Readings on L2 reading: Publications in other venues
2015–2016

Shenika Harris, Editor
Lindenwood University
United States

Carolina Bernales, Editor
Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso
Chile

Gabriela Romero-Ghiretti, Editor
Lindenwood University
United States

Haley Dolosic, Editor
Washington University
United States

Huan Liu, Editor
Washington University
United States

Tracy Van Bishop, Editor
Atlanta Metropolitan State College
United States

This feature offers an archive of articles published in other venues during the past year and serves as a valuable tool to readers of Reading in a Foreign Language (RFL). It treats any topic within the scope of RFL and second language reading. The articles are listed in alphabetical order, each with a complete reference as well as a brief summary. The editors of this feature attempt to include all related articles that appear in other venues. However, undoubtedly, this list is not exhaustive.

This study examined the use of inferential strategies during the second language (L2) reading process of texts in English. Specifically, the researchers explored what types of strategies intermediate-level English as a foreign language (EFL) students used to understand unknown words while reading in their L2. Fifteen students enrolled in a language institute in Iran read three English passages while verbalizing their thoughts. After receiving instructions on the think-aloud protocol, students employed the study’s methodology on a shorter passage giving them an opportunity to practice thinking aloud and implementing strategies to infer the meaning of the eight targeted unknown words. Afterwards, students read a longer passage with a total of ten unknown words highlighted and bolded while thinking aloud. This was followed by the completion of a multiple-choice comprehension test. This same procedure was completed on a separate day with a second passage. All think-aloud sessions were recorded, transcribed and analyzed. In addition, students were divided into successful and less successful inferencers based on the number of unknown words that were guessed correctly. Results indicated that all students used a total of 12 strategies for lexical inferencing of the unknown words, which were divided into the following categories: form-focused, meaning-focused, evaluating, and monitoring. The meaning-focused strategy of paraphrasing/译词 was the most widely used strategy by all participants. Other than the frequency of use of the meaning-focused textual clue strategy, which was used more frequently by successful inferencers, all participants used the same amount of lexical strategies. However, successful and less successful inferencers differed in the way that they employed these strategies while reading in their L2. Successful inferencers effectively used their existing background knowledge, textual clues from the entire passage, and active questioning of their lexical decisions to correctly guess unknown words. This effective combination of strategies differed greatly from less successful inferencers who normally used simple textual clues and immediate translation to infer meaning. Given that all participants used the same inferencing strategies, the researchers encourage language instructors to train their students in the effective use of these strategies in order to help students improve their reading comprehension of various L2 texts.


This study examined the effect of word retrieval during reading on intentional L2 vocabulary learning. A total of 74 Spanish-speaking English language learners at the pre-intermediate proficiency level participated in the study and were divided into two groups: the word retrieval group ($N = 37$) and the control group ($N = 37$). Both groups completed: (a) a language background questionnaire, (b) a pretest asking participants to translate the target English words from English to Spanish, (c) posttests including an L1-to-L2 cued vocabulary test and an L2-to-L1 cued vocabulary test, (d) a reading comprehension quiz consisting of 12 questions about the details and main ideas of the reading passages, and (e) a post-questionnaire on the participants’ opinions regarding their performance. Both groups read the same reading passage three times. For the word retrieval group, translations (L2-to-L1) of the target words were provided for the first reading of the text, and L1 translations with a blank space for L2 word retrieval was provided for the second and third reading of the text. For the control group, translations (L2-to-L1) of the target words were provided for the first, second and third reading of the text. Five words were chosen as the target words (\textit{carcass, pellets, skeet, smidgen, vermin}), and each word appeared three times in the reading passage. Independent variables were the group (retrieval vs.
control) and translation direction (L1-to-L2 vs. L2-to-L1). The dependent variable was the score on the cued vocabulary recall. It was found that there was a significant mean score increase on the cued vocabulary recall for the word retrieval group ($M = 4.33$) over the control group ($M = 2.87$). The ANOVA analysis indicated that the main effect for group (retrieval vs. control) was statistically significant ($F(1, 72) = 40.29, p < 0.001$) with an effect size of 0.359. The main effect for the translation direction was also significant ($F(1, 72) = 52.49, p < 0.001$) with an effect size of 0.422. The interaction between the group and translation direction was found statistically significant as well ($F(1, 72) = 18.55, p < 0.001$) with an effect size equal to 0.205. The results favored the positive effect of L2 word retrieval on L2 vocabulary learning during reading comprehension. The study argued that, as word retrieval contributed to L2 lexical development during reading comprehension, L2 learners should be provided with the opportunities to retrieve words while reading in order to promote both intentional and incidental L2 vocabulary learning.


The researchers of this article conducted two experiments to explore the relationship between lexical knowledge and the age of first L2 exposure in young bilingual children reading in their L2 of Italian. The participants for both experiments were 66 children divided into the following 3 groups: (a) 15 bilingual children with first exposure to Italian before 3 years and 11 months of age (EBs), (b) 15 bilingual children with first exposure to Italian after 4 years of age (LBs), and (c) 36 monolingual native speakers of Italian. During the first experiment, children were asked to read aloud a combination of 60 Italian words as quickly and as accurately as possible. The list of words, which was taken from Pagliuca et al. (2008), contained a combination of high-frequency and low-frequency words in addition to pseudo words. In the second experiment, participants were also asked to read a list of 60 Italian high-frequency and low-frequency words with some words having a dominant stress pattern and others a non-dominant stress pattern. Results from both experiments pointed to the importance of lexical knowledge in the beginning stages of reading Italian as an L2. In the first experiment, all groups of participants read words better than pseudo words. Also, low-frequency words were read slower than high-frequency words. The second experiment, which focused on stress assignment, found that although LBs had a higher percentage of pronunciation errors than the other groups, there was no statistically significant relationship between stress pattern, frequency and group. Thus, like young monolingual native speakers of Italian, bilingual children also show sensitivity to lexical distributional properties when learning to read Italian.


Trying to offer alternative approaches to a traditional methodology of learning languages in Yemen, the authors of the article investigated the impact of the learning by design framework and the four resources model on enhancing Yemeni students’ reading proficiency. The model outlines four main reading processes: code breaker, meaning maker, text user, and text analyst. For the study, the researchers worked with 45 sophomore EFL students whose L1 was Arabic.
order to collect data, the authors used a quantitative method (questionnaires) and a qualitative method (interviews). In the questionnaires, the researchers elicited information regarding the students’ practices while reading in English, in order to identify their problem areas prior to the introduction of the new practice. Also, ten students were interviewed about their reading practices in order to collect qualitative data. Collected data showed that students’ poor vocabulary and syntax, limited knowledge of reading strategies (including reading for the gist), genres, textual structure, and mechanics affected their reading comprehension in the L2. The same results were found through the interviewing process. Data also demonstrated that the overall use of reading resources, such as experiencing, conceptualizing, analyzing, and applying. Using a 5-point Likert scale for measuring reading strategies, it was concluded that the following strategies were used moderately: experiencing ($M = 2.32$), conceptualizing ($M = 2.18$), and applying ($M = 2.47$). The use of analyzing strategies was low ($M = 1.90$) according to the scale.

Since the four resources model was used to complement the investigation, results reported a medium use of code breaker strategies, a limited use of text breaker and text participant strategies, and a low use of text analyst strategies. The study also found that students expected mostly to learn new vocabulary from reading, therefore lacking a more rounded appreciation of reading proficiency. According to the cooperative reading guideposts and Oxford’s (1990) scale, the participants were ranked only as beginning and developing readers. These results suggest that students were heavily depending on decoding strategies, which hindered their comprehension (meaning making) strategies. Finally, the authors suggest reading teachers review their teaching practices and expose students to various text mediums in order to equip them with the strategies that will allow them to: (a) make use in the classroom of their own previous knowledge and experiences, (b) make connections with new materials, and (c) interact with texts in a meaningful way. This will ultimately afford students the opportunity to apply knowledge by producing meaningful writing after proficient reading practice.


This study examined the effect of different instruction on word reading. Thirty-seven monolingual adults were assigned to one of the following instruction groups: small grain ($n=18$) or large grain ($n=19$). During the first session, participants completed pretesting assessments to ensure the similarity of participants in each instruction group, and no differences were found. During the remaining three sessions, participants received computer training in learning a researcher-developed Klingon-like script. The training sessions began with initial small grain instruction (focus on words) or large grain instruction (focus on letters), followed by viewing of the training words, and concluded with testing the reading of the new words. In general, it was found that explicitly directing participants’ attention to words via large grain instruction resulted in faster word reading. In addition, those participants that received large grain instruction had higher scores on the matching task, meaning that directing participants’ attention to whole words resulted in greater generalizability to the reading of other new word patterns. While participants in the small grain instruction group exhibited slower reaction time for word and letter reading, they had high accuracy for letter recognition. Results also indicated that phonological awareness plays an important role in learning a new orthography by helping learners compensate for the emphasis (large or small grain) of the instructional method ensuring that both words and letters...
are acquired. Given that the artificial language used for this study was rather simplistic, the researchers conclude by calling for future research to consider how grain size instruction and phonological awareness skills affect the learning of other languages with more complex orthographic systems.


Based on changes in reading practices in recent history from “paper to pixels,” this theoretical inquiry sought to examine how professors can better prepare teacher candidates for their futures in teaching literacy, uniting paper and multimedia literacies. Specifically, the researcher delves further into questions around what types of literacy teachers are desired in the twenty-first century and what curriculums need to be developed to instruct such teachers. Setting self-reflective practice for literacy teachers and those that prepare them at the core of its understanding, this inquiry examines factors which suggest that the influence of digital media is present in how people read both online and in print. Thus, while pages have not altogether been traded for digital media, there have been developments in terms of finding, making meaning of, and interpreting texts. It is evident that children need to be prepared to interact with these varied formats. In order for this to be skillfully executed, teacher preparation programs must align their new curricula with the curricula of the K-12 classroom, incorporating both print and digital technologies in a way that unites them in the processes of obtaining information and interpreting sources. The author puts forth a four-point model to begin this process of creating literacy teachers prepared for the twenty-first century. First, pre-service teachers must be exposed to subject knowledge, literacy content knowledge, and the use of a variety of literacies. Also, these teachers should make connections across their content areas, providing students with resources across media types to best develop their understanding of the content. These varied literacy types should also be used not only in classroom instruction but also in terms of assessment. Further, these literacies should be used to support reflective practices of teachers, developing and establishing new means of literacy instruction. This model will support both English monolingual children as well as English Language Learners (ELLs) in the US. Evidence-based instruction through multiple literacies, social engagement, and scaffolding allows for these students to engage with an enriching curriculum and gain access to English literacy. The piece ends with a call to action for those preparing literacy educators to enter the K-12 system; the author challenges them to self-reflect and initiate proper practices.


The present study investigated the impact on L2 reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition in enhanced texts when using different types of glosses and different assessment tools. The researchers studied the results of 95 Mandarin-native college freshmen in a mandatory English course in Taiwan. After completing a proficiency measure, an adapted test from the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT), students read three texts between 150-220 words with each passage having 7-9 glossed vocabulary items. Students were randomly assigned to read the texts with one of the following types of glosses: (a) in-text glosses, (b) marginal glosses, or (c)
pop-up glosses. All glosses were in the students’ native language. In order to ascertain the effect of different posttest assessment tools, researchers used a reading comprehension test which consisted of five multiple-choice questions and a summary, which the students had to write in their L1. In order to assess vocabulary acquisition, students were presented with an L2-L1 translation exam and an L2-L1 word-matching test. Results showed that in-text glosses rendered the best scores on the vocabulary acquisition tests and the reading comprehension summary; marginal glosses produced the best scores on the multiple-choice test, while pop-up glosses resulted in the poorest scores on all four tests. In addition, the study stated that in-text glosses rendered the best results in summary writing and vocabulary acquisition tests (word-matching and translation), whereas the use of pop-up glosses was the least effective method. In the multiple-choice test, however, marginal glosses yielded the best results. The researchers maintain that the success of in-text glossing can be attributed to the proximity between the word in question and its explanation. The study also suggests that the type of glossing presented to students should be dependent on the student’s motivation, given that pop-up glosses render better results with proactive readers, while passive readers benefit more from marginal and in-text glosses. Finally, the researchers indicate the limitation of not having conducted a delayed posttest in order to assess long-term learning of material.


In the following study, the researchers examined the use of reading strategies by EFL high school students in Taiwan. Specifically, they explored the types of reading strategies employed by students in addition to any differences in strategy use between males and females. One thousand two hundred and fifty-nine third-year high school students consisting of 533 males and 726 females served as the participants for the study. All students completed the Survey of Reading Strategies (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002). The survey was translated into Chinese, the L1 of the students, and it asked students to identify their usage of reading strategies using a 5-point Likert scale. Descriptive and inferential analyses were used to analyze the data. Regarding strategy usage, the findings indicated that students frequently used a variety of global (M = 3.95), problem-solving (M = 3.75), and support (M = 3.60) reading strategies when reading academic texts in English. Using previous knowledge to help with comprehension (M = 4.07) and guessing about the content of the reading passage (M = 3.99) were the most used strategies by these students. Students also reported frequently using the problem-solving strategy of guessing the significance of unfamiliar words and phrases (M = 3.93). In regards to the differences in strategy use between male and female students, the results showed a statistically significant difference (t = -5.15; p < .001) with female students (M = 3.83) reporting a higher frequency of reading strategies than male students (M = 3.68). This result is consistent across all categories of reading strategies. Due to the importance of correct and effective use of reading strategies for second and foreign language reading comprehension, the authors encourage EFL instructors to take the appropriate steps to help their students effectively use reading strategies when interacting with texts in English by incorporating explicit strategy instruction in their EFL reading classes.

Using a reader-response approach, this study explored EFL students’ reading processes in a digital environment. Fifteen EFL undergraduate students enrolled in an English juvenile literature course in a university in Taiwan participated in the study. After receiving a model from the instructor, who was also the researcher, each participant selected four online young adult novels to read over the course of four months. Upon completion of each novel, students completed a reader-response report consisting of questions regarding students’ comprehension of and reactions to the novels. Students’ responses indicated that their online reading was not a passive process of simply receiving information from the stories. Rather, students were actively constructing meaning as they engaged with the texts by evaluating what they had read, making predictions about the content, expressing their feelings and thoughts, and making connections between the novels and their own life experiences. Given students’ responses, the researcher concludes that the reader-response approach is a beneficial pedagogical tool for the teaching of literature in an EFL context because it goes beyond using literature simply for language learning purposes and emphasizes the importance of reflection upon what one has read.


This article sought to expose college students’ perceptions of e-books when reading literature in a foreign language, and if those perceptions evolved over time. Therefore, the researchers devised a system of four reports over the course of an entire semester. The participants were 20 undergraduate freshmen in a young-adult literature course in English in Taiwan. They had the students explain their reactions to e-book reading and collected three main trends of opinions which were grouped into the following categories: the accessibility of books online, the unpleasantness of reading from a screen, and the increased amount of reading time and reduction in comprehension when reading from an e-book. Students submitted their reports after each electronic novel they read, four in total. In their reports, they had to describe their experience of reading online and any strategies they utilized to aid their reading comprehension. The results of the study demonstrated that although unfamiliar with e-books, most students agreed on the ease of accessibility of both online books and online tools (i.e., online dictionaries) while reading e-books. Results also reported on sight fatigue caused by reading from a screen and the unreliability of Internet connection, as well as the difficulty of transporting hardware, given the fact that many students did not own laptops or tablets. Regarding the second question pertaining to strategies devised by students to aid them in the reading process, it was reported that students increased their acceptance of e-books as the semester progressed. Students also reported strategies to help them with eye strain and distraction while reading online. These strategies also showed an improving trend after the second report. Researchers also found that skipping and scanning strategies, which are used with hard-copy books, were also successfully utilized while reading online. As a conclusion, the study shows that students still value hard-copy books over e-books, especially when reading literature. It also suggests that length of materials is an important factor that impacts students’ perceptions of e-books. Therefore, the researcher recommends starting with shorter texts. Finally, the researcher suggests considering e-book reading as a way of building on to reading strategies, as opposed to replacing existent strategies with new ones for e-books.
In the following article, the author outlines three components of a research-based reading program for young readers. Given that many immigrant children enter school with no knowledge of the national language and research has proven the positive and beneficial relationship between L1 and L2 literacy skills, the first component of this program proposes that all children should receive reading instruction in the language that they speak and understand which is normally the child’s L1. The second component of the plan concerns reading instruction. Due to the many component skills necessary for reading such as phonological awareness and word recognition, students must receive adequate instruction in each of these necessary skills. The last component stresses that young readers must have sufficient time to practice their reading skills in order to become effective readers. Thus, in addition to encouraging families to take part in their children’s reading development, teachers must provide students with texts that gradually increase in difficulty allowing them to solidify and improve their reading skills and comprehension over time. Although the author offers cost-effective suggestions for implementing aspects of this three-part model, he concludes the article by asking all those involved with young readers to conduct research and attempt to find additional methods of bettering the reading development of young readers.


Using a Vygotskian perspective, the authors explain the procedures and offer guidelines for the implementation of shadow-reading. Shadow-reading is a peer-mediated interaction that can be used to enhance reading comprehension by collaboratively constructing, elaborating and internalizing the concepts encountered in a text. This technique involves a student who assumes the role of an oral *reader* and reads a text out loud to his partner, the *shadower*, to repeat. Based on the authors’ own previous empirical studies using the technique, they offer a step-by-step description of the implementation of shadow-reading in an ESL reading class and provide examples of peer interactions between *shadowers* and *readers* to illustrate the effect of this pedagogical approach on reading comprehension and meaning construction. The first step proposed is a training phase in which the teacher models reading while students repeat together with the use of conversational strategies (clarification requests, referential questions, etc.). Then, students practice chunking (i.e., segmenting long utterances) and reading out loud to improve fluency of oral reading. Students also practice short sentence shadowing and shadowing longer connected discourse in assigned pairs. Other important steps include the selection of the text, partner and role assignment, and review of the instructions for the activity. The shadow-reading process starts with complete shadowing and is followed by selective shadowing, summarizing of the text orally, and retelling of the shadowed text in the L1 or the L2. The authors pose that the interactive behaviors that take place during shadow-reading promote learners’ ZPD (zone of proximal development) activation and help them solve language-related problems while discussing various elements of the reading for better comprehension. Commander and Guerrero also ascertain that these behaviors take place within a *collaborative frame*, which includes comments, questions or corrections by one of the interlocutors; negotiation and feedback; and behavioral change as a result of feedback. The conclusion offered is that, given its socially
interactive nature, shadow-reading can be effectively implemented in the ESL classroom as a way to promote joint construction of meaning.


This study sought to investigate the reading motivation of EFL Sri Lankan undergraduate students in addition to exploring the association between reading comprehension and L2 reading motivation. Four hundred and six undergraduates enrolled in public universities in Sri Lanka completed a reading comprehension test consisting of four passages, followed by multiple-choice comprehension questions and a 60-item questionnaire measuring their L2 reading motivation and attitudes towards reading in their L2. Principal component analysis, correlational analysis, and structural equation modeling were used to analyze the data. Results showed that students’ perception of the value of L2 reading and their enjoyment of L2 reading were the two factors that accounted for much of their L2 reading motivation. In addition, L2 text comprehension was positively correlated with enjoyment of L2 reading ($r = .28, p < .001$) and value of L2 reading ($r = .17, p < .001$). Results also indicated that students’ intrinsic motivation (i.e., personal enjoyment and challenge) was positively associated with their L2 reading comprehension while their extrinsic motivation (i.e., external demands and rewards) had a negative relationship with comprehension. The researchers encourage EFL instructors to attempt to increase students’ intrinsic motivation with interesting classroom activities due to its positive relationship with L2 reading comprehension.


Based on prior research which demonstrates a relationship between teacher beliefs and classroom practices, this study sought to further examine the influence of teacher beliefs about reading on actual classroom practices for teaching reading in a second language context. An in-depth case study of one ESL teacher in Canada teaching English for Academic Purposes (EAP), consisting of classroom observations, interviews, and journal entries, was completed and analyzed to gain a deep understanding of the teacher’s beliefs and practices. All interviews were semi-structured and occurred both before and after lessons were completed. The researcher observed six of the teacher’s classes over the course of four weeks. In addition, the teacher kept a reflection journal, writing daily after all classes. This study specifically examined the teacher’s professed beliefs, classroom practices, and the relationship between the two, as well as how the reflective practices facilitated an exploration of the teacher’s beliefs. Results demonstrated that the teacher believed that he should develop the skills necessary for language learning and specific purposes while also developing students’ critical thinking about texts. In addition, the teacher believed that reading skills and strategies should be explicitly instructed. Beliefs also included a preference for interesting topics and interactive group work. Results regarding classroom practices demonstrated a wide variety of daily activities engaging students with the material. Yet, when examining the relationship between beliefs and practices, there were some inconsistencies. Not all beliefs were realized in classroom practices and some classroom practices did not relate at all to the discussed beliefs; however, the majority of stated beliefs were strongly represented in the classroom practices. For example, findings suggested that while the teacher stated his belief in
the importance of activating background knowledge, he rarely used associated practices in class, yet his belief in strategies instruction was realized in his classroom practices consistently across all class meetings. The final set of findings related to the development of his ability to discuss his beliefs, which were believed to improve through his communications during the study. Overall, this study indicates the need for reflection to discover beliefs and the link between discussed beliefs and classroom practices. Thus, recommendations include greater self-reflection as a means of professional development.


In the following study, the researchers investigated the effect of strategies awareness on problem solving ability and FL (foreign language) reading comprehension. One hundred and forty-five Iranian undergraduate students majoring in English language and literature enrolled in four intact classes served as participants for the study. All participants had taken two consecutive semesters of reading comprehension courses. Two courses had used a traditional instructional format focusing on vocabulary learning, comprehension, and writing activities when reviewing reading passages in English. The other two courses had used a strategies-based instruction, which provided students with in-depth instruction and practice using strategies during all phases of the reading process. Data was collected using the following instruments: (a) the Problem-solving Inventory (Heppner & Petersen, 1982) which is a 35-item survey that asks participants to rate their problem-solving ability, (b) the Survey of Reading Strategies (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002) which is a 30-item instrument used to explore self-perception of reading strategies, and (c) the Reading Comprehension Test Battery which is a test consisting of short reading passages, multiple-choice comprehension questions, and inference related activities. Various statistical procedures were used to analyze the data including multivariate regression analysis, structural equation modeling, and other procedures. Overall, this study found that there was an interaction between strategies awareness and abilities in reading comprehension and problem solving. Regression coefficient analyses of the data found a positive correlation of strategies awareness with abilities in reading comprehension ($B_{RCA} = .501, p = .019$) and problem solving ($B_{PSA} = .599, p = .001$) indicating that those students with lower scores on the strategies awareness measure also exhibited lower scores on the measures for reading comprehension and problem solving. Regarding problem solving, the largest correlation was found between metacognitive strategies and problem-solving abilities with metacognitive strategies explaining 26% of the variance ($R^2 = .79$). However, cognitive strategies awareness was found to be a more accurate predictor of reading comprehension with cognitive strategies explaining 17% of the variance in comprehension achievement ($R^2 = .69$). In conclusion, the researchers found that strategies awareness has a positive effect on problem solving and reading comprehension abilities with metacognitive strategies being more important for problem solving and cognitive strategies being more important for reading comprehension. Given the study’s findings, the researchers recommend that L2 courses include strategies-based instruction and activities to help students improve their abilities in problem solving and reading comprehension in addition to language learning processes in general.

This project involved three primary schools in which 31.9% of the district population had partial English ability. K-3 teachers received on-the-job training and implemented a read-aloud routine, which sought to enhance English learners’ (ELs) vocabulary acquisition and comprehension by using culturally meaningful texts. According to the routine, teachers selected a text which was culturally meaningful that students could relate to in a deep and accessible manner. In this way, new vocabulary was presented in a meaningful context, which research suggests increases the opportunities for acquisition. The teachers would divide the text into three sections of about 200-250 words, where there would be about four target lexical items. The read-aloud activity lasted 30 minutes per session and entailed a first uninterrupted reading of the selected section, precluded by a short introduction of the new vocabulary using contextual supports, such as images, representations of words, or the students’ L1. Students were instructed to pay attention to the target items while the uninterrupted reading took place. Then, students retold the story trying to use some of the new vocabulary, answering “literal probes” regarding plot or characters, and making a judgment about information not obvious in the reading. Finally, the text was read aloud again, this time stopping at new items and discussing them. Students completed several activities, such as using the words in sentence stems or explaining the meaning in their own words. After the reading activity, students further discussed the text and the teacher summarized the new material. On subsequent days, the cycle was repeated with the remaining sections of the text until the end while vocabulary was recycled. During the whole activity, the teacher remained a facilitator of the exchange of meaningful information among students. Qualitative data about the study was collected by means of classroom observation, teacher interviews, and anonymous teacher surveys. Results showed that students were highly engaged throughout all phases of the read-aloud activity. Teachers also reported an increase in students’ motivation about vocabulary learning and a heightened awareness about their own “teacher talk” and urge to instruct. Furthermore, 98% of the teachers reported the activity to be *useful to very useful*.


This quantitative quasi-experimental study examined the effectiveness of a cooperative learning technique, the Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC), in improving the literal, inferential, and evaluative reading comprehension of ESL learners. A group of 127 Filipino eighth-graders were asked to read a text for 30 minutes and then complete the pretest. Pretest scores were used to assign participants to either the control or the experimental group and divide them into work teams within each group. Participants in the control group received reading instruction using a conventional approach together with a motivational activity at the beginning and a synthesis activity at the end of the session. The experimental group was exposed to the Cooperative Learning-based CIRC method in which students are grouped with other team members and they work on an individual and group assignment. Thus, in this session, the researcher first taught reading comprehension; then, the students were handed individual and group worksheets for each team and given 25 minutes for team reading and task completion. Next, the group completed a composition task, in which they wrote a short essay about the text. After instruction, students answered a posttest. The process was repeated in two additional
meetings. Data indicated that both methods, conventional and CIRC, resulted in improvements in reading comprehension. More specifically, with regards to subskills, there was an improvement in both conditions for literal comprehension subskills, such as detail recall (especially in the control group). Summarizing was the subskill with the lowest score in the posttests for both groups. Regarding inferential comprehension, there was no substantial difference between the posttest scores in the two groups; there was no significant improvement either. The authors concluded that in light of the absence of significant differences between the groups, both approaches could be useful in improving specific reading comprehension subskills. Wong and Torres encourage ESL teachers to use the lecture method and to complement it with the CIRC method, as both of them have proven to be beneficial for reading comprehension.


Using multiple theories, the authors of this study examined differences in the reading approach used by fourth-grade English learners (ELs) in their L1 of Spanish, a transparent language, and in their L2 of English, which is more opaque. The authors were concerned with the following: (a) the validity of the grain size hypothesis for English and Spanish, (b) differences in the utilization of a simple view of reading for both languages based on transparency and reading differences, and (c) potential linguistic knowledge transfer. The researchers also sought to discover whether readers change their reading approach depending on the language of instruction. Participants included 113 fourth-grade Spanish-speaking ELs. They were assessed on phonological decoding (PD), morphological awareness (MA), listening comprehension, vocabulary knowledge, reading comprehension, and word reading in their L1 and L2. Additional English subtests and their equivalent Spanish subtests were included (i.e., Word Attack (PD); Picture Vocabulary; Listening Comprehension; Letter-word Identification; and Passage Comprehension). To test the grain-size hypothesis, the researchers fit independent L1 and L2 models, which contained MA and PD as reading comprehension predictors. Results showed that ELs have a different approach for reading in orthographies that differ in transparency. In general, MA and PD contributed to Spanish reading comprehension; however, only MA did so in English. With regards to the simple view of reading theory, listening comprehension greatly supported L1 and L2 reading comprehension, and oral vocabulary played an important role in L1 reading. A substantial role of cross-linguistic transfer in reading comprehension could not be found. Subskills and small grains appeared to be more important when reading in Spanish than in English. Reading approaches were found to be based on the language of instruction, thus making MA and oral vocabulary important features for students instructed in both languages but not for those instructed in English alone. The main contribution of this study was that large-grain analysis (i.e., MA) supports reading comprehension with the use of listening comprehension in both English and Spanish reading.

The study explored the effect of Repeated Reading (RR) (learners reading a text in a repeated manner both silently and with audio support) on L2 reading speed, comprehension and strategies. Fourteen (5 females and 9 males) adult beginning-level Japanese learners in a U.S. university were recruited. Within a three-month RR treatment period, participants read twice a week for 20 minutes short hiragana texts, which formed part of longer texts that had been segmented at relevant points. In total, participants read 23 sessions and the number of characters and words for each session text increased over time. Participants read each session text five times in total. For the first time, participants read the text while timing themselves. Participants then read it a 2nd and 3rd time while listening to it read aloud by the instructor. For the 4th and 5th time, participants read it again while timing themselves. At the end of each session, participants completed a short report commenting on their reading process in their L1. A pretest after the 1st session and a posttest after the 23rd session were administered, with the same reading text for both tests. Reading rate by character per minutes (CPM) was calculated. For the 1st reading, the mean score of CPM increased from 106.68 for the 2nd session to 261.11 for the 23rd session, and the ANOVA analysis indicated that the increase was statistically significant ($p = .000$) with an effect size equal to .928. For the 4th reading, the mean score of CPM increased from 212.64 for the 2nd session to 383.51 for the 23rd session. For the 5th reading, the mean score of CPM increased from 244.27 for the 2nd session to 421.90 for the 23rd session, in which the increase was found statistically significant ($p = .000$) with an effect size equal to .734. The difference in text free recall between pretest ($M = 6.09\%, SD = 6.2$) and posttest ($M = 33.11\%, SD = 10.35$) was also statistically significant ($p = .000$) with an effect size of .819, indicating that around 82% of the variance of the difference was contributed by the RR treatment. Participants commented that RR played a positive role in improving reading comprehension and reading speed stating that the repetition of the texts and the audio support helped them to decode the text as a whole including the characters and the words of each text. Participants also reported that the RR improved their ability to decode and comprehend texts as independent Japanese learners. In addition, participants reported that RR experience made them more capable of using various reading strategies for better comprehension and greatly supported their learning. The study argued that RR was an effective method helping L2 learners read more fluently and with more ease and confidence, and the researchers suggested that L2 reading fluency programs should be largely implemented in language programs.


The scope of this qualitative study was to examine the reading skills of Syrian students learning Turkish according to their instructors’ opinions. In this study, 11 Turkish instructors at Çukurova University and Adana Science and Technology University in Turkey were interviewed about their students’ attitudes and opinions towards reading in Turkish, the instructors’ difficulty in helping their students improve reading skills, students’ mistakes while reading, their teaching methods and techniques as well as the challenges that arise while teaching reading in Turkish. The questions also inquired about teachers’ selection and assessment of teaching materials within an intercultural transfer framework and the tools they use to identify students’ level of acquisition and improvement in reading skills. Instructors were also asked to evaluate themselves in terms of their preparation to teach Turkish to foreigners. According to Turkish instructors, Syrian students are motivated to learn and read texts in Turkish, but they are faced with
difficulties regarding the difference in the alphabets of their L1 and the target language, articulation in the L2, underdeveloped vocabulary knowledge and their own learners’ beliefs such as the difficulty of the Turkish language among other negative beliefs. Instructors reported that they try to make up for these difficulties by incorporating different pedagogical techniques and strategies, such as general reading practice, articulation practice, reading aloud, silent reading, dictation, question and answer, summarizing, listening, reading stories and repetition. Instructors usually chose activities that presented cultural transfer because they considered them beneficial for students’ learning. In light of the results of this study, the author suggests the use of cultural elements in the classroom to make learning more enjoyable and meaningful, as well as to increase students’ motivation.


This article explored the predictive relationship of the literacy dimensions of reading comprehension and writing on the academic proficiency (AP) of trilingual speakers. Two hundred and seventy-four immigrant students enrolled in secondary schools in Israel with an L1 of Russian completed an L1 assessment battery, an AP assessment in their L2 of Hebrew, an AP assessment in their L3 of English, and a background questionnaire. Each assessment included both reading comprehension and writing tasks, and all materials were completed during two class sessions. Hierarchical regression analyses were used to find which factors predicted AP for each language. Academic proficiency in L1 as measured by writing predicted L2 and L3 AP. Also, analyses found that while L2 reading comprehension significantly predicted L3 reading comprehension, L2 writing performance was a significant predictor of L3 AP in general across all dimensions. In addition, L3 writing was the greatest predictor of L2 AP indicating that the cross-linguistic influence of AP is multidirectional across L1, L2 and L3. Given the high predictive power of AP in L1 for literacy abilities in L2 and L3, the researchers conclude by recommending that primary and secondary schools work to strengthen AP in immigrant students’ L1 in order to foster the acquisition of their subsequent languages.


This qualitative study examined the reading development process of young Chinese children at a complimentary school, a school that seeks to help in the development and preservation of heritage cultures and literacies, in Scotland. The larger study consisted of home visits and interviews to learn about the home literacy practices of the children in addition to extensive class observations and teacher interviews to learn about the pedagogical literacy practices of the school and its students. In order to gain a closer look at the children’s approaches and strategies to reading in Chinese, the researcher also observed and audio recorded individual reading conferences between the children and their teacher. This article focuses on one of these reading conferences between an eight-year old boy and his instructor. Using think-aloud protocols (TAPs) and miscue analysis (MCA), the researcher asked the participant to read aloud a passage in Chinese and then participate in a three-way think-aloud session during which time the student, the instructor, and the researcher discussed the student’s reading strategies and any problems or moments of difficulty observed using MCA during the reading of the passage in Chinese.
Insights gathered during this three-way conversation include the following student reading strategies: text markings and transliterating to deal with unfamiliar Chinese characters, using a kinesthetic approach for similar Chinese characters while reading aloud, pausing and looking for teacher reassurance when encountering complex characters, and handling difficult compound characters by using personalized mnemonics and pictures. While some of these insights may have appeared in a solo think-aloud session, the researcher concludes that this three-way dialogic think-aloud session allowed for in-depth insight and explanation of the student’s reading strategies and development in addition to providing an additional learning environment for the student. The researcher encourages this three-way dialogic method of data collection and interpretation as a way to move beyond the researcher’s etic perspective and have more of an emic perspective when interpreting and analyzing the data.


This research study explored the relationship between English language learners (ELLs) and non-ELL children’s narrow reading, which is defined as reading texts by the same authors or on the same topic, and their growth in vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. To do this, the authors investigated the quantity and quality of their reading in addition to their physical access to books. Thus, their research questions focused on determining the following: (a) whether ELLs had sufficient access to books at school and at home, (b) whether ELLs and non-ELLs engaged in the same amount of independent reading, and (c) whether narrow reading quantity was related to children’s vocabulary learning and reading comprehension. In an effort to investigate disparities in ELL and non-ELL children in a socioeconomically diverse area, 113 fourth-grade ELLs and 107 non-ELLs in 14 classrooms from schools in a southern California suburban school district were selected. In six classrooms, students were asked to try narrow reading as many books as possible while children in the other nine classrooms were simply asked “to read as much as possible.” The schools’ computerized reading management programs were used to track students’ independent reading. The children also answered computer-generated quizzes after reading the books, and the software saved relevant information (i.e., books titles, number of pages, questions answered correctly, and books’ difficulty level). Each participant’s book list was examined and coded as narrow when books were by the same author or had the same topic. Additionally, data on students’ access to books were collected. Participants were assessed in receptive vocabulary, expressive vocabulary, word reading, decoding and reading comprehension. Results indicated that current ELL children declared having less books at home than non-ELL children. Authors used the Bonferroni-adjusted post-hoc test for data analysis, which suggested that native English-speakers read books of higher difficulty than ELL children. In addition, non-ELLs and formerly designated ELLs scored higher on quizzes than current ELLs. Findings also indicated that, although the proportion of narrow books read was similar among the three subgroups, current ELLs tended to read shorter books and, therefore, were exposed to fewer words than the other two groups. Also, ELL children did not engage in independent reading as much as native English-speaking children. From one semester to the next, a significant improvement in word reading, expressive and receptive vocabulary, and comprehension was detected in participants. Indeed, narrow book proportion and receptive vocabulary skills had a significant positive relationship ($F(2, 212) = 3.60, p < .059$). The authors concluded that children from all types of schools had sufficient and similar access to books.
However, current ELLs were less exposed to English because they read books with fewer words. Also, current ELLs scored lower on the comprehension quizzes, which, according to the authors, may indicate that the selected books were above their skill level. As for narrow reading, results show that it enhances receptive vocabulary skills. Finally, the authors emphasize the importance of book access and suggest that teachers pay attention to narrow independent reading as a facilitator of acquisition of receptive vocabulary. Hansen and Collins conclude with the recommendation that teachers help students select texts written by the same authors or on the same topic that are of an adequate level of difficulty.


In the present article, the authors elaborate on their earlier framework for a theory of diagnosis in second or foreign language (SFL) (Alderson, Brunfaut, & Harding, 2014) in terms of the assessment of reading and listening skills. Additionally, the article also discusses the definition and operationalization of these constructs for diagnostic purposes. In particular, the construct of SFL reading is discussed with regards to language mastery. SFL learners generally read in a language they have not fully learned, and therefore, L2 reading-related problems are both a language problem and a reading problem. The authors suggest that both language-related and reading-related problems should be tackled in diagnosis and that learners’ L1 and the differences with the target language should be taken into account, especially when diagnosing lower-level SFL students. As for diagnosing higher-level SFL students, it is common to assess different subskills, though the hierarchy of those subskills is rather problematic. One clear aspect for diagnosis is that higher-level depends on lower-level processes, and therefore, diagnosing reading at the lower level is a necessary first stage. Another measure of reading ability is linguistic knowledge and use. Given the ample evidence of a link between vocabulary size and depth and reading comprehension, the authors also recommend assessing vocabulary knowledge. Another key issue is assessing grammar knowledge. The general idea seems to be that a focused test of syntax is preferable if it is possible to determine the particular aspects of syntax and morphology that are useful for reading in specific contexts. Additionally, learner and teacher feedback is an essential element in diagnosis. Teacher feedback should be varied and should help students comprehend their own learning and reading strategies, while providing clues for learners to find a correct answer. When reaching the final stage of the diagnostic process, decision making, the teacher/diagnostician should evaluate whether the initial assessment was supported by the assessment’s results. If that is not the case, assessment should be reconsidered. However, if it is supported, then the teacher/diagnostician should provide appropriate feedback and decide on a treatment for the reading problems encountered. The authors concluded that, given its focus on a communicative process, the proposed framework should be useful for any sort of syllabus.


*Reading in a Foreign Language 28(2)*
Using detailed class observations and interviews, this case study explains the teaching strategies used by an ESL teacher of new immigrants to promote students’ media literacy development and critical thinking abilities. Five females and nine males between the ages of 14 and 20 with a variety of L1s were the participants of the study. Using print magazine ads and critical questions, the teacher used several approaches to develop students’ L2 media literacy. For example, the cloze approach was used to support vocabulary learning, listening comprehension, and reading comprehension skills by having students listen to an instructor-recorded advertising analysis and complete a written activity with the appropriate missing words. Additional approaches included question generation in the form of a version of the popular television game show Jeopardy and a collaborative writing activity based on print ads chosen by the students. Class observations indicated that both the teacher and the students enjoyed using print ads as a means of improving literacy development. Moreover, the teacher reported that students transferred many of the discussed media literacy strategies to other contexts such as reading an internet ad in English which points to the usefulness of advertising analysis in aiding L2 reading comprehension development in general. The authors conclude by encouraging language instructors to consider using print ad analysis methods in the classroom as a way of fostering students’ language development and critical thinking skills in a motivating manner.


This study investigated the impact of the instruction of reciprocal reading strategies and emotional intelligence on EFL students’ reading comprehension. Reciprocal teaching (RT) deals with metacognitive reading strategies involving questioning, clarifying, summarizing, and predicting. Such strategies, the authors maintain, enhance students’ awareness of the reading process and their capacity for more extensive meaningful learning. In order for RT to be successful, teachers need to adjust activities according to the challenges students encounter with the material until they become independent learners. Also, since emotional intelligence (EI) has been proven to have an effect on students’ performance in general, this study investigated if EI affected EFL learners’ reading performance in a course using RT. Forty-two sophomore EFL students completed pre- and posttests and a questionnaire. The pretest used belonged to the Cambridge Practice Test for IELTS 1, and it contained 41 questions based on the reading of three texts to be answered in one hour. The same test was used after instruction as a posttest measurement. The Trait Emotional Intelligence (Trait EI) Questionnaire-Adolescent Short Form (TEIQue-ASF) was modified to be used as an EI measurement tool with a 7-point Likert scale. Students were divided into high or low emotional intelligent learners according to the results of the TEIQue-ASF questionnaire. They were also divided into high and low readers according to the mean scores of the reading test. During 22 sessions (2 per week), students were instructed on RT following an explicit teaching methodology. They worked on the texts predicting, summarizing, anchoring in existing knowledge, and explaining according to strategies modeled by the teacher. Afterwards, students were asked to keep working on the passages and employ the learned strategies. Results showed statistically significant different results prior to and following instruction. Students improved their reading performance after RT. However, low level/high emotional learners did not. Although RT significantly improved reading comprehension, EI did not reveal a significant correlation with RT in terms of readers’ comprehension, since it seemed
that students were not affected by their emotions when reading. This research suggests, then, that teachers should explicitly teach, model, and monitor reading strategies.


This study examined the foreign language anxiety (FLA) of Korean undergraduate students enrolled in American universities. Specifically, the researchers explored the relationships between Korean heritage learners’ (KHLs) foreign language achievement and FLA in the areas of speaking, reading, and writing in addition to the interaction between FLA and perceived cultural ethnicity. Sixty-one second-semester Korean students taking an intensive Korean language course specifically for KHLs participated in the study. Students’ anxiety was assessed using the following instruments: the *Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale* (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986), the *Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale* (Saito, Garza, & Horwitz, 1999), and the *Writing Anxiety Test* (Daly & Miller, 1975). Achievement was operationalized as students’ exam grades in the areas of speaking, reading, and writing. Results showed that participants reported experiencing higher levels of writing anxiety, moderate levels of reading anxiety, and low levels of classroom/speaking anxiety. Pearson correlations showed statistically significant negative correlations for achievement scores and all anxiety measures indicating that students reporting higher levels of anxiety had lower exam grades and vice versa. Regarding perceived cultural ethnicity, those students who self-identified as American reported higher levels of reading anxiety than those who self-identified as Korean. Given the negative correlations between anxiety and achievement, the researchers encourage instructors of KHLs to be mindful of creating low-anxiety classrooms with creative assignments while encouraging students especially in the areas of reading and writing.


Taking an experimental approach, this study investigated the effect of a storytelling teaching strategy on L2 English vocabulary development and learner motivation in L2 learning. A total of 60 low-intermediate Iranian EFL learners between 10 and 14 years old from a language center in Iran were selected to participate in the study. Participants were divided into four groups (two experimental and two control) and were instructed on lessons selected from the *Backpack* book series and stories prepared by the teacher using visual presentations. The experimental groups went through three stages for each lesson: (a) *prestorytelling* (in which participants were introduced to the target vocabulary through pictures and gestures presented by the teacher), (b) *while-storytelling* (in which the teacher presented the story using visual representations and asked participants to associate those representations with the story), and (c) *poststorytelling* (in which participants were asked to role-play the story using dialogues from the story). A pretest on grammar and vocabulary was conducted, and the independent samples *t*-test showed that there was no significant difference between the experimental and control groups. A posttest on vocabulary from the *Backpack* book series was given after the one-semester treatment. The mean score for the experimental group was 27.86 (*SD* = 2.03) and for the control group was 22.80 (*SD* = 2.88). The independent samples *t*-test revealed that the mean difference in the posttest between the experimental and control groups was statistically significant (*t* = 5.56, *df* = 28, *α* = 0.05, *p* =
In addition, for the experimental groups, the mean score for the vocabulary test improved from the pretest ($M = 11$, $SD = 2.44$) to the posttest ($M = 27.86$, $SD = 2.03$), and the match $t$ test indicated that the mean difference was statistically significant ($t = -28.46$, $df = 14$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $p = 0.00$). With regard to learner motivation, an analysis of the notes on the participants’ interest rate in addition to parents’ comments suggested that almost all the participants reported an increased interest rate in learning L2 English through the storytelling teaching approach. The study concluded that the storytelling approach of teaching English to these young EFL learners was effective for vocabulary learning and was positively related to L2 learning motivation.


This study investigated the role of narrow reading in L2 vocabulary learning. A total of 61 high-intermediate-level Korean learners of English between 17 and 18 years old participated in the study. Participants were assigned to either the experimental group or the control group. The experimental group was the narrow reading group ($n = 30$) in which participants read texts that were thematically related. The control group ($n = 31$) was a regular reading group in which participants read texts that were not thematically related. Both groups read an excerpt discussing secondhand smoking in which all target words as well as low frequency words were glossed. After reading the excerpt, the narrow reading group read three online newspaper articles on the same topic of secondhand smoking, whereas the regular reading group read three texts on different topics including a tsunami, Babe Ruth and Boxing Day. Fifteen words were chosen as the target words, and no vocabulary was glossed on the three extra readings for both groups. A pretest and a delayed posttest were given via four types of vocabulary tasks: (a) L1-L2 word translation (productive knowledge in isolation), (b) sentence production (productive knowledge in context), (c) L2-L1 word translation (receptive knowledge in isolation), and (d) multiple-choice gap-fill task (receptive knowledge in context). A background questionnaire and an exit questionnaire were also completed after the posttest. The independent-samples $t$-test showed that, with regard to L2 receptive vocabulary knowledge, the narrow reading group significantly performed better than the regular reading group in both the isolation test ($t = 3.10$, $df = 59$, $p < .05$) and the context test ($t = 2.05$, $df = 59$, $p < .05$). Similarly, with regard to L2 productive vocabulary knowledge, the narrow reading group significantly performed better than the regular reading group in both the isolation test ($t = 7.94$, $df = 59$, $p < .001$) and the context test ($t = 3.04$, $df = 59$, $p < .001$). The narrow reading group’s exit questionnaire revealed that repeated encounters with the target words via three extra thematically-related readings helped build the necessary semantic networks. In addition, frequent vocabulary encounters encouraged learners to build the form-meaning connections of the target words, thus facilitating vocabulary learning. The study concluded that narrow reading in which the topic is thematically related played a significant role in promoting L2 vocabulary learning.


Given that the current academic situation requires students to comprehend and synthesize a plethora of information from a variety of texts simultaneously, the current study investigated the relationship between L1 reading skills and strategic thinking on the L2 reading comprehension of
Reading in a Foreign Language 28(2)

single and multiple texts. One hundred and fourteen Iranian EFL students (75 females and 39 males) enrolled in Iranian language institutes participated in the study. All participants had prior experience learning English in addition to having taken at least two years of EFL courses at the language institute. In order to evaluate participants’ multiple-texts comprehension, participants completed an Intertextual Inference Verification task consisting of four passages on autism and 20 inferences statements that they had to judge as correct or incorrect based on information covered in the four passages. A similar task consisting of one passage followed by 10 inferences statements was also used to measure participants’ L2 comprehension of a single text while a multiple-choice reading test measured their L1 reading abilities. Finally, participants reported their strategy use during the readings by completing a version of the Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (Mokhitari & Reichard, 2002). Regarding single-text L2 comprehension, a multiple regression model showed that both L1 reading ability and strategic thinking are important predictors of L2 single-document reading comprehension ($F = 11.497, p < .05$). Regarding multiple-text L2 comprehension, although a multiple regression model showed that the combination of L1 reading ability and strategic thinking is a predictor of L2 multiple-document reading comprehension ($F = 19.377, p < .05$), the beta coefficient showed that strategic processing was the only statistically significant predictor variable ($t = 6.175, p < .05$) of L2 multiple-text comprehension. The researchers conclude by encouraging more research on L2 multiple-document comprehension since it is the current situation of most ESL/EFL academic contexts.


The purpose of this qualitative study is to understand the cognitive strategies used by ESL students in reading academic texts and to determine how these strategies change with or without the use of Google translator (i.e., machine translation). Based on Anderson’s (1991) work, 26 reading strategies were included in the analysis. These strategies were divided into five groups: (a) supervision, (b) support, (c) paraphrase, (d) maintenance of textual coherence, and (e) scheme-oriented strategies. In this study, ten intermediate-level students (four PhD students, five undergraduates and one specialist) of different L1 backgrounds attending the English Language Institute (ELI) at the University of Pittsburgh participated in ‘think-aloud protocol’ sessions. For data collection, they were asked to complete a questionnaire about their reading habits to evaluate their impact on reading comprehension. To record the reading strategies used, participants were asked to read an abstract of an article on international politics two times and comment on their comprehension processes while reading when they were signaled to do so. During the first reading, they were not allowed to use any support strategy; in the second reading, they were free to use Google translator. Results showed virtually no difference in the strategies used with or without the translator. However, there was a distinction regarding the management of those strategies as students tended to use strategies more frequently when using the translation tool. Data showed that participants could comprehend more effectively when using the translation tool. Furthermore, supervision and paraphrasing were the most used strategies with the support of Google translator, which suggests that the tool may make participants more aware of their performance and help in avoiding repetitiveness. Regarding PhD students, these participants used ‘bottom up processing’ for local understanding and ‘top down processing’ to comprehend the passage when using the translation tool. In addition, the PhD
participants indicated they were successful at reading comprehension after translating, which suggests that the translator changes the way these participants processed information. Moreover, strategies did not change from the first reading to the second, but students were more likely to confirm their inferences with the use of the translator instead of disconfirming what they had read, which led the authors to determine that translator users were better at comprehending the passages. The researchers conclude that the use of electronic translators is beneficial for reading comprehension when other reading strategies are at play. Finally, the authors point out that Google translator should be used for support during the reading comprehension process and that teachers should use it to teach their students when to translate.


This study was the first attempt to explore L2 reading strategies adopted by Thai vocational college students. Three English reading texts, questionnaire surveys, think-aloud experiments and semi-structured interviews were used for data collection. A convenience sample of 162 vocational college students in Bangkok participated in the study, of which 121 (67 higher and 54 lower level students) completed a 33-item Likert-scale questionnaire that asked participants to self-report the reading strategies (cognitive or metacognitive) they normally use while reading in English. Of the 121 students, 18 (9 higher and 9 lower level students) read two short texts in English while thinking aloud to explore students’ reading strategies in greater depth. After completing the reading tasks, students elaborated on their reading strategies during a semi-structured interview conducted in Thai and consisting of 15 open-ended and closed questions. It was found that participants employed a variety of reading strategies for reading comprehension, with cognitive strategies (comprehending strategies, memories strategies and retrieval strategies) more often used than metacognitive strategies (planning strategies, monitoring strategies and evaluating strategies). Across the strategies, retrieval strategies and memory strategies were adopted the most whereas monitoring strategies were the least used. With regard to the typologies of reading strategies employed, it was found that there was no significant difference in the overall use of reading strategies between lower and higher English-proficient participants. For both lower and higher level students, cognitive reading strategies were more frequently used than metacognitive reading strategies. However, higher level students used retrieval strategies more frequently than lower level students \((p < 0.05, t = -2.06)\), and they also employed all typologies of reading strategies (except memories strategies) more frequently than lower level students. The study found that the five most frequently used reading strategies by lower level students were the following: (a) previewing the text before reading, (b) word-by-word translation, (c) consulting a Thai-English dictionary, (d) visualization, and (e) self-monitoring. Regarding the higher-level students, the study found that these students frequently utilized the following eight reading strategies: (a) previewing text before reading, (b) consulting a Thai-English dictionary, (c) visualizing information, (d) pausing and thinking about reading, (e) self-monitoring, (f) using background knowledge, 7) translating English into Thai, and 8) making connections.

This research synthesis reviewed the important role of morphological awareness in L2 reading. Eight primary studies that examined children’s morphological awareness transfer between their L1 of Chinese and their L2 of English were used for the synthesis. Regarding the operationalization of morphological awareness, results indicated that although the reviewed studies used Carlisle’s (1995) definition, there was great variety in the number and the modes of measurement of morphological awareness. Results also showed diversity in the patterns and direction of transfer of morphological awareness with studies showing unidirectional L1 to L2 transfer, unidirectional L2 to L1 transfer, and bidirectional transfer. Finally, the review showed that previous language experience and different types of tasks affect the cross-linguistic awareness from one language to the other. Given these findings, the authors encourage future researchers to use several measures of morphological awareness with older learners of different languages in order to provide a more in-depth understanding of this important topic.


This study introduced the Literacy Self-evaluation Interview for Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Adults (LSI), a reflective instrument created by the authors to help explore and understand the dynamic aspects of the literacies of individuals with diverse backgrounds and experiences. The LSI consists of two parts. Part I asks questions regarding literacy in general and one’s literacy background in their first language. Part II contains questions regarding one’s literacy background in their second language and any additional languages. The questions range from general questions such as, “How do you define literacy?”, to more specific questions such as, “Do you think that being a literate person in your second language offers you a better chance to change the society you belong to?” Thirty-five students enrolled in a public university in the United States and 52 students in a public university in Hong Kong completed the LSI. The researchers used the students’ responses to explore how students of diverse linguistic backgrounds define themselves as (bi)literate individuals. The researchers focused on 6 questions to help understand students’ perceptions and beliefs regarding literacy. When asked to define literacy, although students provided a variety of answers, the most common responses included the ability to write and read. When asked “How does the rest of the world perceive your first language?”, students’ responses revealed how the students situated their language in a global context with those with an L1 of English answering with very positive statements while those with other L1s, such as Cantonese and Mandarin in Hong Kong, providing negative responses. Like the answers to the previous question, responses to “How does the rest of the world perceive your second language?” included many positive perceptions regarding the influence and power of English. Students also answered a question regarding society’s perception of the importance of being literate in one’s L1. Regardless of the L1, the majority of students valued their L1 literacy and stated that it was important to be literate in one’s first language in order to be able to function well in society including communicating with others, working, and going about daily life activities. In response to, “In your society, is it important to be literate in your second language?,” although the majority of students said that it was important to be biliterate, many acknowledged that a higher value is placed on English and a lower value is placed on other languages. For the final question, students responded that being literate in their L2 offers them more opportunities to help change their society. It is important to note that this statement referred
to all second languages and not just English. Given the students’ responses and what both the researchers and the participants learned through their discussion of the LSI questions, the researchers recommend the use of the LSI and similar measures to help facilitate the conversation between educators and students regarding students’ diverse literacy experiences and backgrounds.


With 215 university students learning English, this study sought to further investigate the relationships among perceived and actual reading competence while reviewing participants’ orientation toward language learning and willingness to read in the target language both inside and outside the language classroom. Participants were all in their first or second year of university study and majoring in either humanities or science. Survey instruments measured demographic information, perceived performance, willingness to communicate (MacIntyre et al., 2001), and orientations toward language learning (MacIntyre et al., 2001). Orientations measured were based on prior work in understanding students’ motivation to learn language. These orientations toward language learning included work, academic achievement, travel, friendship, and knowledge. Willingness to communicate measures were shortened such that only the reading measures were taken into account in order to focus on willingness to read rather than willingness to communicate in general. Findings indicate that humanities students were more likely to have a higher willingness to read than their science-studying counterparts inside the classroom. Negative correlations were also discovered between some orientations toward language learning and the willingness to read inside or outside the classroom. For willingness to read both inside and outside the classroom, science students who were driven more by the want for travel ($r = -0.412; r = -0.364$), friendship ($r = -0.315; r = -0.285$), and achievement ($r = -0.301; r = -0.291$) tended to have lower willingness to read such that these factors had a statistically significant negative relationship with willingness to read ($\alpha=0.05$). However, for humanities students such a correlation was found only among willingness to read outside of the classroom and being motivated by a job ($r = -0.290$). Willingness to read was generally high, yet appeared to be task dependent based on student responses to certain items on the questionnaire. There was also a significant positive correlation between perceived competence and willingness to read inside and outside the classroom for both science ($r = 0.545; r = 0.476$) and humanities ($r = 0.360; r = 0.297$) students. The demonstrated effect size was larger for sciences than for humanities. The researchers encourage raising perceived competence so that students will be encouraged to read inside and outside the classroom.


This study explored the role of phraseological knowledge, which can be defined as formulaic multi-word expressions (MWEs) that commonly appear in language, in FL reading performance. In order to investigate this topic, the researchers conducted two separate studies. The first study used structural equation modeling (SEM) to investigate the relationship between phraseological knowledge and reading comprehension. Participants were 418 advanced-level EFL high school
students enrolled in secondary education schools in Austria. In one session, students completed the following four instruments: (a) a reading comprehension task consisting of four reading passages followed by various comprehension questions, (b) a multiple-choice syntactic knowledge test (Shiotsu, 2010), (c) the DIALANG Advanced Vocabulary Test (Alderson, 2005), and (d) a 60-item multiple-choice phraseological knowledge exam based on Martinez (2011) and Martinez and Schmitt’s (2012) PHRASE list. SEM showed that knowledge of MWEs was the greatest predictor of FL reading performance followed by vocabulary knowledge. In addition, results indicated that phraseological knowledge can be viewed as its own separate variable that is correlated with and not subordinate to syntactic or vocabulary knowledge, which has been suggested by previous research. The second study was more qualitative in nature and sought to explore how EFL learners process and use knowledge of MWEs during the reading process. Fifteen advanced-level EFL high school students enrolled in secondary education schools in Austria that had not participated in the first study verbalized their thoughts while reading two passages in English containing MWEs. In addition, participants also completed a version of the phraseological knowledge test used in the first study and a reading comprehension test developed by the researchers. All think-aloud protocols were transcribed and analyzed. Analysis showed that students did indeed process the targeted MWEs as instances of fixed formulaic phrases that should not be separated into individual words. For example, when students tried to process a MWE using elaboration, the entire MWE was elaborated as one complete unit rather than individual words. The researchers conclude by encouraging EFL instructors to be aware of the important role that phraseological knowledge plays in the reading performance of advanced EFL learners.


This study examined the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and ESL reading. Specifically, the authors explored the effects of the number of words known and the level of understanding of these words on two different dimensions of reading, word reading and reading comprehension. Two hundred and forty-six Chinese English-immersion students (177 females and 69 males) in the eighth grade participated in the study. The students completed several activities, which measured their abilities in L1 reading, L2 word reading, L2 vocabulary breadth, L2 vocabulary depth, and L2 reading comprehension using a multiple-choice test and a summary writing activity. Results indicate that both vocabulary breadth and depth contribute to L2 reading. Although both aspects of vocabulary knowledge were important predictors of word reading, breadth accounted for more of the variance, thus resulting in it being a greater contributor to word reading. Similarly, both the quantity and depth of word knowledge were predictors of reading comprehension. However, vocabulary breadth was a greater predictor of more general reading comprehension knowledge when assessed using a multiple-choice format, while vocabulary depth was more related to deeper comprehension when tested using a summary writing activity. The researchers encourage ESL instructors to focus on both vocabulary breadth and depth to help improve students’ reading comprehension since each dimension of vocabulary knowledge facilitates different aspects of reading comprehension.

This study investigates what input and how such information (either sequentially or simultaneously) should be displayed on digital texts in order to enhance reading comprehension and vocabulary learning. The researchers recruited 75 high-intermediate EFL students with an L1 of Mandarin. A pretest was given in which only students who could not recognize any of the 14 target items were included in the study three months later. The actual study used a 14-page e-book originally written by an EFL instructor. The text was comprised of 570 words, with 40 per page, and only one novel item per page. Students were assigned either a sequential (SQ) or simultaneous (SM) mode of presentation of material. SQ presentation of input means that students will process meaning first, then form; a SM presentation of input entailed the processing of both form and meaning at the same time. The comprehension cues used were illustration, illustration with L1 gloss, illustration with L2 gloss, and illustration with an L1 pictographic gloss. The two modes of presentation of input used in the e-book were thought to parallel students’ reading processes, either sequential or simultaneous. Students in the SQ group first saw the cue with the illustration, then the illustration with L1 gloss, then illustration with L2 gloss, and finally the illustration with an L1 pictographic gloss. Whereas students in the SM group were exposed to the comprehension prompts and the new words on the same page, thus they had to process the semantic and formal functions simultaneously. After reading the text from an iPad, students were asked to write a free recall three days later in order to test for comprehension and retention of information. In such a test, students had to write in the L2 as many idea units as they could recall from the reading. If they used any of the new vocabulary items in the recall, the researcher understood that the student had retained knowledge. In contrast to previous research, which favors sequential modes of input presentation, this study concluded that simultaneous presentation of input in a digital platform resulted in better comprehension and vocabulary retention. The study also found that illustrations plus L2 glosses enhance comprehension and retention, and that L1 glosses or illustrations plus L1 glosses are the least helpful.


The aim of this study is to identify ways in which teachers can use wordless picture books as a way to motivate English learners (ELs) during close-viewing (i.e., close-reading), and in doing so, create oral and written linguistic output. Louie and Sierschinsky explain that these books tell a story using only illustrations and that they provide ELs with the opportunity to use language and deal with complex content to explore meaning through discussion and elaboration, while improving oral language proficiency. Advantages of wordless picture books are that they contain various levels of meaning and particular structures, make use of symbols, express tone, and require diverse sources of knowledge (i.e., cultural, literary, and content) for comprehension. In their approach to teaching close-viewing, the authors propose three instructional guidelines: (a) teach learners how to identify the plot, structure, characters, and setting of the book, (b) help students learn how to use the information in the book to support their answers, and (c) teach learners to use illustrations and details to retell the story. In addition, they offer a four-step instructional sequence to encourage learners to talk and to write about wordless picture books.

The first step is to preview the features of the text (such as the title, cover, end page, etc.). The second step is to provide cognitive scaffolding by reading the text several times, discovering different layers of meaning each time. They pose that repeated readings and discussion model
academic language, specific vocabulary and text structure. In step three, cognitive scaffolding is provided by discussing the author’s purpose, connecting ideas from the book to other texts, and using this information to articulate opinions. In the last step, teachers encourage students to put the ideas discussed into writing, which can subsequently be used to exercise reading fluency, word order, rhyming, etc. The authors view the wordless picture book as an ideal instrument to encourage oral and written linguistic output. They believe that this kind of activity has the potential to engage learners in meaning-making processes to construct a written text as it deepens their understanding and increases their enjoyment while helping them learn the language of literary elements and structure.


Given the historical literacy struggles of the Hmong population and that research has shown that young Hmong students typically have more difficulty acquiring English literacy skills than other ESL learners, this study explored the reading development of young ESL Hmong children in elementary schools in the United States. Using qualitative methods, the researchers sought to discover the different profiles of Hmong students that pass and fail state reading assessments. Ten fourth-grade Hmong students participated in this case study. Five students had passed the state reading assessment and five had not. In addition to interviews and class observations, students’ scores on L1 and L2 standardized tests and L1 reading assessments, which included reading comprehension and spelling knowledge, were used to create profiles for each student. Students also completed the *Reader Self-Perception Scale* (Henk & Melnick, 1995), which measured their reading motivation. Assessments were completed over the course of 4–6 individual sessions during an after-school program. Results showed that those students who passed the state assessments were strong in L1 receptive language, L2 expressive oral language, word decoding skills, reading comprehension skills, and comprehending English standard syntax. Similar to previous research, the profiles of those struggling students that did not pass state assessments were varied and lacked commonalities displaying different language strengths and weaknesses. The researchers encourage instructors of Hmong ESL students to make sure that they are providing effective and creative instruction for students and addressing the needs of students with diverse language profiles.


Using a *Simple View of Reading* framework (Gough & Tunmer, 1986), this study explored differences in several aspects of the reading comprehension of adolescent native speakers of German and bilingual speakers of German. In addition, the researchers investigated the relationship among reading performance, socioeconomic status and language background. In order to address the interaction between these variables, 479 students enrolled in the ninth grade in various lower income public schools in Germany served as the participants. Students were divided into three groups according to their native language resulting in the following groups: L1 German, L1 Turkish, and L1 Other (which consisted of students with a native language other than German or Turkish). All students completed the following assessments: reading
comprehension, listening comprehension, phonological awareness, reading vocabulary, working memory, morpho-syntactic awareness, and text reading fluency. The Index of Social, Economic, and Cultural Status (ESCS) was used to calculate each student’s socioeconomic status. Several statistical analyses were used to analyze the data including structural equation modeling and confirmatory factor analyses. The researchers found that when comparing all groups, L2 German students exhibited lower scores on the reading comprehension measure in addition to those assessments that measured linguistic comprehension such as reading vocabulary and listening comprehension. However, all groups had similar scores for working memory and phonological awareness resulting in no statistically significant differences for these items among the three groups. After controlling for socioeconomic status, many of the differences previously mentioned disappeared; however, the group consisting of native speakers of Turkish continued to exhibit lower scores in reading and listening comprehension in comparison with the other two groups. Given the findings, the researchers encourage future studies to consider and control for socioeconomic status when investigating reading comprehension in L1 and L2 students. Also, given the performance by L1 Turkish students in the study, the researchers encourage the German educational system to consider adopting different and more effective instructional methods that promote the development of linguistic and reading comprehension skills for the immigrant student population.


This study focused on exploring psychological attributes such as motivation and emotion as they relate to foreign language reading (FLR) attributes. Specifically, the authors sought to determine the applicability of current FLR measurements to Japanese EFL university students and to identify trends in the relationship between FLR attributes. To address these issues, researchers asked 63 Japanese EFL college students to complete a survey based on nine indexes used in previous studies. The following indexes were used to create the survey: three motivational indexes used by Kondo-Brown (2006): Lack of motivation for reading English (LMR), Extrinsic orientation for reading English (EOR), and Intrinsic orientation for reading English (IOR); the anxiety index used in Brantmeier (2005): Reading anxiety (RA); the self-efficacy index used by S. Mori (2002): Self-efficacy in English reading (RSE); and the belief indexes in Y. Mori (2005): Avoid ambiguity (AA), Quick learning (QL), Risk taking (RT), and Single answer (SA). To answer the research questions, correlation analysis was carried out and a correlation matrix was elaborated. Despite seemingly low reliability coefficients, results showed a high correlation between IOR and EOR. Expectedly, both indexes correlate negatively with Lack of motivation for reading English, and they had an inverse relation with RA. Also, Self-efficacy in reading English and these indexes were positively associated. Another trend found in the data points to a positive association between LMR and RA, but a negative relationship between the former and RSE as well as other motivational indexes. Likewise, RA had an inverse correlation with RSE and with IOR and EOR. Other interesting patterns involved propensity for avoiding ambiguity (AA) and QL. AA was positively associated with LMR and RA but negatively correlated with RT. QL was connected to motivation, EOR and IOR, a tendency of finding single answer and Reading self-efficacy. Considering reliability coefficients and measurement errors produced in the analysis, the authors concluded that only Extrinsic orientation for reading English, Lack of motivation for reading English, Reading anxiety, and Self-efficacy in English reading are suitable
measurements for the Japanese EFL context. Regarding the IOR index and its use in future studies, they proposed replacing this measurement with the measurement created exclusively for Japanese students by Fujita & Noro (2009) to test the different constructs involved in intrinsic motivation as compared to EOR.


Based on prior research on strategies instruction in reading comprehension, this study examined the reading comprehension abilities of a group of tenth-grade ESL students ($N=71$) in Indonesia using specialized strategy training. Through a quasi-experimental design using two classes with the same teacher and level, strategies instruction was provided to Class A ($n=36$) while Class B ($n=35$) maintained the traditional curriculum. Strategies introduced included predicting, text mapping, and summarizing. These metacognitive strategies were selected to provide students with opportunities to activate their schemata and gain knowledge of organizational structures related to English passages. For twelve ninety-minute classes, students were either taught in the traditional way of vocabulary exercises and comprehension questions or they were told of the benefits of reading strategies and given explicit instruction in their use. Following these courses, data were collected on reading ability through a researcher-designed test of literal comprehension and inferential comprehension. Using mid-semester test scores to control for differences between Class A and Class B as a covariate, ANCOVA analyses were used to better understand the effectiveness of strategies training for both literal and inferential reading comprehension. Results indicated that strategies training may have led to statistically significant differences in reading comprehension on both measures. The adjusted $R^2$ was 0.119 ($p < 0.05$) for literal scores and 0.165 ($p < 0.05$) for inferential scores. Thus, researchers concluded that strategies training resulted in better literal and inferential reading comprehension than traditional methods for this group of tenth-grade students. Due to the study’s findings which support previous research, the researchers recommend strategies instruction to be incorporated into English as a foreign language classrooms of all proficiency levels as it created beneficial outcomes in reading comprehension for these students.


This qualitative study sought to determine whether different types of attentional conditions have an effect on learners’ vocabulary development and reading comprehension. Specifically, the focus of the study was on learners’ attention to form and meaning during the completion of different types of L2 tasks. Think-aloud protocols were used to measure the attention and focus of six Iraqi intermediate EFL undergraduate students. The students were asked to verbalize their thoughts while completing three different L2 reading comprehension activities which differed in the amount of involvement load necessary to complete the tasks. Results illustrated that tasks with different involvement load encouraged different types of noticing. They also revealed that the type of attentional condition of task-induced involvement had an effect on vocabulary development and reading comprehension when processing unfamiliar words during the reading comprehension task. In this study, noticing of word form and meaning was interpreted as a high level of awareness. Furthermore, a higher level of awareness was found in all conditions of
reading comprehension tasks. In general, this awareness was related to high-level processes such as hypothesis testing, inferring, and context evaluation with metalinguistic awareness. Finally, the authors suggest that thinking aloud while doing reading comprehension tasks raises awareness, and therefore, it enhances learning and vocabulary development.


The authors examine the use of cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies in the reading comprehension of 190 Iranian EFL learners, ages 17-25, with an intermediate level of proficiency. The participants completed a reading proficiency test and, based on the results, were divided into two groups. The more successful readers made up a group of 63, while the less successful readers made up the second group of 127. They then completed a questionnaire, which allowed the students to identify the learning strategies they had used while taking the reading test. The results of this investigation confirmed the findings of previous studies that show that greater rates of strategy use is correlated with higher reading comprehension performance. In addition, these Iranian EFL students frequently used learning strategies, particularly metacognitive ones, while completing a reading test. The authors state that this could be due to the fact that Iranian students are taught to use a higher level of mental faculty given that much of their curriculum is based on theoretical knowledge. As such, EFL students would benefit more by developing a greater awareness of “thinking about thinking” and applying more metacognitive strategies to their reading tasks. The authors conclude with suggestions for implementing their findings in pre-reading, during reading, and post-reading activities.


The main objective of this article is to report on the implementation of an extensive reading (ER) program that incorporated graded readers (GRs) and was carried out in a Japanese as a second language (JSL) higher-education setting. The GRs used in this study were modified versions of authentic Japanese literature. Seventeen freshman and sophomore international students received blended ER instruction as a complementary activity in an existing course. The graded readers included both kanji characters and kana (phonograms). After reading, participants were asked to write reviews and answer quizzes for group discussion in class. During the lessons, students read the original versions of the texts with glosses and received support from their teacher to understand the story, vocabulary and grammar. Four instruments were used to assess participants’ performance in two sessions: a ‘Simple Performance-Oriented Test’ (SPOT), which tested listening for kana words; a vocabulary assessment of students’ word knowledge; a pre-questionnaire about students’ time and experience in learning Japanese, L1 use of kanji, preferred devices used for reading, and their perception of reading classes and GRs. The participants also completed a post-questionnaire, which targeted their experience and impressions about the benefits of ER lessons. Data analysis revealed that sophomores outperformed freshmen in both the performance-oriented test and the vocabulary assessment. An evident Japanese proficiency gap was found among the results of the freshmen students. The gap was attributed to the use of kanji in participants’ first language, as Kanji users obtained higher scores in the vocabulary test, and non-kanji users performed better on the SPOT. The analysis of
the pre-questionnaire also showed that non-kanji users had a tendency to comment on their lack of vocabulary which was reflected in their low vocabulary scores as well. However, learners with lower vocabulary scores also reported more interest in GRs prior to ER instruction, and so did non-kanji users. In the post-questionnaire, a majority of students showed a positive change in their opinions regarding the usefulness of GRs for reading comprehension and vocabulary learning. At the end of the study, students felt confident when presented with the original unmodified texts and found reading comprehension much easier. Results also suggest that GRs in which kanji and kana appear together facilitate advanced learners’ learning of Japanese vocabulary in higher education. Using GRs also served other purposes in the classroom as expressed by students, such as promoting a sense of a reading community and motivation to read. The author concluded that Japanese literature simplified in GRs will be suitable teaching materials for higher education classrooms when presented in conjunction with the original texts, which may be initially challenging to understand.


The present research examined the difference in morphological sensitivity of L2 learners of Hebrew with different L1s. The morphological structure of Hebrew, and other Semitic languages, can be described as complex and non-linear since words are composed of the combination of intertwined morphemes. This complex non-linear word structure is different than Indo-European languages such as English, which normally have morphologically simple linear words consisting of a base morpheme. Due to this morphological difference, the researchers looked at the difference in word recognition during L2 reading of Hebrew by 20 native speakers of Indo-European languages in comparison with 20 native speakers of a Semitic language. All learners were enrolled in intensive Hebrew language courses. Using a 6-point Likert scale, learners had to indicate if 60-letter strings were real Hebrew words. This was followed by a vocabulary posttest in which learners had to identify the meaning of given nouns and verbs by selecting the correct picture. Results showed that learners’ L1 background did influence their L2 reading process of words. For both tasks, L1 Indo-European learners paid more attention to the word-pattern morpheme while L1 Semitic learners paid equal attention to both the root morpheme and word-pattern morpheme. Both of these strategies are consistent with the morphological process of the learners respective L1s which suggests the beginning L2 learners transfer morphological strategies during the early stages of reading in their L2. The researchers conclude by calling for future research that investigates the use of morphological strategies by learners at various stages of language proficiency.


This study looked at factors that contribute to L2 comprehension. In particular, the researchers examined how lexical knowledge, grammar knowledge, and processing speed affect L2 reading and listening comprehension. Seventy-five Korean EFL students completed assessments in the following areas: visual processing speed, auditory processing speed, local grammar knowledge,
syntactic grammar knowledge, auditory vocabulary knowledge, receptive vocabulary knowledge, productive vocabulary knowledge, listening comprehension, and reading comprehension. Statistical analyses found that with the exception of auditory processing speed, all other variables were statistically significantly correlated with L2 reading comprehension and listening comprehension. Multiple regression analyses found that among the three predictor variables of processing speed, grammar knowledge, and vocabulary knowledge, vocabulary knowledge accounted for largest percentage (39.1%) of the variance in L2 listening comprehension ($F(3, 71) = 15.193, p < 0.001$) and 44.3% of the variance in L2 reading comprehension ($F(3, 71) = 18.787, p < 0.001$). However, this predictive power of vocabulary by itself in regards to L2 reading and listening comprehension disappeared and was found to not be statistically significant when the shared variance was controlled for. The shared variance of processing speed, vocabulary knowledge, and grammar knowledge was approximately 33.9% in L2 listening comprehension and approximately 41.8% in L2 reading comprehension. It was found that none of the hypothesized predictor variables had a unique predictive power for L2 reading or listening comprehension. Regarding the best combination of predictors for L2 reading comprehension, it was found that the combination of processing speed of simple sentences in visual form along with the two linguistic knowledge variables was a significant predictor ($\beta = 0.275; p < 0.05$). The researcher recommends that EFL students should receive both auditory and written vocabulary instruction in addition to completing activities in processing speed since all of these constructs positively contribute to L2 listening and reading comprehension.


The study took an action research approach to examine the effect of Extensive Reading (ER) on lexical chunk acquisition among intermediate language learners. Seven Spanish-speaking English language learners with an intermediate proficiency level participated in this 16-week study. All the participants completed three tests: (a) an online Cambridge test to identify their proficiency level, (b) a pretest to measure participants’ knowledge of lexical chunks, and (c) a posttest at the end of the experiment to evaluate the effect of ER on the learning of lexical chunks. In addition, all participants completed a questionnaire asking participants’ opinions on ER and lexical chunks, along with information about the amount of hours spent on reading. A short interview was also conducted after the completion of the questionnaire. Among the seven participants, three read eight graded reader books and two read one graded reader, several journals and one authentic novel. The remaining two participants read diverse texts including journals, magazines and short stories. Participants met weekly to discuss their readings and complete several group activities. The activities included two main components: explicit vocabulary learning (such as matching synonyms and sentence completion) and incidental vocabulary acquisition (such as reading aloud and skimming). Results revealed a 27% increase of mean score from the pretest ($M = 18$) over the posttest ($M = 22.83$). A positive interaction between reading time and posttest scores was also found, with a linear regression equation of $y = 17.56 + 1.81x$ ($y$ represents posttest scores, and $x$ represents hours spent on reading) indicating that within the 16-week treatment of ER, the more learners read, the more lexical chunks they learned. In addition, the questionnaire and the short interview showed that participants held positive attitudes towards ER and activities emphasizing lexical chunks. The results of the study confirmed the positive role of ER in improving the learning of lexical chunks. The study
suggested that more extensive reading opportunities should be available to L2 learners and that materials used in the classroom should give considerable attention to the acquisition of lexical chunks.


This study sought to investigate the stage-wise frequency of strategies used in reading (i.e., during pre-, while-, and post-reading stages) and the conditional awareness of such strategies, given that they are intentional and conscious processes carried out by the reader in order to enhance comprehension. The study also tried to answer questions regarding inconsistent results from previous research, which, the authors contend, may be due to the lack of consideration of the stages of reading. The researchers maintain that conditional knowledge of reading strategies is essential for successful reading to occur; that is to say, it is necessary for the reader to be aware of when and why certain strategies are useful depending upon the conditions affecting the reading. Metacognition, as it relates to reading, has to do with a reader’s awareness of processes he/she has available to enhance comprehension and his/her ability to reflect upon and report on such processes. Therefore, as part of the study, students had to complete reflective journals, which are believed to help with metacognitive development. The study took data from a larger investigation on nine ninth-grade students in India who had completed reflective journals in order to reveal their metacognitive knowledge. Students had to report on six texts, which had titles, illustrations, and glosses. They were asked to read each piece and then report in their journals in English. Feedback was given in English as well, but aimed at encouraging more reporting; therefore, no corrections were made to the language used by the students. Journals were analyzed using thematic analysis. Researchers understood that use of expressions such as for, to, because, so that, so, will help, and if were markers of conditional knowledge in the students’ journals. During the pre-reading stage, results showed that students primarily relied on “previewing” and “predicting” strategies, such as taking a look at the title, illustrations, highlighted expressions, or length of the text. Those strategies made up 86% of all strategies (165 total) used during pre-reading. This suggests that these strategies were the most useful when predicting key ideas of a passage. During the actual reading activity, 82.7% of a total of 185 strategies used were comprised of underlying unknown words, re-reading hard sections, visualizing content, highlighting main ideas, using a dictionary, remembering experiences, and guessing meaning, all of which help solve issues of comprehension. During the post-reading stage, the most used strategy was discussion with peers (which was the least used in the while-reading stage). Discussion plus recalling content, taking down notes, and using dictionary made up 69% of a total of 116 strategies reported in post-reading. Regarding conditional knowledge, analyses of the journals show that students used pre-reading strategies in order to get an idea about the text; while-reading strategies in order to solve issues with comprehension and to remember material; and post-reading strategies for memorizing, learning new vocabulary, and reinforcing comprehension. As a result of this study, researchers advise teachers to make students aware of the most effective strategies for reading at each stage of the reading process.


Reading in a Foreign Language 28(2)
With an understanding of the complexity stress generates for working memory and reading comprehension abilities in both L1 and L2 settings, this study sought to clarify the relationship between stress and reading comprehension at varying levels of cognitive load. Seventy English monolinguals and eighty intermediate Spanish speakers with a first language of English completed multiple measures. A demographic questionnaire provided information about the students’ personal histories while the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (Rai et al., 2011) provided information about learners’ anxiety when reading in a second language. The Automated Operation Span Test (OSpan; Unsworth et al., 2005) measured working memory capacity. A researcher-developed computerized reading task consisting of 12 brief reading passages followed by comprehension questions measured participants’ abilities to read. Throughout their completion of the reading test, four manipulations were used to induce stress. The first manipulation was the introduction of a video camera to record the participants. The second required participants to read a tongue twister for the camera before continuing, while the third manipulation involved telling students that an instructor would watch the recording. For the fourth manipulation, someone would observe the participant from just behind them. All four were built to divert attention and increase participants’ feelings of “stress.” Findings indicate second language readers were less efficient when stress was introduced. Yet, L1 readers tended to read more quickly under stress, although this effect was not significant. ANOVA analyses were performed across groups and conditions, indicating that there was a significant interaction ($\alpha=0.05$) between response time and reading in an L2. Further, ANOVA analyses across inference types and group conditions yielded another interaction among group and inference complexity. Thus, processing was most difficult when using an L2, and in this circumstance inferential complexity decreases efficiency. Correlations indicated that, for L2 readers, lower working memory ($r=-0.194$) and that lower perceived skill ($r=-0.319$) are associated with higher foreign language anxiety. Lower perceived skill also correlated with longer response times ($r=-0.183$). For L1 readers, negative correlations were found between perceived competence and reading anxiety ($r=-0.226$) and response time ($r=-0.412$). Overall, L2 readers were less accurate than their first language counterparts ($\alpha=0.001$). Through ANOVA analyses, researchers found a small interaction between accuracy and group status as well as a significant main effect, meaning that the relationship between inference complexity and language used was not the same across all levels. Correlations indicated that participants with lower anxiety ($r=-0.309$) and higher levels of working memory ($r=0.290$) tended to have more accurate responses in their L2. Using a linear combination, of working memory, reading anxiety, and self-perception, 15.3% of the variance in L2 reading accuracy was explained while only explaining 11.4% of the variance of L1 reading accuracy. Due to interactions between stress and working memory in L2 conditions where one has higher levels of stress and higher levels of working memory, the reaction time will be relatively long and the accuracy will be relatively high. For lower levels of both stress and working memory, reaction time will be longer while accuracy will be higher. Yet, where stress is higher and working memory is lower, accuracy will decrease and time to response will increase, meaning a loss of efficiency. The interaction for L1 reading, however, demonstrated that where working memory is lower, stress will slow down processing while when it is higher, it will speed up processing. Overall, these findings demonstrate that stress reduced processing efficiency when the task was more difficult, such as high complexity reading or L2 reading, and when stressors drew attentional processing away from the task.

The goal of this study is to assess the quality of several extensive reading (ER) course books especially produced for EFL undergraduate students in China and to identify the books that follow a principle-based design. Eight course books were carefully selected for this study. For the analysis, readability indices and vocabulary frequency were computed for three units in each course book to complement comprehensibility judgments based on the authors’ close reading of the texts. Based on current SLA theory and ELT research, a set of nine principles were selected to evaluate whether the course books contained the following: (a) comprehensible and interesting reading materials, (b) a large amount of reading materials, (c) tasks intended for reading fluency development, (d) authentic texts and tasks, (e) multimodal texts, (f) affectively and cognitively engaging tasks and texts, (g) texts that show the current use of English, as well as texts written by non-native and native English speakers, (h) autonomy development opportunities, and (i) topic and text type variety. Using these principles, the authors commented briefly on each book. Results showed that a majority of the course books were given low scores, and only three of them were evaluated positively. Renandya, Hu and Xiang concluded that most of the ER course books analyzed are far from being ideal, according to the nine compiled principles. The main reason for the low scores was that the tasks and reading passages in the course books were more related to intensive reading than to extensive reading. They also discovered that books geared towards sophomore students were generally more comprehensible than those intended for freshman students. Moreover, course books used for English majors tended to be more comprehensible, whereas books for non-English majors seemed to target higher-proficiency students. Overall, the researchers suggest that ER course books should provide students with longer and more varied reading passages and that they should be appropriate for their target audience in terms of language complexity. Finally, they also propose that post-reading tasks be emotionally, cognitively and personally meaningful in order to motivate students to read outside of class.


The authors present a meta-analysis of 12 experimental studies published between 2000 and 2012 of the effects of reading interventions provided to students who are at risk academically, including those with learning disabilities. The studies chosen fit within the following guidelines: it appeared in a peer-reviewed journal, the intervention was for K-12 English learners at risk of academic difficulties or with learning disabilities, information was separated by learner status if not all of the participants were English learners, and information regarding reliability of implementation was reported. The authors were unable to find many significant patterns or trends due to the small number of studies and the large amount of variety in methodology, sample size, participant age, etc. They do recommend that more experimental studies of this type be conducted and that they especially focus on language development and vocabulary.

In the following study, the researcher examined the relationship between reading anxiety and EFL reading. Specifically, the researcher explored the interaction among FL reading anxiety, reading proficiency, reading strategies, and gender differences. The participants were 60 ELF learners, 30 females and 30 males, taking EFL courses at a language center in Iran. Participants were divided into two groups, High group and Low group, based on their reading scores from a sample TOEFL exam. The researcher used three instruments to collect data for the study: (a) a reading section of a sample TOEFL to measure FL reading proficiency and performance, (b) the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (Saito et al., 1999) to explore participants’ FL reading anxiety, and (c) the Metacognitive Awareness Questionnaire (MAQ) to examine participants’ commonly used reading strategies. All instruments except the TOEFL were translated to Persian, the L1 of the participants, to avoid any problems of miscomprehension. Results indicated a negative statistically significant correlation between FL reading anxiety and FL reading proficiency ($r = -0.383, p < .01$), meaning that lower FL reading anxiety was correlated with higher FL reading performance and text comprehension. A negative correlation was also found between reading strategy use and FL reading anxiety ($r = -0.389, p < 0.01$) indicating that the level of FL reading anxiety may influence the types of strategies used for text comprehension. No relationship was found among gender, FL reading anxiety, and metacognitive awareness strategy use. However, an independent sample $t$ test revealed a difference in frequency of strategy use with females using bottom-up reading strategies more often than males ($t = -2.013, df = 58, p = 0.049$). The researcher urges more research investigating the dynamic phenomenon of FL reading anxiety.


This study examined the L2 digital literacy of EFL undergraduate students. Specifically, the researchers examined Japanese EFL students’ metacognitive reading strategies used to comprehend and evaluate an English website. Fifty-nine Japanese EFL students enrolled in a web design course participated in a three-week study. During the first week, a small group of students ($n = 16$) analyzed a website in English on tourism in Belize by answering eight open-ended questions provided by the researcher. During the second week, all 59 participants answered four close-ended questionnaires that measured students’ comprehension of the website content and their analysis of the website’s usability. During the final week, all 59 students completed a questionnaire regarding the metacognitive reading strategies they used to comprehend the website. Results indicated that students mainly employed a variety of global and problem-solving strategies when attempting to comprehend the website such as adjusting reading speed, having a purpose in mind while reading, and using context cues to help with comprehension of the website. Students also reported using fewer support reading strategies, which is consistent with previous research. In addition, students reported a positive attitude regarding the website’s content and their questionnaire answers indicated a moderate to high level of comprehension of the website. The article concludes with a list of suggestions for language instructors wishing to use website analysis in an EFL academic context.
The following study explored the use of glosses during EFL reading. In particular, the researchers investigated what types of marginal L1 glosses lead to greater vocabulary learning for EFL learners. Forty-nine young adult students, ages 15-17, currently enrolled in English courses at a language institute in Iran participated in the study. First, participants took the Cambridge Preliminary English Test and the Vocabulary Size Test (Nation & Beglar, 2007) to ensure the homogeneity of the participants in regards to L2 proficiency and vocabulary knowledge. Following the above tests, all participants read the same three short authentic texts in English. Each text had a set number of target words that a pilot study found would be unknown to participants resulting in a total of 41 target words. Participants read the texts in one of the following conditions: (a) the giver condition (n = 17) in which participants had to use a bilingual dictionary and write the L1 equivalent of the target words in the space provided, (b) the receiver condition (n = 17) in which the target words were glossed in the L1, and (c) the no glosses condition (n = 15) in which participants received no glosses. Upon completion of the readings, participants completed a reading comprehension text consisting of true-false and short answer questions. In order to measure vocabulary learning, participants completed two unexpected posttests, the first one was taken 2 days after reading the passages and the second posttest was taken one month later. In general, participants in the giver and receiver treatment conditions outperformed those in the no glosses conditions. The results of the post-ANOVA analysis (Bonferroni adjustment) indicated that participants in the giver condition had statistically significant (p < .001) higher scores on both posttests than the participants in receiver and no glosses treatment conditions. These findings are consistent with previous research regrading marginal glosses and L2 vocabulary learning.


This correlational study set out to investigate the effects of different aspects of vocabulary knowledge on EFL reading. In addition, the authors also sought to investigate the relationship between size of vocabulary and depth of vocabulary. A group of 361 EFL university students were administered Nation and Beglar’s (2007) Vocabulary Size Test and Read’s (1998) Words Associate Test to measure the size and depth of their L2 vocabulary knowledge respectively. Participants also completed a reading test. Results revealed a substantial positive correlation between size of vocabulary and depth of vocabulary. A strong positive relationship between size of vocabulary and reading comprehension and between vocabulary depth and reading comprehension was also found. A multiple linear regression accounted for the effects of vocabulary size and depth, which resulted in vocabulary depth being the best predictor of reading comprehension. It can be concluded that vocabulary size and vocabulary depth have a strong connection. Indeed, these findings allowed the authors to conclude that knowing a high number of vocabulary items may also mean knowing those items more deeply. The authors suggest that EFL teachers should plan their lessons so as to improve both size and depth of vocabulary, but place a special emphasis on depth of vocabulary, as it has been shown to improve reading comprehension. Finally, another implication drawn from this study is that curriculum developers

Given that readers of a text in English must recognize and process both consonants and vowels appropriately for text comprehension, the researchers investigated the effect of vowels on L2 reading. In particular, this study examined the effect of vowels in regards to the word identification, the reading comprehension, and the reading time of L2 learners with native languages that have limited vowel representation. Thirty-four multilingual L1 speakers of Dravidian languages (Kannada/Malayalam/Telugu/Tamil) served as the participants for the study. The participants were divided into three groups and read a story in English in one of the following conditions: (a) completely unvowelized with the removal of all vowels, (b) partially unvowelized with the removal of only a portion of the vowels, and (c) completely vowelized with the presence of all vowels. Participants were instructed to orally read the passage as quickly as possible filling in the missing vowels for the completely unvowelized and partially unvowelized groups when applicable. Afterwards, participants provided a summary of the story and an appropriate title. Results indicated statistically significant differences for all groups for word identification and reading time ($p < 0.005$). Participants in the vowelized and partially unvowelized conditions had faster reading times in addition to higher scores for word identification and reading comprehension. Reading comprehension was statistically different between the vowelized and the completely unvowelized ($p < 0.005$) indicating that those in the completely unvowelized condition did not comprehend the story as well as those in the vowelized condition. Unlike previous research which has viewed vowels as having a more secondary role in ESL reading, the researchers believe that the findings of this study point to the great importance of vowels for ESL readers especially in regards to reading time, word identification, and reading comprehension.


With 102 Taiwanese EFL tenth graders, this quasi-experimental study sought to examine the possible role of “Think-Pair-Share” activities on increasing students’ motivation and abilities in terms of reading in English. Although these students had an average of 8.5 years of prior English experience, rote memorization centered on the teacher rather than the learner likely filled this time. Through a quasi-experimental design with a pretest and posttest, this study investigated whether “Think-Pair-Share” might increase motivation for English learning, impact actual strategy use, and develop positive student perceptions of such classroom activities for learning. Before beginning the treatment, students were given a pretest. Then, for approximately eighteen weeks, the treatment group used “Think-Pair-Share” classroom activities and strategies instruction while the traditional class continued with the pre-existing curriculum without strategies training. Upon completion of the treatment period, posttest data were collected using a series of questionnaires to capture motivational intensity (Gardner, 1985), intrinsic motivation (Huang, 2005), extrinsic motivation (Reynolds & Wang, 2014), required motivation (Wardent & Lin, 2000), reading strategies use (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002), and feelings about “Think-Pair-
Motivational intensity is defined as the magnitude of the motivation an individual has. Intrinsic motivation is motivation from within while extrinsic motivation depends upon motivations from outside oneself. Required motivation is the degree to which students are doing something because it is required. Overall, the findings indicate that there was not a statistically significant difference in the motivation of these groups at the beginning of the treatment and, following the treatment, there was also no statistically significant difference in overall motivation. However, when compared to their own prior scores, the experimental group had statistically significant gains in motivation while the control group did not. When examining the varieties of motivation, both groups showed statistically significant gains in terms of intrinsic motivation while only the control group demonstrated these gains with required motivation. No statistically significant results were found when it came to increasing strategy use through strategy instruction within the “Think-Pair-Share” framework. However, students did have positive sentiments toward the “Think-Pair-Share” strategies with only two of the participants not believing it to be effective. Students reported that they particularly liked the increased interaction with texts in class and some felt it helped their learning. However, this treatment did occur over a short time in a format that students were generally unfamiliar with before this experiment. Despite students’ and instructors’ general comfort when using grammar-translation and other traditional methods, the authors recommend that instructors endeavor to do more interactive learning within their classrooms.


This study is concerned with the role of syntactic skills in both L1 and L2 reading and their possible predictability of reading comprehension in two typologically distant languages (Chinese and English). The research questions aimed to investigate: the relationship between syntactic skills and reading comprehension in the L1 and L2, and the contribution of syntactic skills across grade levels (first vs. third grade); the power of L1 syntactic skills as a cross-linguistic predictor of L2 reading comprehension when controlling for specific variables; and the possible mediators of the relationship between L1 syntactic skills and L2 reading comprehension. Four hundred and thirteen Hong Kong Chinese students from grades 1 and 3 completed the following: L1 and L2 syntactic assessments, two L1 and L2 oral vocabulary measures, six L1 and L2 literacy assessments, a nonverbal intelligence exam, and a working memory task. Data were analyzed using hierarchical multiple regressions and structural equation modeling. Results indicated that, in general, third-graders significantly outperformed first-graders in all language tasks. Results also found a close connection between syntactic skills and overall L1 and L2 literacy, and in both languages, syntactic skills positively correlate with each other and closely relate to reading comprehension. Furthermore, syntactic skills seemed to be cross-linguistically related to reading comprehension. The authors concluded that different aspects of syntactic skills such as word order and morphosyntactic skills were substantially related to reading comprehension in each language, although in different ways. Moreover, their contribution as reading comprehension predictors changed depending on the grade. Also, syntactic skills in the L1 were the best cross-linguistic predictors of L2 reading comprehension. The authors conclude that teachers should consider designing an educational program for bilingual learners that incorporates this L1-L2
correspondence as an instructional method to facilitate L2 literacy development, especially at low L2 proficiency levels.


This study explored EFL students’ engagement during picture book-based lessons in an English course at a university in Taiwan. Twenty-five students participated in five 100-minute lessons during the semester in which five picture books were used. Each lesson consisted of a warm-up stage, an individual reading stage, and a literacy activity stage that involved small-group discussion. The sources of data used to conduct the analysis were observation notes, video/audio recordings of the lessons, students’ completed activities, a questionnaire, and follow-up interviews with a selected group of students, which targeted their affective and behavioral engagement. Results showed that almost all students rated lesson enjoyment highly with many students borrowing picture books to read at home for pleasure. A majority of the interviewees declared having a good time in the group predicting and completing reflective activities because it encouraged them to use their imagination and creativity. Additionally, many students initiated spontaneous discussion about the assigned book. Thus, meaning negotiation with peers furthered thinking and comprehension of the text. The study’s findings also show that students were cognitively engaged in the lesson, which resulted in active, constructive and collaborative learning through peer interaction. Sun suggests that picture book lessons should be provided occasionally in young adults’ EFL classrooms.


Taking a corpus analysis approach, the following study explores vocabulary learning during extensive reading (ER) of the *Magic Tree House* series. In particular, the researcher sought to compare the vocabulary contained in the 1st to the 48th publication of the *Magic Tree House* series with vocabulary lists created by the Ministry of Education (MoE) in Taiwan for textbook developers of elementary and secondary schools in Taiwan. The following three word lists from the Ministry of Education were used: *Middle School Basic* containing 1,200 words, *Middle School Advanced* containing 800 words, and *High School* containing 4,700 words. Results found that if a student were to read books 1–48 of this series, they would encounter many words from the MoE, vocabulary lists: 91.4% of the words of the *Middle School Basic* list, 36.4% of the words of the *Middle School Advanced* list, and 36.4% of the words of the *High School* list. In addition, there were several repeated words found in the series that corresponded to the three words lists, with 21.81% having more than 10 repetitions and 15.91% with more than 20 repetitions. Words included the, and, to, through, toward, thought, saw, okay, and ladder. The researcher also found that the amount of repetition-type word patterns, which increases with each new reading of the books in the series, satisfy the necessary requirements that can lead to incidental vocabulary learning. Additionally, the researcher found that through focused and guided vocabulary learning, the total number of unknown words decreases greatly after mastery of books 1–4 making this series a good fit for ER. Given the findings regarding the vocabulary coverage in the *Magic Tree House* series, the researcher recommends that instructors and
students adopt this series as a practical manner to improve vocabulary acquisition via an extensive reading approach.


The authors of this study sought to develop an evaluation system, which would classify texts by proficiency level in order to aid teachers and students when selecting texts for the FL classroom. Given that it is critical that texts for FL learners be suitable for students’ proficiency level, and in order to avoid issues of time constraints, subjectivity, and lack of consensus when classifying materials, the authors suggest the creation of an automated system, such as the readability assessment (Benjamin, 2012; Feng et al., 2010). The researchers chose Chinese as an example and developed the Chinese Readability Index Explorer for Chinese as a Foreign Language (CRIE–CFL). Since the assessment needed to be paired with L2 proficiency assessment guidelines, the proficiency levels used to work with the readability assessment were those provided by the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). The researchers also used the readability model created by the support vector machine (SVM; Vapnik, 1995), which can divide data into small, illustrative chunks. The researchers analyzed 1,578 texts written specifically for Chinese FL students, and five CFL experienced teachers were asked to evaluate the level of the books. If all the teachers agreed on a certain level for a text, then the book was assigned such level. At first, teachers could not reach a consensus on 83.46% of the texts. Thus, the teachers had to present their argument for each book and discuss it, a process that took from 30 minutes to several hours. Regarding the key features for determining CFL readability, results indicated that lexical and semantic features along with syntactical and cohesive elements are the main categories that must be considered to provide a holistic and accurate readability assessment of written texts. In addition, results found that while the CRIE-CFL SVM model performed well for beginner-level texts, the accuracy of this system decreased as proficiency levels increased. The researchers believe that while this readability assessment model was used with Chinese, future researchers should employ similar methodology to create readability assessments for other languages. Finally, the article concludes by suggesting that CFL instructors and authors of CFL textbooks can use the corpus of texts provided by the CRIE-CFL to integrate more authentic Chinese language texts in the CLF classroom.


This paper proposes Assisted Reading (AR) as a useful tool in L2 reading in order to improve readers’ fluency and comprehension. Given the fact that L2 learners are not sufficiently exposed to reading, they lack reading fluency, which is necessary to attain efficient reading skills. Limited word recognition skills can be the cause of low reading input, and only increasing exposure to texts can improve this. Therefore, approaches such as Extensive Reading (ER) (exposure to large amounts of leveled texts) and Repeated Reading (RR) (recurring reading of a text based on Automaticity Theory) have been proposed. Successful RR results in increased reading speed of the same text, which in turn transfers over to the reading of new texts and a reduced number of errors made. AR draws on the principles of RR, while remaining flexible in
adapting to the needs of students who may encounter RR as repetitive or boring. Assisted RR consists of helpful scaffolding such as the listening of the recorded text while students read it in silence. L2 research has concluded that assisted RR results in increased silent reading speed and enhanced comprehension. The scaffolding utilized in this approach involves repetition of the text, use of an auditory aid, and limited teacher support with lexical items, grammar, and background knowledge. The poorer a reader’s fluency, the more repetitions of a text he needs. Readers in the beginning level need to repeat the same text about 3-5 times while listening to it. This model can be adjusted in order to attend to students’ needs, for instance by limiting the number of repetitions to four, with a first timed reading, followed by two untimed readings with the auditory support, and a final timed reading. The first and last timed readings are used to measure increases in reading speed. The method affords students with more confidence in their practice and a more solid exposure to vocabulary and grammar. As students’ reading fluency increases, the number of repetitions of a text can lower. Advanced readers may not need the repetition model at all, but could take advantage of reading along with the auditory help. The kind of scaffolding offered by AR can complement and facilitate ER, given that large exposure to texts provides a wide pool of input from leveled texts.


In this study, the authors explore the effect that concept mapping has on reading comprehension and recall. Sixty third-year high school students, all female, were divided into a control group and an experimental group, both of 30 participants each. A proficiency test given to the students prior to the experiment showed no significant difference in their language skills. After the proficiency test, the participants were given comprehension and recall tests for four reading passages. Only the experimental group was given a concept map for each passage. The results of the experiment show that the implementation of a concept map significantly helped the experimental group in both comprehension ($t = 2.17, p < .05$) and recall ($t = 3.711, p < .01$). Of particular note to the investigators, is the observation that the hierarchical organization of a concept map plays an important role in comprehension and recall by showing the meaningful relationships of information. They conclude that concept mapping helps the reader in three key manners: by activating the reader’s existing knowledge of the topic, by directing the reader’s attention to key information in the text, and by highlighting the relationships between important concepts in the text.


In a study examining cooperative peer questioning as a means of instructing reading, twenty Japanese EFL college students were guided through collaborative learning tasks to encourage positive interdependence and higher-order thinking about readings in the target language (TL). In this English-only classroom where students examined a variety of domain-specific texts, a particular kind of collaborative learning was introduced to the social act of reading. Students first read together as a class, then completed peer questioning, and finally completed the activity with a class discussion. The peer questioning phase involved students writing their own critical questions, which clarified meaning and sought deeper learning, discussing these questions with a
partner, and then writing answers to their own questions after the discussion. Following four
sessions of reading coursework done in this way, students were given a closed-item Likert scale
questionnaire with a section for free comments at the end. Results of this questionnaire indicated
that students felt that preparing these critical questions was not difficult, and they believe that it
had helped them both to read critically and understand better. Partner discussions were
particularly enjoyed by the participants as they felt they were better able to understand and
discuss the reading. As for writing their final answers, participants felt this was not too difficult
and more helpful than unhelpful. When evaluating the entire process, students were more likely
to answer positively, feeling that this type of lesson promoted their ability to practice speaking,
discuss the reading in depth, understand the reading better, and have more fun with language
practice. In addition, open-ended comment results indicated that learners were more aware of
their own L2 reading abilities after working with other students and that writing the answers led
to students feeling that this activity enabled them to clarify the ambiguity in their understandings.
The researcher recommends similar strategies to instructors who have fairly homogenous levels
within the same class to promote reading skills development.


In this study, the researchers explored EFL students’ beliefs regarding the use of literature
courses in an English Language Teaching (ELT) department at a university in Turkey. During
semi-structured interviews, 20 students, with various experiences with English literature courses,
shared their opinions regarding L2 reading and the role of literature in the ELT curriculum. The
majority of students (90%) stated that they enjoyed reading a variety of English texts for both
their coursework and for pleasure. In addition, although students differed regarding the strict
definition of literature, the majority of students believed that literature formed an important part
of the curriculum. Students’ comments revealed that they understood and supported the
mandatory literature courses that they were required to take for their major. Especially
noteworthy was the cultural relevance that many students attributed to literature courses with
many stating that literature allowed them to become more familiar with the target culture. Given
that ELT students seem to understand the value of literature courses, the researchers conclude by
encouraging language instructors to attempt to convince students of the relevance of literature to
their everyday lives, which is the real challenge.

through debate on male and female EFL learners’ reading comprehension. Journal of the
Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 15, 21-40.

With 88 Iranian EFL secondary students with three to five years of English learning experience,
a debate technique was examined in order to understand its effectiveness on the development of
critical thinking as it relates to student gender and reading comprehension. In this experiment,
there was a control group who received traditional instruction through the use of lectures while a
treatment group was instructed through the use of debates. Within the traditional instruction
group, students completed typical coursework, reading passages, looking up vocabulary, and
completing comprehension questions. However, the treatment instruction involved debates
lasting between twenty and forty-five minutes wherein students worked in teams to create logical
arguments about student-selected topics. First, students were instructed in debate formats, phrases, and other necessary vocabulary. Debates themselves would begin with opening remarks by two individuals, and then these students would respond to questions from the class, and then closing remarks would be made. Students prepared for these debates by reading a number of passages and prepared reasons and examples. Some students would be given the role of debater and others would be the debriefer. The debater would state an argument and the debriefer would question it. In a U-shaped seating arrangement, the topics were debated. Students were evaluated using Glatz & Gorman’s (1985) rubric, which focuses on ideas such as organization, research support, bias in the argument, eye contact, responses to opponents, and when synthesizing of support was done properly. Before treatment, students took a battery of tests including the Oxford Placement Test, Reading Comprehension Placement Test, California Critical Thinking Skills Test, and a Critical Reading Comprehension Test. Following one and a half months of treatment, students took these exams again and completed a reflective open-ended questionnaire. The content of the two conditions was not relevant to the examinations in terms of background knowledge or test format. Findings indicate that the experimental group performed better on these posttests than their control group counterparts. Despite indications found in some previous research, gender had no significant effect. The experimental group also had a significant difference between the pretests and the posttests. Within the tests, it was also found that those who scored well on reading comprehension also scored well on tests of critical thinking. There was also no gender difference in personal perceptions of their own performance. Thus, findings indicate that debate formats may have been helpful to these students’ development of critical thinking and reading comprehension. Further, students felt that team debates were enjoyable and helpful for developing critical thinking skills. By questioning peers and being questioned, they found it a positive challenge. Although a few students also reported that these practices were very stressful to them, overall, the researcher concluded that these debates were positive for the students and promoted active learning, engaging students fully in the text and critical discussions regardless of gender.


This article puts forth a more comprehensive operationalization of the construct of academic-language proficiency as a way to leave behind the narrow definition of academic language as simply academic vocabulary. The authors propose the concept of core academic-language skills (CALS), which are believed to aid reading comprehension in school. CALS involves a group of language skills and abilities, such as analyzing complex words and sentences, using connectives and discourse markers, interpreting anaphoric elements, using argumentation, and recognizing academic register. The authors examined the contribution of CALS to reading comprehension using academic vocabulary knowledge, word reading fluency, and sociodemographic factors as covariates. A sample of 218 students in grades 4–6, who attended a northeastern American city public school, and were designated by the school as English proficient (EP), former English learners/formerly limited English proficient (FEL/FLEP), or English learners (ELs), were assessed using four instruments that measured reading comprehension, vocabulary knowledge and reading fluency. Results indicated that CALS significantly contributed to individual differences in reading comprehension, with an increase in scores in higher grades.
Socioeconomic status (SES) environment and proficiency designation also played a role as ELs from lower SES scored lower than students designated as EP or FEL from higher SES. Also, within the English proficient group, lower socioeconomic status determined lower CALS scores. The authors conclude that CALS is a significant predictor of students’ reading comprehension beyond the contribution of academic vocabulary knowledge, word reading fluency, and sociodemographic characteristics. The implications drawn point to an understanding of language learning and use as socially-situated and to the need of understanding proficiency in the L1 and the L2 as context-dependent. These results also pose the need to establish a distinction between general language proficiency and proficiency in academic language. According to the authors, this distinction is also relevant for monolingual speakers, who may have fewer opportunities to take part in school-like discourse exchanges outside or inside their school. These students, though classified as EP, might also be unfamiliar with more academic ways of using language (as was the case for the EP students from low-SES environments in this study).


This study explored students’ opinions regarding two different instructional approaches for L2 reading at the university level. In particular, the researchers investigated students’ reactions to receiving L2 reading instruction using deductive and inductive teaching methods. The researchers described the “deductive” teaching method as the *pre-taught method*. With this method, instructors provide students with information regarding the format and structure of the text along with a thorough review of the grammar and vocabulary used in the text before students read the text. The “inductive” teaching method was described as the *discovery method*. In this method, instructors only provide a very brief introduction to the topic of the reading passage, and allow students to use their existing schemata regarding the topic to make assumptions about the content of the text. While reading the texts, students will discover the important grammatical concepts and vocabulary words. Following the reading of the text, the instructor provides more detailed instruction on the relevant grammar and vocabulary. The participants were students studying an L2 or L3 for reading and translation purposes at a university in England. Group interviews were conducted with 12 students studying Hungarian using an inductive approach and 11 students studying Finnish using a deductive approach. Analysis of the students’ responses indicated that many students found the inductive instructional method to be beneficial for memory, consolidation of knowledge, and vocabulary learning. Many also stated that this type of instruction was interesting and promoted active, independent, and real life learning. Many of the students in favor of the deductive teaching approach stated that this method helped ensure correct comprehension of the text and grammatical structures. Students also commented that this method seemed more supportive and often resulted in more time efficient reading of the text because they already knew what to expect. The researchers conclude that L2 reading instructors should utilize a combination of both approaches to help motivate students and accommodate students’ preferences.

The goal of this study was to investigate the effect of different types of visual mental imagery training on EFL reading comprehension. In addition, the researchers were concerned with looking at the influence of individual differences such as gender and working memory capacity on the effect of strategy training. Ninety-three (12 males and 81 females) second-year EFL Chinese students majoring in English were randomly assigned to one of three groups: a control group in which students received regular EFL reading comprehension training; a nonconstrained imagery group wherein students were explicitly taught the reading strategy of using visual mental imagery using a traditional format; and a constrained imagery group where students were explicitly taught to use visual mental imagery using constrained images to aid in reading comprehension. Only participants in the nonconstrained and the constrained imagery groups completed the Ability to Make Images questionnaire, while all participants completed the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & Mckeachie, 1993) in addition to assessments measuring working memory and reading comprehension. The hierarchical linear modelling was used to examine the effect of visual mental imagery training influence, as well as individual differences. Results indicate that, in general, all participants increased their reading comprehension performance over time for all conditions. However, the group who received the imagery training with additional guidance to form constrained images showed the most progress in reading comprehension compared to the other two groups. With regards to individual differences, gender was the only individual difference that significantly affected learners’ reading comprehension, with a sustained performance advantage for females. The findings of this study suggest that explicit instructions to make constrained images results in greater comprehension of text than nonconstrained imagery training or no imagery training at all. The authors emphasize the role of imagery and suggest that EFL teachers teach their students explicitly about the process of generating constrained images as a way to provide guidance for reading comprehension improvement.


In this eye-tracking study, Whitford and Titone investigated the effects of current L2 exposure on the eye-movement patterns of bilingual L1 and L2 sentence-level reading. To examine these issues, the authors used a “gaze-contingent moving window paradigm” and presented 36 English–French and 59 French–English adult bilinguals with 150 short sentences (75 English and 75 French sentences). The EyeLink 1000 system recorded participants’ right eye movements as they silently read each sentence. After reading all sentences, participants also completed a yes-no reading comprehension assessment. The researchers also gathered information regarding participants’ L2 acquisition and exposure and assessed their L1 and L2 proficiency. Results indicate that higher current L2 exposure resulted in greater L2 reading fluency including reading L2 sentences faster and shorter rates of fixation. However, greater L2 exposure also made it more difficult to read and process sentences in their L1. According to the authors, these findings suggest that individual differences in current L2 exposure interact with more general aspects of reading behavior.

This study discusses the use of online peer questioning to aid in the comprehension of hypertexts. The participants were 50 EFL students at a science and technology university in Taiwan. After a pretest, the volunteers were divided into two groups, more proficient and less-proficient. During on-site instruction, the students were taught to generate three types of questions (factual, comprehension, and integration) and three types of answers (knowledge restating, assimilation, and integration). Students then took a mid-test to assess their reading progress thus far. Following this mid-test, students were introduced to the online discussion forum and encouraged to interact with their peers by asking and responding to peer-generated questions. After 6 weeks of online peer interaction and questioning, students took a final test to evaluate their reading improvement. By observing the different types of questions and responses that each group used and the interactions between the two groups of students, the researchers learned that the less proficient readers tended to create more factual and comprehension questions in an attempt to more fully comprehend the texts. The more-proficient readers, on the other hand, generated questions that required more assimilation and integration in order to verify and expand upon their own understanding of the texts. The results of the investigation show that the less-proficient readers made significant improvement in their reading and benefitted from peer questioning to a greater extent than did the more-proficient readers. Finally, in semi-structured interviews, most of the interviewees reported a favorable attitude towards online peer questioning particularly because it gave them an opportunity to ask and answer questions anonymously.


This study investigated the connection between home literacy environment (HLE) and literacy outcomes in Hong Kong Chinese ESL kindergarteners learning two languages simultaneously. Ninety children in their final year of preschool in Hong Kong were tested on different language skills such as English word reading, English receptive vocabulary, English expressive vocabulary, syllable identification, phonemic sensitivity, and letter identification. Additionally, parents answered a questionnaire about demographics and literacy practices at home. Parents also had to report how many English children books they had available at home. Data showed a strong relationship among shared reading frequency, receptive vocabulary, expressive vocabulary, phonological awareness at the syllable level, letter naming skill, and word reading. Correspondingly, exposure to English materials was associated with receptive vocabulary, picture naming, phonological awareness at the syllable level, and letter naming skill but not with word reading. Moreover, home teaching was significantly related to picture naming, phonological awareness at the syllable level, and letter naming skill. The authors performed hierarchical regressions to analyze the contribution of each HLE aspect to children’s literacy performance. Findings suggest that exposure to English materials and home teaching can be considered as two independent components of home literacy practices. Furthermore, data suggest that vocabulary acquisition can be enhanced by frequent shared reading. The authors argue that practice can also help improve phonological awareness at the syllable level and word reading in English. Exposure to literacy materials was found to be greatly connected to vocabulary.
However, home teaching, regardless of frequency, was not related to literacy outcomes. Results demonstrate that home teaching by parents is generally ineffective in literacy outcomes improvement. Nonetheless, the authors argue that home literacy practices are usually helpful for ESL Chinese kindergarten students and emphasize the great importance of shared reading for L2 development.

About the Editors

Shenika Harris is an Assistant Professor of Spanish at Lindenwood University, where she teaches undergraduate courses in Spanish and bilingualism. She earned a PhD in Second Language Acquisition with a minor in Spanish from the University of Wisconsin-Madison. She holds a Graduate Certificate in Language Instruction from Washington University in St. Louis and a MA in Spanish from Saint Louis University. Her current research interests include foreign language pedagogy, foreign language literacy, and L1 use in second language acquisition. She has published on L2 writing activities and is currently at work on publications focused on dual language use in the foreign language writing process of intermediate students of Spanish. E-mail: SHarris@lindenwood.edu

Carolina Bernales is an Assistant Professor in the Linguistics Department at the Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso-Chile, where she teaches graduate and undergraduate course in English syntax and second language learning. She holds a MA in Applied English Linguistics and a PhD in Second Language Acquisition from the University of Wisconsin-Madison. Her current research focuses on cognitive and lexical processing in a foreign language and reading comprehension. She has published on classroom interaction and foreign language learning. E-mail: carolina.bernales@gmail.com

Gabriela Romero-Ghiretti is an Associate Professor of Spanish at Lindenwood University. She obtained her BA in English and Teacher Training at National University of Cuyo, in Mendoza, Argentina. She then attended Washington University in Saint Louis, Missouri, where she earned her MA in Spanish, a Graduate Certificate in Language Instruction, and her Ph.D. in Hispanic Languages and Literatures. She has extensive teaching experience both domestically and abroad with all levels of language and literature courses. Her research interests include Latin American women writers; women and gender studies; avant-garde literature; gender and modernity, and language acquisition through literature. She has published in peer-reviewed journals and received awards in teaching and writing. E-mail: GRomero-Ghiretti@lindenwood.edu

Haley Dolosic is an Applied Linguistics doctoral student at Washington University in St. Louis in the Department of Education with concentrations in English Language Learners and Associated Policy, Language Acquisition Research Methodology, and Second Language Reading. Her research interests include literacy development, reading strategies use, self-assessment, language policy, immersion programs, and impacts of nonlinguistic variables on language acquisition. E-mail: dolosichn@wustl.edu

Huan Liu is a doctoral student at Washington University in St. Louis in the Department of Education, with concentrations in Applied Linguistics and English Language Learners. She holds
a Master of Education in Foreign Language Education from the University of Georgia. Her research interests include L2 reading development, L2 writing development, self-assessment of L2 reading and writing abilities, and impacts of nonlinguistic variables on second language acquisition. E-mail: huan.liu@wustl.edu

Tracy Van Bishop is currently an Assistant Professor of Spanish and Foreign Language Program Coordinator at Atlanta Metropolitan State College. Dr. Bishop has published works on the Baladro del sabio Merlin and historical linguistics, and his research involves computer assisted textual analysis and foreign language pedagogy, particularly the teaching of reading strategies. He has taught courses ranging from beginning Spanish language to advanced linguistics classes and graduate seminars in Spanish syntax and foreign language pedagogy. E-mail: tbishop@atlm.edu