | I. PREREADING ACTIVITIES (F)  
II. VOCABULARY: NEGATIVE PREFIXES (F) | III. VOCABULARY IN CONTEXT (F) |  |
| Task Sheet 2.2 | I. FINDING TOPIC SENTENCE (F) 
II. DRAWING INFERENCES (F) |  |  |
| Task Sheet 2.3 | I. PREREADING ACTIVITIES (F)  
II.1. GUESSING UNKNOWN VOCABULARY (F) | II. 2. GUESSING MEANING FROM CONTEXT (F) | 1. DISCUSSION AND DEBATE (F)  
II. CRITICAL THINKING  
II. WRITING ACTIVITIES (S) |
| Task Sheet 3.1 | I. PREREADING ACTIVITIES (F)  
II.1. GUESSING UNKNOWN VOCABULARY (F) | II. ANALYZE THE CONTEXT: SKIMMING TECHNIQUES (S) | I. IMPROVING COMPREHENSION (F) |
| Task Sheet 3.2 |  |  |  |
| Task Sheet 3.3 | I. PREREADING ACTIVITIES (F)  
II. VOCABULARY IN CONTEXT (F)  
III. TRANSITIONS (F) |  | I. IMPROVING COMPREHENSION (F) |
| Task Sheet 4.1 | I. PREREADING ACTIVITIES (F)  
II. VOCABULARY IN CONTEXT (F)  
III. TRANSITIONS (F) |  |  |
| Task Sheet 4.2 | I. SUMMARIZING (F) |  |  |
| Task Sheet 4.3 | I. SEMANTIC MAPPING (F) | II. DISCUSSION AND DEBATE (F)  
III. WRITING ACTIVITIES (F) |  |
<p>| Test Sheet 4.1 |  |  | I. SKIMMING (S) |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task Sheet 5.1</th>
<th>Prereading Assessment</th>
<th>During-Reading Assessment</th>
<th>Postreading Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I. VOCABULARY: PREFIXES (F) II. TERMINOLOGY (F)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Sheet 5.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>I. CHART (F) II. LEARNING STRATEGIES: SCANNING (F)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Sheet 5.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>I. LEARNING STRATEGIES: SQ3R (F) II. GETTING THE MESSAGE (F)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test Sheet 5.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>I. READING EXERCISE (S)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Sheet 6.1</td>
<td>I. DRAWING ON BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE (F) II. MAKING VOCABULARY CARDS (F)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Sheet 6.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>I. READING TECHNICAL WRITING (F)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Sheet 6.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>I. THINKING LEVEL (F)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test Sheet 6.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>I. READING EXERCISES (S)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Assessments in six lessons. (F) represents formative tests and (S) represents summative tests.
APPENDIX

UNIT

Lesson One: Feature Stories in the News
Lesson Two: Cultural Stories
Lesson Three: Sports Stories
Lesson Four: Biography
Lesson Five: Technical Reading
Lesson Six: Technical Reading in Biology
Lesson One: Feature Stories in the News

Objectives
1. To differentiate and specify characteristics of the genre feature stories in the news
2. To analyze words/sentence characteristics of feature stories in the news
3. To acquire genre-specific reading strategies for feature stories in the news
4. To apply critical reading to feature stories in the news

Materials
Focus Sheet 1.1
Task Sheet 1.1
Task Sheet 1.2
Task Sheet 1.3

Arousing Interest: Involving Students’ Backgrounds, Interests, and Prior Knowledge
Ask students some questions:
What do you know about the Native Americans?
What do you think about adoption?
What problems can they experience?

Vocabulary:
appealed, jurisdiction, proceedings, staying, circuit, overturn, quest, vitality, custody, pending, rescinded, ward

Task Chain: Analysis
1. Show the picture in Focus Sheet 1.1.
2. Ask students what they feel when they see the picture.
3. Ask some questions related to adoption.
4. Give students Task Sheet 1.1 and teach them the vocabulary in Focus Sheet 1.1.
5. Ask students which kinds of vocabulary are typically used in the genre of news feature story.
6. Teach how to identify the main idea in reading.
7. Give students the concept of main idea and have them complete the exercises in Task Sheet 1.1.

Task Chain: Strategies
1. Give students the definition of the genre of feature writing and several examples.
2. Teach the elements of the genre of news feature writing.
3. Distribute Task Sheet 1.2.
4. Let them solve exercises in Task Sheet 1.2.
5. Explain the patterns of organization to students and make groups with 3 or 4 members to study about patterns.
6. Let them try to find the patterns in this article.
7. Have them compare the answers with other students and discuss why they chose their answers.

Task Chain: Critical Reading
1. Tell them briefly about the background of this news.
2. Distribute Task Sheet 1.3 and let them solve questions in I. DECISION MAKING.
3. Discuss the topic and content that they got from the context.
4. Present their conclusions.
5. Make two different groups which have different opinions.
6. Role play assuming that they are in a court room.
7. Take turns in debate and write their decision.
8. Students write a letter to court pleading the case for or against Loni Rye as mother.

Assessment:
Formative
Prereading
1. Teacher asks students questions related to the topic.
During-reading
1. Assess students with Cloz test.
2. Grade EXERCISE: MAIN IDEA and ask students the answers.
3. Ask the definition of feature news genre.
Postreading
1. Evaluate students' understanding of main idea through solving DECISION MAKING questions.
2. Write an letter to court judge.

Summative
1. Evaluate students with the test EXERCISE: PATTERNS 1. in Task Sheet 1.2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of correct answer</th>
<th>Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4-5</td>
<td>Good  = A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3</td>
<td>Normal = B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Poor   = C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lesson Two: Cultural Stories

Objectives
1. To differentiate and specify characteristics of the genre of cultural stories
2. To analyze words/sentence characteristics of cultural stories
3. To acquire genre-specific reading strategies for cultural stories
4. To apply critical reading to cultural stories

Materials
Focus Sheet 2.1
Focus Sheet 2.2
Task Sheet 2.1
Task Sheet 2.2
Task Sheet 2.3

Arousing Interest: Involving Students' Backgrounds, Interests, and Prior Knowledge
Ask students some questions:
Were you ever misunderstood because of cultural differences?
Do you know any interesting stories related to cultural differences?
Which values in your culture are the most important to you?

Vocabulary:

assumptions, individualism, accommodate, aloof, indecisive

Task Chain: Analysis
1. Ask students about cultural differences and tell them to write five differences between Oriental and Occidental culture.
2. Hand out Focus Sheet 2.1.
3. Tell them to read only the first paragraph and try to find out what the author thinks is important.
5. Vocabulary study with negative prefixes.
6. Develop more vocabulary.

Task Chain: Strategies
1. Pair students.
2. Teach them how to find the topic sentences in the content.
3. Teach them how to locate concrete details.
4. Distribute Focus Sheet 2.1.
5. Teach students to recognize an inference.
6. Give them Task Sheet 2.2 and let them try to figure out what the author says about important social factors.

7. Find more issues in the reading after Focus Sheet 2.2.


Task Chain: Critical Reading
1. After reading Focus Sheet 2.2, students exchange their thoughts with others.
2. Give them Task Sheet 2.3.
3. Choose one out of three topics in I. DISCUSSION AND DEBATE and discuss their opinions with groups.
4. In Task Sheet 2.3, there are five examples of proverbs.
5. Try to find cultural values in proverbs.
6. Write the main ideas based on Focus Sheet 2.2 using their own words.
7. Write number 3 in III. WRITING ACTIVITIES.

Assessment:
Formative
Prereading
1. After read first paragraph, ask about comparing cultural value differences.
2. Evaluate students background knowledge of prefixes.
During-reading
1. Teacher asks students about the concepts of vocabulary.
2. Observe how they find the topic sentences.
3. Answer to the question EXERCISES: INFERENCES and explain the reason with classmates.
Postreading
1. Lead the discussion and check their understanding degree.
2. Compare the differences of cultural values in proverbs.

Summative
1. Estimate students' comprehension level and writing techniques.

➢ The writing assessment criteria are like below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use accurate vocabulary</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4, 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use accurate sentence</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4, 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflect genre specific</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4, 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>characters</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convey meaning clearly</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4, 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization of content</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4, 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4, 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use smooth transition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coherence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good introduction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use adequate examples</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clear conclusion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total score</strong></td>
<td><strong>Grade</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 – 20</td>
<td>Poor = D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 – 30</td>
<td>Normal = C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 – 40</td>
<td>Good = B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 – 50</td>
<td>Very good = A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lesson Three: Sports Stories

Objectives
1. To differentiate and specify characteristics of the genre of sports stories
2. To analyze words/sentence characteristics of sports stories
3. To acquire genre-specific reading strategies for sports stories
4. To apply critical reading to sports stories

Materials
Focus Sheet 3.1
Task Sheet 3.1
Task Sheet 3.2
Task Sheet 3.3

Arousing interest: Involving students' backgrounds, interests, and prior knowledge
Ask students some questions:
What do you know about the Olympics?
Do you know the history of the Olympics?
What kinds of Olympics are there?
What kinds of sports do you like?

Vocabulary:
hail, trekked, embodies, resilience, journey, hang up, settled, buck,
rack up, spawn, suffice

Task Chain: Analysis
1. Teach the way to do prereading.
2. Let students do the prereading after they finish the lesson.
3. Teach the vocabulary, having students guess at the meanings.
5. Let them guess the meaning of unknown words in the context.
6. Let them fill out vocabulary exercises on Task Sheet 3.2.
7. Make small groups and discuss the article.
8. What kinds of words and sentences does this story have?
9. How can people distinguish the sport story genre from others?

Task Chain: Strategies
1. Introduce the approach of pleasure reading.
2. Ask some questions to find out which kinds of reading students like.
3. Teach them why pleasure reading is important.
4. Hand out Task Sheet 3.2.
5. Teach them the technique of skimming.
6. Apply it in reading and solve exercises in Task Sheet 3.2.

Task Chain: Critical Reading
1. Hand out Task Sheet 3.3.
2. Teach them how to improve comprehension.
3. After studying the skills give them time to read Focus Sheet 3.1.
4. Then let them apply the skill in their reading.
5. Ask them some questions about content when they finish reading.
6. Make 3-4 groups and discuss what they feel about the content.
7. Discuss to clarify the parts of the story.

Assessment:
Formative
Prereading
1. Check students’ prereading skills of identifying main idea and their note taking skills.
2. Asking questions to students whether they think guessing unknown vocabulary is helpful.
During-reading
1. Fill out the blank with guessing strategies, and evaluate the guessing method that they used.
2. Assess the skimming skills with EXERCISE: SKIMMING.
Postreading
1. Apply the comprehension skills that students have learned, then let them tell the difficulties they felt while reading.

Summative
1. Fill out the blanks in EXERCISES: SKIMMING in Task Sheet 3.2.

➢ Grade students’ answers based on following score measurements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of correct answer</th>
<th>Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 – 6</td>
<td>Poor = D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 – 10</td>
<td>Normal = C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 – 13</td>
<td>Good = B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 – 16</td>
<td>Very good = A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lesson Four: Biography

Objectives:
1. To differentiate and specify characteristics of Biography
2. To analyze words/sentences characteristic of Biography
3. To acquire genre-specific reading strategies for Biography
4. To apply critical reading to Biography

Materials:
Focus Sheet 4.1
Task Sheet 4.1
Task Sheet 4.2
Task Sheet 4.3
Test Sheet 4.1

Arousing Interest: Involving Students’ Backgrounds, Interests, and Prior Knowledge
Ask students some questions:
- What do you know about Franklin Delano Roosevelt?
- What is a time marker?
- Who is your favorite great man or woman?
- Why do you like him/her?

Vocabulary:

| legislation, delegate, goodwill, oath, orphaned, calisthenics, charitable, paralyzed, fade, inspections, controversial, prodded, syndicated, forcibly |

Task Chain: Analysis
1. Let students brainstorm with classmates.
2. Discuss why they like a specific great man or woman.
4. Find out what the words mean in the context.
5. Students will write the definitions using their own words.
6. Teach them time markers.
7. Let them read Focus Sheet 4.1 considering time markers.
8. Write the events in a chronology.

Task Chain: Strategies
1. Hand out Task Sheet 4.2
2. Teach them how to summarize.
3. Let them read Focus Sheet 4.1.
4. After reading Focus Sheet 4.1, let them summarize the content.
5. Tell the students other ways of organizing the content.
6. Let them fill out Task Sheet 4.2 A.
7. Find the main point of the story and discuss it using their own words.

Task Chain: Critical Reading
1. Teach them what semantic mapping is.
2. Draws a sample semantic map on the board.
3. Let them draw a semantic map according to the content.
4. Compare them with others.
5. Pair students and discuss how to find important facts in content.
6. Discuss more about their personal favorites.
7. Let them write a biography or an autobiography.
8. Find out why they think that they are great.
9. Try to find value differences in biography.

Assessment:
Formative
Prereading
1. Estimate students' interest in the topic by asking several related questions.
During-reading
1. Count the number of correct answers in II. VOCABULARY IN CONTEXT, and choose three difficult words, and explain them.
2. Through EXERCISE: TIME MARKER, appreciate students improving.
3. Measure students' summarizing techniques.
4. Assess their understanding level with semantic map.
Postreading
1. Make groups and discuss the topic and let them evaluate themselves.
2. Grade their one-page essay focus on using at least three time makers, and find misusing time markers.

Summative
1. Distribute Test Sheet 4.1 and let them answer the questions.

➢ The following table shows the grade criteria.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer correctness</th>
<th>Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clear</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A little bit clear</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vague</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrong</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blank</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total score</th>
<th>Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>31 – 40</td>
<td>Very good = A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 – 30</td>
<td>Good = B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 – 20</td>
<td>Normal = C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 – 10</td>
<td>Poor = D</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lesson Five: Technical Reading #1

Topic: AIDS

Objectives
1. To differentiate and specify characteristics of the genre of technical reading
2. To analyze words/sentence characteristics of technical reading
3. To acquire genre-specific reading strategies for technical reading
4. To apply critical reading to technical reading

Materials
Focus Sheet 5.1
Task Sheet 5.1
Task Sheet 5.2
Task Sheet 5.3
Test Sheet 5.1

Arousing Interest: Involving Students' Backgrounds, Interests, and Prior Knowledge
Ask students some questions:
Do know what AIDS is?
What does AIDS stand for?
If you know about the disease, where did you get the knowledge?
What is an immune system?
About how many people have the HIV virus?

Vocabulary:

| acronym, HIV, AIDS, degenerative, transfusion, influenza, mononucleosis, transmit, transplant, diagnose, antibody, epidemic, retrovirus, chromosome, replication |

Task Chain: Analysis
1. Teach students about technical reading vocabulary.
2. Prefixes are very important in technical reading.
3. Hand out Focus Sheet 5.1.
4. Find prefixes in the content.
5. Try to guess meaning with prefixes.
6. Fill out the blanks in Task Sheet 5.1 using their own words.
Task Chain: Strategies
1. Introduce the SQ3R technique.
2. Hand out Task Sheet 5.2.
3. Teach the SQ3R and give students time to read Focus Sheet 5.1.
4. After reading apply the SQ3R and read text again.
5. Ask them how it is different.
6. Study scanning skills.
7. Let them find information in the content.
8. Write at least three details describing the article and compare them with others.

Task Chain: Critical Reading
1. Hand out Task Sheet 5.3.
2. Teach them different types of charts.
3. Show them the examples of charts.
4. Draw flow chart on the board according to Focus Sheet 5.1.
5. Get the message from the content and discuss the ideas from the reading.
6. Make them discuss with pairs if they got different conclusions.
7. Analyze argument and draw conclusion.

Assessment:
Formative
Prereading
1. Evaluate students’ prior knowledge of prefixes.
2. Estimate their terminology with II. TERMINOLOGY.
During-reading
1. Ascertain students’ understanding of various chart through EXERCISE: CHART.
2. Check their scanning skills by solving EXERCISES: SCANNING.
Postreading
1. Observe and check students’ difficulty using SQ3R techniques.
2. Share what they have the messages from the content with classmates.

Summative
1. Assess with Test Sheet 5.1, and have students compare their answers to the answer key.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of correct answer</th>
<th>Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 – 5</td>
<td>Good = A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 – 3</td>
<td>Normal = B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Poor = C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lesson Six: Technical Reading #2

Topic: Technical Reading in Biology

Objectives
1. To differentiate and specify characteristics of the genre of technical reading in biology
2. To analyze words/sentence characteristics of technical reading in biology
3. To acquire genre-specific reading strategies for technical reading in biology
4. To apply critical reading to technical reading in biology

Materials
Focus Sheet 6.1
Focus Sheet 6.2
Task Sheet 6.1
Task Sheet 6.2
Task Sheet 6.3
Test Sheet 6.1

Arousing Interest: Involving Students' Backgrounds, Interests, and Prior Knowledge
Ask students some questions:
What do you know about viruses?
Do they act beneficially or harmfully?
How can they affect our lives?
Are they essential to our world?
What is the difference between a virus and bacteria?

Vocabulary:

virus, bacteriophages, TMV, crystalline, poliomyelitis, precipitated, prokaryote, eukaryotic, lyse, hereditary, DNA, RNA, intriguingly

Task Chain: Analysis
1. Show the pictures in Focus Sheet 6.1.
2. Ask them what they feel when they see the pictures.
3. Explain about microorganisms.
4. Teach specialized terminology which is typically used in Biology.
5. Teach them how to make a vocabulary chart system.
6. Teach acronyms in text.
Task Chain: Strategies
2. Study technical writing and how to read effectively.
3. Find the differences in reading using the criteria on the Task Sheet.
4. Define students' own category characteristics of technical writing.
5. Make small groups and discuss the results with other group members.
6. Have them prepare a speech for class.

Task Chain: Critical Reading
1. Hand out Task Sheet 6.3.
2. Teach students about thinking levels.
3. Tell the importance of thinking level in college study.
4. After study give time to read Focus Sheet 6.1.
5. In the Exercise section, there is one passage from the content.
6. Use the knowledge of what they have already learned.
7. Get information about the structure of virus from other sources.
8. Let students draw the virus structures.
9. While reading put the information that students got from the context.
10. Compare the picture with peers' pictures.
11. Present the differences found in pictures.

Assessment:
Formative
Prereading
1. Evaluate students' prior knowledge by asking technical teams.

During-reading
1. Ask them questions to check that they understand the characteristics of technical writing.

Postreading
1. Observe their solving EXERCISES: LEVEL OF THINKING, and ask answers to students.
2. Discuss difficult questions.

Summative
1. Hand out Test Sheet 6.1 and give 10 minutes to answer the questions, and grade them with following grade measurement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of correct answer</th>
<th>Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 – 5</td>
<td>Good = A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 – 3</td>
<td>Normal = B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Poor = C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(ASHLAND, Ky.) When Loni Rye Weasel first saw 8-month-old Kayla American Horse, the almond-eyed baby wore a shirt that read, "Somebody in South Dakota Loves Me."

Now, somebody in South Dakota wants Kayla back.

More than a decade after the Standing Rock Sioux tribe gave "temporary custody" of Kayla to Rye and her husband, Kim, tribal leaders want the girl, now 11, to leave her Kentucky home and return to their South Dakota reservation.

The case pits the intensely personal against the cultural and political: a woman's love for the child she raised vs. a tribe's quest to keep its children in their own culture.

A Kentucky circuit judge has ruled it's in Kayla's best interest to stay with Rye. But the Standing Rock tribal court seeks to overturn that ruling, on the
grounds that a 1978 federal law gives tribes ultimate jurisdiction over the custody of Indian children.

Rye's mother, Marcella, whom Kayla calls grandmother, says the tribe "just wants to prove a legal point--even if it would absolutely tear the child to pieces."

But Steve Moore of the Native American Rights Fund says cases like Kayla's are pursued because "Indian children are the lifeblood of Indian tribes." With hundreds of custody fights every year, Moore says, "the very vitality of tribes is threatened."

Now that school is out for Kayla, the bubbly 5th-grade graduate should be capering into summer, giggling over her school yearbook and practicing her cheerleading routines.

Instead, she says, she feels sad to see "my mom and my grandmother crying," And she plots where she would hide if anyone came to take her from the people she calls her family.

In late 1983, a Sioux woman named Effie American Horse was struggling with alcoholism and couldn't care for her infant daughter Kayla. Paternity never was officially established, but Kayla's father is believed to be Kim Weasel's brother.

Kim and his wife, Loni, had two toddlers of their own when they saw baby Kayla during a visit to the Standing Rock reservation. "I thought she was the cutest thing I've ever seen," Loni recalls, "and my sister-in-law said Effie was looking for someone to raise her."

In January 1984, the tribal court declared Kayla its ward, and Kim and Loni Rye Weasel her custodians "until further notice." The couple, living off the reservation, raised Kayla with their own children for nearly a decade.

During those years, court records say, the tribe showed no interest in Kayla. When the Weasels asked for financial help three years ago to have a hole in Kayla's heart repaired, the tribe refused.

When the pair separated last year, Kim returned to the Standing Rock reservation. Loni -- whose own heritage is one-fourth Cherokee and Choctaw -- took back the name Rye and moved to Kentucky.

In January, sheriffs served Rye with a tribal court order, rescinding custody and saying the tribe would send an agent to take Kayla to the reservation for new custody proceedings.

"I always had the fear they could come and get her," Rye says. "But I thought if I had her 10 years, surely they wouldn't ask for her back."

Rye got a Boyd County Circuit Court order staying Kayla's removal. Since then, tribal and state courts have jostled over jurisdiction.

The tribe cites the federal Indian Child Welfare Act of 1978, passed to help stem the tide of adoptions off reservations. Unlike other cross-cultural adoption and custody cases where laws may be vague, this act is clear: "Where an Indian child is a ward of a tribal court, the Indian tribe retains exclusive jurisdiction" over the child's placement, it says.
The act gives tribal courts the right to decide custody disputes, unless a state court shows "good cause" for taking jurisdiction.

In April, Boyd County Circuit Judge C. David Hagerman ruled he had good cause to keep the case, because Kayla "has had no contact" with her tribe since her tribe since her infancy; is "happy and well-adjusted" in her Kentucky home; and "would suffer considerable trauma from being removed from the only family she knows."

Standing Rock attorneys appealed Hageman’s decision and have asked the Kentucky Supreme Court to decide the case. That request is pending.

Rye’s lawyer, James Moore, says the high court should refuse the case, lest the custody of an 11-year-old turn into a "turf" war on tribal rights.

It's not clear how many custody cases end with Indian children going back to the reservation, says Toby Grossman of the American Indian Law Center in Albuquerque. But when most tribes number in the low thousands, she says, even one case "is terribly significant."

Lawyer Richard Guarnieri says his client, the Standing Rock tribe, is only asserting its jurisdictional rights under the Indian Child Welfare Act. If Rye, Weasel or others want custody, he says, they can seek it in tribal court.

It is unclear whether Kim Weasel is seeking Kayla's return, or custody; he could not be located for comment. Standing Rock court officials referred calls to their lawyers.

Rye’s family has set up a defense fund for Kayla’s legal bills and collected 1,000 signatures on petitions circulated in Ashland, pleading that Kayla be allowed to stay.

For all this effort, Rye concedes, “I’m afraid the tribe will win.” But she sees Kayla’s face cloud up as she says it, so she moves to reassure.

“We're a family,” Rye declares. “And we're going to get to stay that way.”

(Edmonds in Tiersky, & Dickstein, 1996)
I. WARMING UP: BRAINSTORMING

1. There are two groups, the biological parents and the ethnic group. Which one has rights to the adopted child?

2. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of transracial adoptions.

3. What problems can occur? Discuss these questions in class.

II. WORD USE IN CONTEXT

Complete the following sentences with the vocabulary listed below.

- appealed
- jurisdiction
- proceedings
- staying
- circuit
- overturn
- quest
- vitality
- custody
- pending
- rescinded
- ward

1. Loni Rye won a victory in Kentucky's ________ court.

2. The tribal attorneys have ________ the case to Kentucky's Supreme Court.

3. The Supreme court has not yet decided whether or not to hear this case. The case is ________.

4. Loni Rye wants to retain ________ of Kayla American Horse.

5. In 1984, Kayla was declared a ________ of the tribal court, and that court gave the Weasels temporary custody.

6. In January 1994, the tribal court ________ the Weasels' custody and sent an agent to Kentucky to take Kayla back to the South Dakota reservation.

7. In response, Loni Rye got a court order in Kentucky to ________ the tribal order.

8. Loni Rye could ask the Standing Rock Tribal Court for custody of Kayla in legal ________ on the reservation.
III. MAIN IDEA

One of the most important skills you can develop as a good reader is the ability to recognize the main idea in a piece of writing. When you read something, you should ask yourself the following questions.

➢ What is the main idea the writer is trying to convey?
➢ What does the writer want you to remember about this subject?
➢ How does the writer develop his or her main point?

EXERCISES: MAIN IDEA

What is the main idea in this paragraph?

A Kentucky circuit judge has ruled it's in Kayla's best interest to stay with Rye. But the Standing Rock tribal court seeks to overturn that ruling, on the grounds that a 1978 federal law gives tribes ultimate jurisdiction over the custody of Indian children. Rye's mother, Marcella, whom Kayla calls grandmother, says the tribe "just wants to prove a legal point—even if it would absolutely tear the child to pieces."

Main idea ____________________________.

In April, Boyd County Circuit Judge C. David Hagerman ruled he had good cause to keep the case, because Kayla "has had no contact" with her tribe since her tribe since her infancy; is "happy and well-adjusted" in her Kentucky home; and "would suffer considerable trauma from being removed from the only family she knows."

Main idea ____________________________.
I. FEATURE NEWS GENRE

1. “What is a news feature?”
   A news feature has dimensions and perspectives according to time, place, type of publication, and interests of the audience.

II. THE INGREDIENTS OF FEATURE STORIES IN THE NEWS

Proximity
   The geographic nearness or distance of an event can make a story more or less attractive to the reader. People like to read about what is near them.

Self-identification
   Closely allied to proximity as a news value is the factor of self-identification, or the impact that a development will have personally on the individual.

Prominence
   Names always make news, but stories about well-known people have a higher readership than those about persons in the rank and file.

Consequence
   One important duty of journalist is to keep readers advised on matters of consequence and importance that are developing around them.

Disaster and progress
   Two important news values, disaster and progress, are at opposite ends of the scale. With human psychology as it is, disaster or bad news usually triumphs over progress or good news.

Conflict
   The element of conflict is present in many daily situations: sports events, elections, debates, control of a corporation, and arguments among legislators at the national, state, or local levels, for example.

EXERCISES: INGREDIENTS OF NEWS FEATURES

1. Try to find above elements of news features in the Focus Sheet 1.1.
2. Compare them with your partner and explain why you chose them.

III. THE IMPORTANCE OF PATTERNS

Scientists say that it is human nature to look for patterns in what you see. Your brain is always trying to make sense of the world around you. It tries to fit everything into some kind of recognizable shape or pattern that has meaning for you. A pattern makes it easier for your brain to understand and remember information.

Now, you will learn to recognize four basic patterns that writers often use in developing their ideas. Finding the pattern helps you find the main idea. Thus, looking for patterns is a way to improve your comprehension skills.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listing</td>
<td>The writer’s main idea is stated in the form of a generalization. This is followed by a list of supporting details.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence</td>
<td>The writer’s main idea includes a series – events or steps that follow one after another.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison/Contrast</td>
<td>The writer’s main idea explains similarities and/or differences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause-Effect</td>
<td>When the main idea is that one event or action causes another, authors use the cause-effect pattern.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Mikulecky & Jeffries, 1996)

EXERCISES: PATTERNS

1. Each of the sentences below is written in one of the four patterns. Guess the name of the pattern of each sentence. Find the pattern and write on the line in front of each sentence.

1. Nicole and Bridgette woke up very early on the morning of the international roller skating competition and ate a quick breakfast.
2. The roller skating rink in Miami was much larger than the rink in their home town in France.

3. Among the competitors, there were skaters from Japan, Korea, Australia, Russia, Argentina, and many other countries.

4. Since the competition was taking place in the United States, the largest group of competitors was American.

5. The competition began in mid-morning with free skating for couples, and the first scores were posted after lunch.

2. Find the pattern of organization of this article in Focus Sheet 1.1. You can find one or more patterns.

3. Explain to classmates why you think so.
Task Sheet 1.3
Task Chain: Critical Reading

I. DECISION MAKING

If you were the circuit court judge hearing Kayla’s case, which of the following factors would you consider when making your decision? Discuss the factors in small groups. Then mark each statement “R” for relevant or “I” for irrelevant. Compare your answers with other groups' in the class.

2. Kayla wants to continue to live with Loni Rye.
3. Loni Rye has other children, her own biological offspring.
4. The Standing Rock Sioux tribe refused to pay for Kayla’s heart surgery.
5. An Indian tribe has the right to decide the custody of an Indian child.
6. Kayla is happy now.
7. Kayla had no contact with her tribe while she was living in South Dakota.
8. Kayla will hide if anyone tries to take her from Loni Rye.

II. ROLE PLAY

A. Learning Together

1. Working in small groups, develop a compromise plan that could settle Kayla’s case. Write it up as if you were a judge deciding this case in a circuit court.

2. With a partner, discuss Loni Rye’s situation and how she could have avoided it. What mistakes do you think she made? What steps could she have taken to protect Kayla from this situation? What do you think Loni Rye should do next?

B. Responding In Writing.

1. Imagine that you are Kayla. Write an open letter to the circuit court judge and the tribal court expressing your viewpoint.

(Tiersky & Dickstein, 1996)
Focus Sheet 2.1
Cultural Stories: American Values and Assumption

As people grow up, they learn certain values and assumptions from their parents and other relatives, their teachers, their books, newspapers, and television programs. "Values" are ideas about what is right and wrong, desirable and undesirable, normal and abnormal, proper and improper. In some cultures, for example, people are taught that men and women should inhabit separate social worlds, with some activities clearly in the men's domain and others clearly in the women's. In other cultures that value is not taught, or at least not widely. Men and women are considered to have more or less equal access to most roles in the society.

"Assumptions," as the term is used here, are the postulates, the unquestioned givens about people, life, and "the way things are."... People in some societies assume, for example, that education takes place most efficiently when respectful young people absorb all they can of what older, wiser people already know. The young people do not challenge or even discuss what they are taught. The assumption is that learners are seeking wisdom which comes with age. Young and inexperienced people are not wise enough to know what is worth discussing.

People in other societies assume that education requires learners to question and challenge the older "expert" when the expert's ideas disagree with the learner's. The assumption is that learners are seeking knowledge, which a person can obtain regardless of age or social standing.

People who grow up in a particular culture share certain values and assumptions. That does not mean they all share exactly the same values to exactly the same extent; it does mean that most of them, most of the time, agree with each other's ideas about what is right and wrong, desirable and undesirable, and so on. They also agree, mostly, with each other's assumptions about human nature, social relationships and so on.

(Althen, G., in Gardner, 1996)
INDIVIDUALISM AND PRIVACY

The most important thing to understand about Americans is probably their devotion to "individualism." They have been trained since very early in their lives to consider themselves as separate individuals who are responsible for their own situations in life and their own destinies. They have not been trained to see themselves as members of a close-knit, tightly interdependent family, religious group, tribe, nation, or other collectivity.

You can see it in the way Americans treat their children. Even very young children are given opportunities to make their own choices and express their opinions. A parent will ask a one-year-old child what color balloon she wants, which candy bar she would prefer, or whether she wants to sit next to mommy or daddy. The child's preference will normally be accommodated.

Through this process, Americans come to see themselves as separate human beings who have their own opinions and who are responsible for their own decisions.

Indeed, American child-rearing manuals (such as Dr. Benjamin Spock's famous *Child and Baby Care*) state that the parents' objective in raising a child is to create a responsible, self-reliant individual who, by the age of 18 or so, is ready to move out of the parents' house and make his or her own way in life. Americans take this advice very seriously, so much so that a person beyond the age of about 20 who is still living at home with his or her parents may be thought to be "immature," "tied to the mother's apron strings," or otherwise unable to lead a normal independent life.

Americans are trained to conceive of themselves as separate individuals, and they assume everyone else in the world is too. When they encounter a person from abroad who seems to them excessively concerned with the opinions of parents, with following traditions, or with fulfilling obligations to others, they assume that the person feels trapped or is weak, indecisive, or "overly dependent." They assume all people must resent being in a situation where they are not "free to make up their own minds." They assume, furthermore, that after living for a time in the United States people will come to feel liberated from constraints arising outside themselves and will be grateful for the opportunity to "do their own thing" and "have it their own way."

It is this concept of themselves as individual decision-makers that blinds least some Americans to the fact that they share a culture with each other. They have the idea, as mentioned above, that they have independently made up their own minds about the values and assumptions they hold. The notion that social
factors outside themselves have made them "just like everyone else" in important ways offends their sense of dignity.

Americans, then, consider the ideal person to be an individualistic, self-reliant, independent person. They assume, incorrectly, that people from elsewhere share this value and this self-concept. In the degree to which they glorify "the individual" who stands alone and makes his or her own decisions, Americans are quite distinctive.

The individual that Americans idealize prefers an atmosphere of freedom where neither the government nor any other external force or agency dictates what the individual does. For Americans, the idea of individual freedom has strong, positive connotations.

By contrast, people from many other cultures regard some of the behavior Americans legitimize by the label "individual freedom" to be self-centered and lacking in consideration for others. Mr. Wilson and his mother are good American individualists, living their own lives and interfering as little as possible with others. Mohammad Abdullah found their behavior almost immoral.

Foreigners who understand the degree to which Americans are imbued with the notion that the free, self-reliant individual is the ideal kind of human being will be able to understand many aspects of American behavior and thinking that otherwise might not make sense. A very few of the many possible examples:

Americans see as heroes those individuals who "stand of from the crowd" by doing something first, longest, most often, or otherwise "best." Examples are aviators Charles Lindbergh and Amelia Earhart. Americans admire people who have overcome adverse circumstances (for example, poverty or a physical handicap) and "succeeded" in life. Black educator Booker T. Washington is one example; the blind and deaf author and lecturer Helen Keller is another.

Many Americans do not display the degree of respect for their parents that people in more traditional or family-oriented societies commonly display. They have the conception that it was a sort of historical or biological accident that put them in the hands of particular parents, that the parents fulfilled their responsibilities to the children while the children were young, and now that the children have reached "the age of independence" the close child-parent tie is loosened, if not broken.

It is not unusual for Americans who are beyond the age of about 22 and who are still living with their parents to pay their parents for room and board.

Elderly parents living with their grown children may do likewise. Paying for room and board is a way of showing independence, self-reliance, and responsibility for oneself.
Certain phrases one commonly hears among Americans capture their devotion to individualism: "Do your own thing." "I did it my way." "You'll have to decide that for yourself." "You made your bed, now lie in it." "If you don't look out for yourself, no one else will." "Look out for number one."

Closely associated with the value they place on individualism is the importance Americans assign to privacy. Americans assume that people "need some time to themselves' or "some time alone" to think about things or recover their spent psychological energy. Americans have great difficulty understanding foreigners who always want to be with another person, who dislike being alone.

If the parents can afford it, each child will have his or her own bedroom. Having one's own bedroom, even as an infant, inculcates in a person the notion that she is entitled to a place of her own where she can be by herself and-notice-keep her possessions. She will have her clothes, her toys, her books, and so on. These things will be hers and no one else's.

Americans assume that people have their "private thoughts' that might never be shared with anyone. Doctors, lawyers, psychiatrists, and others have rules governing "confidentiality" that are intended to prevent information about their clients' personal situations from becoming known to others.

Americans' attitudes about privacy can be difficult for foreigners to understand. Americans' houses, yards, and even their offices can seem open and inviting, yet, in the Americans' minds, there are boundaries that other people are simply not supposed to cross. When the boundaries are crossed, the Americans' bodies will visibly stiffen and their manner will become cool and aloof.

(Althen, G., in Gardner, 1996)
Task Sheet 2.1
Task Chain: Analysis

I. PREREADING ACTIVITIES

1. Read the first paragraph and find the author's discussion about the concept of values. Write a list of three or four major values in your native culture. Share your list with several classmates.

2. Compare the following values and write K for Korea or A for America to indicate the cultural values of the countries.
   a. History doesn't matter; it's the future that counts.
   b. With enough determination and hard work, a person can accomplish almost anything.
   c. Nature should be controlled and used in the service of human beings.
   d. The mass media shape people's values and behaviors more than any other cultural institution.
   e. Any person's opinion is as valid and worthy of consideration as anyone else's.
   f. Children should be encouraged to move away from home when they are around eighteen years old.
   g. Don't worry about tomorrow; enjoy today.
   h. It's better to help yourself than to accept help from other people.

3. In your reading journal, spend fifteen minutes on writing about any cultural differences you've noticed while living in a foreign country.

II. VOCABULARY: NEGATIVE PREFIXES

In English, there are many prefixes that indicate something negative (that is, meaning "not," "the opposite of," or "lacking in"): un-, in-, im-, il-, ir-, a-, non-, dis-
1. Following are words from the reading, each with the negative prefix removed. Attach the proper negative prefix. Then find the words in the text and check your answers.

a. ___questioned
b. ___experienced
c. ___mature
d. ___decisive
e. ___respectful
f. ___patient
g. ___human
h. ___adequately
i. ___emotional
j. ___directly

III. VOCABULARY: IN CONTEXT

In this exercise, you will develop your vocabulary by using words and idioms in a realistic context.

a. Something to which most people in your native culture have (or do not have) access.

b. Several characteristics of a close-knit family

c. Someone you think stands out from the crowd, and why

d. One or two values you would like to have inculcated in your children, and why

e. Why someone might behave in an aloof manner

(Gardner, 1996)
Task Sheet 2.2
Task Chain: Strategies

I. FINDING THE TOPIC SENTENCE

1. With the partner, read through and underline the topic sentence in each paragraph in Focus Sheet 2.2. At what point does this sentence appear? Do any of the paragraphs have an implied topic sentence?

2. In “American Values and Assumptions,” author provides a number of concrete details to support the points. Write a general sentence that describes the main idea the statement is supporting or illustrating.

   a. “A parent will ask a one-year-old child what color balloon she wants, which candy bar she would prefer, or whether she wants to sit next mommy or daddy.” (Focus Sheet 2.2)

      Main idea: ____________________________________________.

   b. “Early Americans cleared forests, drained swamps, and altered the course of rivers in order to ‘build’ the country.” (Focus Sheet 2.2)

      Main idea: ____________________________________________.

II. DRAWING INFERENCES

Sometimes, a writer does not directly state the main idea of a given paragraph in a topic sentence. Instead, they leave it up to the reader to infer what the main idea of the paragraph is. This type of paragraph contains only details or specifics that relate to a given topic and substantiate an unstated main idea. Start with stated main ideas and ask yourself the question for finding the topic: What is the one thing the author is discussing throughout the paragraph? Then try to think of a sentence about the topic that all the details included in the paragraph would support. The ability to make inferences is very important in reading. You often need to infer the topic or main idea of a text, the author’s opinion, or other information.

Example: Try to infer what “it” is in this passage.
I found it in the middle of the sidewalk on my way home from school one spring morning. It was very tiny and it was hardly breathing when I picked it up. I fed it raw meat and other treats for several weeks. Soon, it became strong and started to hop around. One
day, someone left a window open. When I came home from work, I discovered that it had disappeared.

What is “it?”

a. In discussing Americans, Althen says: “The notion that social factors outside themselves have made them ‘just like everyone else’ in important ways offends their sense of dignity” (Focus Sheet 2.1). Fill the following blanks with four or five social factors that you think foster, or encourage, similarities among people in a particular culture.

**Important Social Factors**

1. 
2. 
3. 
4. 

b. Think of a question of your own to ask your classmates about an issue raised in the reading.

**EXERCISES: DRAWING INFERENCES**

When people first began to try to fly in the 18th century, they used hot-air balloons. However, it was not really possible to control the balloons. They went whether the wind was blowing. The idea of a real flying machine remained a dream for a long time to come. The dream finally came true in 1903. That year Wilbur and Orville Wright

a. invented a new kind of engine.

b. made their first successful flight in an airplane.

c. flew across the Atlantic Ocean.

d. wrote a book about their flying experiences.
Task Sheet 2.3
Task Chain: Critical Reading

I. DISCUSSION AND DEBATE

Discuss one of the following:

1. What a foreign visitor to your country should know about its values and assumptions in order to avoid cross-cultural misunderstandings.

2. A cross-cultural misunderstanding that you personally experienced.

3. A topic of your own choice related to “American Values and Assumptions”.

II. CRITICAL THINKING

1. According to the reading, what is the most important thing to understand about American culture? Why?

2. In a small group, discuss a time when you lived in another culture. What differences in values and assumptions did you find? Think about beliefs, behaviors, customs, and other cultural patterns. Did you experience any problems or misunderstandings?

3. Write a list of the preconceptions you had of another country. Consider both positive and negative aspects of the culture. Then share your list with several classmates. Discuss the following questions:

   ➢ What is the origin of the preconceptions?
   ➢ Did any of them turn out to be stereotypes?
   ➢ If so, did this cause any problems?

4. One way to get a sense of the values of a culture is to look at its proverbs. The following are proverbs in English. Discuss the proverbs as time allows. Consider the meaning of each proverb, a situation in which it might be used, and the value(s) it embodies. Choose the value(s) that matches each proverb from the list at right values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proverb</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. ___“Don’t cry over spilt milk.”</td>
<td>1. Non-emotionalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. ___“God helps those who help themselves.”</td>
<td>2. Assertiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. ___“Too many cooks spoil the broth.”</td>
<td>3. Individuality</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
c. "You can lead a horse to water but you can't make it drink."

d. "The squeaky wheel gets the grease."

III. WRITING ACTIVITIES

1. In one or two sentences, write down the main idea you think Althen is trying to convey in “American Values and Assumptions.” Use your own words.

2. In a small group, write five statements about different cultures that contain value judgments (statements containing opinions of good and bad), either positive or negative. Consider various culture aspects like family, education, national character, and climate.

Examples
    Koreans are well educated.
    Japanese are hard working.

3. Write about something that you want to recommend if you meet an immigrant to your country. Discuss the major cultural values and assumptions that they should know to adapt more easily and avoid cross-cultural misunderstandings.

4. Althen defines values as “idea about what is right and wrong, desirable and undesirable, normal and abnormal, proper and improper.” Do you agree with the definition of a value? Make a new definition in your own words.

   (Gardner, 1996)
TERESA EDWARDS

With the long wait for the start of the Centennial Olympic Games nearly over, we thought it might be time to examine a U.S. Olympian who appears, in many ways, to be the perfect symbol for the entire U.S. team.

Teresa Edwards, who hails from Cairo, GA., is already the first American basketball player to compete in three Olympic Games, and is about to make it four. She currently resides in Atlanta, but has trekked around the world on the way to returning home for a chance at her third Olympic gold medal. Like many U.S. Olympic veterans, Edwards decided to give it one more try due to the fact that the Games will be on American soil. Edwards embodies the sacrifice, hard work and resilience that these Olympic Games are all about.

While still a collegian, Edwards won an Olympic gold medal in 1984 as the youngest member of a U.S. women’s team that included legends Cheryl Miller and Lynette Woodard. Like most women’s basketball players do after college (University of Georgia, 1986), Edwards went to play professional ball overseas, first in Italy (1987-88). She journeyed home prior to the 1988 Games in Seoul, where she averaged 16.6 points per game to propel the U.S. women to another gold medal. She then went back overseas, this time to Japan, to resume her pro career (1990-93).
Something funny happened during that time. As usual, in the late spring of 1992, Edwards returned to the U.S. to compete in the Olympic Trials, make the Olympic Team and win another gold medal. Only this time, they didn't win.

The gold medal in a uniquely American game had been won by the Unified Team (republics formerly of the Soviet Union). The U.S. settled for the bronze, and Edwards was ready to hang up her Olympic high-tops.

She didn't, thanks to her mother. With the Atlanta Games already set, Teresa's mom wanted nothing more than to see her daughter play in an Olympics close to home, and urged her not to end a stellar Olympic career on a sour note.

"I hope it (playing near home) makes the Games more special," Edwards said. "It means a lot to my mom. After we lost in Barcelona, I said no when she asked if I would come back for this one."

Edwards is back, but it's not just for the gold this time. She and the other members of the U.S. team bucked a professional sports trend by spending the last year with the first-of-its-kind U.S. Women's National Team, which has played in exhibitions and tournament all over the U.S. and around the world in the name of promoting women's basketball. And, in most cases, they did it for substantially less money than they would have earned overseas.

The team has done anything and everything in the name of their sport. They've appeared on numerous television shows, and done countless photo shoots. All the players have signed stacks upon stacks of autographs, making it a point to stick around until every one was signed. The team traveled to China, Siberia and Australia for tournaments, racking up frequent-flier miles, and has spent at least half of the past year living in hotel rooms.

The dedication has paid off in the name of huge publicity for the team (they appear on the cover of the Sports Illustrated Olympic Preview Issue), and spawned not one, but two U.S. women's professional leagues that will begin play later this year. Many are amazed at the attention the team has gotten, but Edwards isn't. She could see it coming for a long time.

"I'm probably one of the few who dreamed that this could happen for women's basketball in America," Edwards commented. "I knew it could happen. It's entertaining, and we've always had a fundamental fan base. Now, it's starting to grow."
Through July 12, with one pre-Olympic exhibition left, the team has won 51 games without a defeat. That's great, but the Olympics are here, so the work isn't done. Nothing short of a return to the top of the medal stand will suffice.

We're very confident in our abilities and in what we can do," said Edwards. "But we have a lot of respect for the other teams. They've proven they can win just as well as we can... If we cap it all of with a gold medal, then we've done something."

With Edwards still playing well – she starts at point guard for the U.S. team and leads it in assists -- it seems possible that she might come back for a fifth Olympic Games. Is it?

"No," she laughed. "I don't care what my mom says."

Oh, yeah – we forgot something. July 19, the day the athletes of the world come together for the Olympic Games Opening Ceremony, is Teresa’s 32nd birthday. Happy Birthday, Teresa. Go win another gold medal. Nobody deserves it more than you do.

(NBC Sports Presents, 1996)
Task Sheet 3.1
Task Chain: Analysis

I. PREREADING

The purposes of prereading are to identify the most important ideas in the material and note their organization. You look only at specific parts and skip over the rest. The portions to look at in prereading a textbook chapter are described in the following paragraphs.

1. Read the title
   The title provides the overall topic of the article or chapter; the subtitle suggests the specific focus, aspect, or approach toward the overall topic.

2. Read the introduction or first paragraph
   The introduction or first paragraph serves as a lead-in to the context. It gives you an idea of where the material is starting and where it is heading.

3. Read the first sentence under each heading
   The first sentence frequently tells you what the passage is about or states the central thought. You should be aware, however, that in some types of material or in certain styles of writing the first sentence does not function as a central thought. Instead, the opening sentence may function as a transition or lead-in statement, or read the last sentence; often this sentence states or restates the central thought.

4. Read the last paragraph or summary
   The summary or last paragraph gives a condensed view of the chapter and helps you identify key ideas. Often the summary outlines the key points.

5. Read quickly any end-of article material
   This might include references, study questions, vocabulary lists, or biographical information about the author. If there are study questions, it is useful to read them through quickly since they will indicate what is important in the content. If a vocabulary list is included, rapidly skim through it to identify terms you will need to learn as you read.

(McWhorter, 1995)
II. VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE FOR EFFECTIVE READING

1. Guessing unknown vocabulary

What do you usually do when you come to a word you do not know in your reading? The best strategy for dealing with an unknown word is to try to guess what it means.

This strategy
➢ is fast because you do not interrupt your reading.
➢ helps your comprehension because you stay focused on the general sense of what you are reading.
➢ helps build vocabulary because you are more likely to remember the words.
➢ allows you to enjoy your reading more because you do not have to stop often.

2. Guessing meaning from context in sentences

When you try to guess meaning of an unknown word, you use the text surrounding the word – the context. One sentence may be enough to give you the meaning, or you may need to use a longer passage.

1) Find the meaning of the following verbs in the context.
   a. hail
   b. embodies
   c. resilience
   d. rack up
   e. spawn
   f. suffice

2) Discuss following question in small groups.
   What are the differences between this and other genre articles?
   What are the main characteristics of this genre?
   What is the author’s goal in this article?
I. READING STRATEGY: READING FOR PLEASURE

One of the best ways to improve your reading is by reading. The best readers are people who love to read and who read a lot. The easiest way to learn to read is by reading for pleasure. Reading for pleasure is different from the reading for study. When you read for pleasure, you choose the book that you read. You can read whatever you want. It is not what you read, but your enjoyment that matters. When you read for pleasure, you will not be tested about what you have read. All you have to do is enjoy the book.

What are the advantages of reading for pleasure? Many educators have found that it can help you to be more successful in many ways. Reading for pleasure can:

- improve vocabulary
- increase reading speed
- improve reading comprehension.
- help improve writing.
- give you a chance to gain more knowledge.
- provide examples of the many different ways people speak and write in English.

1. Ask yourself what kinds of books you read.
2. Do you have any favorite type of books?
3. What do you like about these?
4. What makes you read books?

(Mikulecky & Jeffries, 1996)

II. ANALYZE THE CONTEXT: SKIMMING TECHNIQUES

Sometimes you do not need to read all parts of the article or get all the information, or you do not intend to read it more completely later. Skimming is a useful skill in reading. Skimming refers to the process of reading only main ideas within a passage and simply glancing at the remainder of the material. Skimming is used to get an overall picture of the
material, to become generally familiar with the topics and ideas presented, or to get the gist of a particular work. You are willing to settle for an overview of the article, giving up a major portion of the details.

At this point, you may be thinking that skimming seems similar to the technique of prereading. Prereading is actually a form of skimming. To be more precise, there are three forms of skimming:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preread skimming</th>
<th>You plan to read the entire article or chapter and that you are prereading as a means of getting ready to read.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skim-reading</td>
<td>Skim-reading refers to situations in which skimming is the only coverage you plan to give the material.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review skimming</td>
<td>Review skimming assumes you have already read the material and are going back over it as a means of study and review.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

How to Skim-Read

Your purpose in skimming is to get an overall impression of the content of a reading selection. The technique of skimming involves selecting and reading those parts of the selection that contain the most important ideas and merely glancing at the rest of the material. Below is a step-by-step procedure to follow in skimming for main ideas.

1. Read the title.
   If the piece is an article, check the author, publication date, and source.

2. Read the introduction.
   If it is very long, read only the first paragraph completely. Read the first sentence. Usually the first sentence will be a statement of the main idea of that paragraph.

3. Read any headings and subheadings.
   The headings, when taken together, form an outline of the main topics that are covered in the material.

4. Notice any pictures, charts, or graphs; these are usually included to emphasize important ideas, concepts, or trends.

5. If you do not get enough information from the headings, read the first sentence of each paragraph.

6. Glance at the remainder of the paragraph.
EXERCISES: SKIMMING

1. Find the main events and details

   Teresa Edwards, who hails from Cairo, Ga., is already the first
   American basketball player to compete in three Olympic Games, and is about
   to make it four. She currently resides in Atlanta, but has trekked around the
   world on the way to returning home for a chance at her third Olympic gold
   medal. Like many U.S. Olympic veterans, Edwards decided to give it one
   more try due to the fact that the Games will be on American soil. Edwards
   embodies the sacrifice, hard work and resilience that these Olympic Games
   are all about.

   Event
   Detail

   Edwards is back, but it's not just for the gold this time. She and the other
   members of the U.S. team bucked a professional sports trend by spending
   the last year with the first-of-its-kind U.S. Women's National Team, which has
   played in exhibitions and tournament all over the U.S. and around the world in
   the name of promoting women's basketball. And, in most cases, they did it for
   substantially less money than they would have earned overseas.

   Event
   Detail

   Through July 12, with one pre-Olympic exhibition left, the team has won
   51 games without a defeat. That's great, but the Olympics are here, so the
   work isn't done. Nothing short of a return to the top of the medal stand will
   suffice.

   Event
   Detail
Task Sheet 3.3
Task Chain: Critical Reading

I. IMPROVING COMPREHENSION

You have learned how to recognize clues that signal strong or weak understanding of reading material and how to assess your comprehension. This section will offer some suggestions to follow when you realize you need to strengthen your comprehension.

1. Analyze the time and place in which you are reading.
   If you have been reading or studying for several hours, mental fatigue may be the source of the problem. If you are reading in a place with distractions or interruptions, you might not be able to understand what you are reading.

2. Rephrase each paragraph in your own words.
   You might need to approach complicated material sentence by sentence, expressing each in your own words.

3. Read aloud sentences or sections that are particularly difficult.
   Reading out loud sometimes makes complicated material easier to understand.

4. Read difficult or complicated sections.
   In fact, at times several readings are appropriate and necessary.

5. Slow down your reading rate.
   On occasion, simply reading more slowly and carefully will provide you with the needed boost in comprehension.

6. Write guide questions next to headings.
   Refer to your questions frequently and jot down or underline answers.

7. Write brief outline of major points.
   This will help you see the overall organization and progression of ideas.

8. Underline key ideas.
   After you have read a section, go back and think about and underline what is important. Underlining forces you to sort out what is important, and this sorting process builds comprehension and recall.

9. Write notes in the margins.
Explain or rephrase difficult or complicated ideas or sections.

10. Determine if you lack background knowledge. Comprehension is difficult, or at times impossible, if you lack essential information that the writer assumes you have. Suppose you are reading a section of a political science text in which the author describes implications of the balance of power in the Third World. You will not understand the concept of balance of power and your comprehension will break down. When you lack background information, take immediate steps to correct the problem:

- Consult other sections of your text, using the glossary and index.
- Obtain a more basic text that reviews fundamental principles and concepts.
- Consult reference materials
- Ask your instructor to recommend additional sources, guidebooks, or review texts.

(McWhorter, 1995)
ROOSEVELT, ANNA ELEANOR (1884 – 1962) was the wife of Franklin Delano Roosevelt, thirty-second president of the United States, and a political personality in her own right. She influenced not only domestic legislation but also the activities of other nations as a U.S. delegate to the United Nations and as a goodwill ambassador abroad. Eleanor Roosevelt was born in New York City on Oct. 11, 1884. Elliott, her father, was the younger brother of Theodore Roosevelt and her mother, Anna Hall, was a direct descendant of Chancellor Robert R. Livingston, who administered the oath of office to George Washington. Eleanor was orphaned at age ten and raised by her grandmother, Mary Hall, in upstate New York. She grew to be almost 6 feet (1.8 meters) tall with brown hair and blue eyes. For a short time she studied with tutors, then at fifteen the painfully shy girl went to England where she spent three years at Allenswood, a private school outside London. On her return home in 1902, she made her debut, joined the Junior League, and taught calisthenics and dancing at a settlement house in the slums of New York City.

Her father was a godfather to her distant cousin, Franklin D. Roosevelt of Hyde Park, N.Y., with whom she played as a child. They met occasionally as they were growing up, formed a serious attachment for each other in 1903, when Franklin was at Harvard, and married in 1905 despite his mother's opposition. Her uncle, Pres. Theodore Roosevelt, gave the bride away.

During the early years of her husband's political career, she had six children; five sons and a daughter. Her second son died at six months of influenza.

Mrs. Roosevelt first became aware of politics in 1911 when her husband served in the New York State Senate. She found it distasteful, though she later enjoyed the social and charitable activities that went into being the wife of the assistant secretary of the U.S. Navy during President Wilson's administration. It was only after her husband was paralyzed by poliomyelitis in 1921 that she developed an interest in politics. Tutored by Louis Howe, Franklin D. Roosevelt's political mentor, she became politically active and participated in several women's organizations involved with social legislation. It was Howe's intention to use her to reawaken her crippled husband's interest in the outside world. He taught Mrs. Roosevelt to speak in public and analyze political situations, and helped her to write magazine articles on women's problems.

However, once her husband returned to the political arena, she did not fade into the background. In 1926, she started a furniture factory at Hyde Park to help the unemployed. The next year she became assistant principal and taught American history and literature at Todhunter School in New York. In 1928, when her husband ran for governor in New York, she served as director of women's activities for Alfred E. Smith in his presidential campaign against Herbert Hoover.
During Franklin's two terms as governor, Eleanor Roosevelt served as his 'legs and eyes,' and made many inspections of state institutions at his request. She expanded this activity after he became president in March 1933. For this and several other activities, Mrs. Roosevelt became known as the most controversial first lady in history. Not content with restricting her role to that of White House social hostess, she advised her husband, helped foster legislation, such as the National Youth Administration, spoke her mind publicly on issues, and prodded all levels of government to improve housing, education, health, and the status of minority groups. She also wrote *My Day*, a syndicated column running in 140 papers, a monthly magazine column, and several books, as well as making lecture tours that covered 50,000 miles a year. All the profits from these ventures were donated to charity.

During World War II, Mrs. Roosevelt continued inspections for her husband and made goodwill tours at his request to England, the South Pacific, and the Caribbean zone. She also visited dozens of military camps inside the United States and reported her findings to the President. For a short time, 1941-1942, she held her only official government job, as assistant director of the office of civilian defense under Fiorello La Guardia.

When her husband died on Apt. 12, 1945, Eleanor Roosevelt told reporters: "The story is over." However, she accepted an appointment from President Truman later in the year to serve as a member of the U.S. delegation to the United Nations. During this period, she took special interest in refugee matters and was chairman of the Human Rights Commission of the UN Economic and Social Council. Fellow American delegates to the UN General Assembly's first session at London in January 1946 credited her with winning the fight to save 1,000,000 refugees from being forcibly returned to Communist countries. Mrs. Roosevelt was instrumental in writing and passing the Declaration of Human Rights.

She left the United Nations in 1952, but returned in 1961 when Pres. John F. Kennedy appointed her a U.S. delegate to the 15th session of the UN General Assembly. In the intervening years she became active again in Democratic Party politics. During the presidential elections of 1952 and 1956, she campaigned for Adlai E. Stevenson. At the 1960 Democratic convention, she pressed for a Stevenson-Kennedy ticket. In 1959, she joined in a drive to consolidate the Democratic reform movement in New York City. Her superabundant energy found many outlets, including newspaper and magazine columns, radio and television appearances, and lecture tours. She died on Nov. 7, 1962, in New York City, and was buried next to her husband at Hyde Park.

(Steinberg, A., in Mikulecky & Jeffries, 1996)
I. PREREADING ACTIVITIES

1. Exchange information about Anna Eleanor Roosevelt.

2. Think about your favorite great person and write the name.

3. Why is this person your favorite?

4. Share your list and reasons with several classmates.

II. VOCABULARY IN CONTEXT

1. The following words are from the reading. Find the meaning of the words in the text and define the meaning of each word in your own words. Check your answers with a classmate.

   a. legislation  
b. delegate  
c. goodwill  
d. oath  
e. orphaned  
f. calisthenics  
g. charitable  
h. paralyzed  
i. fade  
j. inspections  
k. controversial  
l. prodded  
m. syndicated
III. TRANSITIONS

Transitions are linking words or phrase used to lead the reader from one idea to another. If you get used to recognizing transitions, you will see that they often guide you to help read content more easily.

In the text, notice how the underlined transitions lead you from one important detail to the next.

Not all paragraphs contain obvious transitions, and not all transitions marks major details. Transitions may be used to alert you to what will come next in the paragraph. If you see the phrase for instance at the beginning of a sentence, then you know that an example will follow. When you see the phrase on the other hand, you can predict that a different, opposing idea will follow.

The table below lists some of the most common transitions used within paragraphs and indicates what they tell you (McWhorter, 1995).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of transition</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>What they tell the reader</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time marker</td>
<td>First, later, next, finally</td>
<td>The author is arranging ideas in the order in which they happened.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example</td>
<td>For example, for instance, to illustrate, such as</td>
<td>An example will follow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enumeration</td>
<td>First, second, third, last, another, next</td>
<td>The author is marking or identifying each major point.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuation</td>
<td>Also, in addition, and, further, another</td>
<td>The author is continuing with the same idea and is going to provide additional information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>On the other hand, in contrast, however</td>
<td>The author is switching to a different, opposite, or contrasting idea than previously discussed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison</td>
<td>Like, likewise, similarly</td>
<td>The writer will show how the previous idea is similar to what follows.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
EXERCISES: TIME MARKERS

It was Howe's intention to use her to reawaken her crippled husband's interest in the outside world. He taught Mrs. Roosevelt to speak in public and analyze political situations, and helped her to write magazine articles on women's problems.

However, once her husband returned to the political arena, she did not fade into the background. In 1926, she started a furniture factory at Hyde Park to help the unemployed. The next year she became assistant principal and taught American history and literature at Todhunter School in New York. In 1928, when her husband ran for governor in New York, she served as director of women's activities for Alfred E. Smith in his presidential campaign against Herbert Hoover.

During Franklin's two terms as governor, Eleanor Roosevelt served as his 'legs and eyes,' and made many inspections of state institutions at his request. She expanded this activity after he became president in March 1933 (Focus Sheet 4.1).

1. Find any time markers you can see in this paragraph.
2. Show what are they used for.
3. Write in your words what happened at each specific time.

- 1884
- 1911
- 1921
- 1926
- 1945
Task Sheet 4.2
Task Chain: Strategies

I. READING STRATEGIES: SUMMARIZING

A summary is a brief statement that identifies the major concepts in reading. The main purpose of summarizing is to record the most important ideas in an abbreviated and condensed form. A summary is briefer and less detailed than an outline. It goes one step beyond an outline by pulling together the writer’s thoughts and making general statements about them. In writing a summary or making summary notes, you may indicate how the writer makes points or notes the types of supporting information that the author provides.

Summarizing encourages you to consider questions such as, what is the writer’s main point? How does the writer prove or explain his or her ideas? It is also a valuable study skill that will help clarify the content.

How to Summarize

1. Start by identifying the author’s main point; write a statement that expresses it.

2. Identify the most important information the writer includes to support or explain his or her main point. Include these main supporting ideas in your summary.

3. Include any definitions of key terms or important new principles, theories or procedures.

4. The amount of detail you include will depend on your purpose for writing the summary and on the type and amount of recall you need.

5. Include several representative examples if you feel the material is complex and cannot be understood easily without them.

6. Try to keep your summary objective and factual.

7. Let your purpose guide and determine the amount and type of information you include in your summary.

(McWhorter, 1995)
A. Summarize this article according to different categories.

➢ Early life

➢ Wife and mother

➢ Personal independence

➢ First Lady

➢ Last years
Task Sheet 4.3
Task Chain: Critical Reading

I. LEARNING STRATEGY: SEMANTIC MAPPING

Semantic mapping is a common technique used comprehend a text. The goal of this technique is to activate the learner's background knowledge in order to acquire new information.

- Semantic mapping requires the display of key concepts in a diagram which shows the interrelationship of new concepts and previously learned concepts.

- Mapping is distinguished from pure outlining of the text in that mapping encourages students to assess the match between their background knowledge and the text by means of a visual display of the relationships between and among ideas.

(Roe, Stootd, & Burns, 1998)

1. The following is an unfinished semantic map which is drawn according to Focus Sheet 4.1. Fill out all the blanks when you finished reading.
II. DISCUSSION AND DEBATE

1. With the partner, read through and underline the memorable facts in each paragraph. This article provides a number of concrete details to support the points.

2. According to the reading, what are the most important things that she did. Why?

3. Compare the answer with your pair and try to narrow them down to one or two answers.

4. In a small group, discuss about the great woman or man whom students like. Can you find any differences in values and assumptions with your own culture? Think about beliefs, behaviors, customs, and other cultural patterns.

III. WRITING ACTIVITIES

1. With your partner, write a short story about a great man or woman who was respected by many people in your culture.

2. Write the reason why people respect him or her.

3. Can you find the differences that come from cultural value differences?

4. Can you identify the cultural value criteria from the content?
Test Sheet 4.1

I. SKIMMING

Read the article (Focus Sheet 4.1) about Eleanor Roosevelt. Read the questions and then skim articles to find the answers. Work as quickly as you can. Compare your answers with another student.

1. What does article tell you about the personal life of Eleanor Roosevelt?

2. Does Eleanor Roosevelt sound like the typical woman of her time?

3. Why or why not?

4. What effect did Franklin Roosevelt's illness have on Eleanor's life?
Focus Sheet 5.1
Technical Reading: AIDS

AIDS, acronym for acquired immune deficiency syndrome, is a progressive, degenerative disease of several major organ systems, including the immune and central nervous systems. The disease is caused by the human immunodeficiency virus type I (HIV-1). AIDS was first identified in 1981.

The initial symptoms of infection often resemble influenza or mononucleosis and appear days or weeks after exposure. These symptoms usually disappear after several weeks. A prolonged symptom-free period may last ten or more years after the initial infection. Progressive failure of the immune function, evidence of substantial and increasing damage to the brain and spinal column, and profound weight loss characterize the later stage of the disease. Death often results from infections that occur once the immune system fails or from wasting, cancer, or destruction of the brain.

Infection in infants follows one or two courses. About one-half of the children infected at birth fail to thrive, experience multiple severe infections during the first several months of life, and die within the first year. Other infants exhibit only minor symptoms and survive for six to ten years or more.

The virus can be transmitted sexually from men to women, from women to men, and from men to men. The use of condoms reduces the frequency of heterosexual transmission by greater than 90%.

The virus can be transmitted from mother to child before birth, at birth, and possibly by breast feeding after birth. About one-third of children born to infected mothers are infected by age three months.

The AIDS virus can also be transmitted by blood transfusions, organ transplants, and artificial insemination. The virus is very efficiently transmitted by means of shared needles or syringes, and it remains active in dried blood for many weeks. The virus is very rarely if ever transmitted by means other than those described above, including saliva.

Infection is commonly diagnosed by the detection of an immune reaction to the virus, determined by measuring antibodies. Antibodies often appear within six weeks of infection, and they persist throughout the course of the disease. A very small number of infected people remain free of antiviral antibodies for more than a year after infection. Infection can also be diagnosed by detection of viral proteins or viral nucleic acids.

It is estimated that as of the early 1990s between 10 and 20 million people are infected worldwide. The most severely infected region is central Africa. The epidemic is well established that as of the early 1900s between 10 and 20 million people are infected worldwide. The most severely infected region is central Africa. The epidemic is well established in North and South America, Europe, Australia, India, and Southeast Asia.

HIV-1 belongs to a family of viruses called retroviruses. These small RNA viruses convert their genetic information from RNA to DNA on infection and insert
the DNA form of the genetic material into the genetic material in the chromosomes of the host cell. The virus's genetic material cannot be removed from these chromosomes. Consequently, a person infected with HIV-1 remains infected for life. In addition to the information required to make new virus particles, HIV-1 makes at least seven additional proteins. Some govern the rate of virus replication. Others increase the infectious nature of the virus.

Several features of the virus's life cycle render it resistant to vaccines. The virus can infect cells at the mucosal surface, which makes prevention difficult. Infected cells may harbor the virus's genetic information without producing viral proteins; such cells cannot be recognized by the immune system. The surface of the virus particle is heavily coated with sugar molecules that are identical to those of the host cell and cannot be recognized by the immune system. Moreover, HIV-1 viruses isolated from different individuals vary in their immunological properties, and they may even vary within a single infected person. Although attempts to create vaccines that overcome such difficulties are in progress, no vaccine has yet been shown to prevent infection.

AIDS treatments include the use of antiviral drugs to slow the rate of HIV-1 replication. Other treatments are designed to prevent or treat opportunistic infections and cancers that result from a deficient immune system. Nucleoside analogues, including azidothymidine (AZT), dideoxyinosine (DDI), and dideoxycytosine (DDC), show some promise for delaying onset of terminal symptoms. Genetic therapies as well as new antiviral drugs directed against specific viral proteins such as the protease, the tat protein, the envelope glycoprotein, and DNA polymerase are currently being evaluated.

Viruses similar to HIV-1 have been isolated from humans and nonhuman primates. The human immunodeficiency virus type 2 (HIV-2), prevalent in some West African countries, induces an AIDS-like disease, although with a longer latent period and lower probability of disease. Simian immunodeficiency viruses (SIVS) have been isolated from some Africans, but not Asian or New World, nonhuman primates.

(Haseltine in Mikulecky & Jeffries, 1996)
Task Sheet 5.1
Task Chain: Analysis

I. VOCABULARY: PREFIXES

- Vocabulary is an important personal asset that can directly contribute to students' success in college. Expanding vocabulary is a relatively simple process. All that is needed is word awareness, familiarity with information sources, and a system for learning new words.

- Developing a sense of word awareness means paying attention to and noticing words. Specialized terminology, those words used within an academic discipline, are especially important to learn. While taking notes and reading textbooks, pay attention to these words.

- In English, there are many prefixes that indicate various meaning: try to guess the meaning of the word focusing on prefix.

1. Following are nine words from the reading. Try to fill the blank and then find the words in the text and check your answers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>in-</th>
<th>retro-</th>
<th>de-</th>
<th>mono-</th>
<th>trans-</th>
<th>anti-</th>
<th>re-</th>
<th>chro-</th>
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<td>a.</td>
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</table>

2. Find the meaning of the prefix used in the text.

a. in-
II. TERMINOLOGY

Define the meaning of the words, using your own words.

a. acronym
b. HIV
c. AIDS
d. degenerative
e. transfusion
f. mononucleosis
g. transmit
h. transplant
i. antibody
j. epidemic
k. retrovirus
l. chromosome
m. replication
I. LEARNING STRATEGY: CHART

Four types of charts are often used in college textbooks: pie charts, organizational charts, flowcharts, and pictograms. Getting familiar with these charts can help students comprehend given content more effectively.

Pie Chart

Pie chart is used to show whole/part relationships or to show how given parts of a unit have been divided or classified. They let the reader compare the parts to each other as well as compare each part to the whole.

Organizational Charts

An organizational chart divides an organization, such as a corporation, a hospital, or a university, into its administrative parts, staff positions, or lines of authority.
Flowcharts

A flowchart is a specialized type of chart that shows how a process or procedure works. Lines or arrows are used to indicate the direction (route or routes) through the procedure. Various shapes (boxes, circles, rectangles) enclose what is done at each stage or step. You could draw, for example, a flowchart to describe how to apply for and obtain a student loan or how to locate a malfunction in your car's electrical system.

To read flowchart effectively, use the following suggestions:
1. Decide what process the flowchart shows.
2. Next, follow the chart, using the arrows and reading each step.
3. When you've finished, describe the process in your own words. Compare your drawing with the chart and take note of anything you forgot or misplaced.
Pictograms

Pictogram is a combination of a chart and a graph. A pictogram uses symbols or drawings, instead of numbers, to represent specified amounts. This type of chart tends to be visually appealing, makes statistics seem realistic, and may carry an emotional impact.  
(McWhorter, 1995)

EXERCISE: CHART

1. Make a flow chart that shows the infection route of AIDS.

   ![Flow Chart Diagram]

II. LEARNING STRATEGY: SCANNING

   Scanning is high-speed reading. When you scan, you do not read every word, only the words that answer your question. Practice in scanning will help you learn to skip over unimportant words so that you can read faster. You will practice scanning many different kinds of materials. You should work as quickly as possible on all the exercises.

   Scanning is a skill that you often use in daily life. You can use scanning skill when you read for the information. Try to find the useful information in this text.

   (Mikuelcky & Jeffries, 1996)

EXERCISES: SCANNING

1. Find important information and write it below.
Infection is commonly diagnosed by the detection of an immune reaction to the virus, determined by measuring antibodies. Antibodies often appear within six weeks of infection, and they persist throughout the course of the disease. A very small number of infected people remain free of antiviral antibodies for more than a year after infection. Infection can also be diagnosed by detection of viral proteins or viral nucleic acids.

It is estimated that as of the early 1990s between 10 and 20 million people are infected worldwide. The most severely infected region is central Africa. The epidemic is well established that as of the early 1900s between 10 and 20 million people are infected worldwide. The most severely infected region is central Africa. The epidemic is well established in North and South America, Europe, Australia, India, and Southeast Asia.

1. 

2. 

3. 

142
In 1941, a psychologist named Francis P. Robinson developed a study-reading system called SQ3R. It is a system that incorporates study and review with reading. Continuing experimentation of this system has confirmed its effectiveness. As a step toward developing your own personalized system, look at SQ3R as a model. You can modify or adapt it to suit your own academic needs.

The SQ3R system involves five basic steps that integrate reading and study techniques.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S = Survey</th>
<th>Try to become familiar with the organization and general content of the material you read.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. Read the title.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Read the introduction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Read each boldface heading and the first sentence following each.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Read the titles of maps, charts, or graphs; read the last paragraph or summary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Read the end-of-chapter questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. After you have surveyed the material, you should know generally what it is about and how it is organized.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q = Questions</th>
<th>Try to form questions that you can answer while reading. The easiest way to do this is to turn each boldface heading into a question.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R = Read</th>
<th>Read the material section by section. As you read, look for the answer to the question you formed from the heading of that section.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R = Recite</th>
<th>After you finish each section, stop reading and check to see if you can answer your question for the section. If you cannot, look back to find the answer. Be sure to complete this step after you read each section.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R = Review</th>
<th>When you have finished reading, go back to each heading and try to answer your question. If you cannot recall the answer, be sure to look back and find the answer. Then test yourself again.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
The SQ3R method ties together much of what you have already learned about active reading. The first two steps activate your background knowledge and establish questions to guide your reading. The last two steps provide a means of monitoring your comprehension and recall.

S = Survey

1. What is this article about?

2. What major topics are included?

Q = Questions

Turn the first heading into a question.

R = Read

Read the material following the first heading, looking for the answer to your question.

R = Recite

Read the heading and recall the question you asked. Briefly answer this question in your own words without looking at the section. Check to see if you are correct.

Continue using the question, read, and recite steps until you have finished each part of the content. Then complete the review step.

R = Review

1. Look over the total chapter by rereading the heading. Try to answer the question you made from each heading.

2. Check to see that your answers are correct.

(McWhorter, 1995)
II. GETTING THE MESSAGE

1. Does this article give any hope that a cure will be found soon for AIDS?
   Explain: ____________________________________________

2. In the article, did you find out something about AIDS that you did not know before?
   Explain: ____________________________________________
Test Sheet 5.1

I. READING EXERCISE

Directions: Read the following and choose one best answer to each question.

Radiocarbon is a radioactive isotope with an atomic weight of 14, which makes it heavier than ordinary carbon. Radiocarbon forms when cosmic rays, or high-energy atomic particles, collide with the Earth's atmosphere. This collision causes atoms to disintegrate into smaller elements. One of these elements, the neutron, smashes into the nuclei, causes a proton element to be released. In this manner a nitrogen atom turns into a radiocarbon atom.

Radiocarbon is found in all living matter. For every trillion molecules of carbon dioxide gas, the atmosphere contains about one radiocarbon atom. Plants assimilate radiocarbon from carbon dioxide in the air, and humans absorb it mainly from food made from plants.

Radiocarbon is very useful in establishing the age of old objects. The technique of radiocarbon dating was developed by an American chemist, William F. Libby, in the late 1940s. He discovered that radioactive carbon atoms decay at a regular rate over long periods of time. After about 5,700 years, half the radiocarbon in dead material disappears. After 11,400 years, half the remaining material is gone. Using his method, archeologists have been able to determine the age of objects up to 50,000 years old.

1) The main topic of this passage is

(A) the weight of radioactive isotopes
(B) differences between radioactive carbon and regular carbon
(C) the origin and uses of radiocarbon isotopes
(D) forms of cosmic rays

2) According to the passage, what happens when atomic particles strike the Earth's outer layer?

(A) Atoms break down into smaller components.
(B) Radiocarbon becomes heavier.
(C) They are absorbed by all living matter.
(D) Protons are released into the atmosphere.

3) According to the passage, radiocarbon results when
(A) it is heavier than regular carbon
(B) atomic particles escape the Earth's atmosphere
(C) a neutron hits the nucleus of a carbon atom
(D) a nitrogen atom absorbs a neutron and releases a proton

4) According to the passage, how do people primarily take in radiocarbon?

(A) From animal food
(B) By breathing the air
(C) From carbon dioxide molecules
(D) From edible vegetation

5) Compared to carbon dioxide gas, radiocarbon

(A) is a rare element
(B) is found in equal quantities
(C) has unusual properties
(D) is a very common element

(Feare, 1989)

2. WRITING EXERCISE

1. Directions: Write an one-page essay what you felt after read a different story of AIDS in another source.
Focus Sheet 6.1
Technical Reading in Biology: Virus

Figure 1
Electron micrographs of bacterial viruses. Both of these DNA-containing bacteriophages, P2 on the left and T6 on the right, attack the colon bacterium, *Escherichia coli*.
(Courtesy of Dr. L. W. Lawbaw)
Most viruses contain one or more specialized enzymes that facilitate attachment to and penetration of a host cell. In some viruses, notably the bacteriophages, only the nucleic acid enters the host cytoplasm; but in other viruses, some enzymes are carried in as well. Once inside the host cytoplasm, the virus can make a more or less permanent home for itself in the cell. Alternatively, it can take over the cell's metabolic apparatus, using it for its own ends, and produce hundreds of offspring—killing its host in the process.

When a host-killing virus captures a cell, it acts quickly, stopping all of the host's normal protein syntheses and destroying the host's DNA. Then it utilizes the cell's own ribosomes and protein synthesizing machinery to make viral enzymes and protein coats. The virus may use either its own enzymes or its host enzymes to manufacture new viral nucleic acids. The new infectious viral particles are assembled, and viral enzymes lyse (dissolve) the remains of the host cell, liberating new viruses. In the case of some mammalian viruses, the new viruses are then budded off the surface of the cell.

Events are even more bizarre in viruses that, rather than killing the host, make a semipermanent home in the host cell. A virus does this by physically incorporating a copy of its genome (its total genetic material) into its host's DNA. This trick was first observed in bacterial viruses, but human viruses do the same thing. You probably have some viral genomes inserted into the DNA of your own cells right now.

Some viruses that contain RNA, called retroviruses, infect humans in a remarkable way. They contain an enzyme (reverse transcriptase) that can transcribe the viral RNA sequence into double-stranded DNA. The double-stranded DNA is then inserted into one or more of your chromosomes. As the infected cell proliferates, the virus proliferates right along with it. It may even be passed down through the generations in eggs and sperm. Some retroviruses even ensure the rapid proliferation of their host cells by transforming them into cancer cells!

At some later time, the incorporated viral DNA cuts loose from the host chromosome and reverts to the other strategy—taking over the cell and making more infectious virus particles, thereby killing the cells. They will switch to this behavior whenever something goes wrong with normal host cell DNA replication. It is as if this is a sign that the host is in trouble and that it is time for the virus to jump ship, as it were.

We can usually mount immunological defenses against our virus parasites and, infected twice by the same strain of virus. So why do we get so many cold? And why do we come down with the flu time after time? The answer is that the short-lived, numerous viruses evolve at a terrific rate. The same virus strain won't
infect us more than once, but it can change to a slightly different strain through mutation, so that our antibodies no longer recognize it.

One human virus deserve to be singled out: the *Herpes simplex* virus. It is "the" disease of the 80s' (the 60s' had ulcers; and in the 70s', it was high blood pressure). Strain I herpes causes cold sores, but strain II causes the famed genital herpes. So what is herpes all about? The herpes virus resides in nerve cells, but usually doesn't kill them. When the host's defenses are down, perhaps deep in the spinal cord, and infects surface cells of mucous membranes, killing them and liberating numerous infectious virus particles. Time and again the host build up his or her antibodies, causing the virus to become quiescent and retreat into the nerve cell, where it is safe from the antibodies. Then the antibody level falls, and sooner or later herpes strikes again. As if the pain and temporary disfigurement were not enough, there appears to be a direct relationship between early type II herpes infections and many cases of cervical cancer, which may develop years afterward. Herpes infections last a lifetime, and are currently incurable, although intensive research is underway that may soon lead to at least a partial remedy.

We have begun our survey of life in the biosphere with an introduction to the simpler forms. It should be apparent, however, that the simpler forms are not so simple after all. Life at any level is complex, and our understanding of it is riddled with unknowns that, for some, translate into exciting challenge.

(Wallace, King, & Sanders, 1984)
I. DRAWING ON BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE

1. The following words appear typically in biology content area. Define these words in your own words. Then compare your answers with those of several classmates.

   a. virus
   b. bacteriophages
   c. retrovirus
   d. enzyme
   e. transforming
   f. parasite
   g. cytoplasm
   h. genome
   i. lyse
   j. chromosome
   k. DNA
   l. RNA

II. MAKING VOCABULARY CHART

1. Due to the large number of technical terms, formulas, and notations you will encounter, often it is necessary to refer back to definitions and explanations.
2. Once you have identified and marked new terminology in your book, the next step is to organize the words for study and review. One of the most efficient ways is the vocabulary chart system. Use these chart for study, for review.

3. Choose the vocabulary that you do not know and looks like new terminology.

4. Make your own vocabulary chart.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cytoplasm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bacteriophage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enzyme</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DNA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RNA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retrovirus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chromosome</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lyse</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transformimg</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parasite</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(McWhorter, 1995)
Task Sheet 6.2
Task Chain: Strategies

I. READING TECHNICAL WRITING

Technical writing is commonly called specific writing that science or engineering students read. Here are a few examples of situations that require technical reading skills. Technical writing is an important part of many academic disciplines. Technical reading skills are essential in both the everyday and academic world. The following will discuss and describe technical writing and offer suggestions for reading it effectively.

1. How Technical Writing is Different
   Take a moment now and think about what you is different in technical writing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics of technical writing</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td>To supply the reader with needed information. To perform a task, understand a situation, solve a problem, make a decision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fact density</td>
<td>Facts are abundant and usually are presented as compactly as possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exact word choice</td>
<td>Meaning must be clear and without possibility of confusion or misinterpretation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical/specialized vocabulary</td>
<td>These words have specific meanings within the field or discipline and often serve as shortcuts to lengthy descriptions or details that would be necessary if using nonspecialized language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbreviation and notation systems</td>
<td>An extensive system of abbreviation and notations (signs and symbols) is used. These are also shortcuts to writing out complete words or meanings and are often used in diagrams, formulas, and drawings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graphics</td>
<td>Most technical writing contains numerous drawings, charts, tables, diagrams, or graphs. They are included to clarify, help you to visualize, and emphasize key information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples and sample problems</td>
<td>Technical textbooks often contain numerous examples and sample problems. These are included to illustrate how information is used and instructions are applied.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific formats</td>
<td>Technical writing often follows specific organization. A lab report follows specific formats and organization. A psychologist's case report has specific categories. Research reports in the sciences typically have a statement of problem, a description of experimental design, and so forth.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(McWhorter, 1995)
Task Sheet 6.3
Task Chain: Critical Reading

I. THINKING LEVEL

Most college instructors simply assume that students can read and think critically. College is different from other levels of education in this respect. In high school, a great deal of emphasis is placed on learning and remembering information but in college, the emphasis is on evaluating and applying that information once it is learned. You will learn how to read and think critically. You will need to handle exam questions, class discussions, and write assignments that demand critical reading and thinking.

(McWhorter, 1995)

1. Reading and Levels of Thinking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of thinking</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>What information do I need to learn?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>What are the main points and how are they supported?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application</td>
<td>How can I use this information?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td>How is this material organized?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How are the ideas related?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How are data presented in graphs, tables, and charts related?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What trends do they reveal?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synthesis</td>
<td>How does this information fit with other sources (class lectures, other readings, your prior knowledge)?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
EXERCISES: LEVEL OF THINKING

Read this paragraph and distinguish the level of thinking.

One human virus deserve to be singled out: the *Herpes simplex* virus. Strain I herpes causes cold sores, but strain II causes the famed genital herpes. So what is herpes all about? The herpes virus resides in nerve cells, but usually doesn’t kill them. When the host’s defenses are down, perhaps deep in the spinal cord, and infects surface cells of mucous membranes, killing them and liberating numerous infectious virus particles. Time and again the host build up his or her antibodies, causing the virus to become quiescent and retreat into the nerve cell, where it is safe from the antibodies. Then the antibody level falls, and sooner or later herpes strikes again. As if the pain and temporary disfigurement were not enough, there appears to be a direct relationship between early type II herpes infections and many cases of cervical cancer, which may develop years afterward.

(Wallace, King, & Sanders, 1984)

Knowledge: 

Comprehension: 

Application: 

Analysis: 

156
1) What is this passage about?

2) Which diseases do viruses cause?

3) You can infer from this that most virus today . . .

4) Virus are caused by . . .

5) If you fear a signal, you should . . .

2. Draw a semantic map with information that you got from other books.
I. READING EXERCISES

Directions: Read the following and choose one best answer to each question.

One of the major hazards for deep-sea divers is the "bends." This condition is caused by gas bubbles forming in the bloodstream if the diver ascends too rapidly. The reason for this condition has to do with the saturation and desaturation of body tissues with various gases. At increasingly greater depths, the diver breathes air at bloodstream. Different body tissues are saturated with different gases from the air at different rates. When the diver ascends, oxygen is used by the body tissues, carbon dioxide is released quickly, and nitrogen remains. The nitrogen needs to be released gradually from the bloodstream and body tissues. If nitrogen is subjected to a too rapid pressure reduction, it forms gas bubbles in the blood vessels. The bubbles become trapped in the capillaries. This prevents blood and oxygen from supplying necessary nutrients to body tissues, which consequently begin to die.

Saturation and desaturation are affected by various factors such as the depth, length of time, and amount of exertion under water. There are other factors that a diver must take into account when determining a safe ascent rate. These include the diver’s sex and body build, the number of dives undertaken within the previous 12 hours, the time spent at the dive location before the dive, and the composition of the respiration gas.

1) The passage is mainly about

(A) how to calculate a safe depth when diving
(B) how to determine saturation and desaturation rates
(C) instructions for diving safely
(D) the factors causing the bends in divers

2) It can be inferred from the passage that

(A) a woman is more likely to get the bends
(B) men and women may ascend at different rates
(C) men and women of certain athletic builds shouldn’t dive
(D) men are better divers than women

3) According to the passage, gas bubbles

(A) trap the capillaries
(B) are gradually released from the tissues and bloodstream
(C) block the supply of nutrients to body tissues
(D) are formed from compressed air

4) Which of the following does NOT affect the desaturation of body tissues?

(A) the location of the dive
(B) the number of previous dives
(C) the composition of the gas being used
(D) the amount of activity under water

6) According to the passage, the bends

(A) is the major diving hazard
(B) reduces pressure in the bloodstream
(C) is a condition caused by diving too quickly
(D) is a direct result of dying body tissues

7) According to the passage, which of the following is NOT true?

(A) Air at higher pressure is taken in at greater depths.
(B) More air is dissolved into the bloodstream at increasing depths.
(C) Carbon dioxide stays in the body when the diver ascends,
(D) Body tissues are saturated at different rates.

(Gear, 1993)
REFERENCES


America: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc.


