

UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA CATARINA

READING STRATEGIES IN ENGLISH AS A
FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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FLORIANÓPOLIS

DEZEMBRO - 1984

UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA CATARINA
CURSO DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM INGLÊS E LITERATURA
CORRESPONDENTE

READING STRATEGIES IN ENGLISH AS A
FOREIGN LANGUAGE

POR

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Dissertação para a obtenção do grau de Mestre em Letras
- Opção Inglês e Literatura Correspondente

FLORIANÓPOLIS
DEZEMBRO - 1984

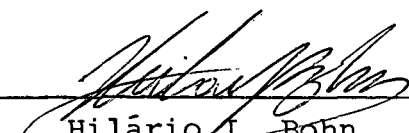
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MESTRE EM LETRAS

Especialidade Língua Inglesa e Literatura Correspondente e aprovada em sua forma final pelo Programa de Pós-Graduação.



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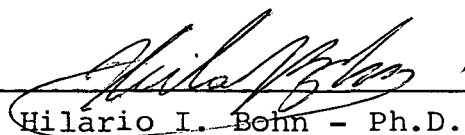


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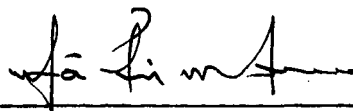
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Dedico, por amor e por dever de justiça, este trabalho ao meu marido Edemir e aos meus filhos Edemir Júnior e Victor porque, na união de nosso lar, souberam suportar as dificuldades e, ainda, me encorajaram a prosseguir.

Homenagem Póstuma

À memória inesquecível de meus
tios

José Ribeiro Gonçalves e
Theodoro Ribeiro Gonçalves

AGRADECIMENTOS

Aos professores do Programa de Pós-Graduação em Letras da UFSC.

À CAPES e a Universidade Federal do Piauí pelo valioso apoio.

À Michele, Secretária do Curso, pela cooperação e amizade.

Ao João Inácio Müller, pelo trabalho de datilografia.

À Ana Stenger pelo apoio constante.

À Escola Técnica Federal do Piauí, na pessoa do Diretor Prof. José Ferreira Castelo Branco.

À minha família, principalmente à vovó Linduca e a meus pais, pelas preces a Deus, pela confiança que depositaram em mim e pela dedicação a meus filhos.

À família do meu marido, Edemir, e, de modo especial ao Pantaleão, Doca, Zefinha e Edith o meu coração reconhecido pelas orações que fizeram e pelo carinho dado aos meus filhos: Edemir Júnior e Victor.

À minha família catarinense, Dr. Danilo, Laura, Ziza e Rachel a quem o reconhecimento e a gratidão fazem pouco pelo muito que recebi.

Um destaque, mui especial, ao Prof. Michael Scott pela orientação eficaz e ainda pelo mestre que se tornou, também amigo.

RESUMO

O principal objetivo deste estudo é detectar as dificuldades que os maus leitores encontram em suas leituras e ensiná-los estratégias de leitura a fim de ajudá-los a vencer estas dificuldades.

O embasamento teórico para o desenvolvimento deste trabalho foi obtido através da revisão da literatura sobre o processo de leitura baseada principalmente nas teorias de Goodman (1967) and Smith (1978), da revisão da literatura sobre as estratégias de leitura tendo como suporte os trabalhos de Wagoner (1983), van Dijk and Kintsch (1983), Kato (1984), Baker and Brown (1984), Holmes (1981, 1982), Scott (1981, 1983) e Shpherd (1983) e da revisão da literatura sobre a influência afetiva na leitura baseada no trabalho de Downing e Leong (1983).

O grupo experimental foi constituído inicialmente de vinte alunos. Esses alunos fizeram dois testes diferentes - um teste-resumo e um teste sobre estratégias de leitura. Usando o resultado do primeiro teste dez alunos foram escolhidos para fazerem o teste de estratégias de leitura. Os resultados desse teste determinaram a seleção dos cinco estudantes para participarem de um curso sobre estratégias de leitura. Depois do curso, esses alunos fizeram um teste final sobre estratégias de leitura para avaliar se eles haviam progredido ou fracassado no curso.

O curso sobre estratégias de leitura estava constituído do de 17 unidades distribuídas em 40 horas/aula. Cada unidade constava da(s) estratégia(s) a ser(em) ensinada(s) e de um texto que possibilitava ao aluno praticar a(s) estratégia(s) estudada(s).

As principais conclusões alcançadas foram: grande parte

dos alunos não sabem como fazer um resumo; o ensino de inglês em nossas escolas parece ser mais concentrado em tradução do que em compreensão; o ensino de estratégias de leitura parece ter sido efetivo uma vez que os maus leitores mostraram um sensível progresso no processo de leitura bem como no uso de estratégias de leitura.

ABSTRACT

The main objective of this study was to detect poor readers' difficulties in reading and to teach them reading strategies in order to help them overcome these difficulties.

The theoretical basis for the development of this work was obtained through a review of the literature about the reading process based mainly on Goodman's (1967) and Smith's (1978) theories, a review of the literature about the reading strategies based mainly on Wagoner (1983), van Dijk and Kintsh (1983), Kato (1984), Baker and Brown (1984), Holmes (1981, 1982), Scott (1981, 1983) and Shepherd (1983) and a review of the literature about the influence of affective motivation on reading based on Downing and Leong's (1983) work.

The experimental group was initially composed of twenty students. These students took two different tests - a summary test and a reading strategy test. Using the results of the first test ten students were chosen to take a reading strategy test. The results of this test determined the selection of five students to participate in a reading strategy course. After the instruction period, these five students took a final reading strategy test to evaluate their progress or failure in the reading strategy course.

The reading strategies course had 17 units taught over 40 hours. Each unit had the strategy or strategies to be taught and a text that enabled the students to practice the strategies taught.

The main conclusions drawn were: most of the students in the experiment have no idea of how to write a summary, the teaching

of English in the Brazilian schools seems to concentrate on translation instead of comprehension and the teaching of reading strategies seems to have been effective since after the instruction period the poor readers showed significant progress in their reading process.

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CHAPTER 1

JUSTIFICATION OF THE WORK

1.1. Justification of the work

In spite of great worldwide technological development, reading is still the main tool available to integrate the peoples of different nations and languages. Reading shortens the distance between peoples and nations. Through reading, men are able to accompany events, new ideas and technological development all over the world. Reading, in a stricter sense, has many other purposes. Robinson (1979:323) states that reading

is a vital part of everyone's daily life - driving, shopping, using consumer products, filling out a variety of forms, and so on. It can also be a vital part of life for helping to find how-to-make it, how to play it, and how-to-learn about it.

Reading is essential to the intellectual growth of the individual as well as communication. The more a person reads, the more he is able to communicate, to expand his knowledge and to become a good professional.

Learning to read is not a difficult task. Many people read, but only a few can comprehend efficiently what they read. This

happens, most of the time, as a direct result of the first reading classes. Readers, learning to read in L 1, are asked to read aloud trying to pronounce each word correctly with little or even no concern for comprehension. According to Goodman ([1967] 1982:33) the reading process has been developed under the following misconception: "Reading is a precise process. It involves exact, detailed, sequential perception and identification of letters, words, spelling patterns and large quantity units." Because so much emphasis is given to isolated words, the reading process becomes slow, monotonous, boring, passive and far from meaningful. Readers do not learn to read efficiently in their native language and they transfer all acquired bad reading habits to learning to read a second language. Consequently they are not efficient readers in the second language either. Fortunately, nowadays, much is being done to close the gap between reading and comprehension. Goodman (1967), Smith (1978), Hosenfeld (1981) and many other researchers have been developing studies in this area aiming at giving another approach to the reading process. These linguists and psycholinguists are trying to show that reading is not a passive, exact process or identification of letters, isolated words or structures. Goodman (1967:33) says that

Reading is a selective process. It involves partial use of available minimal language cues selected from perceptual input on the basis of the reader's expectation. As this partial information is processed, tentative decisions are made to be confirmed, rejected, or refined as reading progresses.

Reading is now seen as an active, participative, comprehensible, reflexive, interactive and integrative process. Writer and reader try to understand each other as completely and efficiently as possible.

In order to enable the reader to read according to contemporary theories about the reading process, some researchers such as Yetta Goodman and Burke (1984), van Dijk and Kintsch (1983) have suggested some reading strategies.

Taking into account all the above and observing how the students of the Federal University of Piauí deal with texts one may think that most of the readers at FUFPI face difficulties in reading. This may be as a consequence of the misconception that reading is a precise process and of the lack of awareness of the usefulness of reading strategies. Most of them read inadequately - even those students who have good background knowledge of the language in which they are reading are unable to read efficiently. Most of them are used to 'word by word' reading, and, as a result, they are unable to grasp completely the meaning conveyed by the words in the context.

Considerations of these problems raised the following questions:

- a) What are strategies?
- b) Which strategies are used in L 1?
- c) Which strategies are used in L 2?
- d) How important are strategies in gaining comprehension?
- e) Can students be taught better strategies?
- f) Which strategies are conscious and which are unconscious?

These haunting questions persisted and needed answers.

CHAPTER 2

THE READING PROCESS

2.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a review of the literature about the reading process. The misconceptions which underlie this process will be treated in detail. The reading behavior of the students of the Federal University of Piauí will also be considered. Frank Smith's (1978) and Goodman's (1967) general theories about the reading process will be discussed, as will Schema Theory, context and co-text and metacognition.

2.2. Misconceptions About the Reading Process

That reading is a psycholinguistic guessing game (Goodman [1967] 1982) is a fairly new conception. For many years the reading process was seen as a passive process. Educators, students and many linguists accepted this misconception and as a consequence, it is relatively easy to find students and professionals who are unable to read efficiently. Some of these

students and professionals might not accept the accusation, their defense being on their capacity to pronounce accurately every word presented in a text. But in spite of this accuracy, these people are not able to give accurate answers when someone checks their comprehension of the text. Frequently, they are not even able to say what the text is about.

The burden of their failure to read proficiently can not be attributed only to the readers. The way they read is supported by the misconceptions about the reading process which served as the basis for the reading curriculum some years ago. In its turn, the curriculum guided the readers to merely identify words which, in turn, led the readers far away from the possibility of comprehending what they read. According to Robinson (1979:21) "some poor readers are victims of teaching which has emphasized the mechanical aspects of reading rather than the important concept of the search for meaning."

Many misconceptions about the reading process support Robinson's statement. Some of these misconceptions (Goodman 1967; Smith 1978) are:

a) Reading is matching letters to sounds

There is the belief that this relationship between letters and sounds is relevant to reading. Reading is therefore seen as phonics. This belief is wrong since it is known that the relationship between letters and sound is not one to one but is one to many.

b) Meaning is derived from oral language

It is commonly assumed that reading involves two processes before the reader can reach meaning. First, the reader has to

recode graphic input to aural input and, second, he has to decode it. Although graphic to aural translation can occur in the early stages of learning to read, in much the same way as when someone begins to learn a second language, it is not necessary, and not usual in the competent reader. Evidence that reading is not recoding graphic input to aural input and then decoding comes from the miscues the readers commit when reading. It is common to find readers producing syntactic and semantic miscues, that is, substituting the exact textual word for one which is not synonymous but which does not change essentially the meaning of the text and is grammatically acceptable.

c) Reading is a matter of identifying (or knowing) a series of words.

Behind this idea there is the presupposition that learning to read means learning to identify and recognize words. Furthermore, there is the presupposition that known words are recognized in every context. This conception is wrong since words are seen as having a static meaning - as if the meaning of known words is always the same no matter what the context. This static meaning denies one of the characteristics which is a privilege of human languages in which any lexical item may have many different connotations - the right meaning depends on the context in which it is found.

d) Reading can only be successful if the reader is able to read each letter and each word presented in a text

Under this conception the identification of all letters and words in a text is required. This conception is also wrong since reading is not just the identification of all letters and

words. Such a misconception may lead the reader to monotonous, tiresome and mechanical reading strategies.

Many reading curricula are based on this misconception. Many of us have passed through an experience similar to that which Goodman [1967] (1982:79) describes

I don't know how many times
I've had teachers say to me.
'After all, how can you read a
sentence if you don't know all the words in it?

e) Speed in reading is related to how rapidly the reader moves his eyes on the printed page

According to this concept, speed in reading is related to how rapidly the reader moves his eyes on the printed page. This conception is also wrong since the reader's eyes do not move in a linear way, that is, they do not follow the linear organization of the text.

According to Smith (1978:20) the very fact the eyes do not move smoothly and uninterruptedly helps prove that one "sees" with the brain, not with the eyes. Furthermore, one does not see objects or a scene in a jumbled way because the brain organizes and constructs an image. The speed in reading depends on how long the brain takes to process the information. This assumption will be discussed in greater detail later in this chapter (see 2.6 below).

All the above misconceptions consider the reading process as a mechanical process with no mention of the constant search for meaning which should underlie every reading act. Curricula based on these misconceptions taught many readers how to sound out letter and words, to recognize a series of words and to try to identify all the words in a text. Unfortunately, in this

approach the reader remains far removed from understanding what he reads. This occurs because reading cannot be fragmented. Reading is not a matter of relating letters to sounds. Reading is not transformation of graphic input into aural input and then decoding it. Reading is not the mere identification of words as isolated bits. Reading is not knowing all the words in a text.

2.3. General Theories of Smith and Goodman.

Smith (1978) and Goodman ([1967] 1982) share similar points of view about the reading process. They both attack earlier theories about the reading process that support approaches such as phonics and word - centred. Their attack is grounded on the fact that the main focus of these approaches is letter identification and word identification respectively. They also reject the belief that known words are recognized in every contextual situation. To support their opposition to these approaches, they argue that these procedures make the reader lose the meaning of the text. The reader cannot keep the semantic and syntactic relationships existing between the words and sentences due to the accumulation of visual information which reaches the brain. This accumulation is responsible for a process which Smith calls "tunnel vision".

Tunnel vision is caused, not only by the excess of visual information, but also by the presentation of texts which are not relevant to the reader, because of his lack of courage to use his knowledge of the world to predict words and content of texts. Smith (1978) argues that these causes should be eliminated since they inhibit the reader's progress in the reading process. He

affirms that the main way the reader can overcome these difficulties is by reading. A person only learns to read by reading.

The following example may be useful in illustrating the process of tunnel vision caused by the presentation of a text which we suppose to be irrelevant to a large number of readers.

Fool: He that has a house to put's head in has
 a good headpiece.
 The codpiece that will house
 Before the head has any,
 The head and he shall louse:
 So beggars marry many.
 The man that makes his toe
 What he his heart should make
 Shall of a corn cry woe,
 And turn his sleep to wake.
 For there was never yet fair woman but she made
 mouths in a glass.
 (Shakespeare: King Lear; III, ii, 25-36)

This text may cause tunnel vision because the reader may know the meaning of all the individual words, but he may not be able to understand the message or meaning of the text as a unit. Take for example, the first sentence of the text. Even a child would be able to know the meaning of all the individual words but what does the sentence really mean? This may occur because the reader may not be aware of the context in which the play King Lear develops and of the main function of fools in literary works. Lack of this knowledge makes the reading of this message irrelevant to the reader and consequently causes tunnel vision.

Goodman's ([1967] 1982:33) definition of the reading process illustrates the way the reading process is now perceived. He says that

Reading is a psycholinguistic guessing game. It involves an interaction between thought and language. Efficient reading does not result from precise perception and identification of all elements, but from skill in selecting the finest, most productive cues necessary to produce guesses which are right at the first

time. The ability to anticipate that which has not been seen, of course, is vital in reading, just as the ability to anticipate what has not yet been heard is vital in listening.

As can be seen, Goodman is a great defender of guessing in the reading process which involves an interaction between thought and language. To develop this strategy efficiently, the reader needs to have some command of the language structure, some knowledge of the world and good thinking skills. The reader who possesses these qualities is able to make guesses without much effort.

Smith (1978) also defends the relevance of prediction, as he calls guessing, in the reading process and he also recognizes that prediction depends on the schema of the world stored in the reader's long-term memory. Prediction, like guessing, is not made recklessly. The reader uses semantic and syntactic cues to make acceptable predictions. He is not expected to predict exactly but he must be able to make an acceptable prediction, that is, one that does not alter the contextual meaning.

Reading involves an interaction between author and the reader. The author has his thoughts and expresses them through written language. He tries, as far as possible, to be precise, clear and coherent in expressing his ideas, wishes, feelings, etc. In spite of all this effort, the meaning of the message is not totally explicit in the text. The reader must be able to fill in existing gaps. The reader gives meaning to the message. He is able to do it through his experience and linguistic and contextual knowledge. This background knowledge enables the reader to infer the rules that govern the written message and that underlie its deep structure where meaning is obtained. After that, the reader is able to reconstruct the writer's message, that is, he is able to grasp the meaning.

Because reading in its very nature is an active process, interaction between author and reader is necessary. A proficient reader does not perceive and identify all the elements in a text. He uses minimum available cues to reach his main goal, which is meaning, relying mainly on the redundancy of language and knowledge of linguistic constraints, and knowledge of the world.

Smith and Goodman have another common point of view about the reading process which concerns 'errors' in reading. Neither of them says that a reader has made an error during his reading process - since reading is not a precise process - a 'word by word' process. Some inaccuracies that the reader makes while reading are to be expected since the reader is making predictions/guesses while reading. Smith calls these inaccuracies misreadings and Goodman calls them miscues.

Smith and Goodman claim that misreading/miscue is essential to any reading process. They are good indicators that the reader is reading for meaning. Proficient readers are much more likely to make acceptable miscues than inefficient readers. Proficient readers correct their miscues only if they change the contextual meaning, but poor readers, most of the time, do not even perceive that they have made a miscue. They are not reading for meaning. They are identifying letters and words. An example of a reader performing a psycholinguistic guessing game is his misreading of the word 'house' for apartment in the sentence: The house he lived in was quite near the supermarket. In this case the proficient reader, in most contexts, would not make a correction because his misreading maintains the original meaning adequately. The poor reader perusing the same sentence, could read 'house' as 'horse' and not perceive it (Smith 1978).

2.4. Schema Theory

Since the reader's goal is to reach meaning which depends, to a considerable extent, on the reader's experience and linguistic and conceptual knowledge, it seems relevant to consider what is known about knowledge structures: schema theory.

As discussed earlier, the author does not write everything in his text though he usually tries to be as clear and precise as possible. Much of the meaning of his message is not explicit. The gaps encountered in the written text must be filled in by the reader. The reader can do this only if he has ample knowledge of the world. This knowledge is not primarily academic (economic, political, historical, etc.) but is basic general knowledge, such as knowing that water is liquid, that sea water is salty, etc. Both general and academic knowledge are organized in schemata. The reader's schemata are developed by the reader's daily experiences and of course, also through reading. The more one reads, the more one enlarges his schemata. Schema theory is a theory about knowledge structures.

According to Rumelhart (1984) schema theory is a theory about how knowledge is organized and how this organization makes it easier to use knowledge in particular ways. This knowledge is stored in the reader's memory and can be modified when new information enters the memory. Schemata contain ~~small~~ small units of knowledge as well as information as to how this knowledge is to be used.

According to Bransford (1979) schemata are activated when any concept is aroused in memory. For example, if someone is asked about the fruit which are common in his region, this person immediately activates his schemata of fruit and within a few

seconds much of his knowledge of fruit comes to his memory and he is able to answer. Another example which illustrates how schemata are activated is the concept of disease. Someone hearing the word disease, immediately activates his schemata searching for information he has about disease and, depending on how well organized this information is, the easier and clearer it will be recovered. It is expected that in a disease schema some of the following schemata are activated: disease (contagious or non-contagious), types of diseases (hepatitis, cancer, cold, smallpox), causes (internal, external), effects (weakness, paleness, temperature), treatment (doctor, nurse, diet, rest, medicine). Besides these schemata, it is also possible that knowledge of the subschemata of these general schemata are activated depending on context and purpose.

According to Adams and Collins (1979:3) in the reading process the schema theory plays an important role since

The goal of schema theory is to specify the interface between the reader and the text - to specify how the reader's knowledge interacts with and shapes the information on the page and to specify how that knowledge must be organized to support the interaction.

The following examples illustrate what has been said about the schema theory:

A) Peter wants to have his cake and eat it too.

Although this proverb is popular, very few people know how to interpret it. To the reader who only 'comprehends' what he reads explicitly in the text, this proverb has very limited meaning. He cannot read beyond the visual information. However, a good reader, one who reads beyond what he sees and uses his nonvisual information - his schema of the world - certainly would

interpret this proverb as an indication that Peter is a person who does not co-ordinate his activities and who does not perceive that he cannot do two things at the same time.

B) "The harvest is rich but the laborers are few, so ask the Lord of the harvest to send laborers to his harvest."

(Matthew 9:37/38)

If the reader has no religious schema stored in his memory, he will not be able to read between the lines of this passage. The text will not have any meaning for him. On the other hand, if the reader has a religious schema, he will know that harvest refers to the world and that laborers refer to pastors, priests - the persons who preach salvation. Then, the reader would interpret the text as an exhortation to ask God for persons to preach salvation.

Thus schema theory concludes that reading comprehension depends considerably on each reader's schema of the world - the reader's nonvisual information.

2.5. Bottom up and Top down Theories of Reading.

Schema theory is a theory about knowledge stored in the reader's mind. Units of knowledge are referred to as schemata. These schemata are activated by the reader when attempting to comprehend the textual message of any reading task. In this attempt, the reader sends the input information to the schema he already has. If the input information does not share some common points with the reader's schema, the reader will not be able to comprehend the message. Finding the common points between input information and the reader's schema is necessary in order to read

comprehensively and is the result of two basic modes of information processing. These basic modes are bottom-up processing and top down processing.

According to Adams and Collins (1979) bottom up processing and top down processing work in opposite directions.

Bottom-up processing is activated by incoming data which is tried and tested by bottom-level schemata. As adequate schemata are found, the data moves up through the hierarchically organized system of schemata to more and more comprehensive levels of interpretation. Simultaneously, the top-down processing searches for information which fits partially satisfied, higher order schemata.

Bottom-up and top-down processing complement one another. They are used simultaneously in the attempt to comprehend texts. Bottom-up processing is used to identify letters, words and sentences in a text. The reader goes from the particular to the general. This kind of reading enables the reader to perceive information which is new or which does not coincide with his hypothesis about the content of the text. Top down processing is used to confirm the hypothesis that he has raised about the content of the text. Here the reader goes from the general to the particular. This kind of reading enables the reader to solve problems of ambiguities or to select among interpretations or possible alternatives.

It is worth noting that the question of top-down versus bottom-up processing is not without controversy. Gough (1972), for example, claims that the reading process is essentially bottom-up, while Smith and Goodman argue for a top-down approach. The controversy goes beyond the scope of this work. For present

purposes we will assume an essentially top-down approach based on expectations, previous knowledge organized in schemata, and prediction, but not excluding some necessary bottom-up processing, in identifying samples for the brain to process in between each top-down processing effort. There is thus an interaction between bottom-up and top-down processes.

2.6. Saccades and Fixations.

Few people know that speed in reading depends on how long the brain takes to process the information. It is relevant to examine how the visual system works since many people believe that speed in reading depends on how rapidly the reader moves his eyes over the printed page.

This presupposition comes from the misconception that while reading, the reader's eyes follow the linear organization of the text. The reader may think this since he reads making sense of what he reads. But in the reading process the eyes should not always follow the line of print from left to right or from beginning to end. The eyes do not see one word, then the following one, and then the following. The eyes do not glide smoothly and uninterruptedly over a printed page. The movements of the eyes are characterized by jumps from top to bottom, from bottom to top, from left to right, from right to left and in all directions. Smith (1978:20) says that, only in fiction, does the detective look the suspect over from top to bottom trying to grasp each incriminating detail. He says that actually, the detective's eyes sweep over the suspect in jumps - in all directions until he finds the incriminating evidence.

In reading, the jumps the eyes make are known technically as "saccades" and the periods when the eyes are at rest as "fixations".

During a saccade, the period in which the reader's eyes are in movement, the reader can not read, he is, for all practical purposes, blind. On the other hand, during the fixations, the period in which the eyes come to rest, the reader is able to read. Normally, each fixation is no more than a glance and its duration and function have similar characteristics in the reading process and in recognizing the world in general, usually, the interval between fixations is about a quarter of a second. Saccades are almost instantaneous. As a result, the eyes are stationary most of the time. In spite of this, only during the initial part of the fixation is information carried from the printed page to the visual system. The rest of the fixation time, the brain is 'busy processing' the stimuli. The time the brain takes to process the stimuli (information) determines the speed of reading. Four or five 'chunks' are the most that the reader is able to identify in each fixation. If the reader is presented with a second display of five different letters immediately after the first display the two displays will interfere with each other.

2.7. Memory and Brain Limitations.

Reading does not depend essentially on what the eyes see. Not everything the eyes see printed is processed by the brain. Moreover, the reader makes minimum use of the information available since in reading as in hearing, he perceives only part of what is seen or heard and only part of what is expected to see or hear. For this reason, the reader should not be led to the identification

of unrelated letters and words. Such behavior will exhaust the capacity of the brain before it can process meaning, overloading it with visual information.

That being so, it seems relevant to make an analysis of the limitations of the brain. A look at how memory works would be useful.

According to Smith (1978b) the reader has two kinds of memory, short-term memory and long-term memory. Both play an important role in the reading process.

2.7.1. Short-term memory

Short-term memory is the 'working memory' used for remembering 'chunks' while the reader works on them, making sense. Its capacity is limited in quantity to about 7 (Miller 1970), and in time, to a few seconds. These chunks are stored in the short-term memory until the moment they are relevant, until the moment the reader makes sense of what he is reading. Then they are erased so that he can proceed with his next task.

The short-term memory can be easily overloaded if the reader pays too much attention to the visual information on the printed page. The reader who reads a sentence using the process of word by word reading will overwhelm his short-term memory. As a result, he will not be able to remember more than the first few words of the sentence and, consequently, he will not be able to make sense of what he is reading. His brain needs time to process the new information.

2.7.1.1. Limitations of short-term memory

In spite of being efficient, the short-term memory has its limitations. Most readers are not aware of these limitations or even of the existence of short-term memory.

Research has known that short-term memory can store only about six or seven chunks which can be random letters, words and numbers or larger units such as sentences. A group of random letters or numbers is harder to store than words. Furthermore, it is harder to store isolated words than related words. The main assumption is that sentences are easier to store because they are chunks of meaning (Smith 1978). The following exemplifies what has been said:

- a) P Z O T V B Q
- b) peace - love - finger - bed - power - cat - say
- c) He always comes late to school, too.

The seven words of example c are related and have meaning - making only one meaningful chunk to be remembered. The seven words in example b and the seven letters in example a are unrelated and as such, continue as seven isolated chunks to be remembered. How much easier it is to remember only one chunk!

As pointed out by Smith (1978) another limitation of short-term memory is duration. The six or seven chunks that the reader stored in the examples above will be remembered only as long as the reader is paying attention to them. The reader's effort to maintain information in his short-term memory is called rehearsal. The reader is able to keep the six or seven chunks in his short-term memory only while he rehearses them. As soon as a part of his attention turns to something else, the short-term memory becomes occupied with the new information and the 'old' is forgotten.

Taking into account the limitations of short-term memory, we can conclude that when someone reads using the 'word by word'

process he will overload his short-term memory with details that will not allow new information to be processed. In other words, the seven processed words will fully occupy the short-term memory. Besides, the reader might even forget the first four processed words while trying to process the last three. Thus "comprehension gets lost in the bottleneck of short-term memory the moment we worry about getting individual words right, or become afraid that we might miss a significant detail" ... "being careful plays havoc with short-term memory." (Smith 1978:39) The brain cannot process everything it sees.

2.7.1.2. How to overcome the limitations of short-term memory

It is not difficult to overcome the limitations of short-term memory. First of all, the reader needs to believe that reading is an active process through which he searches for meaning and that meaning cannot be reached if he uses the process of identifying letters or individual words as if there were no relation between them. Instead of identifying letters or words he should try to organize these isolated bits in rich meaningful chunks. Meaningful chunks feed into short-term memory more easily. It is meaning that is kept in the short-term memory, not isolated bits of information.

2.7.2. Long-term memory

Schemata of the world are stored in the long-term memory. All personal knowledge, experiences and beliefs are stored there, and unlike short-term memory, it never becomes overloaded with

information. In long-term memory, there is always the possibility of broadening the schema of the world. This does not require that any concept be erased to make room for a new one. The capacity of long-term memory seems to be almost infinite. In spite of this, however the LTM presents some limitations.

2.7.2.1. Long-term memory versus its limitations

The first great limitation of long-term memory can be explained by examining a difference between short-term memory and long-term memory. In the former, we recall immediately any information that has been stored and in the latter, recall demands a rather conscious effort. That is why it is common to find ourselves listening to a song we haven't heard for a long time and trying anxiously to remember the name of the singer. Many clues come to our minds, for example: that the singer is an American, that he is black, that he likes to play jazz - but even so the name is not retrieved. Only after great effort and sometimes with somebody's help, can we remember it.

The second limitation of long-term memory can be also shown through another characteristic difference between the two memories. This difference has to do with organization. In short-term memory, we can store unrelated chunks, but in long-term memory we cannot. This occurs because long-term memory stores all personal experiences, knowledge of the world and beliefs, and these are not stored as isolated, disconnected bits of information. What is being stored requires a certain organization and must be related in some way to something already stored, otherwise, information cannot be maintained in the long-term memory and cannot be recalled when desired. Because of this limitation only meaningful chunks can be stored in long-term memory.

The third and last limitation of long-term memory can also be demonstrated by differences between the two memories. While an item of information can be recalled almost instantaneously in short-term memory, it takes four or five seconds for one item to become a part of the long-term memory. According to Smith (1978: 45)

... To transfer even a single letter or word into long-term memory requires five seconds of concentration, an ultimate bottleneck that seals the fate of any attempt to read that involves an overemphasis on visual information.

For this reason, the attempt to memorize parts of texts in order to respond to forthcoming questions directly hinders comprehension in reading.

2.7.2.2. How to overcome the limitations of long-term memory

As in short-term memory, overcoming the limitations of long-term memory is not a difficult task. What the reader needs to know is that the time spent to get an individual letter, a word, a whole sentence or whole paragraph into long-term memory is about the same. This being so, what he needs to do is to feed his long-term memory with meaningful chunks instead of unrelated letters and words. This is possible only if what he is reading makes sense.

The above notions about short-term memory and long-term memory are relevant in order to be more aware of the limitations of the brain. As said before, not everything seen or heard can be processed by the brain. There is, therefore, a need to depend less on the visual information and more on nonvisual information, that is, the schema of the world, which is stored in the long-term

memory and is available for recall when necessary. Furthermore, awareness of these notions helps the reader accept the assumption that reading is not identification of all elements in a text.

2.8. Context and Co-text

In reading process discussions (Scott 1983), the terms co-text and context appear frequently. Co-text refers to the text around the specific part being read at any one time and context refers to the whole situation of reading, including cultural references, the reader's frame of mind, affective responses, etc. as well as the co-text.

The co-text gives the reader clues to solve lexical and grammatical ambiguities since many words may have different meanings and functions depending on use in a specific text. Co-text is also useful to the identification of relationships within the text which help the reader to perceive the textual function and cohesion of the text being read. The reader who lacks the ability to use co-text while reading cannot read satisfactorily.

Context is a significant aspect of any learning situation. In reading it has its degree of relevance. If the reader is familiar with the context, and language of a text he will be able to understand it better and will be able to expand his schemata. But if he is totally unfamiliar with the context of the text he will not be able to get meaning from it and therefore he will not be able to broaden his schemata.

In short, co-text and context seem to walk side by side engendering more complete comprehension of the text at hand.

2.9. Metacognition

Metacognition is a recent term in the literature on reading. Its diffusion may have been influenced by cognitive science on the scope of reading research. Sometimes this term is interchangeable with the terms cognitive monitoring and comprehension monitoring. According to Baker and Brown (1984) these terms are hierarchically related concepts. Metacognition, as the most important, occupies the first place followed by cognitive monitoring as a component and then followed by comprehension monitoring as a kind of cognitive monitoring.

2.9.1. What is Metacognition?

Metacognition is used by cognitive psychologists referring to both the knowledge and control an individual has over his or her own thinking and learning (Baker and Brown, 1984; Brown, 1978, 1980; Flavell, 1978). Metacognition can be separated in two related components:

a) Knowledge about cognition and b) regulation of cognition.

The first component, knowledge about cognition, focuses on the knowledge the reader has of the skills, strategies, and resources he may use in order to face the demands of the reading task. According to Brown (1980) this awareness is relatively stable, storable and fallible. It is stable because it is assumed that the reader who knows pertinent facts will know them when asked specifically for that information. It is storable because the reader is able to reflect, to state and discuss the skills or strategies he used during his reading. And, it is fallible because some of the reader's cognitive processes assumed to be true about

reading may not be (Brown, 1980:21, Baker & Brown, 1984:22).

The ability to reflect on and be aware of one's own cognitive process while reading, listening, writing or solving problems is a late developing skill. This awareness is of great relevance to any effective learning task since it enables the learner to find out what is necessary to perform effectively a determined task and helps him decide which steps he should follow to perform that task efficiently. Lack of this awareness makes it impossible for the reader to do any task effectively.

The second component, regulation of cognition, consists of the reader's ability to use self-regulatory mechanisms in order to assure success in his task. These mechanisms involve "planning one's next move, checking the outcome of any strategies one might use, monitoring the effectiveness of any attempted action, testing, revising and evaluating one's strategies for learning" (Brown, 1982:22). The processes involved in these skills are "relatively unstable, rarely stable, without considerable effort, and relatively age independent" (Brown, 1980:22). These skills are relatively unstable because, though used frequently, they are not used all the time by a reader. They are rarely stable in the sense that the reader knows how to do a large quantity of things but he cannot say explicitly how to do them. These skills are not completely age independent because not all adults and older children use them while even quite young children may use them in monitoring their activities in a simple problem.

The reader's metacognitive skills enable him to read efficiently, monitoring his comprehension and evaluating his progress based on his pre-established objectives. Most of the time, an experienced reader uses these metacognitive skills

unconsciously except when he meets some difficulty which alters his comprehension, then and only then does the understanding process slow down and require conscious effort. An inexperienced reader, unaware of the existence of metacognitive skills, is not even able to "feel" the necessity of being strategic, planning ahead, checking, monitoring, testing and evaluating his understanding. Reading for him is a passive process with identification of individual words as its main goal.

In short, metacognition, that is self-awareness and self-control, is of great relevance to the reading process since it helps the reader to reach his main goal in the reading process efficiently - meaning.

CHAPTER 3

READING STRATEGIES

3.1. Introduction

This chapter presents some reading strategies and some descriptions of reader behavior, according to studies by Wagoner (1983), van Dijk and Kintsch (1983), Kato (1984), Yetta Goodman (1984), Cohen and Hosenfeld (1981), Baker and Brown (1984) and some members of the Brazilian National E.S.P. Project.

3.2. What are strategies?

3.2.1. Introduction

In the last chapter the reading process was discussed, showing it as an active process. The author of a text exposes his ideas, thoughts and beliefs using his knowledge of the world and his linguistic knowledge. The reader tries to comprehend the meaning of the author's message, making use of his world and linguistic knowledge as well as of a large number of strategies.

But just what are strategies? How do they work? What is their role in reading?

According to van Dijk and Kintsch (1983) the term strategy has been used since earliest times and in such different areas of life as military, economics, political, science and so forth. In all those areas the term is not only related to attaining a goal but also to achieving it through some optimal input. Although it is an "old" term, it was only in 1970 that Bever introduced this term under the notion of comprehension strategy for the sentence level processing. Nowadays it is also being used at the discourse level, operating at various levels of discourse.

The definition of strategy, incorporating the notion of cognitive behavior, is here related to the mental processes an individual performs in a comprehension task, such as listening or reading. If we accept this definition, strategy then becomes a necessary tool the reader uses to reach his goals effectively. According to van Dijk and Kintsch (1983:70), strategies "involve stepwise, complex acts (mental acts) that lead to a certain goal, and that at each point or state of a problem several options are possible and, at the same time limited knowledge is available about context, consequences, action, and other participants". Specific examples of how these definitions are translated into practical techniques will be presented in section 3:3 below.

3.2.2. Role and Importance of Strategies for Reading Proficiency

Reading is not identification of words, phrases, sentences

or paragraphs as isolated bits of information. Reading is a problem-solving process. The reader tries to engage in this process in the best way possible. He utilizes not only his linguistic knowledge, but also his world knowledge. But he also needs to have an ample working background knowledge of reading strategies which he can draw upon when reading.

Reading strategies play an important role in the reading process since they function as necessary tools helping the reader read efficiently. Reading strategies help the reader to overcome lexical, semantic and syntactic difficulties in efficient and effective ways. They help make guesses about possible meanings of words, phrases, sentences, and function of words and sentences with the use of minimum amount of information. The reader takes advantage of the graphophonic, semantic and syntactic cue systems in order to make more reliable guesses. Thus, reading is not sidetracked by unimportant details. Furthermore, reading strategies help the reader avoid excessive use of cues which could lead to a slow and inefficient reading process causing lack of comprehension. Another important aspect of reading strategies is that they develop in the reader a high degree of confidence and discourage word by word reading.

According to van Dijk and Kintsch (1983) reading strategies are relevant because the reader is limited in the amount and different kinds of information he can process at any given time. Besides, strategies are relevant because they enable the reader to overcome his short-term memory limitations. Because the sentence components are organized hierarchically according to rules, and because production and understanding are done linearly, the reader needs strategies in order to produce and understand

sentences linearly. This requires, not only linguistic and grammatical information, but also contextual information, episodic memories, knowledge of the world, intentions, plans, goals, and so on.

In Yetta Goodman's (1984:29) definition of reading proficiency, the relevance of reading strategies is also evident. She says that:

Reading proficiency is based on reader's abilities to proceed at full speed with interest focused on the developing meaning but with the flexibility to reprocess, shift focus, or jump ahead when difficulty is encountered.

In order to be a proficient reader as described above the reader needs to know and use reading strategies efficiently.

Finally, because reading proficiency is one of the factors that determines success or failure in the students' school life, and influences his adult life on all levels, reading strategies become of utmost importance to each individual during his life. From the most primary "Run, Spot, run", to the daily newspaper, the most complex treatise, the reader utilizes reading strategies. It is hard to imagine even one minute of one's waking hours which does not directly or indirectly relate to reading strategies. Everything a person experiences or fails to experience influences his use of reading strategies.

3.3. Some Reading Strategies

The theory about reading strategies necessarily leads to specific reading strategies which are helpful tools in dealing with a text. These strategies are commonly classified as

cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies.

3.3.1. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies are those usually unconscious and often automatic strategies reader uses when dealing with texts. The reader uses them based on the knowledge he already has of how the language system works. Thus, he is able to predict words or structures in advance without much effort.

According to Kato (1984), cognitive strategies are useful for proficient reading since they are usually employed successfully. She says that they are not efficient only when, in the text, there is a situation which eludes the reader's expected standards thus causing a mistake. However, this mistake is useful because it calls attention to the existence of cognitive strategies. Next, she tells us that, besides explaining behaviors related to syntactic interpretation of sentences, cognitive strategies also work at the intersentential level, that is, they reveal themselves in the reader's tendency to make the text linear order and the temporal order of events correspond, or to interpret many elements of the text as being coreferents.

In another of Kato's works (1983), she mentions Woods's point of view (1980) which claims that the conscious cognitive strategies are processed sequentially and slowly. On the other hand, Wood admits that the unconscious cognitive strategies are processed extremely rapidly, from the middle to extremities (left and right), and that several can be functioning in parallel.

One of Kato's (1984, in press) examples illustrates how cognitive strategies are applied. She asks the subject to make

a silent reading of an English text with content relevant to him and then translate it freely in a loud voice. According to her this reader made many mistakes. Some of these mistakes were followed by self-correction indicating clearly that the reader had an active control over his cognitive activity. The examples:

... That this will be a dangerous period
is already clear from the anxiety...
"... Isso... este será um período perigoso é...
(espera um pouco, como é que é isso? Ah!
tava achando este that this meio esquisito)...
... que este será um período perigoso está
claro pela ansiedade..."

The cognitive strategy here is evidenced by the reader's interpretation of the first clause as principal instead of subordinate. This occurred because the reader used the principle of canonicity or of natural order. He committed the mistake because he knows that, in English, the sentence structures follow the order SVO (subject - verb - object), and he also knows that the main clause precedes the subordinate. The self-corrections in the above example indicate the reader's use of a metacognitive strategy which will be discussed in the following section.

Besides the principle of canonicity mentioned above, there is another principle which may also be used by the reader when applying cognitive strategies. It is the coherence principle which enables the reader to analyze the discourse and perceive coherence. The reader observes the global coherence of the text, that is, if the author reaches his goal of causing some change in the world. Next, the reader observes the local coherence, that is, if author used adequately signalled words, parallels, contrasts and so on in the exposition of his ideas. Finally the reader observes if the theme as a whole is coherent.

3.3.2. Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies are those strategies the reader uses when he becomes aware of some failure in comprehension. Because at the moment a comprehension failure is detected, the reader uses metacognitive strategies to solve the problem, they are said to be conscious.

According to Kato (1984) metacognitive strategies are the strategies which function as a mechanism that detects comprehension failure. They may require a great of our processing effort.

Metacognitive strategies play an important role in the reading process because, besides identifying failure in comprehension, they also enable readers to choose the most efficient strategy to use in solving a specific reading problem. These strategies are not automatic and unconscious. Readers have active control over them.

The metacognitive strategies are used when readers correct themselves while reading. While reading without difficulty readers employ cognitive strategies though they may not be aware of it. But when smooth comprehension is interrupted, readers consciously apply metacognitive strategies in order to remedy comprehension.

Kato (1984:7) suggests that if cognitive and metacognitive strategies were formulated as maxims, the following contrast would appear:

I - Cognitive Strategies:

1. Presuppose that the text presents a natural order on all levels;

2. Presuppose that the text is coherent.

II - Metacognitive Strategies:

1. Explain clearly the reader's main objectives at the moment. For example:

- Look for the theme of the text.
- Analyze the internal consistency of the text.
- Compare what the text says with what the reader knows about the subject to see if the two are coherent, etc...

2. Monitor comprehension having in mind these objectives.

3.3.2.1. Comprehension Monitoring

According to Baker and Brown (1984) there are two kinds of metacognitive knowledge. The first kind is knowledge about comprehending and the second one is knowledge about how to comprehend. Through the former the reader must be able to recognize any failure in his comprehension. Through the latter the reader must be able to adapt compensatory strategies in order to remedy the failure of his comprehension. In both cases, the reader's behavior is conscious.

The reader's ability to detect comprehension failure and to use compensatory strategies enables him to monitor his comprehension. According to Wagoner (1983) comprehension monitoring is essential for reading proficiency since it directs the reader's cognitive processes in his search for meaning.

Assuming that comprehension monitoring is essential for reading proficiency, the following questions come to mind: Do readers know how to monitor their comprehension? What do readers

do when they detect a failure in comprehension? Does consciousness of problems in comprehension differ systematically in a developmental pattern? Between good and poor readers? Which strategies are being used in L 1? Which strategies are being used in L 2? Can better strategies be taught?

In an attempt to find reasonable answers to the above questions a review of work by Wagoner (1983), Baker and Brown (1984), Brown (1980) and Cohen and Hosenfeld (1981) is presented. Each question is analyzed individually.

a) Do readers know how to monitor their comprehension? What do they do when they detect a failure in comprehension?

There is some evidence that good readers are able to monitor their comprehension but that poor readers are not. Some researchers have shown that good readers have a certain control over their own comprehension and consciousness of compensatory strategies to be used when their comprehension fails.

According to Wagoner (1983), in order to find out if readers know when they comprehend adequately and when they do not, Baker (1974) and again Owings, Garner and Taylor (1982) introduced some inconsistencies (anomalies, ambiguities, inconsistencies among main points, inappropriate referents, connectives) into the reading material to be read. Their main objective was to observe the reader's ability to detect these inconsistencies. The results show that explicit and contiguous inconsistencies are more easily detected than implicit inconsistencies. Inconsistencies among main points are more easily detected than detailed inconsistencies, inconsistent information and unclear references are also more easily detected than inappropriate connectives. The results also show that good readers have more capacity to detect

these inconsistencies than poor readers. Good readers sometimes are able to detect these inconsistencies at their first reading, but some poor readers are not even able to detect any problem with their comprehension, even though they are told about these inconsistencies. Thus it is possible to find readers who do not have this awareness of comprehension.

Baker and Brown (1984) mention studies by Baker (1979) and Baker and Anderson (1980) which show that in order to detect inconsistencies, readers may be aware that they have to check the text for internal consistency in order to see if there is coherence among the ideas presented in the text, that is, intersentential and intrasentential coherence. Besides, they also have to check these internal consistencies against their prior knowledge for external consistence, that is, to see if the ideas presented are compatible with what they know about the external world. This combination between internal and external consistencies is essential for comprehension. Readers who check these consistencies are able to perceive if they are comprehending or not when they are reading.

Baker and Brown (1984) also mention studies by Brown, Campione & Barclay (1979; Brown, Campione & Day (1981) which show that another good indication that readers evaluate their comprehension is self-questioning and self-testing. The ability to ask the right questions is fundamental for comprehension monitoring.

Wagoner (1983) mentions Beebe's study (1980) in which she analyzed some reader's miscues and found evidence of spontaneous monitoring in addition to relating error detection and corrective strategies to comprehension. On the other hand, Baker and Brown

(1984) mention studies by Canney and Winograd (1979), Clay (1973), Denny and Weintraub (1963, 1966), Garner and Kraus (1980), John and Ellis (1976), Myers and Paris (1978) and Rerd (1966) in which they found that younger poorer readers are not aware that they must try to grasp the meaning of the text. These readers deal with the reading task as if it were a decoding process instead of a meaning-gaining activity. Since they do not read searching for meaning, they do not comprehend what they read and consequently do not feel the need to employ compensatory strategies to remedy their comprehension failure.

Good readers are also able to monitor their comprehension better than poor readers since they are aware of the necessity to establish a purpose for their reading tasks. Poor readers lack this awareness, jumping into the text without any objective to reach, attaching the same amount of attention and importance to all the words, sentences and paragraphs on the printed page as if they had equal value. Thus, they are not able to monitor their comprehension in order to get main ideas, detect inconsistencies or ignore irrelevant details.

Good readers can also monitor their comprehension because they know how relevant it is to make use of prior knowledge in order to fill the gaps in their comprehension. Baker and Brown (1984) cite Sullivan (1978) who found that poor readers at the high school level do not have the ability to relate their past knowledge to their reading task. This would mean that poor readers are not aware that what they already know is useful in interpreting a text. Baker and Brown (1984) also report on Bransford's (1979) study which found out that it is not a characteristic only of high school readers, many college readers

also show an evident lack of transfer of knowledge acquired from one source to other sources.

Readers who monitor their comprehension change their reading behavior according to the demands of each reading task. They must know that they need to slow down when they encounter difficulty in understanding some part of the message and that they should speed up when they are reading only to have an overview, when they are skimming the text. Besides, readers who are able to monitor their comprehension are aware of the compensatory strategies which they can use when they detect some failure in comprehension.

Wagoner (1983) mentions Hickman's (1977) experiment in which the subjects were two competent professionals. Hickman asked them to think about the processes which they used while reading. Their descriptions of these processes indicated that they had a clear purpose for reading, actively used identifiable strategies, and emphatically related prior experience and knowledge to the text read.

Baker and Brown (1984) make reference to research developed by Smith (1967) in which he found out that good readers at the high school level adopted different behaviors when coping with text for different purposes, that is, reading for details or general impressions where - as poor readers in both situations presented the same behavior. Smith's research also showed that poor readers were less able to tell which processes they used in reading comprehension while reading. Since neither good nor poor readers could remember being taught how to read for different purposes, good readers seem to develop this skill on their own.

The use of monitoring strategies has also been analyzed providing some reliable evidence that readers use rereading, lookbacks, progressive reading, prior knowledge and question-predicting strategy as monitoring strategies. Wagoner (1983) mentions that in an attempt to find out which strategies were used by students in high school and middle school, Di Vesta, Haymard and Orlando (1979) gave them a cloze task aimed at finding out two different contextual strategies. In the experiment, five key words were omitted near the beginning of each of a set of paragraphs and similar words were omitted near the end of each of another set of paragraphs. Full comprehension was possible only with the reading of the entire paragraph. The result of this research showed that previous text strategy (running text or RT) and subsequent text strategy (ST) were used by readers in order to solve their comprehension difficulties. Subsequent text strategy was considered the more mature one. The result also showed that R T strategy was used by all readers in a more effective way than S T. It was also proven that S T was used by better and older readers nearly as well as R T. Di Vesta et al interpreted these results as an indication that less mature readers need to develop more active and flexible reading rate expectations.

Though Alessi, Anderson, and Goetz (1979) found that lookbacks were not effective in monitoring comprehension, Garner (in press) discovered that not only good readers but also poor readers can effectively monitor their comprehension using lookback strategies after sufficient practice and training (in Wagoner, 1983).

Wagoner (1983) raises the point that many readers who are

not able to use the strategy of checking the text against itself as well as against their prior knowledge tend to accept without question the information the text presents. Thus comprehension is not monitored in terms of internal and external consistency and, as a result the readers may be misled by the author's message.

Garner and Alexander's (1982) study, mentioned by Wagoner (1983), relied on undergraduates' reflections about a reading task to analyze and evaluate the students' spontaneous use of a question-predicting strategy for monitoring comprehension. They found that students who verbalized the question-predicting strategy, in a recall task, did better than students who had not verbalized this strategy. Thus, it can be concluded that the question-predicting strategy is useful for monitoring comprehension.

To this point, the researches mentioned here were developed with readers reading in their first language. Some studies developed in second language reading were developed by Hosenfeld. The results of her studies do not differ from those already mentioned which makes us believe that the second language reading process is developed in the same way as in the first language. Once someone is a proficient reader in his native language, he will probably be in his second language too. He just transfers his reading abilities from one language to the other.

According to Hosenfeld's (1977b:296) first study, good readers and poor readers use different reading strategies in their attempt to make sense of what they read. For instance, successful readers

Keep the meaning of the passage in mind, read in broad phrases, skip unessential words, and guess from context the meaning of new words. In contrast, unsuccessful readers lose the meaning of sentences as soon as they decode them, read word -

by - word or in short phrases, rarely skip unessential words, and turn to the glossary for the meaning of new words (p. 296).

Many different monitoring strategies are available to readers. How these strategies are used depends, to a large extent, on the reader's proficiency.

b) Does consciousness of problems in comprehension vary systematically in a developmental pattern? Between good and poor readers?

Research results show that awareness of comprehension problems varies systematically in a developmental pattern between younger/poorer and older/good readers.

Studies developed in oral discourse have demonstrated that younger children have more difficulty in identifying message inadequacy than older children. According to Wagoner (1983), Markman (1977) has interpreted this finding as an indication that information may be processed more superficially by younger children than by older children. Other research, attempting to measure subjects' developmental awareness of inadequate message, has also shown that older children are more able to identify comprehension failure or its source than younger children. These studies do not give any evidence of a minimum age for successful identification of problems in comprehension.

Studies developed in written discourse-listening studies- also show developmental differences between younger and older children. Here again, Wagoner (1983) mentions Markman's (1979) experiment. Markman (1979), investigating the detection of explicit and implicit problems in listening tasks, found that older children performed better than younger children after they were made aware of inconsistencies. Developmental differences

were not encountered in the control group, but only in the problem alerted group.

Studies developed in written discourse-reading studies also show developmental differences as well as reader ability differences. According to Wagoner (1983), Garner and Taylor (1982), trying to find out how able good comprehenders and poor comprehenders are in detecting inconsistencies in a text, found that few of them showed spontaneous awareness and that orientation seemed to help good but not poor comprehenders.

Baker and Brown (1984) point out Forrest and Waller's (1979) experiment in which they investigated children's ability to adjust their reading strategies in order to reach four different goals. They found that older and better readers could better adjust their reading strategies to fit the task instructions as shown by the results of subsequent comprehension tests. Younger and poorer readers seemed to have little idea as to how to monitor their own comprehension and apparently had limited knowledge of strategies (Wagoner, 1983).

Wagoner (1983) points out Baker and Anderson's (1982) experiment in which they tried to identify undergraduates' ability to monitor their comprehension. Baker and Anderson also wanted to describe the ideal reader who successfully monitors his comprehension. The analysis of the results showed that readers were able to detect inconsistencies and that they used lookback or rereading as monitoring strategies. The analysis of individual's responses did not enable Baker and Anderson to describe the ideal reader who successfully monitors his comprehension; on the contrary, large individual differences were evident. Monitoring strategies vary widely from person to person.

Research has identified developmental differences and reader proficiency as well as a significant relationship between them due to the readers age, use of strategies, background knowledge, ability to monitor comprehension, etc.

c) Which strategies are used in first language and which strategies are used in second language?

Through the results of the research mentioned earlier in this section it seems that reading strategies used in first language and second language are similar. It is worth noting that the use of these strategies in second language probably varies according to the reader's use of strategies in first language. One can presuppose that if a reader uses reading strategies effectively in his first language he will be able to transfer his reading abilities from his first language to his second language reading. In other words, failure in second language reading cannot only be attributed to lack of knowledge of the second language but also to the reader's possible inability to read in his first language.

Finally in this connexion it is important to note that we have very little data on second language reading strategies.

d) Can better strategies be taught?

According to Yetta Goodman and Burke (1984:14) "a person can learn to read but cannot really be taught to read". She argues that strategies function as tools which readers use in order to read efficiently. She compares the reader to an artist. She says that tools in the hands of a real artist will help him to make a masterpiece but the same tools in the hands of an artist with

little or no talent will not produce a masterpiece. Hence, reading strategies should be taught, not with the intention of teaching one to read, but as necessary and indispensable tools to be used in the process of reading efficiently.

According to van Dijk and Kintsch (1983:11) strategies should be "learned and overlearned". They argue that only then are the strategies automatized and that new strategies need to be learned in order to meet the demands of different types of discourse and communicative situations. In addition, they say that some strategies may be acquired earlier (word and clause comprehension), others may be acquired later (gist inferring) and some others (schematic strategies) even later but with specific training.

Adams, Carnine and Gersten (1982:27) mention Baker's (1979) argument that students are not taught how to study and as a consequence, students read passively forming bad habits as they cope with text. In addition she says that without help from the teacher some students will not be able to use strategies for "independently extracting information from the text and systematically rehearsing and learning this material". From this, it can be inferred that strategies can be taught.

Hosenfeld (1979) developed her second reading study in two phases: a diagnostic phase and an instructional phase. Her main objectives were to observe the readers' behaviors during the reading process as well as their ability to acquire new reading behaviors. The result confirms the assumption that reading strategies can be taught and have a positive influence on reader's behavior. Before instruction the readers used word by word reading (translation), made guesses recklessly, regardless of context, and

were not able to remember what they had read a few minutes earlier. After instruction, the reader were able to read in broad phrases, keep in mind familiar phrases in the second language as well as the meaning of sentences. Their guesses about new words were now based on context. Special attention was also given to graphics, diagrams, cognates, grammar, knowledge of the world in their attempt to understand the text. The glossary was used only after all the other alternatives had already been tried unsuccessfully.

According to Yetta Goodman (1984), to teach reading strategies for the sake of teaching reading strategies is not effective. Readers should be made aware of the importance of knowing about and using reading strategies. Otherwise, they will learn the strategies only for use during training and not for spontaneous, individual and confident use in their posterior reading activities. She also claims that any reading strategy instruction should be based on the readers' need. Readers should be made aware of their strengths and weaknesses in order to further strengthen the former and overcome the latter.

Finally, readers should be encouraged to use the new strategies they are learning. They should be encouraged to take risks, to be unafraid of making mistakes and to evaluate the effectiveness of the strategies used. Only then will they be able to use reading strategies effectively and become proficient readers.

3.3.3. Strategies from van Dijk and Kintsch's point of view

According to van Dijk and Kintsch (1983) strategies are grouped as cognitive strategies, language strategies, grammatical

strategies and discourse strategies. The discourse strategies are presented in this section and include cultural strategies, social strategies, interactional strategies, pragmatic strategies, semantic strategies, schematic strategies and stylistic and rhetorical strategies.

3.3.3.1. Cognitive strategies

According to van Dijk and Kintsch (1983:70) these strategies "involve stepwise complex acts (mental acts) that lead to a certain goal". These strategies are not totally consciously planned but some of them may become more or less automatic. Cognitive strategies have already been discussed earlier in this chapter.

3.3.3.2. Language strategies

Language strategies are part of cognitive strategies and as such they are not consciously planned, nor can they be easily described by the user. These strategies are used by language users in an attempt to produce and comprehend verbal utterances or speech acts of any language. These strategies underlie the sequence of mental steps the language users perform to make possible the identification of sounds, letters or words, the analysis of syntactic structures, and the understanding of sentential or textual meanings. Understanding of sentential and textual meanings require the use of prior knowledge, ideologies, beliefs, knowledge of the world and so forth.

3.3.3.3. Grammatical Strategies

In spite of being called grammatical strategies, they are not formulated by the grammar. They are cognitive strategies which the language users apply in order to produce and understand structures as specified by grammatical rules. They are cognitive because at the moment the language users are producing and understanding structures, they do not consciously decide according to the rules which kind of complement goes with a certain verb. After producing or understanding, the language users may use rules to check the correct application of the strategies.

Grammatical strategies not only make use of rule-governed information such as morphology or syntax, but also, simultaneously of other levels or even from the communicative context. In addition they enable language users to guess effectively about the most probable structure or meaning of the incoming data.

3.3.3.4. Discourse Strategies

The discourse strategies are those strategies that the language user uses to produce and comprehend the pragmatic, interactional, social and cultural information of the discourse. However, the language user needs information from the sentence level to be able to apply these strategies adequately. According to van Dijk and Kintsch "The production and comprehension of sentences depend on contextual information of a large scope or a higher level. Conversely, the semantic and pragmatic interpretation of the discourse will have sentential information as input" (p.78). Some of these strategies will be seen in the following sections.

3.3.3.4.1. Cultural Strategies

Cultural strategies are those which effectively select cultural information pertinent to the comprehension of the discourse. They may be either speaker or hearer oriented. That is, when someone is giving a lecture he may provide the hearer with some cultural background about his work or an author. The hearer, in turn, may call on his own cultural background knowledge about the speaker or the author in question. Lack of knowledge of this cultural background makes comprehension more difficult even in a daily conversation or in easy readings.

Lack of knowledge of cultural background becomes more crucial when speaking with people of a different culture or when reading about the myths, religious beliefs, or stories of a different culture or even when reading something of one's own culture but about the past with no personal cultural background available. In these cases, the hearer/speaker has to apply a large number of different cultural strategies in order to understand. Because cultural strategies have such a wide scope, they require that the speaker/hearer have ample knowledge about

geographical areas and locations, different social structures, institutions and events, different communicative events, different languages, different discourse types, different speech acts, different superstructures, different local and global coherence conditions, different styles and rhetorics, different symbolic or ritual values and functions, different knowledge, beliefs, opinions, attitudes, ideologies, norms, and values as well as their implicit or explicit use in the production of the discourse, a different conceptual ordering of the world and society (and hence different lexicons), and finally, different objects of reference." (p.81)

To understand a discourse requires relating all these levels and dimensions with what is known about the communicative features

of the speaker's culture.

3.3.3.4.2. Social strategies

Some cultural strategies include the more specific social strategies.

Social strategies are those which enable the language user to adapt to any one of several kinds of discourse. The language user may expect different kinds of discourse, varying according to different social contexts or to more specific social situations. The language user may expect that a lecture entitled "Brazilian Law" be given by a judge, a lawyer or any other person directly linked to this subject and not by a physician. He may also expect a certain style of discourse, social function of the discourse, possible speech acts, coherence etc. Besides these expectations, in relation to institutions and context types, the language user's expectations are also determined by assumptions based on the type of audience (member categories) in this social context, that is whether the people attending the lecture have an ample background knowledge about laws, whether they are prisoners or feminists, whether they are strikers or not. In short, the language user has to apply different strategies when listening to a discourse given by each of the following: the Minister of Health, the Minister of Planning, a medical student, a student of economics, a friend at a party, and a child in the park, etc. This adaptation to context results in better comprehension.

3.3.3.4.3. Interactional strategies

Specific strategies used in communicative situation draws

on the basic background information provided by the more general social and cultural strategies. The hearer/reader of a discourse actively participates in the social and cultural contexts because the discourse is addressed to him - is intended for him. The discourse as an act, affects the hearer/reader's knowledge, beliefs, opinions, attitudes, ideologies, motivation and so on.

The hearer/reader employs the interactional strategies, in order to understand discourse, making assumptions about the main characteristics of the speaker. These characteristics include: intentions, beliefs, background knowledge, purposes, wishes, preferences, opinions, attitudes and personality of the speaker. This background knowledge about the speaker may be stored in the hearer reader's long term memory or it may be inferred from the social context and communicative situation at the moment of discourse. For example, you are at home and someone with a briefcase knocks on the door. As soon as you see the person, you may infer that he is a door - to - door salesman. So, you expect that he will try to persuade you to buy his goods. The hearer/reader is able to infer the speaker's purposes, intentions before the speaker says a word. "Hence, an interactional strategy for discourse understanding means that a hearer derives effective expectations from the global or local social context with respect to the interactive intentions, goals, and motivations of the speaker as they relate to cognitive or actional change of the hearer." (83)

Interactional strategies may produce or need information from all discourse levels: a specific sphere of possible speech acts, themes or a certain style. The more specific discourse analysis strategies are monitored by these expectations.

Interactional strategies have to make assumptions about the interactional function of the discourse. Hence, according to the characteristics of the social situation and the speaker's personality and within the interactional sequence, the hearer/reader may understand the discourse as belligerent, as shrewd, as cooperative, as obstructive, or as facilitating.

3.3.3.4.4. Pragmatic strategies

Pragmatic strategies are a specific type of interactional strategies bound to natural language and are different from the others we have discussed which govern comprehension processes in general. The term pragmatic, as used here, is not concerned with all contextual aspects of language use. It is used here in a stricter sense, and concerns the study of language utterances as speech acts.

To understand speech acts is, sometimes, a complex task which demands the use of some strategies on the part of the hearer/reader. The use of strategies is assumed to be necessary since the hearer/reader does not wait until the end of the sentence or whole discourse to make inferences about the speech acts. The hearer is often able to predict the speaker's intentions before listening to all utterances. Such a prediction enables the hearer/reader to choose appropriate strategies before producing utterances in response.

Based on the above, pragmatic discourse strategies demand the following steps on the part of hearer/reader:

- a) identification of the existing speech acts in the individual sentences or clauses of the discourse;

- b) identification of the existing pragmatic relations between these local speech acts;
- c) identification of the global speech acts being performed by larger parts of the discourse or by the discourse as a whole;
- d) identification of the existing relations between local and global speech acts sequences, and
- e) identification of the existing relations between global speech acts.

Pragmatic strategies link textual structures with context, especially the interactional context. The language user may give more emphasis to the contextual information in order to make intelligent predictions about the possible speech acts to be performed by the speaker. Careful analysis of context enables the hearer/reader to know the social context of the discourse, infer the speaker's intention and determine his relationship to the speaker. Predicting speech acts even before they have been uttered is helpful to the hearer/reader.

Prediction of possible speech acts is not done recklessly but is based on analysis of social and interactional information of the discourse. But it is known that the language user does not use all social contextual information available to interpret or evaluate speech acts. He is able to detect the pragmatic context, that is, the contextual features relevant for pragmatic interpretation. For example, he is able to realize that the speaker's status defines the kind of speech acts to be performed and that sex would not.

Besides the social and interactional contextual information, the language user also needs the structural information in order to interpret and evaluate speech acts. It is assumed that pragmatic

strategies will not blindly examine all the structural information processed to this point in a discourse. The language user is able, when processing information in his short - term memory, to keep some textual representation having some specific pragmatic signals. These signals can be identified through intonation, word order, action verbs, tense and time, references and opinion words and help a lot in the interpretation and evaluation of speech acts.

The language user employs the above pragmatic strategies in order to understand speech acts. The pragmatic strategies which the hearer employs to connect interpreted speech acts into coherent sequences are also important. In this case, the hearer assumes that speech acts are meaningfully related in the same way that the sentences of a discourse are. Strategies regulating speech acts sequence are to be understood based on a "broader theory of planning and understanding action and interaction sequences in general". (p.86)

The relationship between speech acts is observed through an example the authors provide. The example is:

- a) You've done a swell job.
- b) I'll pay you double.

(page 86)

This speech act sequence can be coherently understood by the hearer only if the speech act of the first utterance is a condition for producing, and, consequently for comprehending the second speech act. This being so, the first speech act, a praise, establishes "a situation in which a speaker feels indebted to a hearer" (p. 86) and in which compensation may be appropriate.

According to the authors, the hearer has specific strategies which enable him to recognize the relationship between the speech acts. These strategies provide an effective preanalysis of speech acts and speech acts sequences. "The effectiveness of these strategies is due to the general motivational (wants, wishes, preferences) and goal-directed nature of action and interaction and consequently of speech acts". (p. 86)

Besides the strategies to recognize the relationship between speech acts, the hearer has strategies to derive global speech acts from speech act sequences. In other words, from among all the speech acts of a discourse the hearer is able to determine the global speech act.

Finally pragmatic strategies are caught between contextual strategies on the one hand and the textual ones on the other. The contextual strategies, as we have seen, enable the hearer to search systematically "among cultural, social and interactional information pertinent to the discourse and the communicative situation and their understanding". (p. 81) The textual strategies operate under the control of the contextual strategies and are necessary for semantic comprehension.

3.3.3.4.5. Semantic Strategies

Semantic strategies are those which the language user employs in order to know what a discourse means and what it is about. For this reason, they are of utmost importance to discourse comprehension.

These strategies are divided into local and global strategies. Through the use of local strategies, the language user is able to

decode the meanings of clauses and sentences as well as the meanings and functions of relations between sentences. Through the use of global strategies the language user is able to establish the global meanings of parts or the whole of the discourse.

Interaction is necessary between local and global strategies. The language user, in an attempt to establish the global meanings of parts or the whole of the discourse, has to first get some information from the local level, that is, has to work on a bottom-level processing and then infer the theme of the discourse. Of course, the language user's inferences about the theme of the discourse depend not only on the bottom-up processing, identification of words, sentences and relations but also on interactional situations and sociocultural background of the text as well as of the language user.

Different situations (meetings, breakfast, lecture) and different sociocultural background require different types of discourse and different pragmatic contexts. Consequently, the language user must apply his background knowledge with some bottom-up processing in order to establish the global theme of a discourse. Once the global theme of the discourse has been determined the global coherence is also established. On the other hand, in the language user's attempt to establish local meanings and function of individual sentences and function of relations between them, knowledge of rules and signalling words is needed along with an idea about the global meaning or theme of a discourse. The language user employs the top-down process to arrive at the global theme which helps him make inferences about meanings, functions and relations among sentences. As with global

strategies, the language user's background knowledge, beliefs, ideologies play an important role in the attempt to establish local meanings and local coherence.

3.3.3.4.6. Schematic Strategies

To talk about schematic strategies for comprehension becomes relevant since almost each kind of discourse has its own structural organization. Narratives, descriptions, explanations, and arguments have their own framework to be filled in. For instance, it is well known that narratives begin with the setting and then with the establishment of a problem; the solution and finally the evaluation follow. The writer/speaker and the hearer/reader should have this structure in mind in order to construct or understand narratives well.

Lack of knowledge of how specific kinds of discourse are organized makes comprehension difficult. Hence, the necessity of teaching schematic strategies explicitly in order to enable readers to cope with research discourse, public documents, essays, etc. Certain cues which help identify the different types of discourse can be observed through some surface structures indicating public notices, subtitles, source of the discourse (newspapers, book of stories, scientific magazines) etc.

Schematic strategies, like semantic strategies, also function in bottom-up/top-down processing. But it is important to realize that top-down processing may not always be used since it may be possible to find a discourse that has not followed its usual structural organization. In these cases, the reader will probably be able to use the relevant global content of the text in order

to establish the global schematic function of the discourse.

It is also important to point out that some kinds of discourse do not have a specific structural organization - as is the case of advertisements. In these cases, schematic interpretation is either difficult or relevant.

Finally, any discourse type which follows its usual schematic structural organization lends itself to top-down processing and facilitates the use of comprehension strategies and, consequently, of semantic comprehension.

3.3.3.4.7. Stylistic and Rhetorical Strategies

Like the other strategies mentioned earlier in this section stylistic and rhetorical strategies play an important role in discourse production and comprehension.

The rhetorical structures are used by the speaker/writer in order to provide the hearer/reader with an organized semantic representation of discourse facilitating better recall and better interactional effect. The speaker/writer uses these structures based on rules and strategies in order to defend his point of view, to try to make the hearer/reader believe him, and finally agree with his arguments. In order to reach his objectives the speaker/writer makes use of morphophonological, syntactic and semantic devices such as rhyme, repetition, alliteration and figures of speech such as metaphor, metonymy, irony, etc.

In order to understand discourse the hearer/reader has to use strategies that enable him to recognize the rhetorical devices and to relate them to the semantic representation. The identification and understanding of rhetorical structures are

relevant since they are used to highlight the speaker's/writer's main ideas. When these rethorical structures are identified, the hearer is able to grasp the most relevant parts of discourse and then is able to understand discourse well.

The stylistic strategies are those strategies the speaker/writer uses based on grammatical, schematic and rhetorical rules in order to produce a determined style of discourse. The speaker/writer can say the same thing in many different ways. The style he will choose will depend on his intentions, purposes, strategies, attitudes and his relationship to the audience. The stylistic variations he can make use of in order to produce different styles of discourse are "phonological (free) variation, such as pronunciation, lexical choice from different registers, and syntactic variation (length, complexity)." (94)

These stylistic variations may characterize a discourse in such a way that it can be said to be polite, rude, formal, informal aggressive, defensive, etc.

The hearer/reader should apply strategies in order to find out the style of the discourse since the stylistic variations play an important role in the interactional interpretation of discourse. In his attempt to find out the style of a discourse the hearer/reader should make use not only of the analysis of the kind of words employed, noting that the theme of the discourse is polite, aggressive or formal, etc., but he should also take into account the "rest of the semantic and pragmatic information"... in order to see if this is" consistent with these surface structures signals in order for the hearer or reader to construe a correct interpretation" (p.95).

As has been seen, the reading strategies pointed out by van Dijk and Kintsch are of great relevance to complete and proficient production and understanding of discourse. The speaker/writer who is able to use them in his production of discourse will be able to expound his ideas, emotions and thoughts adequately. If the hearer/reader is able to apply strategies in order to identify and understand the strategies that the speaker/writer used so efficiently in his production, he will also be able to understand the actual meaning of the discourse adequately.

In spite of these strategies being of great relevance to production and understanding of discourse we still feel the necessity of approaching reading strategies in a more practical way for pedagogical purposes. This necessity comes from the knowledge that some ESP readers will not be able to distinguish some of these strategies mentioned by van Dijk and Kintsch.

In order to provide the readers with some practical strategies that will enable them to cope with texts in an efficient way it would be relevant to see how the Working Papers of the Brazilian National ESP Project approach reading strategies.

3.3.4. The approach to reading strategies in the Working Papers of the Brazilian National ESP Project.

The strategies presented by the ESP Project function as a bridge permitting the reader to develop a more complex set of strategies than he already has, but less complex than the van Dijk and Kintsch model suggests. That is, the reader should know how

to find main points of paragraphs, identify referents, understand signalling words, make use of prior knowledge, predict, infer and understand the structural organization of discourse and so on in order to reach more global strategies such as language, grammatical and discourse strategies, as explained by van Dijk and Kintsch.

3.3.4.1. Pre-reading activities

The people who work in the ESP project share a common point of view about pre-reading activities. Pre-reading activities are seen as necessary tools in reading comprehension since they lead the reader to a mental warm up about the subject. Before starting to read, the reader is made aware of the subject of the text he is going to read. This is done by giving the title and/or subtitles of the text, words related to the subject, statements about the subject or the first sentence of the text. The reader is asked to think about these cues and try to predict the possible development of the text, that is, he may raise hypotheses about the content and the possible arguments used by the writer.

According to Shepherd (1983) this mental warm up is of great relevance to the reader since it makes understanding a text easier by making use of what he already knows. The reader finds that he is able to know something about the subject even before starting to read it. Besides, it helps the reader acquire more self-confidence when coping with the reading task in English.

3.3.4.2. Prediction

In the reading process, whether in the reader's first

language or his second language, prediction plays an important role.

The mental warm up prior to beginning the reading task may be provided by prediction. But prediction is useful not only before starting to read but also during the entire reading process. Prediction may occur at all levels, that is, it is not limited to the word level only. The reader is also able to predict phrases, sentences, paragraphs and content of whole texts.

Predictions are not made irrationally, but are based on the reader's background knowledge and linguistic competence, contextual information and non-linguistic information (such as diagrams, tables, graphics, etc.).

Making use of prediction help the reader to read for meaning. If the reader is not able to make predictions while reading, he will not be able to comprehend what he is reading. According to Holmes (1982:3)"total predictability means that the text can tell us nothing new, total unpredictability means we lack purpose in reading and can mean total lack of understanding."

3.3.4.3. Establishment of purpose

Reading comprehension depends on the reader's ability to give purpose to his reading. There is no proficient reading without pre-established purposes.

After making predictions about what the text is about and which arguments are used by the writer, the reader must establish a purpose before starting to read, otherwise he will be wasting much of his time processing non-relevant information. With pre-established purpose, the reader using appropriate reading

strategies will guide his reading toward the relevant information needed to reach his purpose.

To establish reading purpose is also relevant because it leads the reader to notice that reading strategies vary according to each specific purpose chosen for each reading task.

3.3.4.4. Skimming

Skimming is done by the reader who rapidly reads a text for the purpose of placing himself within its content, that is, to get a general idea about its content. When skimming a text the reader should make use of cognates, repeated words and typographical clues in order to get this general idea about the content of the text.

This strategy must be utilized every time the reader has a new text in his hands to read because, besides making him aware of the content, it can tell him if it is worth reading. Finally this strategy is most used at the general comprehension reading level.

3.3.4.5. Scanning

Scanning consists of a rapid attempt to locate some specific information in a text. The reader must keep in mind the desired information - eg finding a name in the telephone directory - and then let his eyes run over the text in order to locate this information. Here, the reader should make use of typographical clues such as capital letters, numbers, symbols, graphics and etc... in order to help him to detect the information quickly.

This strategy does not require that the reader follow the linearity of the text. Since he is looking for a specific bit of information, the reader may "read" from any direction to any other direction (down to up or right to left) in his search.

3.3.4.6. Selectivity

Selectivity is used by the reader in order to check if a determined text will give him the desired information about specific subject. This is not the same as skimming. Skimming tells the reader what the text is about and selectivity comes later. It consists of reading introductory paragraphs, concluding paragraphs, first or last sentences of each paragraph, titles and subtitles, etc. in order to help the reader select which parts are relevant to his objectives.

3.3.4.7. Key words

The reader must be able to apply strategies in order to detect key words in any of his reading tasks. The identification of these words is relevant because they will lead the reader to ignore linearity, will help the reader explore redundancies and will demonstrate that meaning can be perceived even when the reader does not understand all the words existing in a text.

To detect key words, the reader should make use of skimming, selectivity and establishment of purpose for reading. Choice of key words will depend a lot on the reader's purpose for reading.

3.3.4.8. Paragraph connectors

Reading comprehension requires that the reader be able to perceive and understand relations between sentences and paragraphs. For this reason, the reader must employ strategies to effectively interpret words and expressions which indicate relations within sentences and paragraphs. Some of these words and expressions are: on the one hand, on the other hand, in short, the next step, the disadvantage of, and so on.

These strategies are required at the main points comprehension level. Lack of the ability to use interpretative strategies will make comprehension difficult.

3.3.4.9. Rhetorical functions

To understand the rhetorical functions within a text is of great relevance to reading comprehension. The reader must be able to employ strategies which enable him to identify comparison, contrast, definition, classification, description, narratives and so on in texts. The correct identification of these rhetorical functions gives the reader a global representation of the text. On the other hand, lack of this ability leads the reader to loss of comprehension.

These strategies work at a main points comprehension level.

3.3.4.10. Locating main points

In expressing his ideas, the writer can not expose only the main ideas of the subject. He has to expose them mixed with some

complementary ideas in order to give coherence to the text. The reader must, therefore, apply strategies in order to identify the main points of each paragraph and of the text as a whole.

Strategies for locating main points are more used at the main points comprehension level. Lack of ability to use these strategies leads the reader to consider everything in the text as indispensable to comprehension.

3.3.4.11. Uncoiling long sentences

In some texts, the reader may find some long, complex sentences which are difficult to decode. Here, the most important strategy employed to overcome this problem may be to analyze the verbs of the sentences, that is, finding the main verbs, the non-finite, the clauses, etc. After these steps he may be able to decode the whole sentence.

3.3.4.12. Identification of Cohesive Devices

The reader's ability to interpret cohesive devices effectively is very important to enable him to perceive cohesion. The cohesive devices include conjunctions such as though, however, therefore, pronouns, etc. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

The reader must employ strategies which lead him to an efficient interpretation of conjunctions as well as pronoun referents, that is, the reader may interpret the word 'therefore' as giving an idea of consequence just as he may be able to find out to whom the pronoun he refers. Lack of this ability impedes understanding of the message.

3.3.4.13. Grammar

Sometimes at the intensive comprehension level the reader must employ strategies for decoding text through grammatical clues. It may occur that the reader's use of other reading strategies has not been sufficient for him to grasp the meaning of the text so he has to rely on grammatical clues. Using some aspects of the grammar presented in the text, he tries to solve his comprehension difficulties.

3.3.4.14. Nominal Group Identification

The word order of noun phrases in Portuguese differs from the word order in English. As a consequence, some readers have difficulty reading in English.

In this case, the readers should apply strategies to detect which words function as modifiers (adjectives, adverbs) of the complex noun phrase. If the reader is not able to separate adequately headwords from modifiers, he will certainly not comprehend adequately what he is reading.

3.3.4.15. Learning Strategies

The Brazilian National ESP Project is concerned not only with the teaching of reading strategies for coping with texts but also with the reader's awareness of his knowledge and control over these strategies. According to Scott (1982) there are three ways of tackling learning strategies. They are: assessing one's preferences, assessing one's learning strategies and assessing one's progress.

a) Assessing one's preferences. It is relevant since it enables the teacher to prepare reading strategy materials according to the readers' interests.

b) Assessing one's learning strategies. This assessment aims at detecting the strategies the reader uses in his reading activities. It is relevant since it aims at making the reader conscious of the strategies he already uses, their effectiveness and the control he may have over them. This awareness is necessary in order to provide the reader with clues to which strategies he should keep and which strategies he should reject or change.

c) Assessing one's progress. This assessment aims at making the reader aware of his progress in the efficient use of reading strategies. It is relevant since it leads the reader to think about how he is getting along with reading tasks, that is, if he feels that he has improved his reading ability after having been taught some reading strategies.

3.4. Operational Decision for the Purpose of this Research

After having presented some reading strategies according to Kato, van Dijk and Kintsch and members of the Brazilian National ESP Project we think it is worth saying that the reading strategies that were chosen to be taught to the students enrolled in the experiment were the reading strategies found in the Working Papers of the ESP Project due to their practical approach.

CHAPTER 4

AFFECTIVE INFLUENCES ON READING PROFICIENCY

4.1. Introduction

Reading plays an important role in each individual's life because through reading a person is able to grow intellectually. Because reading is so relevant, the teaching of reading, in turn, becomes relevant. Strategies can be taught in order to help individuals become proficient readers. However, merely teaching reading strategies is not sufficient to produce proficient readers. It is essential that attention also be given to the individual's personality, attitude, motivation, etc.

This chapter provides a review of the literature concerning affective bases in Downing and Leong (1982).

4.2. Some Psychological Aspects that Influence the Reading Ability

Reading ability depends, to a large extent, on the reader's environment, attention, attitude, motivation, incentive, curiosity, interest, purpose, and school experiences.

To verify how each of the above factors influence the reader's reading ability, each one is discussed individually and some research results are presented.

4.2.1. Influence of Attention on Reading

Attention is one of the psychological factors that influences reading ability. It is aroused by the reader's motivation to learn to read and is of crucial importance in reading comprehension.

Nuttin (1976), Burt (1968), Samuels and Turnure (1974), Dykman, Ackerman, Clements, and Peters (1971) and other researchers are unanimous in saying that there is a great relationship between the reader's attention and his success in reading. Nuttin (1976) states, based on the reviews he made of modern research, that attention actually facilitates learning. Burt (1968) also admits the relevance of attentional effects in reading saying that attention functions as a 'filtering device' since it enables the reader to select a certain amount from all the incoming information that the brain will process. Samuels and Turnure (1974) developed an experiment to observe if children's attentional behavior during reading lessons would interfere with their reading achievement. The results showed a definite relationship between reading achievement and the children's attentiveness. Dykman, Ackerman, Clements, and Peters (1971) also conscious of the above relationship observed by Samuels and Turnure, theorize that an important cause of reading disability is an "attentional deficit syndrome."

Giving further evidence to the relevance of attention to reading achievement, Strauss and Lehtinen's (1947) and Harris and Sipay's (1975) opinions are mentioned. Strauss and Lehtinen say

that brain injured children have a major learning problem because they are incapable of ignoring distracting stimuli, that is, they are not able to select only pertinent information. Harris and Sipay say that failure in learning to read "may be due to inattention rather than to lack of the basic abilities required by the task" (p.240).

Besides emphasizing the relevance of attentional effects in reading achievement, it is also obvious that individual differences exist among readers. It is not too difficult to find readers that show different degrees of attention and even to find readers who do show hardly any evidence of attention during their reading tasks. These individual differences have different causes.

4.2.2. Influence of Failure-Threat-Anxiety to Reading

Before discussing the causes of the readers' individual differences and the influence of failure-threat-anxiety to reading, it seems necessary to define these terms since they are used in most of the research about the psychological factors that influence reading ability.

According to Spielberger (1972) the term stress refers to "the objective stimulus properties of a situation" and the term threat refers to "an individual's idiosyncratic perception of a particular situation as physically or psychologically dangerous" (p.240). Here, Spielberger raises the point that a situation may be considered stressful or not depending on the individual's own evaluation since he may consider objectively nonstressful situations as threatening because of his personality tendencies and past experiences involving similar situations. The term anxiety is used to refer to "the complex emotional reactions that

are evoked in individuals who interpret specific situations as personally threatening. If a person perceives a situation as threatening, irrespective of the presence of real (objective) danger, it is assumed that... he will experience an increase in the intensity of an emotional state characterized by feelings of tension and apprehension, and by heightened autonomic nervous system activity" (241).

Taking into account these general psychological facts, Downing hypothesizes that "anxiety interferes with attentiveness because failure in reading constitutes a form of stress that causes the poor reader to perceive reading tasks as threats" (p. 241). Beretha's (1970) study supports this hypothesis. Berreta found that children's inability to concentrate is due to their negative self-images. Such results lead to the conclusion that anxiety can be caused in readers who experience stressful failure in their reading tasks and who consider each reading task as threatened with almost certain failure. In these cases, the readers are not able to focus attention on their reading tasks.

According to Downing (1983), the term "failure-threat-anxiety syndrome" well defines the reader's vicious circle of failure → anxiety → more failure and that its symptoms are evident in many different ways. He categorizes these symptoms under the headings: overt fear reactions, non-specific emotional behavior, escape behavior and attack behavior. These symptoms are characterized as follows:

a) Overt fear reactions. Readers who usually fail in their reading activities develop a high degree of anxiety which becomes evident when confronting a reading task. According to Strang et al this anxiety can be observed in the readers' "fears of making

mistakes, of failing, of having people know how poorly they read, of growing up..." (p.247).

b) Non-specific emotional behavior. Readers who experience emotional symptoms may show a variety of responses. So it is possible to find readers presenting such reactions as shyness, withdrawal, and aggressiveness (Strang et al), "submissiveness, indifference, inattentiveness, seeming laziness, withdrawal, day dreaming, evasive reactions" (Gates, 1936:242), "distractibility, inattention, hyperactivity, avoidance, perseverance" (Laurita, 1971: 242), etc.

c) Escape behavior. According to Downing, one of the most frequent reactions to the failure-threat-anxiety syndrome is escape behavior. Here the reader's reactions are withdrawal, psychosomatic disorders, rigidity and some other avoidance strategies.

Gates (1936) and Strang et al found that shyness and withdrawal are symptoms of escape behavior and Hickerson (1970) found that some readers present some psychosomatic disorders in order to escape from the anxiety. She described her findings as follows: "One student was sick to his stomach", and another "feigned petit mal seizures" (p.243).

Another escape behavior is rigidity, which is commonly misinterpreted as stupidity, laziness, or mental retardation. According to Dreikurs (1977) the child presents the reaction when he feels that he is not able to cope successfully with reading tasks and he decides to 'play stupid'. In such cases he may seem mentally retarded although he is not. Stott (1977) and Dreikurs interpret this kind of behavior as a defense strategy the child uses in order to persuade others that it is useless to teach him because

he cannot learn.

There are other avoidance strategies that clearly indicate that the reader is trying to 'escape' from the reading task. Some children may invent the most absurd excuses in order to avoid going to school or to leave school early. Many parents and teachers are familiar with a multitude of these excuses. These children's behavior is caused by their failure-threat anxiety. Hickerson says that "many left the school grounds and went home when they felt trapped by school procedures" (p.243).

d) Attack behavior. Readers react in many different ways to failure-threat anxiety syndrome, frequently showing antisocial behavior, aggressivity, hiperactivity and impulsivity.

Rutter and Yule (1977) developed an experiment through which "A very considerable degree of overlay was found between reading retardation and antisocial behavior. Of the children who were severely retarded in reading, a third exhibited antisocial behavior. This rate is several times that in the general population even when sex differences are taken into account. ... Similarly, of the group of antisocial children, over a third were at least twenty-eight month retarded in English (after IQ was partially out). Again, this rate is many times that in general population, after controlling for sex differences" (p.243). In analyzing these findings in order to determine their cause and effect, Rutter and Yule confronted a difficult task, but came to the conclusion that "both reading difficulties and antisocial behaviour may develop on the basis of similar types of temperamental deviance but also that delinquency may sometimes arise from a maladaptative response to educational failure. Thus, the child who fails to read and who thereby falls behind in his

school work may rebel against all the values associated with school when he finds that he cannot succeed there" (p.244).

A study which gives evidence of the aggressiveness that some readers present as an alternative emotional reaction is the one developed by Spache (1957) and Douglas, Ross, and Simpson (1968). Spache stated that 4 per cent of a group of poor readers showed aggressiveness while 10 per cent of this same group showed subnormal aggressiveness. Douglas, Ross, and Simpson also found similar results classifying their poor achievers as either aggressively troublesome or as nervously well-behaved.

According to Marwit and Stenner (1972) the term hyperactivity is related to aggression involving impulsiveness, a low frustration point, short attention span and excessively hostile as well as generally overactive behavior. Readers who are used to failure may present these reactions.

Another of the reader's reactions to the failure-threat anxiety is impulsiveness. This behavior may hinder comprehension of texts since it does not allow the readers to reflect on the content of the text. Roberts (1980) says that the speed with which decisions are made in uncertain situations is likely to be an important factor in a reading task full of uncertainty. She mentions Lunzer and Garner's (1979) study in which they found a significant relationship between individual differences in reading comprehension and the extent to which the reader is able to reflect on the content of the reading.

4.2.3. Influence of Perception of Failure to Reading

There are many factors that may influence the reader's behavior when facing the reading task. The readers who usually

succeed in their reading activities generally show good motivation, have a good self-concept, feel secure and so on in relation to their reading task and consequently can focus attention on it, but readers who usually fail lack this motivation, have a negative self-concept and feel insecure. As a result they are not able to be attentive during their reading task.

Research shows that perception of failure in reading may lead the child to negative emotional reactions. According to Vernon (1971) "Children who find learning difficult and hence fall behind their companions - still more those who fail to learn altogether - are not unnaturally frustrated, anxious and depressed by their failure" (p.244). According to Schonell and Goodacre (1974) the inability to read lends even older people to develop "a feeling of inadequacy and inferiority" (p.245).

4.2.4. Influence of Parents' Attitude on Reading

Besides perception of failure there are other factors that influence reading ability such as the parents' attitude toward learning.

Readers may have overdemanding, overanxious, unconcerned or overprotective parents. Readers who have overdemanding parents run the risk of not being able to learn to read. The pressure exerted on them by their parents is so strong that they refuse to take risks in their attempt to learn to read. Also, as a consequence of this pressure, readers may develop a high degree of anxiety and see the reading task as a threat. These readers

may create an aversion against the reading task and try to escape from it. The readers whose parents are overanxious about their child's success in reading may also develop a high degree of anxiety but the possibility of learning to read still exists. Readers who have parents who are completely unconcerned about their child's learning task may not feel the relevance of learning to read for their intellectual growth and cultural development. In these cases, the readers may not expend any effort to learn to read. Readers who have overprotective parents may never be able to read with confidence. They may always be dependent on their parents or teachers.

There has been much research with results indicating that the parents' attitude toward learning plays an important role in the development of reading ability. According to Vernon (1957) "if the parents react to their child's backwardness by blaming or reproaching him, or even merely by undue pressure, urging him to work harder, a severe emotional conflict may result" (p.247). In their study cases Davis and Kent (1955) found that severe retardation in reading may be made worse by the excessive demands of the children's parents. Davis and Kent, analyzing the attitude of 118 eight-year-olds' parents found that children with overdemanding and unconcerned parents proved to be severely retarded in reading whereas children with overanxious parents and children with normal treatment achieved equally.

4.2.4.1. Primary Emotional Disturbances due to Parents' Attitude

It is highly relevant that many children are hindered in relation to learning even before entering school. Some parents

treat their children in such a way as to damage their motivation and capacity for learning. These children enter school with a preestablished negative self-concept and are potentially unsuccessful learners.

Stott (1977) surveyed 1,104 children when they came to school for the first time and again at the end of the third year. The results show that there was little change in the children after three years of schooling. The researcher concluded that "the maladjustment and bad attitudes to learning of the poor readers antedated any exposure to the teaching of reading or their awareness of failure in reading" (p.247). Another survey developed by Wattenberg and Clifford (1964) revealed similar results. The results show that some children view their own competence unfavorably even before entering kindergarten and that measurement of self-concept was predictive of their reading achievement at the end of the second grade.

4.3. Influence of Incentive to Reading

Research evidence shows that the readers' incentive is fundamental to learning to read.

The definition of incentive, according to McDonald (1965: 249) is:

An *incentive* is a reward or source of need satisfaction that a person *may* obtain. The possibility of attaining this reward or goal induces motivated behavior. An incentive is something proffered to a learner to engage him in the actions of learning.

In order to better understand McDonald's use of the term need Downing (1983) suggests that it should be defined. He cites, therefore, Drever's (1964) psychological definition of need as

"A condition marked by the feeling of lack or want of something, or of requiring the performance of some action" (p.249). Therefore, an incentive is that which incites or motivates the reader to do something in order to satisfy his needs. This incentive may be intrinsic or extrinsic and may be considered a kind of motivation.

Extrinsic incentives are external factors that may lead an individual to face the reading task, as, for example rewarding the reader with grades, candy, toys, etc.

There is some controversy about the effectiveness of extrinsic incentives. Strang et al defend the point of view that "Stars, teacher's marks, and other extrinsic rewards" are the most "temporary" and "superficial" kind of motivation (p.250). Contrary to this point of view, some behaviorist psychologists such as Staats (1968), Staart and Staats (1962), Staats, Staats, Schutz and Wolf (1962) argue that there is much research evidence to prove that children work harder at their reading tasks when they receive candy or tokens as incentives.

More recent research shows that extrinsic incentive may be harmful to the reader. Oliver (1976) hypothesizes that a child who receives extrinsic rewards for reading may have "a false concept of the purpose for reading" (p.250). The results of a study by Lepper, Greene and Nisbett (1973) support Oliver's hypothesis, showing that extrinsic incentives undermine the children's intrinsic interest in the reading task.

Intrinsic incentives are intrinsic factors that may lead an individual to face the reading task. These intrinsic factors may include the reader's achievement, his desire to be as proficient as his parents, his curiosity, his reading interest and purpose in reading.

According to McClelland (1961) and Vernon (1971) achievement in itself functions as an effective intrinsic motivation. In addition, Vernon states that

Undoubtedly the motive to achieve is related to parental stress on achievement. ... But parents of children with high achievement motivation, while advocating achievement and independence and rewarding children when they show these, are also permissive rather than authoritarian in their discipline. In other words, the child is attracted rather than forced by pressure to achieve; and this is reinforced by his identification with his parents and his desire to be like them (p.250).

Taking into account the different parents' attitude toward learning, one can conclude that individual differences in achievement motivation must be significant.

Another example of intrinsic incentive is curiosity which always seems to be present in the individual's life. According to Strang et al "Curiosity... is a prime motivation for reading at any age. Unless suppressed, curiosity persists throughout life and frequently turns a person to reading, which offers wide opportunities to satisfy his mood of inquiry" (p.251).

An experiment developed by Maw and Maw (1962) proves that curiosity is an effective intrinsic incentive to learning to read. The results show that the children who, according to their teachers, were highly motivated by curiosity did better on reading comprehension tasks than did the children at the opposite end of the scale.

The degree of curiosity may vary from child to child. This variation may be due to different home backgrounds or to the content of the what is being read as evidenced by Minuchin (1971) and Downing (1983). Minuchin studied 18 Black four-year-olds in a Head Start Program in order to investigate their levels of

curiosity. The results were diverse. She attributed their different levels of curiosity to their home backgrounds. She came to this conclusion because there were six children who "projected an environment characterized by sustained crisis, little coherence, ineffective and poorly defined adults; and whose conceptual grasp of order in the physical environment and of the relationship among objects tended to be poor. These children also showed limited curiosity or exploratory behavior" (p.251). Just as there is a wide variety of backgrounds, so is there a wide variety in the content of children's curiosity. Downing suggests, however, that in spite of the wide variation in terms of content, it may be possible to find books with contents to satisfy the children's interest.

Reading interest is another intrinsic incentive. Many researchers share the point of view that interest is of utmost importance to reading comprehension since it motivates the reader to read.

Research results give evidence of the relationship between interest and reading comprehension. Downing comments that many teachers and parents realize that even children with poor reading skills are able to read much better when reading something that is of great interest to them. An experiment developed by Shnayer (1969) supports Downing's statement. Shnayer studied 484 children in 17 sixth-grade classes in one metropolitan area. Seven groups were formed according to the children's reading ability. Stories were distributed to each group. The students had to read these stories which were more difficult than their actual reading ability and rate the stories on a four-point scale according to interest. Shnayer related the pupils' comprehension to their interest ratings, analyzed the results statistically and came to

the following conclusion: "A high interest in stories read by children results in greater comprehension than that which results from low interest". He also concluded that "Reading interest, as a factor of reading comprehension, may enable most students to read beyond their measured reading ability" (p.252). One other of his findings is that "there is a gradual diminishing difference of the effect of interest as reading ability increases ... High ability students are less affected by reading interest than low ability students" (p.252). Based on these findings teachers of reading should choose material that is of great interest to the readers, especially beginners and older readers who show some disability in reading. Teachers should follow Shnayer's advice and provide "an abundance of reading material" remembering that "the confines of reading textbooks, graded, and used in series, would seem to be a clear violation of the interest needs of children" (p.252). Shnayer is against the obligatory use of graded reading texts in series without satisfying the individual readers' interests.

While discussing individual differences, it seems relevant to observe that, not only children, but also adults should be provided with material that is of interest to them. The teacher must therefore discover the interests of each reader and help each satisfy his own interests. According to Beretta (1970) the teacher should permit the readers to choose what they want to read. However, if some readers have difficulty in choosing a text, the teacher should help them learn to choose their own reading material.

Purpose in reading may also function as an intrinsic incentive. Once the reader has established a purpose for reading, he will be motivated to fulfill that purpose. Any reading requires the establishment of a purpose and, as this purpose may vary from one

reader to another the reading process changes accordingly. The reader needs, therefore, to be trained to read for different purposes.

The use of the term purpose here is to be understood as "meta-motivational" because it is not only the reader's motivation that is being discussed but also his awareness or even his conception of this motivation. Purpose is defined by Drever as "The thought, in the present, of an end or aim, in the future, with the intention of realizing it" (p.254). According to Woodworth and Marquis (1949:254).

Purpose is a goal-directed activity in which the individual has foresight of the end to be accomplished and has definitely committed himself to the action.

Through the above definitions one perceives the actual motivation that the establishment of purpose causes. One also perceives that the established purpose directs the reader's reading act. Hence, the reader must know how to adapt his reading skills to different purposes.

It is interesting to note that sometimes the readers are not made aware of the necessity of establishing their purposes when coping with a reading task. This may occur because many teachers think that the purposes of literacy are self-evident. However, Vygotsky (1934) showed that a young child in Russia "has little motivation to learn writing when we begin to teach it. He feels no need for it and has only a vague idea of its usefulness" (p.254). This result may be also applied to reading.

Lind's (1936) study gives evidence that many readers are not aware of the usefulness of literacy. Lind analyzed information contained in reports in which adults recalled reading in

childhood and found the following main purposes: (1) for escape, (2) for temporary diversion, (3) for specific use in objective interests, (4) for self-development. From these results one may conclude that the readers need to be made aware that the reading act requires a specific purpose so that the readers can direct their reading selectively.

In order to show that reading comprehension may be strongly influenced by the purpose established, Postman and Senders's (1946) experiment is included here. These researchers gave college students a passage to read. The students were divided into six different groups. Each group received different instructions in order to influence the students' purpose in reading the passage. These instructions were: Group one - read the passage timing how long it took; Group two - read to be tested for general comprehension of the passage; Group three - read to be tested for recall of exact, specific sequence of events in the story; Group four - read to be tested for content; Group five - read to be tested for 'wording'; and Group six - read to be tested for "physical appearance" including deliberately introduced errors of spelling and typing. Sufficient time was given to all college students to read the passage at their own speed. After that they had to answer a multiple-choice test of 50 items including 10 items related to instruction received by each group. The results of the experiment show that the purpose for reading the text as received by each group influenced its score on the different parts of the test. The type of information related to the determined purpose tended to be remembered best.

Taking into account the results of Postman and Spenders's experiment, one can conclude that readers should be taught how to establish purposes for reading and should be trained to direct

their reading in such a way that they can achieve their purposes.

4.4. Influence of Reinforcement on Reading

The theory of reinforcement has contributed to a large extent such changes in teaching methods as behavior modification systems. Its influence has also been felt in reading instruction.

Skinner (1953) considers the term 'reinforcement' any experience followed by a response that increases the probability of similar responses in the future. Skinner also considers any stimulus as a "reinforcer" only if it provokes an increase in the probability of similar responses.

The most controversial kinds of reinforcement in the teaching of reading are tangible (toys, candies, grades), social (praise, enthusiasm) and knowledge of the results. Research, in this area, shows how effective or ineffective these reinforcements are.

Hammer (1968) developed an experiment to find out how effective tangible and social reinforcements are. The subjects were culturally-deprived Negro children attending instructional periods in individualized reading. They were divided into three treatment groups according to type of reinforcement used. One group received a tangible reinforcement - candy - and the second group received a social reinforcement - 'that's fine'. The last group functioned as a control group, that is, the children in it did not receive any special reinforcement. The results showed that the tangible treatment group produced the most correct responses, while the social reinforcement reached second, and control group produced the weakest results. Two other experiments developed by Pikulski

(1970, 1971) found opposite results - The results showed that children from lower class backgrounds did not respond better to tangible reinforcement.

Raygor, Wark and Warren (1966) attempted to find out if knowledge of results is an effective reinforcer. To test this effectiveness, they showed a flashing green light a subject every time he surpassed his previous rate of reading. The results proved that knowledge of results may function as an effective reinforcer since the subjects accelerated their reading rate under this treatment. This was more intensely observed in those subjects aware of the function of the green light.

Having considered the influence of reinforcement on reading, it is relevant to note that no research has been carried out comparing the effectiveness of instructional programs developed in the traditional way and instructional programs developed applying reinforcement treatment. Consequently it is impossible to conclude that one approach is actually more effective than other. Both may have their negative and positive aspects. Hence, it is up to the teacher to discover the most effective approach to his pupils. Once the teacher has opted for the reinforcement approach, he still needs to find out which of the reinforcers are more useful to each of his pupils since what functions for one pupil may not function with another.

Those teachers who happen to adopt the reinforcement approach should also keep in mind that there is the possibility of an abrupt change in reading behavior resulting from withdrawal of extrinsic reinforcers. Pikulski's (1971) study shows that "children quickly forget words they had learned to criterion and fail to recognize the words when they are surrounded

by other words" (p.259). Teachers should still keep in mind that rewards for reading may lead the child to create "a false concept of the purpose for reading" and Lepper, Greene and Nisbett (1973) say that extrinsic incentives have the effect of destroying the children's intrinsic interest in the reading activity. This awareness enables the teachers to avoid excessive belief in the method and consequently avoid impairing the children's concept of the purpose of reading and their intrinsic incentives to reading.

4.5. Influence of Attitude on Reading

According to Allport's (1935:260) definition

An attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related.

Accepting the above definition, it follows that attitude may play an important role in reading achievement since it influences in a direct or dynamic way the reader's response toward reading.

Research evidence toward reading attitudes is developed under the following three aspects: sex differences, home background and school experiences.

4.5.1. Sex Differences Versus Attitudinal Behavior in Reading

Research developed in the USA shows that girls have more positive attitudes toward reading than boys. Hansen (1969) studying some fourth-grade pupils' attitude toward reading found

that girls showed a notably better reading attitude than the boys and read far more books. Another study to be considered here was developed by Kennedy and Halinski (1975) with secondary school pupils which also show that females, as expected, ranked significantly higher on the scale.

In England, Morris (1966) developed a similar experiment with ten and eleven year old children. The results did not show difference between girls' and boys' attitudes.

Through the above results, one can perceive that sex differences in reading behavior may vary according to the readers' nationality, that is, reading behavior according to sex is not universal in all cultures.

4.5.2. Home Background Versus Attitudinal Behavior in Reading

There is not much research in this field but that presented gives sufficient evidence to the effectiveness of parental assistance to their children when engaged in reading activities.

Attempting to observe if the relationship existent between the reader's home literary environment and his attitude toward reading, Hansen developed two experiments. In both studies the subjects were 48 fourth - grade pupils. The scale used to measure the pupils' attitudes was considered to be reliable and valid and the scores were taken from answers to a "home environment" questionnaire. Other variables such as the students' IQs, their fathers' occupations and their fathers' educational level, were also analyzed. In Hansen's (1969) first experiment, after a multiple regression analysis, he found that the home literary

environment was the only significant factor contributing to pupils' reading attitudes. The other variables showed no relationship to the pupils' reading attitudes. On the other hand, Hansen's (1973) second experiment showed different results. It showed that "the one factor that stands out from all the others is the role of the parent in being involved with his child's reading activities. Working with homework; encouraging, helping select, and discussing his reading; reading to him; giving assistance in looking things up in dictionaries and encyclopedias; and setting reading goals were more important than the mere provision of materials" (p.261).

Through Hansen's (1973) second study, it became evident that it is not necessary for parents be reading enthusiasts in order to bring up children who develop positive attitudes toward reading. It is necessary, rather, that parents take an interest in their children's reading activities. Furthermore, Hansen points out that "making gross socioeconomic generalizations about home environment" (p.261) is not just and reliable since the best score in his study was obtained by a child from a low socioeconomic background with little possibility of buying books but whose parents created the habit of going to the library after their child's birth.

4.5.3. School Experiences and Attitudinal Behavior to Reading

It is well known that school should be a place where people go in order to learn to write, to read, etc. But it is also well known that many times the schools do not adequately fulfill their duties. The teaching of reading is no exception.

Oliver's (1976) states interestingly that "Attitudes related to reading are influenced by the experiences that the child has in the name of reading (p.262). This statement rings true because sometimes readers enter school with positive attitude toward reading but some of their experiences in school, such as inappropriate instructional methods, classes given with a high degree of anxiety, teachers that do not observe the emotional differences of each child and who do not see each child as an individual, may lead to negative attitudes toward reading.

Proof of the above can be found in some research results. Kelley (1965) used a pilot program to introduce reading in kindergarten. The children enrolled in the experiment had the freedom to read or not. The first evaluation of the pilot program revealed that by the second grade those children who had learned to read in kindergarten showed significant progress in reading achievement as well as more positive attitudes toward reading.

Because of the good results obtained in the above experiment, another one was planned in order to make a precise analysis of the effects of teaching reading in kindergarten. The subjects in the experimental group were all given obligatory reading classes and the kindergartens in the control group were not given any reading, that is, none of them were allowed to read. Because of this organization, many children were grouped against their interests. There were children in the control group who wanted to read and as they could not, they became frustrated and there were children in the experimental group who did not want to read but they had to do it and consequently they could not learn. A detailed list of attitudes was made at the end of the kindergarten year and disclosed that the control group developed more positive attitudes

than did the experimental group. This may have occurred because the children in the control group were not pressured to read. When they did decide to read of their own initiative and their own interests, they learned in order to achieve their own purposes.

Perhaps Southgate (1973:262) sums it up best when he says "In all reading tuition, the first aim should be to produce children and adults who want to read and who do read".

4.6. Applicability of these Research Results to the Brazilian Situation

Through the review of the literature concerning affective bases provided by Downing and Leong we can observe that most of the experiments developed are related to how and why American children show particular kinds of behavior when reading. It is not automatically applicable to Brazilian university students. It is worth considering, to what extent some of the research results obtained with American children may or may not be applied to the situation of Brazilian children, and to what extent Brazilian adults' reading proficiency can also be influenced by affective bases.

The significant relationship between attention and achievement reported by Nuttin (1976), Burt (1968), Samuels and Turnure (1974) and others would presumably also occur among Brazilian readers since attention is essential to any learning activity.

As for the failure-threat-anxiety syndrome we would say that it is held not only by American readers but also by Brazilian

ones, children or adults. The American readers' reactions to the failure-threat-anxiety syndrome pointed out by Strang et al (1957), Gates (1937), Laurita (1971) and Hickerson (1970) can also be observed in Brazilian readers. It is not difficult to find among our students those who avoid participating in class due to fear of making mistakes, of allowing people to perceive their weaknesses, showing shyness, aggressiveness, submissiveness, indifference, distractibility, inattention, hyperactivity or pleading a headache.

Vernon's (1971) and Schonell and Goodacre's (1974) experiments showed that readers who perceive their failure in reading show a negative self-concept, frustrations, anxiety and depression whereas readers who are used to success show good motivation, good self-concept and feel secure. These results seem to be true for any learning situation. Who has, child or adult, ever failed and has not felt a certain degree of inferiority? Who has, child or adult, ever succeeded and has not felt a positive attitude toward the task performed with success?

The results obtained from research on parental influences on learning to read also lead us to believe that home background plays an important role for reading achievement in any individual's life. Everywhere in the world we can find overdemanding, overanxious, unconcerned or overprotective parents, and depending on the parents' attitude towards reading the readers may or may not learn to read.

Research on influence of incentive to reading shows that there are different points of view among researchers. Some researchers, such as Staats (1968), Staats and Staats (1962), Staats, Staats, Schutz and Wolf (1962) defend the point of view that extrinsic incentives (such as candy or tokens) are effective

to reading achievement and other researchers such Strange et al and Oliver (1976) defend the point of view that these incentives are not effective since they are superficial and temporary and that they may lead the readers to acquire a false concept of the purpose for reading. Taking into account these two points of view I would argue against the use of extrinsic incentives such as candy, tokens even for children to motivate learning to read. It may give the readers the idea that reading is something that involves buying and selling. In relation to intrinsic motivation Strang et al's and Oliver's points of view seem most sensible.

Other researchers have defended the effectiveness of intrinsic incentives. Among intrinsic incentives research results have proved the effectiveness of achievement, desire to be as proficient as their parents, curiosity, interest and purpose in reading. The effectiveness of some of these intrinsic incentives is also confirmed by some of the students enrolled in our study case. (cf. chapter 7, section 7.2.1.1). Still discussing the effectiveness of intrinsic incentives it is clear that readers, children or adults, may be led to perceive that they are able to read, that reading is essential to their intellectual growth and cultural development, that reading may satisfy their curiosity and that reading besides being useful gives pleasure.

In relation to social reinforcements these may be effective sometimes because Brazilian readers like to be praised, like any others, though such reinforcement in excess may arouse in the readers who are being praised, feelings of superiority and may inhibit the other readers who are not being praised. Knowledge of results reinforcement is most effective since it not only has the purpose of reinforcing but also remedying learning. Feedback is essential.

Research on the readers' attitude toward reading has shown that it may vary according to the readers' sex differences, home background and school experiences. American girls showed more positive attitudes toward reading than boys. In England no difference between boys and girls was revealed. In Brazil, intuitively and based on our small sample, results of the students' reading habit show no different attitude toward reading because of the reader's sex.

Home background obviously plays an important role in developing positive attitudes toward reading in Brazil as elsewhere. Children who are brought up by parents that are used to reading tend to develop positive attitude toward reading. However, just being born in a literary home background is not a sufficient reason for one to show positive attitude to reading. The parents, as Hansen has said, do not need to be reading enthusiasts in order to arouse positive attitudes toward reading in their children. It is necessary that the parents participate actively and watch, their child's performance at school closely.

In conclusion the research results presented by Downing do not show results that can be considered exclusively pertinent to American people. They can be useful not only for Brazilian people involved in the teaching of reading but also to people of other nationalities who are also involved with reading.

4.7. Practical Implications of Affective Influences on Reading Achievement

Having reviewed the psychological factors that may influence reading achievement, one may conclude that the awareness of how

the reading process works and of the reading strategies available is not sufficient to assure that readers be proficient. It is also necessary to create a balanced and pleasant atmosphere among readers and between readers and teachers. It is also necessary to control the readers' anxiety level so that they can direct their attention appropriately during reading classes, so that they do not see the reading task as a threat and so that they do not try to escape from reading tasks. It is also necessary that there exist an equilibrium in their parents' attitude so that they can develop confidence regarding the reading task, so that they can develop positive self-concepts. It is also necessary that the teachers know how to arouse the readers' curiosity, how to discover the readers' reading interests and how to help them discover the purposes for reading. The teachers should also know when and which kinds of reinforcement are most useful for each reader. Finally, the teachers should know how to spark and nurture favorable attitudes toward reading.

Probably, only with a good mixture of all the above psychological factors is a teacher able to provide readers with adequate, efficient and productive reading classes.

In conclusion we would say that any reading course, even to adults, has to take into account these psychological factors presented.

CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY

5.1. Introduction

The study case for this dissertation was sparked off by "A Preliminary Investigation of the Reading Strategies of Successful and Nonsuccessful Second Language Learners" developed by Hosenfeld (1977).

The main objective of the present case is to detect the difficulties which nonsuccessful readers meet when reading and, based on these findings, to teach them reading strategies, so that they have a chance to become successful readers.

In order to reach the above objective questionnaires, texts and instructional materials were planned. This chapter presents each of the assessment instruments, its purpose and how the results were analyzed.

5.2. The Sample

5.2.1. Federal University of Piauí

The Federal University of Piauí, in Teresina, capital of Piauí State, has 12,437 students doing 34 undergraduate courses and in 6 Diploma (Especialização) courses. The students enrolled in this study case are all from this University.

5.2.2. Choice of Subjects

Twenty students from the Federal University of Piauí were chosen randomly from three different ESP classes in the first semester of university study to participate in this experiment, regardless of sex, age or study area. These students took two different tests (see 5.4 below). Using the results of the first test ten students were chosen to continue in the experiment. These ten students took a second test and according to the results five students were chosen to belong to the experimental group.

The decision to engage only five students in the experiment was made based on the assumption that a small group allows better interaction among students and between students and teacher. Further, it allows the teacher to give greater assistance to each student individually and in consequence, it was expected that these students would benefit more from the experience. The small numbers do not permit sophisticated statistical analysis of results, or inferences about general applicability of findings. This was intentional.

The primary objective was to take a small number of case studies, to discover what strategies these readers used, and to try to teach effective strategies to the five worst readers.

The research design thus aims not at a description of the Federal University of Piauí students' reading abilities and strategies, for which a larger survey would be required, but at a small-scale, limited piece of descriptive research and a teaching experiment.

5.3. Choice of Questionnaires

Two different types of questionnaire were planned for this study case. The first one was designed to obtain personal data on the subjects and the second one to obtain information on the readers' summaries.

5.3.1. Personal Data Questionnaire

This questionnaire (see Appendix 1) was adapted from a questionnaire elaborated by Scott (1984). Its main objective is to collect personal data on the subjects in order to provide us with a picture of each subject's English experience and motivation toward English, reading habit and affective motivation. It is composed of 17 questions. Questions from A to G were introduced in this instrument to acquire information about the readers' English experience and motivation toward English. Questions H, L, M, O, Q and R were introduced to investigate the readers' reading habit, and questions I, J, N and P were included in order to assess the affective side of the reader's behaviour. For the present purpose, the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is relevant. It was felt useful to try to get at intrinsic motivation by asking about reading for pleasure, while extrinsic motivation aimed at finding out about family attitudes and pressures.

This questionnaire was intended to provide information for to further investigate (1) relationships between readers' English experience and ability to write a summary and/or to use reading strategies; (2) relationships between readers' reading habit and ability to write a summary and/or to use reading strategies; and (3) relationships between readers' reading habit and influence of affective bases.

The personal data questionnaire was written in Portuguese in order to ensure the readers' comprehension.

Each subject was asked to answer this questionnaire. Results were analyzed and will be discussed in chapter 7.

5.3.2. Summary Data Questionnaire

This questionnaire (see Appendix 1) was also adapted from Scott's (1984) questionnaire on summary data. Its main objective was to find out the subjects' reaction and opinion as to the difficulty experienced in writing a summary. In order to reach these objectives six questions were introduced.

This questionnaire was also written in Portuguese.

Subjects were asked to answer the questions and results were analyzed and will be discussed in chapter 7.

5.4. The Tests

In this study is introduced three different tests. They are the summary test, the first reading strategy test and the final reading strategy test. Each of them has its own objective.

5.4.1. The Summary Test

The summary test was introduced in the study case in order to help us in the selection of good comprehenders and poor comprehenders. The good comprehenders being those students who were able to write good summaries and the poor comprehenders being those whose summaries were poor.

In order to find out the good comprehenders and the poor comprehenders we asked them to write a summary of the text "Marihuana" (see Appendix 2). Afterwards, the summaries were evaluated and the ten students chosen. The five worst comprehenders remained in the experiment as well as the five best comprehenders. Both were asked to take the first reading strategy test.

Summary was chosen as a test procedure, instead of the well-known alternatives (multiple choice, open questions, cloze, etc.) because it is nearest to a real life task: any reader in professional or academic life may have to provide in the L1 a written or spoken summary of the main ideas in a text quite frequently. The alternatives, besides being artificial, have other disadvantages, such as concentrating too easily on unimportant detail, giving away information in the very questions, being answerable without reading the text, requiring a writing ability, etc.

The criteria for evaluating the summaries will be presented later in this chapter, section 5.6.3.

5.4.2. The First Reading Strategy Test

This test was introduced in the experiment in order to find

out good readers' and poor readers' strategies. Good readers would be those students who were able to read making sense of what they read, and that were also able to use adequate reading strategies. Poor readers would be those who were not able to read making sense of what they read and that were not able to use adequate reading strategies.

In order to reach this objective we asked the students to read a similar text, 'Alcoholism' (see Appendix 2) and mark the words or structures they did not understand. Then, they were supposed to say what strategies they used in order to overcome these difficulties. They were also asked to say which conclusions they reached about the possible meanings of these words or structures. Through the results we were able to separate the five best readers from the five worst ones. The five best readers were excused from the group. The five worst ones stayed in the experiment in order to be made aware of how the reading process develops and of reading strategies. Among the five best readers there was one who did not write a good summary and among the five worst readers there was one who wrote a good summary.

5.4.3. Final Reading Strategy Test

This test was introduced in the experiment in order to find out how the poor readers who had been made aware of how the reading process develops and of reading strategies behaved after the instructional period.

As in the first strategy test these readers were asked to read a text and mark words or structures they did not understand and then say what strategies they used in order to overcome these

difficulties. They were also asked to say which conclusions they reached about the possible meaning they assigned to these words or structures. The text they were asked to read was "Food and TV" (Appendix 2).

The results of the test were analyzed and conclusions drawn. Criteria for analysis are explained in this chapter, section 5.6.5, and the conclusions and discussion will be presented in chapter 7.

5.5. Reading Strategy Course

The reading strategy course was planned in order to make the readers aware that reading is not a passive process, but a psycholinguistic 'guessing game' and to make them aware of the usefulness and effectiveness of reading strategies and in order to enable them to play this psycholinguistic 'guessing game.'

For the sake of convenience, the reading strategy course will be presented and discussed in the next chapter.

5.6. Method of Analysis

This section describes the method used to analyze the data from the Personal Data Questionnaire, the Summary Data Questionnaire, the Summary Test, The First Reading Strategy Test and The Final Reading Strategy Test.

5.6.1. Personal Data Questionnaire Analysis

This questionnaire is composed of closed questions and open questions. Analysis of the results from the closed questions is

not difficult since the answers are preestablished but the open questions show a certain level of difficulty since the students have the freedom to give any answer they want. In these cases the answers were grouped according into categories. These categories are shown in chapter 7. The answers to questions H, L, M, O, Q and R were also grouped in order to evaluate the readers' reading habit. Grouping into categories is of necessity a subjective process, both in deciding what answers count as similar or the same, and in deciding on the weighting allocated to each category of answer.

The intention was to group the questions in this questionnaire into three categories, dealing, respectively, with English experience and motivation toward English, reading habit, and attitude to reading.

The values attributed to questions H, L, M and O vary from 3 to 0 and the values attributed to questions Q and R vary from 4 to 0. The total number of possible points is 20. According to the readers' total score they were graded as very good, good, regular, poor or very poor readers. Another group we formed was of the questions I, J, N and P in order to observe the influence of affective bases on readers. The value attributed to each of these questions varies from 1 to 0. The total number of possible points is 4. According to the readers' total score they were said to have very good, good, poor or very poor affective bases. Questions from A to G were not grouped. They were analyzed separately.

5.6.2. Summary Data Questionnaire Analysis

This questionnaire is composed of six questions. Some of them allow just one answer but others allow more than one. In this case

again the readers' answers were grouped into categories. These answers were from questions A, D and F. The answers to question A - How did you feel when given the task of writing a summary? - were grouped as follows: fine, insecure, regular, in difficulty or preoccupied with form. The answers to question D - what did you do first after receiving task directions? - were grouped as: look for cognates, skim the text, start the task, understand the text or observe the title and predict content. The answers to question F - What was your greatest difficulty in doing this task? - were grouped as: unknown words, translation, understanding title, understanding second and third paragraphs or writing the summary.

5.6.3. Summary Test Analysis

In order to distinguish good comprehenders from poor comprehenders the summary test was applied. The summaries were analyzed by three different teachers according to preestablished criteria.

The three teachers first discussed what they thought a summary involved. This discussion yielded this conclusion: summarizing is briefly stating the essential points, statements or facts. Based on this definition the teachers analyzed each readers' summaries. Each teacher pointed out the five best comprehenders and the five worst comprehenders. Then, the results were compared. The worst comprehenders were easily detected by the three teachers. They matched perfectly in the three teachers' lists. On the other hand, there was not perfect agreement on the best comprehenders. Two comprehenders in one list were different from the others of the other two lists. So, the three teachers had

a meeting and came to a consensus about the five best ones.

The five best comprehenders and the five worst comprehenders remained in the experiment and had to take the reading strategy test. The students who were given an average grade were exempted from participation in the experiment.

5.6.4. First Reading Strategy Test Analysis

The five best comprehenders and the five worst comprehenders were asked to read a text and mark the unknown words, expressions or structures that were making their comprehension difficult. Furthermore, they were asked to say which strategies they used in order to assign the meaning or possible meaning to these words, expressions or structures and also say the meaning or possible meaning they had attributed to each of them.

The results were analyzed in accordance with the psycholinguistic approaches to the reading process outlined in chapters 1 and 2. The written protocols were analyzed for evidence that the readers were reading searching for meaning; they were making use of preceding and following information in order to assign meaning to words, expressions or structures; they were making links between the meanings of sentences and paragraphs; they were applying reading strategies adequately; or if their reading was based on the various misconceptions about the reading process. These conclusions could be reached through the readers' saying how they were coping with the text as well as by the meanings they had attributed to the unknown words, expressions or structures encountered.

In order to make it clear how good readers and poor readers

dealt with the text, chapter 7 also provides a deeper analysis of how two of the five good readers and how all five poor readers coped with the text. The analyses of all five poor readers' results are provided since they do not group easily and also because it will be useful in order to observe how far each of them improved his reading ability after the reading strategies course.

The five good readers, who showed that they are able to read efficiently and use reading strategies adequately were excused from the experiment at this point. The other five readers who were not able to read searching for meaning and use reading strategies adequately remained in the experiment.

5.6.5. Final Reading Strategy Test Analysis

Having made the readers aware of how the reading process develops and of some reading strategies which are useful for helping them to read more efficiently we gave them the final reading strategy test.

The final reading strategy test was similar to the first reading strategy test. The readers were also asked to mark difficulties, to mention the reading strategies used and the meanings they have arrived at to overcome their difficulties. The results were analyzed in the same way as with the first reading strategy results. Each readers' reading process was discussed in order to see how far these readers improved their reading process after instruction.

The decision to analyze the readers' reading process and reading strategies as described in this section and in section

5.6.4 was made based on Hosenfeld's (1977) report on a study case she developed interviewing 40 students trying to find out how they behave when they face reading difficulties. The method she used to interview them was 'think-aloud'. The students were asked to think-aloud while reading and then she was able to observe how they reacted to the difficulties met. Thus, she was also able to judge how well or how badly they dealt with the text. An example of how good readers and poor readers behave is given by her through the description of how Steven (a good reader) and David (a poor reader) performed their reading task.

Clearly the present work has its limitations since the sample worked with was not a large one as noted above as well as because the think-aloud method was not used, but written protocols instead. Detail is inevitably lost in using written protocols. On the other hand, they provide a more permanent record, and one which the reader has committed himself or herself to, as a document to be handed to the teacher/researcher.

This work aimed not only at detecting the readers' deficiencies but also at teaching them how to overcome their deficiencies. For this reason, instead of spending 40 hours interviewing the readers the decision was made to spend the same time teaching them reading strategies.

5.6.6. Analysis of Final Results

Most of the results presented in chapter 7 were scored in raw scores and simple percentages since the number of students enrolled in this study case is small. However, some Pearson product - moment correlations were calculated. The latter are included to indicate the approximate direction of relationship

which might be expected from a larger sample, and cannot be taken too seriously. First, the correlations, while reasonably strong (around .5) do not reach statistical significance because of sample size; and equally important, there is no reason to suppose that the data is parametric, and the use of a parametric statistic like the Pearson product-moment correlations with non-parametric data is controversial.

The results of the descriptive statistics analysis is presented in chapter 7.

CHAPTER 6

THE READING STRATEGIES COURSE

6.1. Introduction

The following pages present the reading strategies taught to the 5 students whose reading strategies had been identified as poor in order to help them to improve their reading ability in English. Teaching procedures are also presented.

6.2. Description of the Course

6.2.1. Duration and Organization of the Course

The reading strategy course was given in 40 hours at the Federal University of Piauí from May to the first half of July, 1984. The classes were given twice a week. Each class lasted 100 minutes.

The course was organized in 17 units. Each unit was composed of a theoretical and a practical part. The theoretical part presented the reading strategy to be taught followed by some comments on the relevance of that strategy for improving the

reading ability. The practical part was composed of exercises which would train the students in the use of the strategy taught. The exercises of each unit were taught within a meaningful situation since they were text based.

The units in this course were organized in a spiral form, that is, the reading strategy taught in a unit is also taught again in one or more of the subsequent units. As a consequence, the students who did not learn a strategy in a particular unit would have a chance to learn it later in subsequent ones.

6.3. Teaching about the Reading Process

Having observed the poor readers' reading deficiencies it was felt that it was necessary to provide them with some general notions about the reading process. Hence, 50 minutes of the first class of the reading strategy course was used to make the readers aware of the misconceptions that underlie the reading process. They were also introduced to the limitations of short-term memory, schema theory, and tunnel vision as well as the relevance of motivation for reading achievement.

The misconceptions about the reading process were presented and discussed. Scott's (1983) unpublished teaching material about some reading misbeliefs were provided. These misbeliefs are:

- a) Reading is passive.
- b) Reading is a word-by-word process.
- c) Use a dictionary every time you don't know a word.
- d) Vocabulary is the biggest problem.
- e) Authentic text is impossible for beginners or intermediate learners.

f) If it is in a book it must be true and important.

g) Reading is boring.

The first four misbeliefs summarize well how reading is seen by most of the readers, that is, reading does not require an active interaction between the writer and the reader; reading is decodification of each word in a text; the dictionary is the best tool in order to find out meaning of unknown words and finally vocabulary is the biggest problem. Each of these misbeliefs were individually discussed with the students aiming to lead them to feel that reading is an active, participative, and integrative process as discussed earlier in chapter 2, section 2.2.

The misbelief that authentic text is impossible for beginners or intermediate learners to read was discussed with the readers in order to try to convince them that they would be able to read authentic texts since they are used to reading adapted texts.

The readers were asked to question the statement that 'if it is in a book it must be true and important' in order to arouse in them the critical sense that reading requires. They were made aware that they should not accept everything they read in books, they have to question the validity and reliability of what is exposed.

The misbelief that reading is boring was also discussed. The readers were made aware that reading is boring only if it is developed under the first four misbeliefs presented above. Then, they were made aware that reading is a dynamic, interesting and participative process since there is an interaction between the author and the reader.

The limitations of short-term memory were also explained and discussed. The readers were made aware of the limited capacity of their brains. They were told that not everything the eyes see the brain is able to process. Evidence to this was given through some examples similar to those Smith (1978) mentions and that are presented in chapter 2, section 2.7.1.1 of this dissertation. Each one of these examples was fully discussed with the students so that they would perceive that reading is not reading or knowing all the words in the text. Reading is making sense of what one reads.

The readers were also made aware that reading requires activation of the readers' schema of the world, that is, that the readers have to bring to their reading task all their background knowledge in order to fill in the gaps left by the writer and then to comprehend texts. In other words, the writer cannot expose all his ideas and beliefs. Hence, the readers need to bring to the reading of the text all their experience on the subject. A concrete example of how the readers' schema can be activated was given and discussed. The example given is similar to the example mentioned in chapter 2, section 2.4.

The notion of 'tunnel vision' was presented and discussed. The readers were made aware of the causes of tunnel vision'. They were made aware that too much use of visual information (word-by-word reading) may overload their brain and consequently cause tunnel vision. They were also made aware that reading non-sense, that is, reading something that is not relevant to them, may also cause tunnel vision. Similar examples presented in chapter 2, section 2.3 were presented and discussed with the readers in order to help them to understand better what tunnel vision is.

The last point discussed with the students was the relevance of motivation to reading achievement. They were made aware that not only reading strategy instruction would be sufficient to enable them to read efficiently but also their motivation toward learning the reading strategies. They were made aware that the success of the reading strategy course depends on a large extent to their positive attitude towards it.

6.4. Teaching Reading Strategies

The reading strategies included in this course were chosen according to the readers' needs revealed in the first reading strategy test.

The reading strategies presented are mainly based on the Working Papers and the ESpecialists of the ESP National Project written by Holmes (1981, 1982), Scott (1981, 1983) and Shepherd (1983).

The seventeen units are described below: (see Appendix 3 for full copies of each unit).

Unit 1 - This unit provided a detailed analysis of the three levels of comprehension: general comprehension, main points and detailed comprehension. Each of these levels of comprehension was individually analyzed and examples of how a reader can perform a reading task in any of these levels were also presented and discussed.

This unit also provided a detailed analysis of three of the clues that facilitate the reading process: cognate words, repeated words and typographical clues. Each of these clues is individually analyzed and examples which show the usefulness of

using these clues in the reading process are also provided.

The main objective of this unit is to show the readers that depending on their purposes they can read at any of the three levels of comprehension as well as to make them aware of three clues they can make use of in order to overcome some difficulties.

Unit II - This unit presents the reading strategies skimming, scanning and selectivity. Each of them was individually analyzed with the readers and the readers were made aware that these strategies are essential to any reading task.

The main objective of introducing these strategies in this course is to show the readers that in order to get information from a text they do not need to read it in detail. These use of these strategies can rapidly lead them to the information they want.

The text used to train the readers in the use of these strategies was "Why Sex Declines in Marriage" from New Scientist. First the readers were asked to answer the pre-reading activity section in order to activate their knowledge about sex in marriage. After that, they were asked to answer some questions which required the use of the strategies taught. Besides, the text "Marriage" from the New Illustrated Medical and Health Encyclopedia was given to the readers. They were asked to read it using the strategies taught.

Unit III - This unit presents the reading strategy identification of key words.

The main objective of this unit is to train the readers in the identification of key words. This strategy was introduced in this course since the identification of key words enables the

readers to ignore linearity, to explore redundancies and to grasp the meaning of texts even when not all the words are known. This strategy leads the reader to skip words irrelevant to comprehension.

The readers were made aware that the key words of a text depend to a large extent on the readers' purpose.

The steps the readers should follow in order to identify key words are also explained in this unit.

The text used to train the readers in the identification of key words was 'Marihuana' from the New Illustrated Medical and Health Encyclopedia. The readers are given two questions and then asked to read the text marking the key words related to each question. Such an exercise will lead the readers to establish a purpose for their readings before starting to read texts and consequently they will be able to locate key words.

Unit IV - Prediction.

This strategy was included in the course because reading is not word-by-word reading but a psycholinguistic guessing game.

The readers were made aware of the relevance of prediction in the reading process. Besides, they were encouraged to use this strategy to predict words, sentences or paragraphs based on their background knowledge and semantic and grammatical contexts.

In order to train the use of this strategy the readers were given three titles of texts and asked to predict their content. The answers were discussed. The text 'Plant' from Reading and Thinking in English was presented with blanks in order to be filled in according to the readers predictions. The readers were also given Scott's (1983) text "Os Anéis de Urano" and asked to

predict meanings to unknown words.

Unit V - This unit presents a review of the reading strategies skimming, scanning, prediction and key words. Typography is also reviewed. The main objective of this unit is not only to reinforce the readers' learning but also to give a new chance of learning to the readers who were not able to learn the strategies already taught.

The text used in this unit was "Civilian Uplift" from Time. The questions based on the text led the readers to use the strategies mentioned above.

Unit VI - In this unit the readers were trained in the ability to recognize the logical sequence in the development of text. Its main objective is to show the readers that there are relationships between words, sentences and paragraphs in a text. The readers were made aware that they need to perceive these relationships, otherwise, they are not able to read making sense of what they read.

The text used was "Syphilis" extracted from the New Illustrated Medical and Health Encyclopedia. Some words of this text were taken out and mixed with some other words that were not related to this subject. Then, the students were asked to choose the words that were related to the disease syphilis. Afterwards, the readers were trained to reorganize sentences within paragraphs and paragraphs within texts.

Unit VII - The Nominal Group is presented in this unit. The main objective of this unit is to enable the readers to deal adequately with nominal groups since the English structure differs from Portuguese ones and is the one structure which Brazilian teachers of English always report as causing difficulty.

This unit first provided the readers with some examples of nominal groups in Portuguese and then in English. The readers' attention was called to the position of adjectives in both languages. Afterwards, the readers were asked to paraphrase some nominal groups and then asked to identify some nominal groups in the text *Syphilis*. The readers were also asked to identify the headwords and the modifiers of the nominal groups they identified.

Unit VIII - Contextual Reference and Identification of Main points are studied in this unit.

The teaching of contextual reference aims to make the readers aware of the devices writers use in order to avoid repetition of words or even sentences in a determined context. This means that the readers need to be able to interpret these devices adequately, otherwise, they will misinterpret some reading passages.

The teaching of identification of main points aims to enable the readers to select what is relevant from what is irrelevant in a given text.

The text "Does Language Begin in the Womb?" extracted from New Scientist was used to train the readers in the use of these strategies. The readers were asked to relate referents to previous or following text and to find the main points of paragraphs. An additional text, "An Ear for Rhyme Helps Children Read" from New Scientist, was also read for identification of referents and main points.

Unit IX - Logical Connectors are studied in this unit. The main objective in introducing the teaching of logical connectors is to show the readers how important they are for comprehension. The readers need to be made aware that the misinterpretation of logical connectors can hinder comprehension.

Two texts were used in the practical section of this unit: "Does Language Begin in the Womb?" extracted from New Scientist and 'The Spread of Inventions' extracted from Skills for Learning Development.

Some of the logical connectors presented in the text "Does Language Begin in the Womb?" were explained. Afterwards the readers were asked to go back to the text and to locate and interpret the logical connectors studied. Then, they were asked to read the text. The "Spread of Inventions" and interpret the underlined logical connectors.

Unit X - This unit reviews identification of Main Points and teaches how to write a summary and read for application. Its main objective is to reinforce the readers' ability to identify main points in texts and to remedy their problems in performing this task. It also aims to teach the readers how to write a summary since they have shown that they are not good summary writers. The teaching of reading for application aims to lead the readers to reflect on the message of the text as well as to check the text message for external consistency, that is, if it is coherent with the real world.

The text used was "Russian Roulette with Lie-detector Text" from New Scientist. The readers were asked to make some predictions about the content of the text before reading it. Afterwards, the readers were encouraged to use the strategies skimming, scanning, selectivity and prediction as well as the three clues (cognates, repeated words and typographed clues) in order to understand the text better and answer the questions presented in the exercise. The readers were asked to answer general and main points comprehension questions. They were also asked to write a summary

of the text and answer some questions related to reading for application.

Unit XI - This unit reviews Contextual Reference and the Nominal Group. Its main objective is to reinforce the readers' ability in the use of these strategies and to remedy their probable erroneous use of them.

The text used was "Hormones" extracted from the New Illustrated Medical and Health Encyclopedia. The students were asked to answer reading comprehension questions, to identify nominal groups, to relate referents and to give the word class of some words.

Units XII and XIII - These units review Reading for Application, Logical Connectors and Summaries. Besides, they also present Cause-and-Effect Relations.

The review aims to reinforce the readers' ability to read for application, to interpret logical connectors and to write a summary and to remedy their difficulties. The teaching of cause-and-effect relations aims to train the readers in the ability of detecting these relations in texts.

The texts used in these units were "The Role of Women in Rural Water Development in Kenya" in Rural Water Supply in Developing Countries and "Acromegaly" in the New Illustrated Medical and Health Encyclopedia. Both texts were presented with pre-reading activities. The readers were asked to make use of all the strategies they knew and of the three clues in order to understand the text adequately. The readers were also asked to interpret logical connectors, to identify main points and to read for application, to identify cause-and-effect relations and to write a summary.

Unit XIV - This unit reviews skimming, scanning, typographical clues, logical connectors and nominal groups. Its main purpose is to reinforce as well as to remedy learning.

The text used was "Test-tube Babies under the Microscope" from New Scientist. The readers were asked questions that led them to apply the strategies mentioned above. They were also asked to say what they did in order to overcome the difficulties they faced while reading. Furthermore, they were asked to interpret logical connectors and to identify nominal groups in the text.

Unit XV - This unit trains the reader to identify the rhetorical function of texts. Its main objective is to make the readers aware that the writer's messages may have many different functions and that identifying them is of crucial importance since it enables the reader to find out if the writer is trying to persuade him, to give information, to give advice, etc.

The exercises used in this unit were extracted from "Developing Reading Skills" by Françoise Grellet (1981).

Unit XVI - This unit was introduced in this course in order to encourage readers to read the text "How Brazil's Gasohol Scheme Backfired", from New Scientist, using the reading strategies they know in order to read searching for meaning.

In order to reach the above objective the readers were asked to read the text to the reader next to him and think-aloud the difficulties he faced and then say what he was doing to overcome these difficulties. Afterwards, the readers changed turns so that all of them could read the text applying this technique.

Unit XVII - This unit required the reader to read the text "Food and TV", New Scientist, and mark the difficulties they met

and then to say which strategies they used to overcome their difficulties.

6.5. Classroom Management

The seventeen texts selected to be worked on in the reading strategy course were chosen by the teacher. The length of the texts varied. The texts used in units 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, and 16 are about 700 words long so that the time spent on these units varied from 150 to 200 minutes. The texts used in units 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15 and 17 are about 250 words long so that the time spent with these units varied from 100 to 150 minutes. It is convenient to note that only seventeen texts were read because they were all read using the think - aloud technique.

All classes placed great emphasis on the reading process as a psycholinguistic guessing game. Readers were encouraged to overcome their difficulties based on semantic and grammatical contexts, background knowledge, cognate words, typographical clues, etc. They were asked to work individually as well as in pair work. When working in pair work, one reader worked with the teacher. The student who worked with the teacher was not always the same, because the scheme was reorganized, so that, the teacher could have a chance to work with each student, detecting each one's deficiencies and helping him or her to overcome them.

The use of the dictionary was not allowed in class. The readers were encouraged to believe in their capacity of finding out the meanings of words without making use of the dictionary.

The readers were observed during the course. It could be clearly observed from the beginning that Maria, Sarah, and Lilian (these names were altered to protect the students' identities)

were highly motivated to learn and use the reading strategies taught. They showed that they believed in their capacity of assigning meaning to unknown words or expressions based on semantic and grammatical contexts, background knowledge and the three clues taught - cognate words, repeated words and typographical clues. It was actually interesting and gratifying to observe their efforts to overcome their difficulties. On the other hand, Jussara and Fernando did not show the same enthusiasm. Jussara showed a certain uneasiness during class. It seemed that she purposefully neglected to point out the difficulties encountered during her reading tasks. The teacher talked to her about this and she explained that she is always uneasy in class. She denied avoiding pointing out her difficulties. For the teacher, this attitude was interpreted as fear of permitting people to know her deficiencies or weaknesses since Jussara answered in the personal data questionnaire that she prefers to be quiet than to make mistakes. Fernando was much more calm than Jussara but he also seemed to try to escape from the difficulties. He never showed many attempts to solve difficulties, only four or five in each text read. Asked about this behavior the reader said that he was not avoiding facing difficulties, but for him those texts showed few difficulties. However, the teacher also interpreted Fernando's attitude as an indication of fear of making mistakes and of permitting people to see his deficiencies since Fernando also answered in the personal data questionnaire that he prefers to be quiet than to make mistakes.

CHAPTER 7

RESULTS

7.1. Introduction

The results presented in this chapter are of the questionnaires and tests used as instruments of measurement to obtain sufficient information about the students sampled in this study. The results are presented in tables followed by explanations and specific observations. The limitations inherent in the study must be kept in mind when looking at these results.

7.2. Questionnaire Result Tables

This section presents some Tables containing the results of the Personal Data Questionnaire and the Summary Data Questionnaire.

7.2.1. Personal Data Questionnaire

The main purpose of this questionnaire is to find out the readers' experiences and motivation for English as a FL as well as the readers' reading habits.

The results of each question of this questionnaire are presented and discussed. The questionnaires are presented here in English translation. N = 20 throughout.

A - How long have you been studying English?

TABLE 1
EXPERIENCE OF ENGLISH

$\bar{X} = 6.65$
Range = 3 - 10

This shows that the readers enrolled in the experiment had a relatively long experience of English classes.

B - While studying English, were you motivated to learn? Comment on the teaching quality, your attitude, the method...

TABLE 2
THE STUDENTS' MOTIVATION TOWARD ENGLISH AND TEACHING QUALITY

MOTIVATION	TEACHING QUALITY
YES - 85%	Good - 75%
NO - 15%	Regular - 15%
	Poor - 10%

It may be concluded that most of these readers may be considered potentially successful English students in their next probable contact with English due to their previously developed favorable attitude toward English. As can be seen, most of them said they had been motivated to learn English and considered the teaching quality good. On the other hand, it is interesting to note that 3 readers the (15% non-motivated students) said they had been

studying English because they did not have any other option.

C - Do you know any other language besides Portuguese and English?

Which one? How did you learn it?

TABLE 3

THE STUDENTS' EXPERIENCE WITH FOREIGN LANGUAGE BESIDES ENGLISH.

LANGUAGE	HOW DID YOU LEARN IT?
None - 80%	-
French - 5%	French Cultural Institute
Spanish - 5%	Reading
Italian - 5%	Italian Institute
German - 5%	Assimil Method

Taking into account the above information one can conclude that the students' experience with another FL is not significant. It may be attributed to the great influence that South Americans get from English speaking countries and also to the fact that English is the only FL in our school curriculum. Furthermore, the Northeast region has very little contact with other languages such as German, Italian, Spanish, French, etc.

D - How well do you speak English?

TABLE 4

THE STUDENTS' COMMAND OF SPOKEN ENGLISH.

WELL	5%
Regular	35%
LITTLE	50%
Not at all	10%

In spite of the many years spent studying the English language only a small portion of the group judges feels it has good or regular command of spoken English. Most of the sampled group feels they have little ability, while 10% of the students are not able to speak. This may occur because the teaching of English in our Brazilian schools is mainly based on grammar and translation with little emphasis on speaking.

E - Are you afraid of making mistakes while speaking?

TABLE 5
STUDENTS' REACTIONS TO MISTAKES.

Even in doubt, I speak	30%
I speak, but I am afraid of making mistakes	15%
I prefer to keep quiet than to make mistakes	55%

Most of the students are afraid of making mistakes and this is not good. The fact that most of them are not able to speak may be justified by their fear. The fear of failure may inhibit the students and consequently hinder their learning. Also, this fear of speaking may extend to other learning activities, including reading.

F - Does the Brazilian professional with a University degree need to know a FL? Justify your answer.

TABLE 6

THE STUDENTS' OPINION ABOUT THE NECESSITY OF LEARNING A FL.

ANSWER	JUSTIFICATION	
YES 95%	- The best specific bibliographies have not been translated yet	55%
	- Need to read and listen to lectures in FLs	5%
	- Extends the field of work and study	20%
	- Pre-requisite for a master degree in Brazil or in another country	15%
PERHAPS 5%	- Depends on the course - Law requires Latin	5%

These data give evidence that the students are conscious of the necessity of learning a FL in order to improve their knowledge and exchange experiences.

G - Have you ever been in a foreign country? Give details.

TABLE 7

FOREIGN COUNTRY EXPERIENCE

NO - 100%

The students acquired their years of English experience here, in their own country.

H - What did you read in the vacation?

TABLE 8

THE STUDENTS' READINGS IN THE VACATION.

	Nº OF STUDENTS
Books	17
Magazines	05
Newspapers	01
Articles	01
Monograph	01
Nothing	02

The answers add to more than twenty because some students mentioned more than one kind of reading. Books proved to be the most popular choice of reading material.

The above results show that most readers seem to have a positive attitude toward reading since only two students did not read anything while on vacation.

I - Why did you read?

TABLE 9

THE STUDENTS' REASONS FOR READING

- Keep up to date	20%
- Pleasure	60%
- Curiosity	5%
- Keep reading habit	5%
- Did not read	10%

These results show that most readers are aware of the relevance of reading for personal growth and entertainment.

J - Do you like to give books as gifts? Justify your answer.

TABLE 10

THE STUDENTS' CHOICE OF BOOKS AS GIFTS

ANSWER	JUSTIFICATION	N
YES: 55%	- Without justification	1
	- But like to receive	1
	- To motivate the reading habit	2
	- Interesting and useful	2
	- To promote acquisition of knowledge	5
SOMETIMES: 10%	- Only when the other person likes to receive books as a gift	2
NO: 35%	- Prefer to receive	2
	- Wasn't aware of this possibility	2
	- Not everybody likes to read	3

The findings show that a great part of the students like to give books as gifts and the justification revolved around the idea of helping their friends to acquire knowledge.

It is interesting to note that two students who do not like to give books as gifts like to receive them.

L - Do you read a newspaper?

TABLE 11

THE STUDENTS' HABIT OF READING NEWSPAPER.

Daily	10%
Occasionally	85%
Never	5%

This question aims to find out how often the students read a newspaper in order to evaluate their reading habits. The results show that they are not used to reading newspapers.

M - Do you read *Veja*, *Isto É*, *Fatos e Fotos*, *Manchete* or *Pasquim*?
Do you read any other weekly or monthly magazine? How often?

TABLE 12

THE STUDENTS' HABIT OF READING MAGAZINES.

Frequently	15%
Weekly	45%
Occasionally.	25%
Monthly	5%
Never	10%

Most of the students are used to reading magazines.

The names of the magazines read are not presented here since this information is not relevant for the purpose of this dissertation. They were introduced in the questionnaire with the intention of activating the students' magazine schema, that is, helping them to recall some of the magazines available.

N - Do you subscribe to any magazine or newspaper?

TABLE 13

MAGAZINES OR NEWSPAPERS SUBSCRIPTIONS.

YES:	70%
NO:	30%

This question was included in the questionnaire to find out if the students in this study have a home literary environment, that is, if their family shows any inclination to reading. The

results show that these students seem to have a positive home literary environment, which as seen in chapter 4, may, in certain situations, operate as an incentive for reading.

0 - Have you read for pleasure and outside school any book by:

- a) Jorge Amado? Which one? _____
- b) Raquel de Queiroz? Which one? _____
- c) Machado de Assis? Which one? _____
- d) Assis Brasil? Which one? _____
- e) _____

These authors were chosen since they are some of the best known authors of Brazilian literature. The main aim here is to know if the students are used to this kind of reading or not, that is, if they are reading some of our Brazilian classics. Furthermore, quantity is of interest, that is, about how many books these students have read.

The blank (e) was included so that the readers could write in any other author they had read not mentioned in the list. The readers were advised that they would write in as many authors and as many as they had already read.

The results are:

TABLE 14

THE STUDENTS' CHOICE OF BRAZILIAN AUTHORS.

ANSWER	ANALYSIS OF RESULTS	
YES: 75%	Very Good (4 works)	20%
	Good (3 works)	25%
	Poor (2 works)	10%
	Very Poor (1 work)	20%
NO: 25%	Nil (-)	-

The grade very good was given those students who had read four works, good was given for three works, poor was given for two works and very poor to those who had read only one work. Zero for who had not read any work.

The results show that some students are not accustomed to reading the authors mentioned. Probably the same students who read while on vacation for pleasure, to keep up their reading habit and to keep up to date are used to reading, perhaps, some translated literary works, or lighter reading such as magazines. Thus, the present results may not be considered yet a reliable indication that these students do not have the reading habit but rather as a clue that these students would need to be encouraged or persuaded, otherwise they would not read these authors.

P - Since starting school, can you remember any people or events which helped you become interested in reading?

TABLE 15

PEOPLE OR EVENT INFLUENCE ON THE STUDENTS' READING HABIT.

	No of students' answers
Parents	6
Sister	1
Grandfather	1
Friends	2
High school Literature Teacher	1
Political events	2
Curiosity	2
Don't remember	8

The number of answers here add to more than the number of students in the experiment because some students were influenced

by more than one person.

The students' greatest encouragement came from their parents. Unfortunately, only one student was influenced by a teacher and that happened only when he was in high school. This result makes one question to what extent teachers assume their role as advisors.

It is also interesting to note that eight students said they did not remember who had motivated them to read. Intuitively, one can conclude that there are few people who believe in reading as an indispensable ability for someone to grow in any area of life, so that most people do not encourage others to read.

Q - How often do you use the library?

TABLE 16

THE STUDENTS' FREQUENCY AT THE LIBRARY.

Frequently	20%
Occasionally	70%
Never	5%
No answer	5%

Students are not in the habit of using the library. The majority of them go there only occasionally and one never goes there. Hence, there is the need to get the students to use the library more frequently.

R - Why do you use the library?

TABLE 17

THE STUDENTS' REASONS FOR USING THE LIBRARY.

To carry out School tasks	11
Good place to study	4
To acquire knowledge	6
For pleasure	7
Do not use the library	1
No answer	2

The results shown here add to more than the number of students participating in the experiment because some students gave more than one answer to this question.

Considering the data above, most of the students go to the library in order to fulfill school tasks. However, it is interesting to note that among the students, there are some who also go to the library for pleasure and others who consider the library as a good place to study. Only one student does not go to the library. The most striking point to emerge from this question, though, is that the library seems to be seen as a place of work, with room for study, rather than as a store of books and journals.

7.2.1.1. Global Analysis of the Personal Data Questionnaire

Having presented and discussed the result of each item, this questionnaire is carefully analyzed to see how well it has given the information needed to fulfill the objectives.

Questions A to G were introduced into the questionnaire to provide information needed for our first objective — to find out the students' experiences and motivation for English as a FL.

The results are summarized below:

TABLE 18

THE STUDENTS' EXPERIENCES AND MOTIVATION FOR ENGLISH AS A FL.

English Experience	Motivation for English as a FL	Teaching quality	Relevance of English to Brazilian Professionals
$\bar{X} = 7$ Range = 3 - 10	YES: 85% NO: 15%	Good: 75% Regular: 15% Poor: 10%	YES: 95% Perhaps: 5%

The above data show that the students in this experiment have relatively long experience of English and high motivation toward English.

Questions H, L, M, O, Q and R were introduced into the questionnaire to provide information required for the second objective — to find out the students' reading habits. The students' reading habits are shown below:

TABLE

THE STUDENTS' READING HABITS.

EVALUATION	%
Very Good	-
Good	15
Regular	55
Poor	25
Very Poor	5

These findings show that the students in this study case do not have good reading habit. Most of them are concentrated at the moderate level. This is a good indication that there is a need to encourage the students to read.

Questions I, J, N and P were introduced into the questionnaire to provide information required for the third objective — to find out the students' extrinsic and intrinsic motivation toward reading.

The results are summarized below:

TABLE 20

THE STUDENTS' EXTRINSIC AND INTRINSIC MOTIVATION TOWARD READING.

EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION	INTRINSIC MOTIVATION
Subscription to magazine and people or events encouraged you to read.	Why you read in vacation and books given as gifts.
YES: 65%	YES: 80%
NO: 35%	NO: 20%

The above results show that the students in this experiment have significant extrinsic and intrinsic motivation toward reading.

7.2.1.2. Comparison between the students' reading habit and influence of affective bases.

The total number of points obtained by the students in

questions H, L, M, O, Q and R provided the students reading habits and the total number of points obtained from questions I, J, N and P provided their affective bases toward reading. These results are shown in the table below:

TABLE 21
COMPARISON BETWEEN THE STUDENTS' READING HABIT AND INFLUENCE OF AFFECTIVE BASES.

STUDENTS' NO AND READING HABIT	AFFECTIVE BASES			
	EXTRINSIC		INTRINSIC	
	Subscription Magazines Newspapers	Encouraged by People or event	Why you read in vacation	Give Books as gifts
1. Poor	-	-	x	x
2. Regular	→ x	→ x	→ x	→ x
3. Poor	- - - - - → x	- - - - - → x	→ x	-
4. Very Poor	x	-	-	-
5. Poor	-	-	x	x
6. Regular	x	-	x	-
7. Good	x	-	x	-
8. Good	→ x	→ x	→ x	→ x
9. Regular	→ x	-	→ x	→ x
10. Poor	- - - - - → x	- - - - - → x	-	- - - - - → x
11. Regular	→ x	→ x	→ x	→ x
12. Good	→ x	→ x	→ x	→ x
13. Regular	-	→ x	→ x	→ x
14. Regular	→ x	→ x	→ x	-
15. Poor	-	-	x	-
16. Regular	-	x	x	x
17. Regular	-	-	x	-
18. Regular	→ x	→ x	→ x	→ x
19. Regular	→ x	→ x	→ x	→ x
20. Regular	→ x	→ x	→ x	→ x

This table above was included in order to enable the reader to visualize to what extent the students' reading habits correlate with their affective bases.

Through this table one can see that eleven students who showed good or moderate reading habits are strongly or moderately motivated toward reading. These students are indicated in the table with arrows.

It can also be observed that two students showed weak reading habits but good affective motivation. They can be identified by the dotted lines.

The students of numbers 6,7 and 17 showed good or moderate reading habits but weak affective bases and the students of numbers 1, 4, 5 and 15 showed bad reading habit and bad affective bases.

In section 7.7 the moderate relationship between motivation and reading habit is treated statistically, but it is already evident that in the majority of cases (15/20) the score on one factor matches the score on the other.

7.2.2. Summary Data Questionnaire

The questions in this questionnaire aim to find out the students' reactions, and ability to write a summary.

The results of each question are presented and discussed.

A - How did you feel when given the task of writing a summary?

TABLE 22

THE STUDENTS' REACTION TOWARD THE TASK OF WRITING A SUMMARY.

Fine	30%
Insecure	45%
Regular	5%
In difficulty	15%
Preoccupied with form	5%

From these results one can conclude that having to write a summary is not a comfortable task for 70% of the students in this experiment. Perhaps, because these students are not used to doing this kind of task.

One wonders whether these students would feel the same if the text were in Portuguese.

B - This task was:

TABLE 23

THE STUDENTS' OPINION ABOUT THE TASK.

Very easy	5%
Easy	60%
Difficult	30%
Very difficult	5%

Comparing these results with the ones of the previous question, one can observe that there is no relationship between them. It is convenient, therefore, to note that, in Question A, 70% of the students give us clues to think that the task of writing a summary is not a comfortable one, though when they finished writing their summary, 65% of them judged this task to be an easy one.

C - How many times did you read the text in order to write a summary?

TABLE 24

NUMBER OF TIMES THE STUDENTS READ THE TEXT

$\bar{X} = 3.2$
Range = 1 - 8

Analyzing these figures and the students' ability to write a summary it was found that 60% of the students who read the text fewer than the average number of times (3 or less) were not able to write good summaries. Only 40% of these students were able to write good summaries. On the other hand, 60% of the students who read the text more often than 3 times were able to write a good summary. It does not appear from this that the relationship between summary quality and frequency of reading the text is at all strong.

D - What did you do first after receiving the task directions?

TABLE 25

THE STUDENTS' FIRST REACTION TOWARD THE TASK.

- Look for cognates	5%
- Skim the text	45%
- Start the task	5%
- Understand the task	35%
- Observe the title and predict content	10%

These results show that 50% of these students have a general idea of how to cope with texts. Later, however, in their reading strategy test, many of these students did not use the strategies of skimming, looking for cognates and predicting content from the title.

E - Did you pay attention to the source of the text? Did it help you?

TABLE 26

THE SOURCE OF THE TEXT AS A MEANS OF HELP.

ATTENTION TO THE SOURCE	DID IT HELP?	
Yes: 85%	Very much	45%
No : 15%	More or less	15%
	Little	10%
	No	15%

The above results show that most readers are aware of the relevance of paying attention to the source of the text.

E - What was your greatest difficulty in doing this task?

TABLE 27

THE STUDENTS' GREATEST DIFFICULTIES.

Unknown words	60%
Translation	15%
Understanding title	5%
Understanding 2 nd and 3 rd paragraphs	10%
Writing the summary	10%

The analysis of these results leads to some very interesting points. The students' main concern is with unknown words and translation. According to Goodman's and Smith's theories this result is probably a consequence of the misconception that reading is decodification of words. Instead of reading for meaning, these students seem to be decoding words as isolated bits of information.

7.3. Analysis and Results of the Summary Test

The following table presents the results of the summary test.

TABLE 28
THE STUDENTS' SUMMARY RESULTS.

EVALUATION	
Very good	25%
Good	20%
Poor	30%
Very poor	25%

It is relevant to note that in the summary test, there was no summary rated "excellent". The summaries rated as "very good" were those in which the ideas existing in the text were summarized better than in those summaries rated "good".

The summary task was introduced into this study to permit the selection of subjects to participate in the reading strategy test. The best comprehenders, those who had written very good summaries, and the worst comprehenders, those who had written very poor summaries, were chosen. We decided to choose the best and the worst comprehenders in order to see what reading strategies they use.

Analyzing the summaries, two interesting points appeared: that many students have no idea of how to write a summary (the five worst ones) and that two of the students with a large number of years of English experience, 7 and 9, translated the text instead of writing the summary. Thinking about these findings led to the conclusion that these students need to be trained in the task of writing summaries since they did not know how to separate

main points from detailed information or how to structure the summary. Furthermore, the fact that two students translated the text instead of writing the summary can be considered a direct result of the teaching of English in our schools in which too much emphasis is placed on translation instead of comprehension.

7.4. Analysis and Results of the Students' First Reading Strategy Test

A reading strategy test was given to the ten students selected from the summary test. These students were asked to read a text, indicate difficulties met, and which strategies they used to overcome these difficulties, and, finally, to give possible meanings of words or expressions they had found difficult.

Five of the students used some reading strategies adequately as confirmed by their tests. Their attempts to solve difficulties were based on the meaning conveyed by the text, that is, in trying to find out the possible meaning of some words or expressions, they did not work recklessly — they kept the context in mind. On the other hand, five other students did not use reading strategies adequately and their attempts to find out possible meanings of some words or expressions were done inadequately. They did not take into account the meaning conveyed by the text. They saw each unknown word or expression as an isolated bit of information; as if it had no connection with the preceding context or the following one. As a consequence, they were not able to perceive the unacceptable interpretations they had made.

In order to illustrate how the students with some knowledge of reading strategies read, a demonstration of how two of them coped with the difficulties met during the reading task is provided.

The readers' difficulties are underlined and the possible meaning attributed to them are underscored with a dotted line. The readers' names are fictitious.

Two example of successful behavior while reading the text Alcoholism is as follows:

a) Excerpt 1 - Bruno's reading process and use of strategies.

Text: Alcoholism, poisoning by alcohol, ...

BRUNO: ...poisoning... between alcoholism and by alcohol lead me to say that it means proveniente.

Text: Usually he is totally unable to help himself out of this situation.

BRUNO: ...unable... I thought it means incapaz because it is followed by to help himself.

Text: The causes of alcoholism are deeply rooted in the varying needs...

BRUNO: ... deeply rooted... por tratar-se de causa do alcoolismo. I thought it means a não realização de várias necessidades.

Text: An alcoholic may drink steadily day after day...

BRUNO: ... steadily... emphatic adverb... it would be frequentemente

Text: The effect of alcoholism are serious, both mentally and physically.

BRUNO: ... both... it would be a conjunction... it means tanto.

Text: The compulsive drinker gradually loses his desire for food.

BRUNO: ... loses his desire... according to the words that follow the underlined ones I came to the conclusion that they would mean perder o interesse.

Text: The liver may become enlarged, the heart damaged, ...

BRUNO: ... damaged... algum efeito que o coração pudesse sofrer...
inchamento, por exemplo.

Text: ... and a steady and progressive disintegration...

BRUNO: ... steady... it would have the same meaning as the
following word.

Text: ... he loses all sense of time, space, and surroundings and
is racked...

BRUNO: ... and surroundings and is racked... (no answer).

Text: The condition lasts for from three to seven days and
requires emergency treatment. Afterward the alcoholic will...

BRUNO: ...afterward... based on the rest of the sentence I guessed
it means logo após o efeito.

Text: Hospitalization is desirable in treating the compulsive
drinker...

BRUNO: ... desirable... according to context I would say it means
indispensável.

Text: New tranquilizing drugs, such as chlorpromazine, and Meltown,
when used with discretion, have been helpful, ...

BRUNO: ... have been helpful... according to context it would mean
tem sortido efeito, tem ajudado.

Text: After first stages of recovery have been reached, the
alcoholic may respond to psychiatric treatment.

BRUNO: ... have been reached... it would mean está preparado.

Text: Among the many organizations dedicated to helping the
alcoholic, ...

BRUNO: ... among... quase desnecessário para a compreensão da
frase.

Text: ... a group of men and women who have overcome alcoholism...

BRUNO: ... overcome... enfrentando o problema.

Text: Their sympathetic understanding of the problems of the compulsive drinker, based upon their own experiences, ...

BRUNO: ... upon their own... I skipped and decided: baseado em experiências.

Text: Alcoholics Anonymous has branches in almost every city ...

BRUNO: ... branches in almost... it is something related to expansão, repercussão.

Text: The combined efforts of medicine, psychiatry, and organizations like Alcoholics Anonymous have brought about an increasing rate of recovery in what was once considered a hopeless problem.

BRUNO: ... brought about an increasing rate...

... I think that it means that as organizações procuram meios eficazes contra o problema...

... hopeless... cauteloso problema.

An analysis of the reading strategies used by this reader to overcome the difficulties met shows that he used some reading strategies adequately. He used the semantic context successfully in order to find out the possible meaning of words and expressions such as unable , loses his desire , damaged , afterward , have been helpful and overcome . In his attempt to find a possible meaning for poisoning and desirable , have been reached , he shows that he is reading for meaning since he does not give the exact meanings of the words but acceptable ones. He failed in his attempts to give meaning to and surroundings and is racked , and steady .

Three other strategies used were grammatical context, skipping words and guessing. Applying the grammatical context, he was able to assign possible meanings to both and steadily. By skipping he was also correct in saying that the presence of the word among and the expression upon their own is not essential to comprehension of the paragraph. The strategy of guessing was also successfully employed in order to understand branches in almost and brought about an increasing rate, though not for hopeless. The fact that possible meanings were assigned to all these words is good evidence that this reader was following the author's thought, that is, he was reading for meaning.

Besides analyzing the above strategies, the reader was observed during his reading task. He skimmed the text and then he went back to read it again and to mark difficulties met.

b) Excerpt 2 - Paulo's reading process and use of strategies.

Paulo's attempts to solve his difficulties are described below.

Text: The compulsive drinker gradually loses his desire for food and may develop dangerous malnutrition...

Paulo: ... desire... I tried to predict it, not only making use of context, but also making use of my background knowledge about the effects of alcohol on the human body. Then, I think that desire means interesse.

Text: If alcoholism continues, the person will eventually develop delirium tremens... ...Death may result from an attack of delirium tremens...

Paulo: ... delirium tremens... this expression is used twice in the same paragraph. At the beginning of this paragraph this

expression is preceded by a verb (develop). At the end, it comes followed by the preposition 'of' that is related to the word 'attack'. Thus I conclude that it means um ataque em que a pessoa perde o senso do tempo, delírio.

Text: Hospitalization is desirable in treating the compulsive drinker who wishes to be cured.

Paulo: ... wishes... after reading and rereading and looking at the words around it, I conclude that it means anseio, desejo.

Text: The alcoholic has a compulsive need...

Paulo: ... compulsive... This word is used more than twice. It is preceded by an article. Perhaps it is a noun. I suppose it means alguma necessidade. I don't know the exact meaning, but taking into account what I read, I understood it this way.

Text: The combined efforts of medicine, psychiatry,...

Paulo: ... combined efforts... The first word is a cognate that means combinado. The second one, as its own spelling suggests, may mean esforço. I say esforço because the two following cognates — medicine and psychiatry — and some other important information that was useful in leading me to this conclusion.

An analysis of Paulo's reading strategies shows that he has used them adequately. He used the semantic context and his background knowledge adequately in order to find out the meaning of desire. He also used previous and following text, word frequency and grammatical context in order to understand delirium tremens. He failed only with compulsive. Furthermore, he used

reading and rereading and semantic context to assign meaning to wishes . He also used cognates and semantic context in order to understand combined efforts .

The way Paulo coped with the difficulties he met shows that he tries to make sense of what he reads.

The strategies observed while Paulo was reading indicated that he first skimmed the text and then started to read it again in order to mark difficulties and to solve them.

Marcos' and Paulo's abilities to cope with texts exemplify how the good readers behaved in this experiment. However, it is interesting to note that even among the good readers there is one who is not similar to the whole group since he showed that he was much more concerned with translation than with understanding. This reader was not chosen to participate in the reading strategy course since there were students in greater need of training in use of reading strategies.

7.5. Analysis and Results of the Reading Process and Use of Reading Strategies of Poor Readers

A detailed analysis of the reading process and strategies of each poor reader is presented in this section. Names are changed to protect the identity of each poor reader.

a) Excerpt 1 - Maria's reading process and use of strategies.

Maria's attempts to overcome difficulties are presented below. Here, again, the difficulties she met are underlined and the solutions are underscored with a dotted line.

Maria's first attempt to solve difficulties shows that she did not locate the beginning of the text since she begins the

reading task by trying to identify the meaning of the form ing, as can be confirmed below.

Text: ing and produce a temporary sense of warmth and well being. Alcohol dilates the blood vessels of the skin and brings an increased flow of warm blood to the skin surfaces.

Maria: ing... according to context it means age... warmth and well being... according to my background knowledge it means bem estar... vessels of the skin and brings an increased flow of warm blood to the skin surfaces... I could not apply any strategy that I know, therefore, I could not decode.

Text: Alcohol is quickly burnt up in the body and has little food value.

Maria: ... quickly burnt... I could not decode...
... little food... I could not decode...

Text: The causes of alcoholism are deeply rooted in the varying needs and insecurities of the individual.

Maria: ...deeply rooted... according to context and my background knowledge it means problemas de rotinas... varying needs and insecurities... making use of context and cognates... it may mean consciência de suas necessidades e inseguranças.

Text: New tranquilizing drugs, such as chlorpromazine, and Miltown, when used with discretion, have been helpful, and a drug called Antabuse is sometimes used to condition the alcoholic against drinking.

Maria: ... drugs, chlorpromazine and Miltown... according to context may be nomes de remédios ou métodos de cura.

Text: See also Antabuse.

Maria: ... see also antabuse... according to context it may mean um estágio do alcoolismo.

An analysis of Maria's reading process shows that she sees reading as a passive process. Reading is decodification of words. She says that she could not decode vessels of the skin and brings an increased flow of warm blood to the skin surfaces , quickly burnt and little food . She does not read for meaning. Her attempt to understand the form ing is a good example. She could not recognize ing as an isolated bit which does not convey any meaning. She did not feel the necessity of any preceding information. She did not keep in mind the meaning of preceding words, sentences or paragraphs in order to help her to overcome her difficulties. As a consequence, she is not able to assign acceptable meanings to words or phrases. Proof of this can be deeply rooted translated as 'problemas de rotina' and varying needs and insecurities translated as 'consciência de suas necessidades e inseguranças'. These meanings do not adequately fit the context.

Another example indicating that this reader does not keep in mind information of previous paragraphs is her attempt to understand see also antabuse . The word antabuse had already been mentioned in the text as being the name of a drug and this word drug had been interpreted by the reader as a medicine or a 'metodo de cura', therefore, it is not acceptable that this same reader should translate see also antabuse as a stage of alcoholism. This reader is surely not making sense of what she reads; she is decoding words.

Although this reader mentioned the use of context and background knowledge in order to overcome her difficulties, she did not succeed. However, these strategies did not function

effectively because they were not used adequately.

In relation to the reader's reaction to the task it can be said that this reader started to read the text without skimming it and without observing the title and the picture. This was collected by the investigator while observing her reading process. As a consequence, the reader was not able to locate the beginning of the text. She started the reading task by reading the final part of another text located above the text on Alcoholism. This may be the first clue indicating that this reader does not read for meaning.

In conclusion, this reader does not know how the reading process develops or how to use reading strategies adequately.

b) Excerpt 2 - Sarah's reading process and use of strategies

Sarah did not skim the text, she did not pay attention to the title of the text and to the picture. As she did not take these strategies into account she was not able to locate the beginning of the text. So, she started her reading with the wrong text, just as Maria had done. Such a mistake gives us a clue that this reader does not read making sense of what she reads.

This reader did not provide a detailed description of how she overcome each of the difficulties she met. She made the following general comment: "The difficulties were various; I was almost a complete stranger to the text. Even by using the strategy of relating unknown words to known ones I could not understand many of them".

The reader's words can be proven through her attempts to overcome the difficulties presented below:

Many words such as poisoning , bout , desire steady , surroundings , secured , reached , overcome , actively , branches and rate were not assigned any meaning even after relating them to the other words that the reader knew.

Some other words or fragments of phrases are assigned meaning but only a few of them are acceptable. Examples of unacceptable meanings include the readers' translation of deeply rooted as 'depende da rutura', steadily as 'excesso', liver as 'vivência', damaged as 'perigosa', efforts as 'efeitos', wishes as 'lavar', care as 'caso', recovery as 'recordação' and hopeless as 'saúde'. Examples of acceptable meanings are the reader's translation of racked as 'acompanhada', revert as 'voltar', treating as 'tratar', based upon as 'baseado' and throughout as 'através'.

By observing the reading process of this reader, confirmation that she also sees the reading process as a word by word reading is evident. Furthermore, this reader does not bring the background of a reading passage to mind when she reads. Consequently, she is not able to evaluate her decisions about the meaning of some words and she sees all the words as relevant to the comprehension of the message. She is not able to skip words due to their perceived degree of importance to context.

Analysis of the use of strategy shows that this reader has little knowledge of reading strategies. Further, it also shows that the strategy used by this reader was not sufficient to overcome her difficulties since a reader cannot depend exclusively on one reading strategy.

Concluding, this reader should be made aware of how the reading process develops and should be taught some reading strategies in order to improve her reading ability.

c) Excerpt 3 - Lilian's reading process and use of strategies

Lilian's behavior while reading the text suggests that she did not apply the strategy of skimming before jumping into the text. It also seems that she also did not pay attention to the title of the text and to the picture. Besides, like the two other readers mentioned before, she did not start to read from the beginning of the text.

The fact that Lilian did not notice that she had not started reading from the beginning of the text indicates that she does not make use of previous information when she reads. If she had done so, she would have realized that she had not started to read at the right place.

Lilian's attempts to solve her difficulties are described below:

Text: Alcohol dilates the blood vessels of the skin and brings an increased flow of warm blood to the skin surfaces.

Lilian: ... blood vessels of the skin... this first part of the text I did not understand well. I only know what I have already added to the text.... o alcool produz em um determinado período de tempo uma sensação de bem estar e...?

Text: Moderate drinking, even as a daily habit, is practiced by many people without harmful effects.

Lilian: ... harmful... according to context I think it is something like efeitos desastrosos...?

Text: Alcohol is quickly burnt up in the body and has little food value.

Lilian: ... burnt up... absorvido?

Text: The body does not have a way of storing alcohol, and

excessive amounts irritate the stomach...

Lilian: ... storing... estocar, armazenar para usar gradativamente?

Text: An alcoholic may drink steadily day after day...

Lilian: ... steadily... sem interromper, por muito tempo...?

Text: Alcoholics Anonymous has branches in almost every city...

Lilian: ... branches... associações, grupos...?

Besides the above attempts to assign meaning to unknown words, Lilian also tried to assign meaning to behavior, brighten up, diminished, deeply rooted, insecurities, alcoholic type and understanding, however, she was not able to do so.

Lilian commented that when she finds words or expressions of which she does not know the meaning, she uses context or her background knowledge to find acceptable meanings for them. She also remarked about the possibility of skipping some words and still grasping the idea.

An analysis of the reading process of this reader, indicates that when she reads she searches for meaning. On the other hand, she also shows a lack of confidence evidenced by the fact that no example exists in which the question mark has not been introduced.

An examination of Lilian's use of reading strategies indicates that she used the semantic context and her background knowledge strategies to overcome her difficulties. In spite of mentioning the skipping of words, there is no example of its use in her attempts to overcome difficulties.

d) Excerpt 4 - Jussara's reading process and use of strategies.

Observation of Jussara's behavior while reading reveals that

she had the same deficiencies as the other readers mentioned earlier - no skimming, no attention paid to the title or to the picture. As a result, she is not able to locate the beginning of the text. This suggests that this reader is not used to making sense of what she reads.

Jussara's attempts to overcome difficulties while reading are described below:

Text: Alcohol also depresses the central nervous system, and acts as an anesthetic upon the cerebral cortex, which control behavior.

Jussara: ... behavior... preceded by the words 'which' and 'controls' leads me to conclude that its meaning is sem auto controle, sem controle mental.

Text: Moderate drinking, even as a daily habit, is practiced by many people without harmful effects.

Jussara: ... harmful effects... preceded by moderate drinking, even as a daily habit, is practiced by many people without... may mean efeitos morais.

Text: However, excessive amounts of alcohol may act as a poison and seriously damage the body.

Jussara: ... damage the body... preceded by alcohol may act as a poison and seriously... leads me to think that its meaning is não ver algo ao seu redor.

Text: Coordination of muscles and nerves is diminished, speech becomes thicker...

Jussara: ... speech becomes thicker... preceded by coordination of muscles and nervous... leads me to think that its

meaning is diminuição dos controles musculares e nervosos.

Text: If alcoholism continues, the person will eventually develop delirium tremens, in which he loses all sense of time, space and surroundings and is racked by terrifying visual information.

Jussara: ... and surroundings and is racked by terrifying visual hallucinations... preceded by... sense of time, space... leads me to think that its meaning is e provoca uma série de problemas como por exemplo um visual terrível de alucinações

Besides these difficulties mentioned above, the reader faced many other. For example, deliriums tremens, or other manifestation of serious damage, compulsive, and unable. The procedure used to overcome these difficulties was examination of preceding and following passages.

Apparently Jussara has no idea about how the reading process develops. She is too tied up with preceding passages as if that were the only clue she would make use of in order to extract meaning from the message. She does not perceive that reading involves not only making use of preceding text, but also of following text. She does not perceive that she also has to make use of her background knowledge. Even more serious is the fact that in most cases this reader makes irrational use of preceding text. She arrived at some totally unacceptable meanings as in the cases of understanding behavior as 'sem auto controle, sem controle mental', damage the body, as 'não ver algo ao seu redor', diminished, speech becomes thicker as 'di-

minuição dos controles musculares e nervosos', compulsive as 'sem um ser preciso', unable as 'côm a' and terrifying visual hallucinations as 'visual terrível de alucinações'. These examples indicate that this reader is lost in her reading activity. She does not check the meanings she deduces for internal and external coherence. Thus, she is not able to perceive if coherence exists between words, phrases and paragraphs within the text as she is not able to see if coherence exists between the ideas she is getting from the text and the real world.

Jussara's attempts to overcome difficulties succeeded only with harmful effects and delirium tremens, or other manifestation of serious damage. However, it is interesting to note that harmful effects in this context relates not only to moral effects but also to physical effects.

This reader is not really aware of reading strategies. She mentioned the use of preceding and following passages, however, none of these strategies functioned satisfactorily.

Summarizing, this reader has no idea about how the reading process works, much less about the use of reading strategies in reading activities.

e) Excerpt 5 - Fernando's reading process and use of strategies

This reader's reaction to the reading task was similar to that of the other readers. Skimming, observation of title and the picture were not used. Also like the others, he did not start reading the text from the beginning. Another clue is that he does not relate information from one paragraph to another. It seems that the reading act is being performed under the misconception that reading is decodification of words.

The description of Fernando's attempts to overcome difficulties are presented below:

Text: Alcohol also depresses the central nervous system and...

Fernando: ... alcohol also depresses the central nervous system...
according to context means o álcool sempre causa depressão no sistema nervoso central.

Text: The central nervous system is depressed, and a steady and progressive disintegration of personality takes place.

Fernando: ... and a steady and progressive disintegration of personality takes place... making use of cognates... it means progressiva desintegração das personalidades do sistema nervoso.

Text: ... a group of men and women who have overcome alcoholism, ...

Fernando: ... overcome alcoholism... according to context it means andar sempre em estado de embriaguez.

Text: Alcoholics Anonymous has branches in almost every city in the United States and in many countries throughtout the world.

Fernando: ... alcoholism anonymous has branches in almost every city in the United States and in many countries throughtout the world... making use of cognates and context... o alcoolismo tem se difundido em algumas cidades dos Estados Unidos e em muitos outros países do mundo.

That he does not check the meanings he assigns to words and sentences for internal and external consistencies indicates that

he does not know how the reading process develops since he does not make sense of what he reads. For this reason, he translated the nervous system is depressed, and a steady and progressive desintegration of personality takes place as 'desintegração das personalidades do sistema nervoso'. If he had checked for external consistency he would have realized that the nervous system does not have personality. For internal consistency, he should have checked the meanings assigned to overcome alcoholism and alcoholics anonymous has branches in almost every city in the United States... If he had done so, he would have avoided understanding them as 'andar sempre em estado de embriaguez' and 'o alcoolismo tem se difundido em algumas cidades dos Estados Unidos, respectively. The only acceptable meaning he provided was that which he assigned to the sentence alcohol also depresses the central nervous system...

Fernando did not use adequately the reading strategies mentioned — context and cognate words. He needed to be made aware of the many available reading strategies that he could use in order to improve his reading.

7.6. Global Analysis of Reading Strategies Results

In this section the results obtained from the analysis of the readers' reading process and use of strategies are presented in order to observe similarities and differences.

7.6.1. Good Readers' Reading Process and use of Strategies

Consideration of the results of the good readers' reading strategy test indicates that these readers make sense of what they read while performing the task. They do not see the reading

process as decodification of words. They keep the meaning of previous information in mind when they are trying to assign meaning to unknown words, phrases, sentences or paragraphs. They skip words that are not relevant to the context. They make logical guesses based on semantic and grammatical context as well as on their background knowledge. They also make use of cognate words and of the analysis of occurrence of words in order to overcome difficulties while reading.

These students were observed while taking their reading strategy test. Only two good readers used skimming as a strategy and none of them paid attention to the picture in the text.

The following table summarizes the good readers' reading strategies.

TABLE 29

GOOD READERS' READING STRATEGIES

STRATEGIES	Number of students using them
Skimming	02
Semantic context	05
Grammatical context	03
Skipping words	01
Read and rereading	01
Guessing	02
Word frequency	01
Cognate words	01
Background knowledge	02

Semantic and grammatical context are the most used strategies and the least used are skimming, background knowledge, skipping words, word frequency and guessing.

Considering these results, even these good readers should be trained in reading strategies in order to improve their reading ability.

7.6.2. Poor Readers' Reading Process and use of Strategies

The main conclusion reached through the results obtained from the poor readers' reading strategy test was that these readers do not know how the reading process develops. Most of them see the reading process as decodification of words. They do not take advantage of previous information in order to assign meaning to unknown words, phrases sentences or paragraphs. They do not skip words since they are not able to perceive if they are relevant or irrelevant to the specific context. They say that they use the semantic context, background knowledge and cognate words as strategies in order to help them overcome difficulties; however, these strategies are not adequately used, at any rate, they do not work effectively.

The performance observed while these readers took their reading strategy test revealed that none of them used the strategy of skimming and none of them observed the picture and the title of the text. Consequently, none of them started to read the Alcoholism text from the beginning.

It is interesting to note that one of these poor readers showed clearly that she is insecure as a reader.

The reading strategies of poor readers are summarized in the following table.

TABLE 30
POOR READERS' READING STRATEGIES

STRATEGIES	Number of readers using them
Semantic context	05
Background knowledge	02
Cognate words	02
Skipping words	01
Decoding	01

The findings presented in the table show that the semantic context is the most used strategy.

It is interesting to note that, although mentioned by one of the readers, the strategy of skipping words was not used by him in his reading activity.

It is also worth noting that though the poor readers say that they used the strategies presented in the table in order to overcome their difficulties, few of them were used effectively.

Taking into account all the comments and findings about the reading strategies used by poor readers mentioned above, material for the teaching of reading strategy was carefully elaborated to make these readers aware of the available reading strategies and to encourage them to use these strategies in their reading processes to become proficient readers.

7.7. Relationships Between the Students' Summaries, Experience of English, Reading Habit, Reading Strategies and Affective Bases

Besides presenting and discussing the results of each question of the questionnaires and of the summary and reading

strategy tests it is relevant to compare some results. These comparisons will be done to find out if there are any inter-relationships between the variables discussed in detail above: quality of summary, years of experience, quality of reading strategies, reading habit and affective motivation.

TABLE 31

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE STUDENTS' SUMMARIES, EXPERIENCE OF ENGLISH, READING HABIT, READING STRATEGIES AND AFFECTIVE BASES.

SUMMARY	EFL YRS	R Habit	Strategies	Affective
SUMMARY	0.95	- .191	.600*	.015
EFL YRS		- .116	.527	- .146
R. Habit			- .447	.529**
Strategies				0.000
Affective				-

Pearson Correlation Matrix: * probability < .1
** probability < .02

All the correlations involving STRATEGIES N = 10, otherwise N = 20.

Observing the data in table 31 one can see that there is not a significant correlation between the ability to write a summary and the students' years of experience of English, reading habits or affective behavior. There is a significant correlation only between the ability to write a summary and the students' use of reading strategies.

Analyzing these results one can conclude that great experience of ELT classes was not sufficient to enable these students to write a summary adequately. It can also be concluded that the fact that someone had a good reading habit did not mean that he was

able to write a good summary. Furthermore, the fact that a student was highly motivated toward reading did not mean that he would be able to write a good summary. To write a summary, as results show, requires much more than these variables already mentioned. It requires the students' ability to use reading strategies adequately. In this experiment, before the instruction phase, five students showed good reading strategies and four of them were able to write a good summary. On the other hand, five students showed poor reading strategies and four of them were not able to write a good summary. Hence, one can conclude that to write a summary adequately seems to be associated with effective use of reading strategies.

The correlation between the students' reading strategies and their affective motivation toward reading is moderate, and significant at the 2% level. However, as we have seen, this affective/habit side was not related to their performance. In fact there was a tendency in this group for reading habit to be negatively correlated with strategies ($r: -.447$, not significant). The other correlations are low and not statistically significant.

Table 32 and table 33 below may help the reader to visualize what has been said about the above relationships. Table 32 shows how ineffective use of reading strategies relates (or fails to relate) to other abilities.

TABLE 32

SPECIFICATION OF THE ABILITIES OF THE 5 POOR READERS.

STUDENTS	A B I L I T Y			
	SUMMARY	ELT YRS	R. HABIT	AFFECTIVE
Sarah	Good	3	Regular	Very good
Jussara	Poor	8	Good	Poor
Maria	Poor	4	Regular	Good
Lilian	Poor	7	Regular	Good
Fernando	Poor	3	Regular	Very good

Table 33 shows how the effective use of reading strategies relates (or fails to relate) to other abilities.

TABLE 33

SPECIFICATION OF THE ABILITIES OF THE 5 GOOD READERS.

STUDENTS	A B I L I T Y			
	SUMMARY	ELT YRS	R. HABIT	AFFECTIVE
Paulo	Good	6	Regular	Good
Bruno	Good	7	Regular	Very good
Teresa	Good	8	Regular	Very good
Carmen	Good	8	Poor	Poor
Célia	Poor	6	Regular	Very good

The results and discussions presented in this section suggest the conclusions already drawn but they do not prove them because of the limitations already discussed in chapter 5, section 5.6.6.

7.8. Analysis and Results of the Final Reading Strategy Test

After having taught the readers some reading strategies for them to cope adequately with texts the final reading strategy test was applied. Through the results one could see if these readers had improved or not in their use of such strategies.

The results are shown below:

a) Excerpt 1 - Maria's reading process and use of strategies

Text: Food or TV.

Maria: ... food... after I read all the text I could decode it.

It means comida, alimento. I arrived at this conclusion mainly because of the last paragraph which talks about infant mortality.

Text: Ethiopia, one of the world's poorest countries, ...

Maria: ... poorest... I found its meaning making use of context and mainly by the name Ethiopia which gives me an idea of país pobre.

Text: The government has awarded a contract worth £ 3.5 million...

Maria: ... awarded... I needed to read the whole sentences and also to make use of the word class in order to arrive at the conclusion that it means assinou.

Text: ... to set up a television and radio broadcasting stations.

Maria: ... broadcasting... making use of the words near it I guessed that it means transmissoras.

Text: ... the supply of two outside broadcast vehicles...

Maria: ... vehicle... it is a cognate. It means veículo.

Text: ... and with an average income of \$ 130 a year, ...

Maria: ... average... making use of number data and context of the paragraph I guessed it means taxa, média.

Text: Social conditions are another obstacle to most Ethiopians ever enjoying Dallas.

Maria: ... enjoying... the name Dallas helped a lot as well as television context, then I guessed it means gostando, apreciando. Another helpful element was the word formation that indicates gerund.

Text: Ethiopia, one of the world's poorest countries, is to launch a colour television service...

Maria: ... launch... the beginning of the text as well as the sentence context helped me. It means lançar, implantar.

Text: ... a contract worth £ 3.5 million to a British company, Crow, to set up television...

Maria: ... Crow... it was easy to conclude the meaning of this word, because it is in evidence (perhaps capital letter, she means) and after the expression British company... companhia britânica... This word means o nome da companhia.

Considering the results above, and comparing them with the results of the first reading strategy test, one can observe that this reader showed significant progress in the use of reading strategies. She showed that she does not read word-by-word as she had done previously. She showed that she reads making sense of what she reads because there is not any unacceptable meaning given to unknown words. This can be seen, through the way she coped with the text, that she used previous and following information in order to find out the meaning of words. Evidence for this is her attempts to find out the meaning of food, poorest, awarded,

crow , launch , etc. This behavior is very different from this reader's behavior before instruction.

It seems that this reader has actually assimilated the reading strategies taught and that she understood that reading is not decodification of words but an active process, a constant search for meaning.

Some of the reading strategies Maria used successfully are the semantic context, grammatical context (word formation and word class), cognate words, typographical clues (although she had not mentioned the term typography, it is evident in her attempts to find out the meaning of average and Crow), and guessing (deduction) based on context in order to overcome her difficulties. In her first reading strategy test she used only two strategies, semantic context and background knowledge and then unsuccessfully.

In relation to the investigator's observation of Maria's strategies when given the text, it seems that she paid attention to the title of the text and that she skimmed the text before reading it to mark difficulties.

In conclusion, this reader has improved her reading ability. Now she is able to further improve her reading ability, even on her own, since she has already learned how to use the necessary tools — reading strategies — in order to become a proficient reader.

b) Excerpt 2 - Sarah's reading process and use of strategies

Text: Ethiopia, one of the world's poorest countries, is to launch a colour television service...

Sarah: ... launch... implantar... I arrived at this conclusion making use of the sentence context, mainly the end of it.

Text: The government has awarded a contract worth £ 3.5 million...

Sarah: ... awarded... assinado... I arrived at this conclusion making use of context.

Text: ... to set up television and radio broadcasting stations.

Sarah: ... broadcasting... I could not find out the meaning of this word but I think it can be skipped.

Text: ... the tenth anniversary of the overthrow of Emperor Haile Selassie.

Sarah: ... overthrow... although I had understood the paragraph I would look up this word in a dictionary just out of curiosity.

Text: According to official figures, there are about 27,000 television sets in the country...

Sarah: ... sets... the context helped me a lot to find out its meaning — funcionam.

Text: ... and with an average income of \$ 130 a year, ...

Sarah: ... average... custo... I arrived at this conclusion making use of context.

Text: Social conditions are another obstacle to most Ethiopians ever enjoying Dallas.

Sarah: ... enjoying... gostar... I arrived at this conclusion using context.

Text: ... And in the drought-stricken north of the country, people lucky enough to receive aid live on 250 grams of grain per family...

Sarah: ... lucky... I identified its meaning making use of the paragraph context. It means recebem... ... aid live... I found out the meaning based on the context of the end of the sentence. It means bonificação.

Taking into account the above results and making a comparison with this reader's first reading strategy test one can feel a considerable improvement in her reading ability. In her first strategy test she said that the text was almost totally deprived of meaning for her and this was confirmed through the large quantity of words she was unable to understand as well as by the large number of totally unacceptable meanings she attributed to many unknown words. She translated words such as deeply rooted , liver , recovery , hopeless , etc. as 'depende da rutura', 'vivencia', 'recordação', 'saúde', respectively. She was lost in her reading task.

The present results show that now this reader reads trying to make sense of what she reads since she is able to assign acceptable meanings to some words. Among other examples, one that can be given here is the reader's attempt to understand the meaning of the word sets in the sentence "According to official figures, there are about 27,000 television sets in the country... She assigned the meaning 'funcionam'. Analyzing it carefully, one can see that this meaning is acceptable though mistaken since the exclusion of 'there are' from the sentence permits such a meaning without changing the function of the sentence. Furthermore, the final 's' of sets may have led the reader to think it is a plural form as it is in Portuguese. Taking all these considerations into account the reader may have understood the sentence as 'De acordo com dados oficiais cerca de 27,000 televisores funcionam no país.. It is true, however, that she still assigned some unacceptable meanings as was the case of average and lucky , and she misunderstood the meaning of aid live . She read it as a compound noun instead of two separate words.

Analyzing the reading strategies she used, it can be said

that she used few strategies. She used only the semantic context and skipping of words. She mentioned she would look a particular word up in a dictionary for curiosity. The strategy of skipping word is introduced for the first time in her reading process and it is a good indication that she does not see reading as an act of reading every word in the text.

When Sarah was confronted with the text it seems that she observed the title and then skimmed the text. Then, she read the text in order to mark difficulties.

Finally, this reader has shown that she has improved her reading process but she has not assimilated many of the reading strategies taught.

c) Excerpt 3 - Lilian's reading process and use of strategies.

Text: Ethiopia, one of the world's poorest countries, is to launch a colour TV service this year.

Lilian: ... to launch... reading all the sentence, I have the idea that está sendo fundada, inaugurada... ... therefore using context.

Text: ... The government has awarded a contract worth £ 3.5 million to a British company,...

Lilian: ... awarded... observing 'a contract worth 3.5 million', using context, including the one of 'previous sentence... it means assinou, fez acordo.

Text: ... to set up television and radio broadcasting stations.

Lilian: ... broadcasting...encountering this word always near words or expressions related to electronic system (something that involves TV system)... I conclude that

it may be a specific word of the electronic area used in communication.

Text: ... the tenth anniversary of the overthrow of Emperor Haile Selassie.

Lilian: ... overthrow of Emperor Haile Selassie... by what is in my head right now 'I believe that it is the 10º aniversário de algo que diz respeito ao governo. Ele está se homenageando.

Text: ... Despite the revolutionary government's health programme, the average life expectancy in Ethiopia is 39 years.

Lilian: ... health... observing 'the average life... is 39 years' and turning it to the Brazilian situation I concluded that it is um programa de saúde.

Text: ... And in the drought-stricken north of the country, people lucky enough to receive aid live on 250 grams of grain per family per day.

Lilian: ... drought-stricken... observing north of the country' lado (zona, região norte do país) and 'people lucky enough to receive aid live one 250 grams of grain per family per day. I remember a situação deprimente da seca do nordeste brasileiro (drought-stricken).

Text: ... The contract also covers the supply of two outside broadcast vehicles with electronic news-gathering equipment.

Lilian: ... supply... observing the sentence, specially, 'two outside broadcast vehicles with... equipment' and the verb 'covers' helped me to conclude that the meaning of supply is suprir.

Comparing the present results to the first reading strategy results one can see that Lilian has improved her reading ability. In her first test, there were indications that she was reading searching for meaning. However, in this second test, one can perceive that she has improved her reading ability. She was always trying to keep in mind the meaning of previous stretch of text in order to interact this to the following passages. Based on this interaction, she assigned acceptable meanings to the unknown words such as launch, awarded, broadcasting, etc.

Another positive and very important point that ought to be raised here is the reader's positive self-concept as a reader since in her first test she had shown a negative one. This can be seen through the reader's words when explaining how she arrived at the possible meaning of some unknown words. She said: 'I have the idea', 'based on this I conclude that'... Besides, she has not used the question mark at the end of each of her attempts to assign meaning to unknown words, as she did in the first text.

In order to reach acceptable meanings for unknown words Lilian used the following strategies effectively: semantic context, grammatical context, previous and following information and background knowledge. In her first reading strategy test she used only the semantic context and her background knowledge in order to overcome difficulties with very little effectiveness.

In relation to Lilian's strategies when she was given the text it was observed that she skimmed the text and it seems that she paid attention to its title.

Concluding, one would say that this reader improved her reading ability. She is aware of how the reading process develops and she is also aware of the usefulness and effectiveness of

reading strategies. Hence, she shows signs of becoming a proficient reader.

d) Excerpt 4 - Jussara's reading process and use of strategies.

Text: The government has awarded a contract worth £ 3.5 million to a British company, ...

Jussara: ... awarded... reading all the sentence I concluded that it means fazendo, tentando. I reached this conclusion making use of context.

Text: ... to set up television and radio broadcasting stations.

Jussara: ... broadcasting... based on the following word I think that its meaning is pegar since 'stations' is estação.

Text: ... the tenth anniversary of the overthrow of Emperor Haile Selassie.

Jussara: ... overthrow... lançar... based on context and background knowledge... ... Emperor Haile Selassie... since it is written with capital letters (typographical clues) I conclude that it is a proper name. In this case, as an enterprise, since the paragraph is about the launching of colour TV in the tenth anniversary of an enterprise.

Text: ... the contract will provide the Ethiopian people with colour TV broadcasting on the national network.

Jussara: ... broadcasting... I used selectivity and context but I could not find out its meaning.

Text: ... and with an average income of \$ 130 a year, few people can afford colour sets.

Jussara: ... afford... possuir, ter... due to the numbers written under the form of Cr\$ and knowing that 'can' means poder I concluded the meaning of afford.

Text: ... And in the drought-stricken north of the country people lucky enough to receive aid...

Jussara: ... drought-stricken... I used selectivity but I could not find out its meaning... ... lucky... without contextual relevance.

Analyzing the results of this second reading strategy test and comparing them to the results of the first reading strategy test one may conclude that this reader improved very little in her reading ability. In her first test she showed that she was not making sense of what she was reading, since she attributed totally unacceptable meaning to almost every unknown word or expression in the text. There was evidence that she was not relating the ideas between sentences or paragraphs. In this second test, she succeeded in some of her attempts making use of semantic context (launch, first broadcasting — in our region we say pegar estações de rádio e televisão — and afford), typographical clues (meaning of 'afford' based on numbers and \$) and skipping of word (lucky). But there is still evidence that she is not able to organize ideas in order to comprehend adequately some passages of the text, as was the case of the third paragraph. Another negative result revealed in this text is the reader's misuse of strategies such as selectivity and background knowledge in attempting to assign meaning to broadcasting and drought-stricken (selectivity) and overthrow (background knowledge).

The new strategies used were typography and skipping words.

As for Jussara's behaviour when she was given the text, she

seemed to pay attention to the title and skimmed the text and then she started to read it to mark difficulties.

Taking into account all the discussions above one can conclude that this reader has not assimilated the reading strategies taught.

e) Excerpt 5 - Fernando's reading process and use of strategies.

Text: Ethiopia, one of the world's poorest countries, is to launch a colour television service this year.

Fernando: ... world's poorest... it is not, relevant to comprehension... launch... colocar... making use of context.

Text: British engineers will re-equip Addis Ababa's television studios for colour, and train Ethiopian technicians.

Fernando: ... train... it is insignificant to comprehension.

Text: The Ethiopian government hopes to have the colour television service operational by September, ...

Fernando: The Ethiopian government hopes to have the colour television service operational by September, ... o go- verno da Etiópia deseja ter televisão colorida funcionando em setembro, ... making use of context.

Text: ... the contract will "provide the Ethiopian people with colour TV broadcasting on the National network."

Fernando: ... broadcasting... it is significant but I could not decode it.

Text: ... and with an average income of \$ 130 a year, few people can afford colour sets.

Fernando: ... afford... utilizar... making use of context.

Text: ... on 250 grams of grain per family per day.

Fernando: ... grain... alimento... making use of context.

Fernando did not provide a good sample, however, based on the information he gave, one can draw conclusions about his reading ability after having been trained in reading strategies.

Analyzing the results obtained in this second reading strategy test, and comparing them with the results revealed in the first one it can be concluded that this reader has not improved his reading ability significantly. His first test revealed that he did not read making sense of what he read since he was not able to perceive that he had assigned unacceptable meaning to a word or that the translation he had given to a particular sentence was not coherent with previous ones. His second test revealed that he still has difficulty in relating the ideas between words and sentences, since he considers as insignificant for text comprehension some words that are really relevant to it, as was the case of world's poorest country and train as well as he considers broadcasting as essential to comprehension when it is not in fact. Such a mistake is some indication that the reader is not extracting comprehensively the meaning of the text.

This second test also revealed that this reader has not improved his knowledge of reading strategies. In his first test he used semantic context and cognate words as strategies. In his second test, in his attempts to find out the meaning of unknown words, he skipped words and he made use of semantic context. The use of the 'skipping word' strategy was not successfully used as has already been shown above. However, the use of semantic context

was more effective. Based on this, he assigned correct meanings to launch , grain and the whole sentence The Ethiopian government hopes to have the colour television service operational by September and he assigned an acceptable meaning to afford .

As for the researcher's observation of Fernando's first reaction to the text, it seems that he read the title and jumped into the text marking the difficulties. He did not skim the text.

Concluding the analysis of Fernando's reading strategies and process one can say that he has read a little better than he did before instruction, but that his knowledge of reading strategies is still poor.

7.9. Final Results

7.9.1. Individual Results Before and After Instruction

Considering each reader's result one can conclude that all of them improved their reading ability; however it is relevant to say that some improved significantly better than others, as was the case with Maria, Sarah and Lilian. . . Maria was surprisingly the best as the results have shown. Her reading process has improved significantly as well as her ability to use reading strategies effectively. Sarah has also improved her reading process and use of reading strategies. Lilian, besides having improved her reading process and used reading strategies effectively, also acquired a positive self-concept. The other two, Jussara and Fernando also performed better in the second reading strategy test, but one would say that they should receive more reading strategy training before being able to cope adequately with texts.

7.9.2. Total Poor Readers' Reading Strategies Before and
After Instruction

TABLE 34

TOTAL POOR READERS' READING STRATEGIES BEFORE AND AFTER INSTRUCTION

R E A D I N G S T R A T E G I E S	
BEFORE	AFTER
Semantic context (05)	Semantic context (05)
Background knowledge (02)	Background knowledge (02)
Cognate words (02)	Cognate words (01)
Skipping words (01)	Skipping words (03)
Decoding (01)	-
	Skimming (03)
	Grammatical context (02)
	Typography (02)
	Guess (01)

This table shows the difference between poor readers' reading strategies before and after instruction.

It is convenient to note that some of these strategies used before instruction were not used adequately.

7.9.3. Comparison of Good Readers' Initial Reading Strategies and Poor Readers' Reading Strategies After Instruction.

TABLE 35

COMPARISON OF GOOD READERS' INITIAL READING STRATEGIES AND POOR READERS' READING STRATEGIES AFTER INSTRUCTION.

Good readers' reading strategies		Poor readers' reading strategies after instruction	
Skimming	(02)	Skimming	(03)
Semantic context	(05)	Semantic context	(05)
Grammatical context	(03)	Grammatical context	(02)
Background knowledge	(02)	Background knowledge	(02)
Skipping words	(01)	Skipping words	(03)
Read and rereading	(01)	-	
Guess	(02)	Guess	(01)
Word frequency	(01)	-	
Cognate words	(01)	Cognate words	(01)
		Typography	(02)

The table shows that the poor readers' knowledge of reading strategies improved significantly reaching the good readers' reading strategy level.

It is convenient to note that some of these readers have not only improved their knowledge of reading strategies but also managed to use them effectively.

7.9.4. Influence of Affective Behavior on the Five Poor Readers' Reading Ability Improvement.

Observing the five poor readers' behavior during class it became clear that Maria, Sarah, and Norma were intrinsically motivated to learn to read efficiently. They participated actively in class and rarely flagged in their attention to the activities that were being developed in class. Besides, it seems that they were able to escape from the fear they had said they had of making mistakes since they played their psycholinguistic guessing game freely in class. Due to their motivation, participation, attention and interest they improved their reading processes, knowledge and use of reading strategies.

On the other hand, Jussara and Fernando did not seem to be as intrinsically motivated toward learning to read as the others. They participated in class but not with the same enthusiasm as the others and sometimes they did not pay attention during class. Besides, they were not able to escape from their fear of making mistakes since they sometimes avoided pointing out their difficulties during the reading task. The behavior of these readers may be interpreted as the failure-threat-anxiety syndrome and this may have hindered their improvement since they were not able to improve their reading process and use of reading strategies significantly.

The types of reinforcement applied in class were social (praise, enthusiasm) and knowledge of results. It seems that they were effective because the readers showed satisfaction.

It is interesting to note here that Lilian, the reader who had shown lack of self-confidence in the first reading strategy test, overcame this deficiency and this enabled her to play the

psycholinguistic guessing game with confidence and consequently perform her reading tasks better.

Concluding, it could be said that the readers' affective behavior influenced their improvement in reading ability.

The next chapter discusses the findings of this experiment, draws conclusions and points out some suggestions.

CHAPTER 8

DISCUSSION, LIMITATIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of this experiment under Goodman's (1967) and Smith's (1978b) points of view about the reading process, the teaching of reading strategies based on Holmes's (1981, 1982), Scott's (1981, 1983) and Shepherd's (1983) points of view, and the influence of affective motivation on reading according to Downing and Leong (1982). It also presents the limitations of the study, the conclusions drawn and the recommendations.

8.2. Discussion

Goodman and Smith, mentioned in chapters 1 and 2, argue that reading is an active process in which author and reader interact, negotiating meaning. However, the teaching of reading at the Federal University of Piauí suffers from many misconceptions which make the reading process a passive process,

word-by-word reading, decodification of words, etc. The results obtained in this experiment corroborate Goodman's (1967) and Smith's (1978) claims. The readers showed that their reading processes at the start seemed to be based on these misconceptions. Maria, Sarah, Lilian, Jussara and Fernando were real examples.

Some of Holmes's (1981, 1982), Scott's (1981, 1983) and Shepherd's (1983) notions about reading strategies and exercise-types were used in the reading strategies course of this experiment in order to enable poor readers to become proficient readers, or in other words, to avoid word-by-word reading. Results have shown that the teaching of reading strategies, besides being necessary, is possible and has proved to be effective, which seems to confirm Yetta Goodman and Burke's (1984), Kintsch and van Dijk's (1983), Baker's (1979) and Hosenfeld's (1979) points of view (chapter 2, section 3.4.d) that better strategies can be taught in order to enable readers to improve their reading ability.

Taking into account Downing and Leong's (1982) review of the influence of affective bases on reading and observing the results obtained through the assessment instruments of this experiment one can conclude that there is a relationship between the students' affective behavior and their reading habit, but that this relationship is not necessarily linked to their performance in an ESP reading task.

8.3. Limitations of the Study

Before relating the conclusions drawn and the recommendations it may be useful to list some of the limitations of this study so

that these conclusions and recommendations can be considered in the light of the limitations.

The limitations are:

- 1 - This study was based on a small sample, which weakens its statistical aspects.
- 2 - A summary test was not applied at the end of the reading strategy course in order to check how helpful knowledge of strategies is to comprehension achievement, that is, to enabling the readers to write a good summary.
- 3 - An analysis of the most used reading strategies was not done in order to see which strategies were most frequently and successfully used.
- 4 - An analysis of the readers' difficulties was not done in order to see how similar they were.
- 5 - The analysis is based on written protocols, concentrating mainly on lexical problems. It would be possible to carry out further studies using oral "protocol analysis" techniques, such as those developed by Hosenfeld (1977b).
- 6 - The close relationship developed between researcher/teacher and the small group of students may quite possibly have induced a "Hawthorne" effects - students performing well because of special attention, not because of intrinsically better methods or materials.
- 7 - It is theoretically possible that the texts used for the tests are not comparable in readability.

These limitations are mentioned also as stimuli for further research.

8.4. Conclusions

Having analyzed and discussed the results obtained from the questionnaires and tests, the following conclusions were drawn:

- 1 - Half of the students in this experiment showed no idea of how to write a summary.
- 2 - The students' experience of English is not a determining factor for enabling them to write summaries. This suggests that this experience has in many cases been of little or no use.
- 3 - The subjects' EFL experience seems to have concentrated more on translation than on comprehension.
- 4 - The students seem to see the library as a place of work with room for study rather than as a store of books and journals.
- 5 - The vast majority of the students were extrinsically and intrinsically motivated toward reading. In spite of the great motivation toward reading there are some students who still need to be encouraged and taught how to choose books according to their purposes and interests in order to improve their reading habit.
- 6 - The readers' positive affective behavior toward reading influenced their reading ability improvement.
- 7 - Social reinforcement (praise and enthusiasm) and knowledge of results had a positive effect on the readers' motivation.
- 8 - The teaching of reading strategies seems to have been effective. The poor readers' reading strategies improved significantly reaching the good readers' initial reading strategy level.

9 - The students' ability to use reading strategies adequately affected their performance in the ability to write summaries.

10 - Good readers and poor readers used significantly different reading strategies.

11 - To work with a small sample proved to be useful since the teacher/researcher could observe each students' weaknesses and strengths.

8.5. Recommendations

Having analyzed and discussed the results of the questionnaires and tests some pedagogical implications appeared.

Pedagogical implications include:

1 - The ability to write a summary should be emphasized in the school curriculum.

2 - There is a need to make the students aware that writing a summary is not identical to translating a text. The teaching of English needs to be based on comprehension instead of translation.

3 - Teachers should participate more actively in encouraging students to read.

4 - The students should be led to develop a positive 'feeling' toward the usefulness and effectiveness of reading strategies' use.

5 - The fact that 70% of the students in this experiment said that they were afraid of making mistakes suggests that reading or language classes should be developed in a favorable atmosphere in

order to encourage students to practice the ability they are being trained in.

6 - The teaching of reading strategies should be introduced and emphasized at all levels of the teaching of reading since it presumably enables the students to perform better in other learning activities.

7 - Due to the reading strategies variations between good readers and poor readers it would be pedagogically advisable to organize reading groups according to the readers' knowledge of and ability to use strategies.

By observing the poor readers' reading processes it was concluded that the readers must be made aware of how the reading process develops under the notion that reading is a psycholinguistic guessing game.

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APPENDIX 1 - QUESTIONNAIRES

Universidade Federal do Piauí

Questionário 1 - Dados Pessoais

Nome: _____

A. Quantos anos você já estudou inglês? _____

B. Quando estudava inglês, estava motivado(a) a aprender bem?
Comente sobre a qualidade do ensino, a sua atitude, o método, etc.

C. Você sabe alguma outra língua além do português e do inglês?
Caso sim, qual? E como aprendeu? _____

D. Você fala inglês:

a () bem b () mais ou menos c () pouco d () nada

E. Na hora de FALAR inglês você tem medo de cometer erros?

a () mesmo quando não tenho certeza falo.

b () falo mas fico preocupado(a).

c () prefiro calar do que falar errado.

F. O profissional brasileiro formado numa Universidade precisa saber uma língua estrangeira? Justifique sua resposta: _____

G. Você já esteve em um país de língua estrangeira? Caso sim dê detalhes. _____

- H. O que você leu durante as suas férias? _____

- I. Porque você leu? _____
- J. Você gosta de dar livros de presente? Justifique sua resposta. _____

- L. Você lê jornal:
a () diariamente b () ocasionalmente c () nunca
- M. Você lê VEJA, ISTO É, FATOS E FOTOS, MANCHETE ou PASQUIM? Lê qualquer outra revista semanal ou mensal? Qual (quais)? Com que frequência? _____

- N. Na sua casa, assinam alguma revista ou jornal? Caso sim, dê detalhes. _____

- O. Você já leu por prazer e fora da escola algum livro de:
a) Jorge Amado? Qual? _____
b) Raquel de Queiroz? Qual? _____
c) Machado de Assis? Qual? _____
d) Assis Brasil? Qual? _____
e) _____
- P. Você pode lembrar se alguém ou algum acontecimento o ajudou a adquirir interesse pela leitura desde que você entrou na escola? _____

- Q. Você usa a biblioteca? Com que frequência? _____

- R. Caso você tenha respondido afirmativamente a pergunta anterior diga as razões que o leva a usar a biblioteca.

Universidade Federal do Piauí

Questionário 2 - Dados sobre o Resumo

Nome: _____

A. Como você se sentiu diante da tarefa de ter que fazer um resumo? _____

B. Esta tarefa foi:

a () muito fácil

c () muito difícil

b () fácil

d () difícil

C. Quantas vezes você teve que ler o texto ...

cuidadosamente? _____

rapidamente? _____

D. Qual foi a sua primeira atitude após estar com o texto em
mãos e já sabendo qual seria sua tarefa?

E. Você prestou atenção qual a fonte dos texto? SIM/NÃO

Caso sim, isto o ajudou?

a () muito

c () pouco

b () mais ou menos

d () nada

F. Qual foi sua maior dificuldade com a tarefa?

APPENDIX 2 - TESTS

Universidade Federal do Piauí

Nome: _____

Leia o texto 'Marihuana' e faça o resumo do mesmo.

MARIHUANA, also known as hashish in the Orient, a habit-forming drug. It is the dried leaves and flowers of the Indian hemp plant, usually smoked in cigarettes. Addiction to marihuana is as widespread in the United States as in other countries. Every country in Asia has a centuries-long history of marihuana drug addiction.

The effects of marihuana have been recognized since the beginning of recorded history—an Assyrian medical tablet in the British Museum refers to hashish as “an intoxicant which cheers the spirits and sharpens the erotic impulse.” Vivid descriptions of hashish debauches abound in ancient Arabian literature. Marco Polo in his description of his travels tells of the desperate band of Persian highwaymen, the Assassins, who initiated new members into their order by a licentious hashish carnival. It has even been suggested that the words assassin and hashish are derived from the same root.

Marihuana or hashish affects its users in many ways, since it stimulates the nervous, respiratory, circulatory, digestive, excretory, and genital systems. The drug clouds the mind and reduces self-control; the person becomes restless and talkative, relaxed and exhilarated with a sense of well-being, followed by drowsiness. Generally difficulty in focusing and sustaining mental attention is noted.

Marihuana has long been a major problem for government narcotic squads, for the Indian hemp plant grows wild in many areas. Smoking the drug in the form of “reefers” has become increasingly prevalent. In 1934, the United States Congress enacted legislation which prescribed almost as severe penalties for the use and sale of marihuana as for narcotics. *See also* DRUG ADDICTION.

(FISHBEIN, Morris(ed.)). *The New Illustrated Medical and Health Encyclopaedia*. New York, H.S. Stuttmann, c 1962. p. 501)

Selected by the ESP Team of UFSC

Universidade Federal do Piauí

Nome: _____

Leia o texto 'Alcoholism' e marque as palavras e as estruturas que você não compreendeu. Em seguida, diga que estratégias você usou para vencer estas dificuldades. Diga também a que conclusão você chegou sobre o significado das palavras ou estruturas marcadas.

ALCOHOLISM

ing and produce a temporary sense of warmth and well-being. Alcohol dilates the blood vessels of the skin and brings an increased flow of warm blood to the skin surfaces. However, the blood in the body is cooled off by this action and body temperature drops. Alcohol also depresses the central nervous system, and acts as an anesthetic upon the cerebral cortex, which controls behavior. When a person brightens up after a drink or speaks and acts more freely than usual, he does so because the restraining influences which he usually exercises have been diminished. Moderate drinking, even as a daily habit, is practiced by many people without harmful effects. However, excessive amounts of alcohol may act as a poison and seriously damage the body.

Alcohol is quickly burnt up in the body and has little food value.

ALCOHOLISM

The body does not have a way of storing alcohol, and excessive amounts irritate the stomach and cause chronic gastritis. Constant excessive drinking may also damage the liver, the kidneys, and other body organs. The central nervous system becomes depressed, and with continued indulgence the entire system is devitalized. Coordination of muscles and nerves is diminished, speech becomes thicker, gait and sense of balance are impaired, judgment suffers, mental changes are apparent. Constant excessive use of alcohol often leads to stupor, delirium tremens, or other manifestations of serious damage. *See also* ALCOHOLISM; DELIRIUM TREMENS.

ALCOHOLISM, poisoning by alcohol, or the severe results of prolonged and excessive consumption of alcohol. The alcoholic has a compulsive need

WHO IS AN ALCOHOLIC?

Is one of 4 million alcoholics in the U.S.

The alcoholic is someone whose drinking causes a continuing problem in any department of his life.

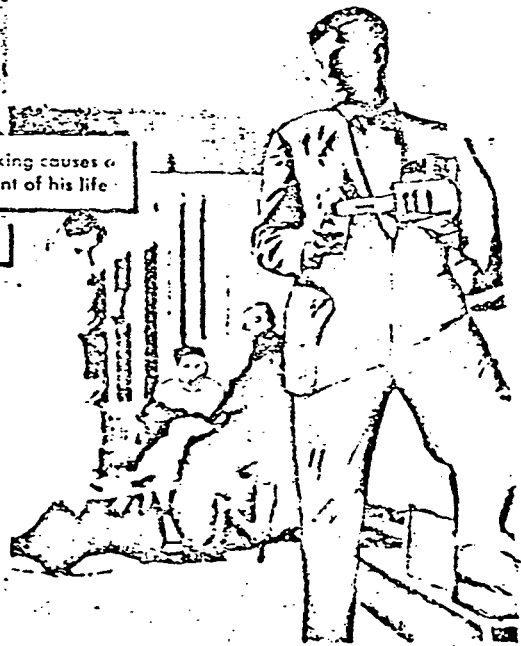
Has been drinking 10 to 15 years

Can come from any level of intelligence: moron to genius

Can come from any walk of life

One of six is a woman

Has an aversion to food, leading to nutritional deficiencies



for alcohol and can abstain only with great difficulty or not at all. Usually he is totally unable to help himself out of his situation. The causes of alcoholism are deeply rooted in the varying needs and insecurities of the individual. There is no such thing as an "alcoholic type." An alcoholic may drink steadily day after day or he may have short periods of abstinence followed by a drinking bout.

The effects of alcoholism are serious, both mentally and physically. The compulsive drinker gradually loses his desire for food and may develop dangerous malnutrition with all its varying symptoms. The liver may become enlarged, the heart damaged, and other organs affected. The central nervous system is depressed, and a steady and progressive disintegration of personality takes place.

If alcoholism continues, the person will eventually develop delirium tremens, in which he loses all sense of time, space, and surroundings and is racked by terrifying visual hallucinations. During this time, many alcoholics have seriously injured themselves in their efforts to escape from their hallucinations. The condition lasts for from three to seven days and requires emergency treatment. Afterward the alcoholic will usually revert to his usual state. Death may result from an attack of delirium tremens if hospitalization and competent medical care are not secured.

Hospitalization is desirable in treating the compulsive drinker who wishes to be cured. Physical factors are a significant part of alcoholism,

and treatment includes both medical as well as psychological care. The influence of the endocrine glands, hormones, metabolism, and diet on alcoholism is being investigated. New tranquilizing drugs, such as chlorpromazine, and Miltown, when used with discretion, have been helpful, and a drug called Antabuse is sometimes used to condition the alcoholic against drinking. After the first stages of recovery have been reached, the alcoholic may respond to psychiatric treatment. Group therapy, in which victims of a common affliction meet and talk, has proved helpful.

Among the many organizations dedicated to helping the alcoholic, the best known is Alcoholics Anonymous, a group of men and women who have overcome alcoholism, and who actively help others to do so. Their sympathetic understanding of the problems of the compulsive drinker, based upon their own experiences, and their philosophy of mutual help have proved to be one of the most effective adjuncts in treating alcoholism. Alcoholics Anonymous has branches in almost every city in the United States and in many countries throughout the world.

The combined efforts of medicine, psychiatry, and organizations like Alcoholics Anonymous have brought about an increasing rate of recovery in what was once considered a hopeless problem. *See also* ANTABUSE; DELIRIUM TREMENS

(FISHBEIN, Morris (ed.). The New Illustrated Medical and Health Encyclopaedia. New York, H.S. Stuttman, c1962. p. 27-28)

Universidade Federal do Piauí

Nome: _____

Leia o texto 'Food and TV' e marque as palavras e as estruturas que você não compreendeu. Em seguida, diga que estratégias você usou para vencer estas dificuldades. Diga também a que conclusão você chegou sobre o significado das palavras ou estruturas marcadas.

Food or TV

ETHIOPIA, one of the world's poorest countries, is to launch a colour television service this year. The government has awarded a contract worth £3.5 million to a British company, Crow, to set up television and radio broadcasting stations.

British engineers will re-equip Addis Ababa's television studios for colour, and train Ethiopian technicians. The contract also covers the supply of two outside broadcast vehicles with electronic news-gathering equipment.

The Ethiopian government hopes to have the colour television service operational by September, the tenth anniversary of the overthrow of Emperor Haile Selassie. According to Crow, the contract will "provide the Ethiopian people with

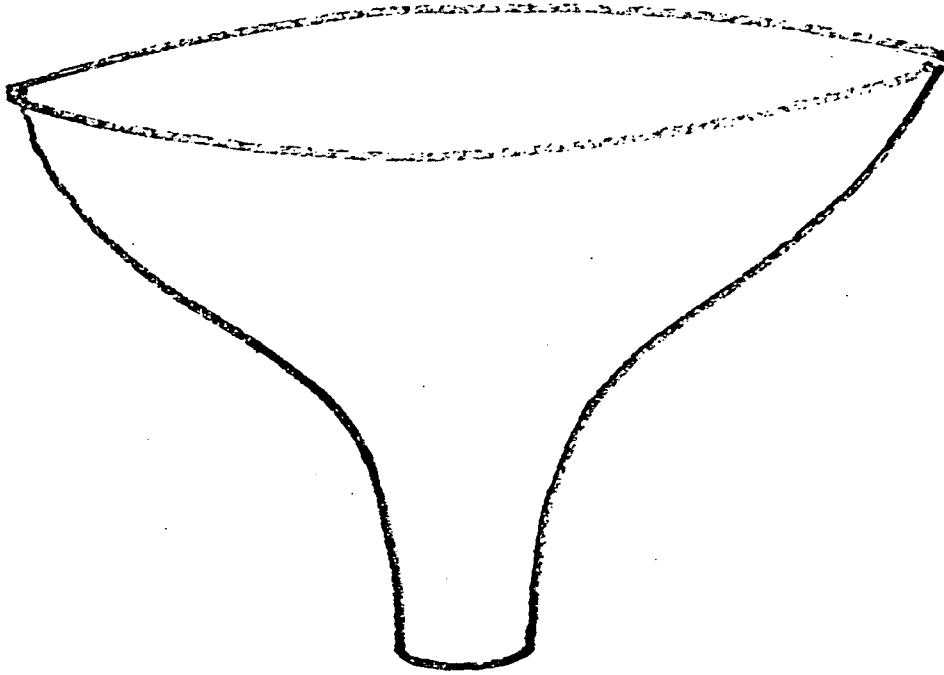
colour TV broadcasting on the national network".

In fact, few Ethiopians will benefit. According to official figures, there are about 27 000 television sets in the country (population nearly 35 million), and with an average income of \$130 a year, few people can afford colour sets.

Social conditions are another obstacle to most Ethiopians ever enjoying *Dallas*. Despite the revolutionary government's health programme, the average life expectancy in Ethiopia is 39 years. The latest figure for infant mortality is 172 per 1000 live births. And in the drought-stricken north of the country, people lucky enough to receive aid live on 250 grams of grain per family per day. □

APPENDIX 3 - READING STRATEGIES COURSE UNITS

COGNATES
REPEATED
WORDS
TYPOGRAPHICAL
CLUES
SKIMMING
SCANNING
PREDICTION



GENERAL COMPREHENSION

MAIN POINTS

DETAILED COMPREHENSION

Unidade I

I - INTRODUÇÃO

Caro Aluno,

Você deve estar curioso em saber porque fazer e de que lhe servirá este curso de leitura. Talvez você pense que não precisa de um curso de leitura pois na sua concepção você já sabe ler. Mas, você pode pensar e justificar que terá que fazer este curso de leitura porque agora se trata de leitura em língua estrangeira, o inglês.

Pensando nestas duas hipóteses levantadas acima resolvemos bater um papo inicial com você. Primeiro, gostaríamos de lhe dizer que leitura é um processo ativo, interessante e fácil. Segundo, gostaríamos de lhe alertar para o fato de que muitas vezes dizemos que sabemos ler mas quando somos questionados sobre o que lemos pouco sabemos informar sobre o assunto. Em terceiro lugar, gostaríamos de lhe alertar também para o fato de que a leitura em língua nacional ou estrangeira se desenvolve da mesma forma. Se você não lê eficientemente em sua língua materna, conseqüentemente, não o fará também em uma língua estrangeira. O fato de você fracassar na leitura em língua estrangeira não pode ser atribuído somente ao fato de ser uma língua estrangeira. **VOCE PODE NÃO ESTAR LENDO ADEQUADAMENTE.**

A esta altura você deve estar pensando que nós estamos subestimando sua capacidade de leitura, não é? Mas, você verá que nosso objetivo não é este. Nosso objetivo é ajudá-lo a desenvolver bem o processo de leitura. Procuraremos fornecer-lhe os instrumentos que o ajudarão no desenvolvimento do processo de leitura eficiente.

Se você, realmente, já sabe ler não desista do curso pois você verá que ao término deste, você terá melhorado sensivelmente sua habilidade de leitura. Mas, se você não sabe ler não se assuste. Não desanime. Não se sinta inferior aos colegas pois ao término deste curso você também será capaz de ler eficientemente.

Como isto pode acontecer? SÓ DEPENDE DE VOCÊ. Use sua boa vontade e inteligência. Tente se familiarizar e usar os instrumentos que lhe forneceremos no decorrer do curso.

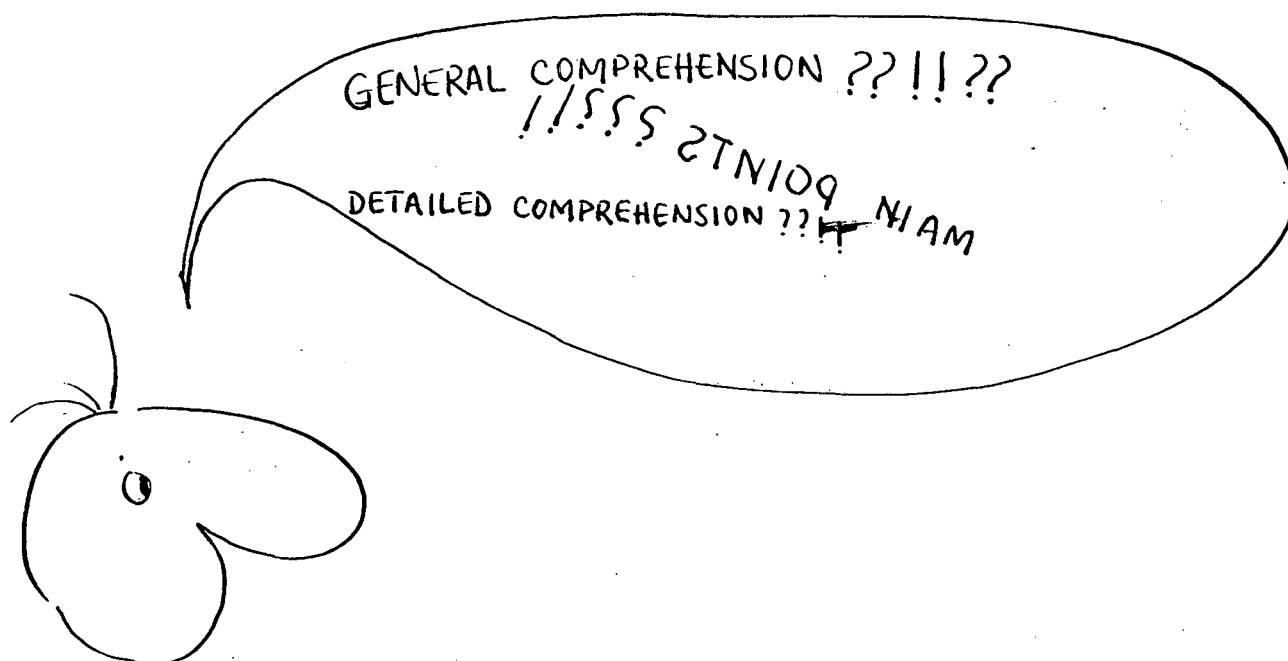
Vença esta batalha e guerras futuras!

BOA SORTE

II - NÍVEIS DE COMPREENSÃO EM LEITURA

Como é? Você está disposto a participar de nosso curso? SIM? ÓTIMO. Iniciemos, então, a nossa caminhada.

Quando lemos, o fazemos para nos divertir, adquirir informação, desenvolver senso crítico, aprender o sistema de uma língua, etc. Portanto, dependendo do objetivo que queremos alcançar com uma determinada leitura usamos diferentes níveis de compreensão. Estes níveis são: GENERAL COMPREHENSION, MAIN POINTS COMPREHENSION and DETAILED COMPREHENSION:



Você está confuso? Não conhece estes níveis? Calma. Vamos analisá-los um por um a fim de que você possa conhecê-los bem e usá-los conscientemente em suas leituras futuras.

1º - GENERAL COMPREHENSION

A leitura a nível de compreensão geral é aquela que fazemos rapidamente a fim de adquirirmos uma idéia geral do que

trata o texto. Em leitura deste nível você é capaz de responder perguntas tais como:

- a) Do que trata o texto?
- b) Em que ano foi publicado? Por quem?

Viu? São realmente, perguntas que você com uma leitura superficial estará apto a responder.

2º - MAIN POINTS COMPREHENSION

A leitura a nível de compreensão de pontos principais requer um pouco mais de nossa atenção pois aqui deveremos ser capazes de identificar as idéias principais contidas no texto.

Se você fizer adequadamente uma leitura a nível de Main Points de um texto sobre a seca no nordeste você será capaz de responder perguntas tais como:

- a) Qual a idéia principal do texto?
- b) Qual a idéia principal do 2º parágrafo?
- c) O autor apresenta soluções para a seca do nordeste?
- d) O autor está tentando lhe convencer ou lhe informar?

Você observou que para responder estas perguntas é preciso uma leitura mais cuidadosa?

3º - DETAILED COMPREHENSION

A leitura a nível de detailed comprehension requer bem mais de sua atenção do que a leitura feita a nível de main points. Aqui, você tem que entender todos ou quase todos os detalhes do texto. Este tipo de leitura é, na maioria das vezes, mais exigido quando você está lendo instruções ou por exemplo tentando repetir uma experiência química.

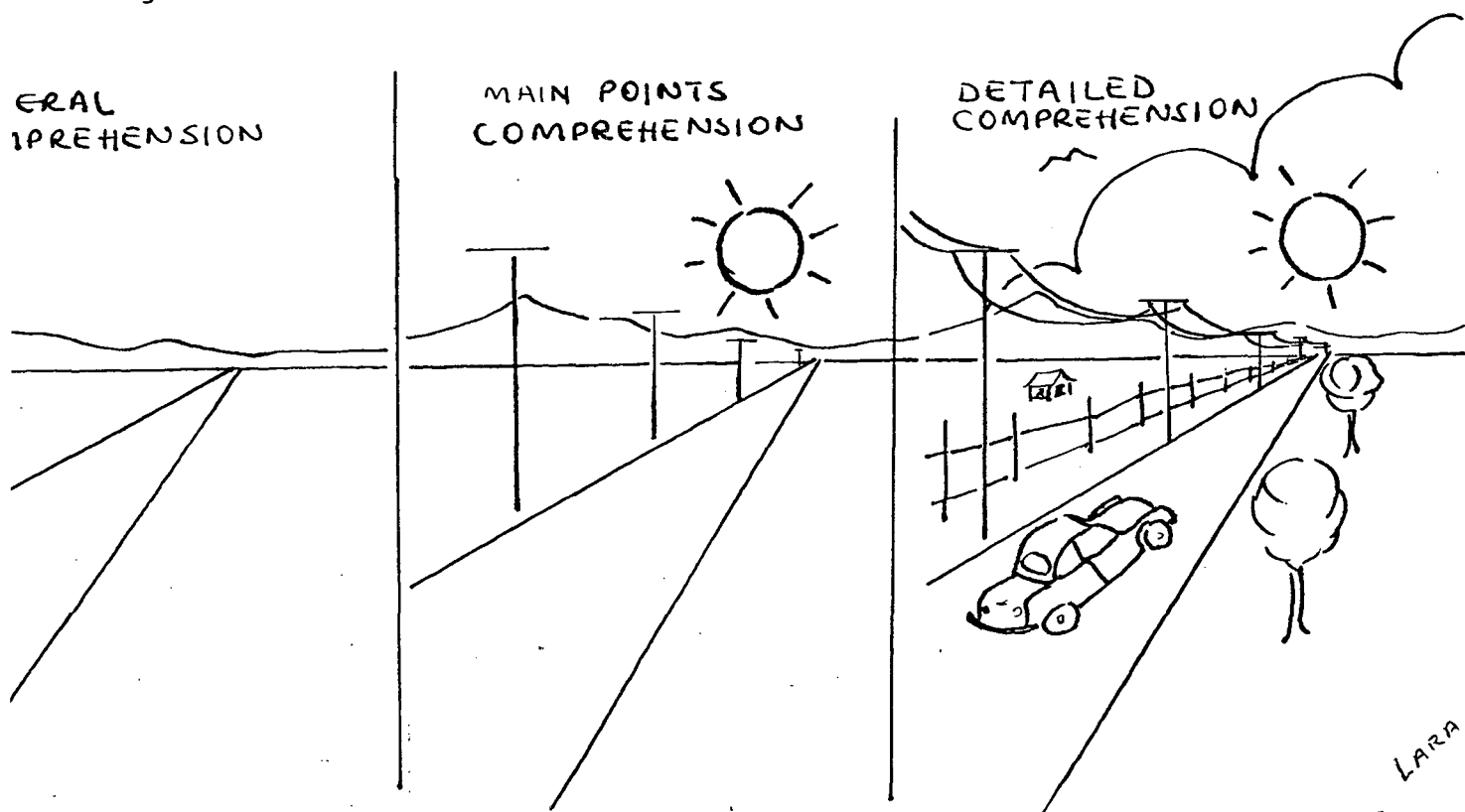
Se você fizer adequadamente uma leitura a nível de detailed comprehension você estará apto a responder sobre o funcionamento de um vídeo-cassete ou qualquer um outro aparelho. Você poderá responder a perguntas tais como:

- a) Que passos devem ser seguidos para fazer a ligação de um determinado aparelho? (vídeo-cassete, máquina filadora, som)
- b) Caso você ligue errado o aparelho o que acontecerá.

Você observou que aqui você precisa ser mais ainda cuidadoso com a sua leitura?

Agora que você já conhece bem os 3 níveis de compreensão em leitura gostaríamos de lhe lembrar que o nível de compreensão que você vai usar em suas leituras dependerá do objetivo que você quiser alcançar com aquela leitura. Por exemplo: Se você está lendo um texto sobre a seca do nordeste a fim de que você possa proferir uma palestra sobre este assunto, você deverá lê-lo a nível de main points e detailed comprehension. Mas, se você está lendo o mesmo texto somente para ter uma idéia geral do que trata o texto, você poderá lê-lo a nível de general comprehension.

Os 3 níveis da compreensão poderiam ser ilustrados da seguinte maneira.



III - DICAS PARA FACILITAR O PROCESSO DE LEITURA

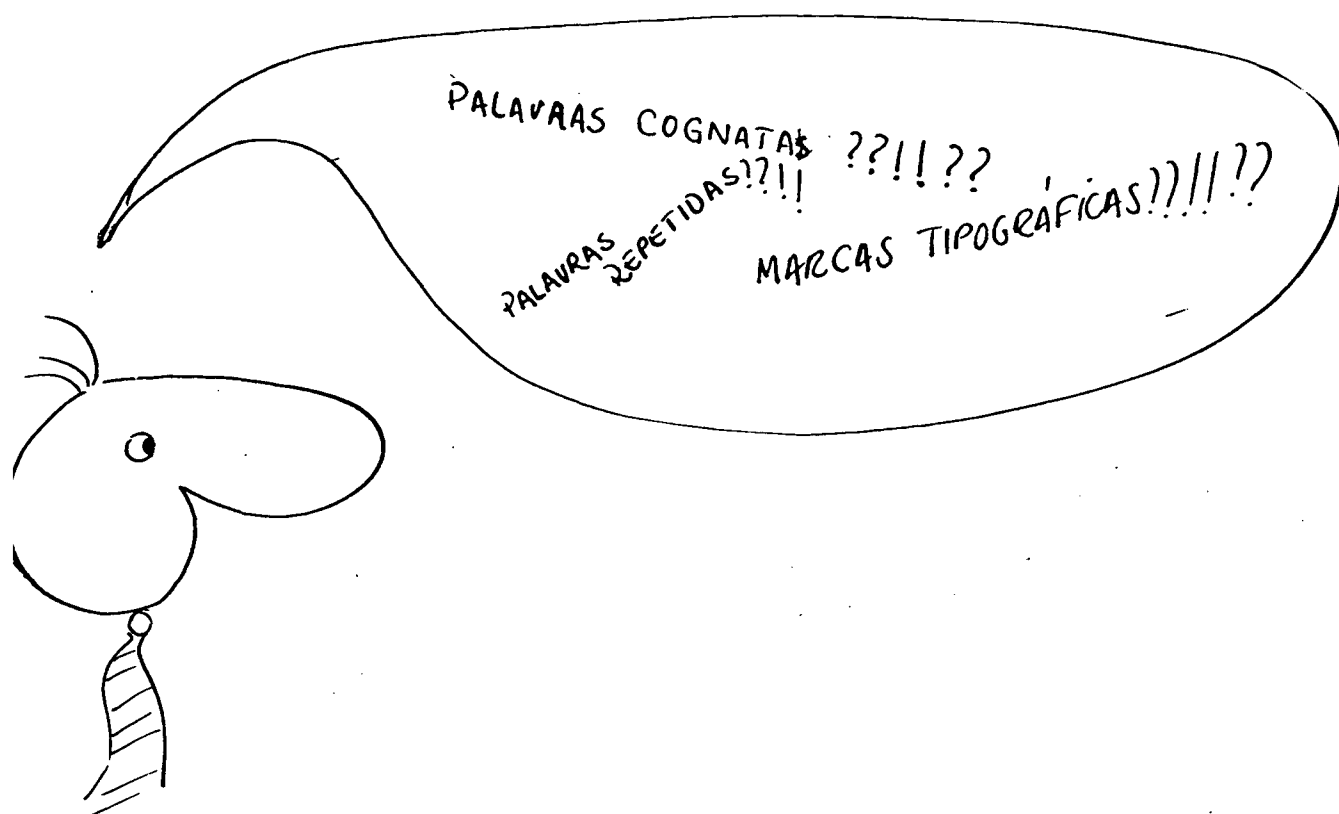
Antes de nós lhe darmos as DICAS vamos bater um papo com você sobre o processo de leitura.

Muitos leitores pensam que leitura eficiente é aquela em que se lê palavra por palavra. É por isto que estes leitores quando tem que ler um texto em língua estrangeira são incapazes de prosseguir com a leitura quando encontram um obstáculo, uma palavra desconhecida. Eles sentem logo a necessidade de olhar o

significado daquela palavra no dicionário. E assim, eles olham inúmeras palavras no dicionário. E você sabe o que acontece? A leitura se torna monótona e cansativa. E o que é mais agravante é que esta leitura não leva a compreensão nenhuma. O cérebro fica tão sobrecarregado de detalhes que se torna incapaz de processar a mensagem como um todo. O que ocorre neste tipo de leitura é DECODIFICAÇÃO DE PALAVRAS e nada mais.

Você é um leitor deste tipo mencionado acima? Sim? Quer continuar sendo um mau leitor? NÃO? ÓTIMO. Então, vamos lhe dar as DICAS que o ajudarão a se tornar um leitor eficiente, que o ajudarão a vencer obstáculos.

As DICAS são: PALAVRAS COGNATAS, PALAVRAS REPETIDAS e MARCAS GRÁFICAS.



Está assustado? Paciência. Estas DICAS vão ficar bem claras para você.

PALAVRAS COGNATAS

Para facilitar a sua leitura sugerimos que você faça uso das PALAVRAS COGNATAS. O que são palavras cognatas? São palavras de origem latina ou grega que se assemelham as palavras de

língua portuguesa, tanto na sua grafia quanto no seu significado. A maioria de textos técnicos, científicos, etc. apresentam 20% destas palavras. Então, nós devemos tirar proveito deste grande percentual de palavras cognatas.

É fácil identificar palavras cognatas em um texto? Sim é fácilimo.

LEIA A SENTENÇA ABAIXO E VEJA SE VOCÊ CONSEGUE IDENTIFICAR AS PALAVRAS COGNATAS.

Energy is constantly lost in the process of transfer of energy, as expressed in the First and Second Laws of Thermodynamics.

Conseguiu? Viu como foi fácil para você identificar energy, constantly, process, transfer, expressed e thermodynamics?

Esta estratégia de usar palavras cognatas poderá ser usada em qualquer leitura que você fizer. Você verificará que elas "saltarão" diante de você.

These two CONDITIONS are CAUSED by the EXCESSIVE PRODUCTION of growth HORMONES by the PITUITARY GLAND.

PALAVRAS REPETIDAS

São geralmente palavras de conteúdo como verbo, substantivo e adjetivo, e que podem ser cognatas ou não, e que são repetidas várias vezes no texto. E por aparecerem muitas vezes no texto julgamo-as relevantes para a compreensão do texto. Então, você deverá dedicar atenção especial a estas palavras quando você estiver lendo.

LEIA O TEXTO ABAIXO E VEJA COMO AS PALAVRAS REPETIDAS LHE DÃO PISTAS PARA A IDENTIFICAÇÃO DO CONTEÚDO DO TEXTO.

Diabetes is the chief disease in which acidosis occurs. In

diabetes the body is unable to use sugar, so that fats are incompletely burned in the body and acid substances are produced. The acid substances accumulate, and the body must develop alkaline substances to neutralize them.

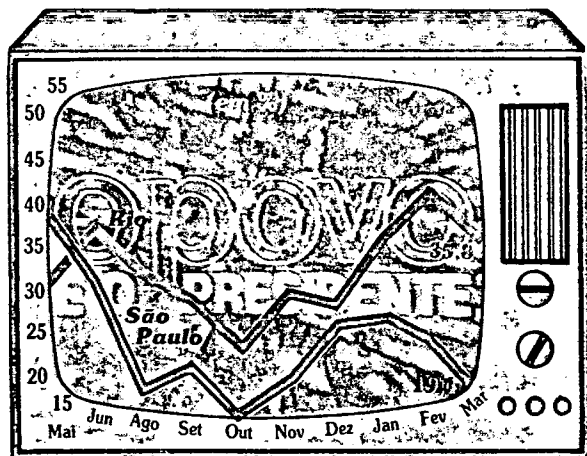
Viu como as palavras repetidas desempenham papel importante para o conteúdo do texto? FAÇA USO DAS PALAVRAS REPETIDAS E RECORRA TAMBÉM ÀS PALAVRAS COGNATAS PARA UMA LEITURA MAIS RÁPIDA E EFICIENTE.

3. MARCAS TIPOGRÁFICAS

São as dicas tipográficas contidas no texto que lhe levam a identificar e compreender melhor as informações verbais. Estas marcas tipográficas são:

- a) números = 1984, 5%, Cr\$ 30.000,00, etc.
- b) uso de tipo especial = negrito, itálico, etc.
- c) símbolos = /, >, <, Σ, etc.
- d) letras maiúsculas = A B C D ...
- e) repartição em parágrafos
- f) título
- g) gráficos

Para que você tenha um exemplo concreto da importância das MARCAS TIPOGRÁFICAS na compreensão de textos pedimos que você analise os gráficos que lhe apresentamos abaixo e responda algumas perguntas. VOCÊ DESCOBRIRÁ QUE MESMO SEM VOCÊ TER LIDO O TEXTO SERÁ CAPAZ DE DAR RESPOSTAS ÀS PERGUNTAS QUE LHE SÃO FORMULADAS.



Analise os gráficos? Então responda:

- a) Qual dos dois programas teve maior audiência no mês de agosto?
- b) Qual o percentual de audiência mais alto que o programa "O Povo e o Presidente" atingiu?

Viu como você soube responder as perguntas? NÃO DESPREZE AS MARCAS TIPOGRÁFICAS CONTIDAS EM TEXTOS. ELAS SEMPRE SÃO ÚTEIS PARA UMA MELHOR COMPREENSÃO.

Esperamos que após ter visto as 3 DICAS você se sinta mais confiante em realizar uma leitura mais eficiente SEM RECORRER FREQUENTEMENTE AO DICIONÁRIO. Esperamos também que você esteja consciente de que o texto é o melhor informante. APROVEITE-SE DAS PALAVRAS COGNATAS, DAS PALAVRAS REPETIDAS E DÊ ATENÇÃO ÀS MARCAS TIPOGRÁFICAS. "Use e abuse" das 3 DICAS. Você verá que suas dúvidas serão dirimidas e que bem pouco ou nada sobrarão para você olhar no dicionário.

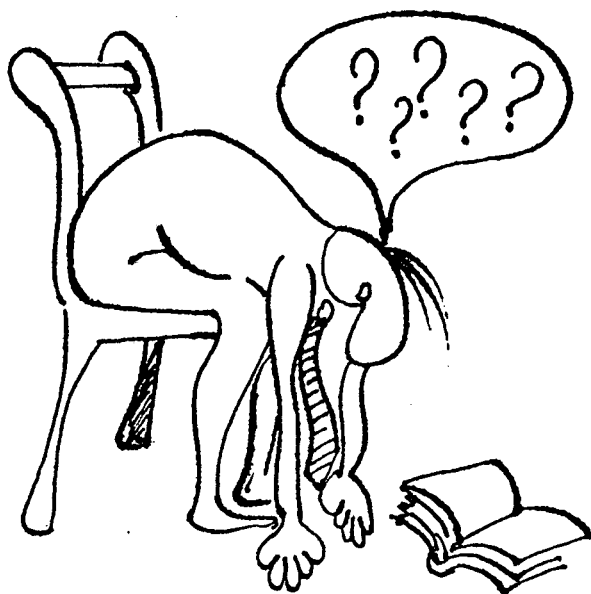
Agora que você já conhece os 3 NÍVEIS DE COMPREENSÃO DE LEITURA e as 3 PRINCIPAIS DICAS PARA UMA LEITURA EFICIENTE você pode se considerar "ARMADO" para enfrentar a interessante e fácil tarefa de ler.

IV - FUN ACTIVITY

Suponhamos que antes de você tomar conhecimento das 3 DICAS para uma leitura mais rápida e eficiente, você era um mau leitor. Lia palavra por palavra. Numa sentença como "The nervous system may be involved with growth" você dava 8 paradinhas. Sabe o que acontecia com você? NÃO?

VOCE INICIAVA A LEITURA ASSIM:

E TERMINAVA ASSIM:



MAS QUANDO VOCE TOMOU CONHECIMENTO DAS
3 DICAS E COLOCOU-AS EM USO A COISA
 MUDOU. VOCE SE TORNOU CAPAZ DE:



Universidade Federal do Piauí
 Departamento de Letras
 Curso: Estratégias de Leitura

Unidade II

I. O objetivo desta unidade é orientá-lo no uso das estratégias da leitura, SKIMMING, SCANNING e SELECTIVITY.

SKIMMING: Esta estratégia consiste numa leitura rápida do texto a fim de que você possa identificar qual o assunto do mesmo. Deve ser utilizada TODAS ÀS VEZES em que você tiver em mãos algo para ler. Ela lhe situará sobre o contexto.

SCANNING: Esta estratégia de leitura consiste na tentativa de localizar informação específica em textos. Você deve ter em mente qual a informação desejada e correr a vista sobre o texto para localização desta informação. Aqui, você deve aplicar os seus conhecimentos sobre marcas tipográficas (letras maiúsculas, números, símbolos, gráficos, etc.) Elas lhe serão úteis.

SELECTIVITY: Esta estratégia consiste na leitura de parágrafo introdutórios, parágrafos de conclusão, primeira e última sentenças de cada parágrafo, títulos, subtítulos, etc. Você pode utilizá-la para verificar se um determinado texto vai lhe apresentar as informações sobre um determinado assunto que você quer se aprofundar, assim, você pode decidir se continua ou não com a leitura do texto.

II - PRE - READING ACTIVITY

O título do texto que vamos ler agora é "WHY SEX DECLINES IN MARRIAGE".

a) O que você acha que vamos encontrar neste texto?

b) Você sabe alguma coisa sobre este assunto?

c) E o que você sabe tem fundamentação científica?

d) Discuta com seu colega do lado as suas respostas?

III - Aplicação das Estratégias de leitura: SKIMMING, SCANNING e SELECTIVITY.

A - SKIMMING

Leia o texto rapidamente e responda:

a) Qual é o assunto do texto?

b) De onde foi extraído este texto?

c) Quantos parágrafos tem o mesmo?

d) Que pessoas você acha que gostariam de ler sobre este assunto?

B - SCANNING

Observe o texto e responda:

a) Quando Alfred Kinsey escreveu sobre o comportamento sexual da mulher?

b) Entre que idades se registra uma queda na produção de testosterona pela mulher?

c) Além de Alfred Kinsey, quais foram os outros pesquisadores mencionados no texto?

d) Qual é o nome do jornal mencionado no texto?

C - SELECTIVITY

Leia a primeira e a última sentença de cada parágrafo e escreva aqui qual o assunto que cada um deles trata.

1º Parágrafo: _____

2º Parágrafo: _____

3º Parágrafo: _____

b

Why sex declines in marriage

THIRTY years ago Alfred Kinsey's famous report on the sexual behaviour of the human female provided statistical evidence for a decline in the frequency of sexual intercourse in marriage as time passed. This well-known phenomenon was attributed to a decline in the male's sexual ability and motivation with age. So traditional wisdom and scientific studies of human sexual behaviour agreed that sexual intercourse in marriage declined as the male lost interest and capacity.

A rather different view was then put forward by J. R. Udry, F. R. Deven, and S. J. Coleman of the University of North Carolina, and the Population and Family Study Centre in Brussels (*Journal of Biosocial Science*, vol 14, p 1). They found that in the United States, Belgium, Thailand and Japan, the decline in the rate of sexual intercourse in marriage is more closely associated with the wife's age than that of the husband. This seemed to be the case in all four countries, in spite of their

considerable cultural differences and distinctive marriage customs. The most probable explanation, the researchers concluded, was the decline in female, rather than male, testosterone levels between the ages of 20 and 35. Kinsey and almost everyone else had got it wrong. The male was not losing interest or ability. He was simply responding to changes in his wife's hormone levels.

Now W. H. James of the Medical Research Council's Mammalian Development Unit at University College, London, casts doubt on Udry's theory (*Journal of Biosocial Science*, vol 15, p 83). He shows that the decline in the frequency of sexual intercourse in marriage is not simply linear with age or the duration of the marriage. The frequency of intercourse approximately halves in the first year of marriage but takes about 20 years to halve again. After an initial burst of enthusiasm the male slowly loses sexual ability and interest over the years. So perhaps Kinsey was more or less right after all. □



New
Scientist
3rd March
1983

MARRIAGE, the physical, personal, and legal union between a man and woman. Sexual adjustment must be made and techniques adapted to the needs and preferences of the husband and wife. Although sex is the biological foundation of marriage, many adults are misinformed or confused about it; the family physician can be helpful to the person who feels he needs guidance.

Differences exist between men and women which affect the degree of sexual gratification, and for women especially the success of the sexual life depends in large measure upon the degree of emotional accord enjoyed with her husband. Sex is of course not all of a marriage; but if this area is a source of satisfaction to the husband and wife, success in the other areas will be more easily assured. *See also* CONCEPTION; CONTRACEPTION; IMPOTENCE; ORGASM; STERILITY.

(FISHBEIN, Morris (ed.). The New Illustrated Medical and Health Encyclopaedia. New York, H.S. Stuttman, c1962. p.875)

Selected by the researcher

Universidade Federal do Piauí
 Departamento de Letras
 Estratégias de Leitura

Unidade III

O objetivo desta unidade é treiná-lo na identificação das KEY WORDS em textos. A identificação destas palavras é relevante porque elas lhe levarão a ignorar linearidade, lhe ajudarão a explorar redundâncias e demonstrarão que MEANING (sentido, significado) pode ser percebido mesmo quando você não entende todas as palavras existentes no texto. Como você deve fazer para identificá-las?

Observe a nossa sugestão:

Toda vez que você tiver um texto para ler, você deve usar inicialmente a estratégia SKIMMING. Não esqueça de observar as marcas tipográficas. Feito isto, você deve pensar que objetivo você quer alcançar com esta leitura. Após ter estabelecido o objetivo você deve voltar ao texto para tentar atingir este objetivo. Na tentativa de localizar no texto a parte que é mais relevante para atingir seu objetivo você pode e deve utilizar a estratégia SELECTIVITY. Uma vez identificada a parte ou partes relevantes você deve procurar as KEY WORDS. Você verá que as KEY WORDS dependem, em parte, do objetivo que você quer alcançar.

Para exemplificar o que foi dito acima lhe apresentaremos o texto Marihuana. Leia-o, utilize as estratégias sugeridas e constate o que lhe foi dito.

1ª pergunta: Como a maconha afeta seus usuários?

KEY WORDS _____

2ª pergunta: Trace o uso da maconha na história.

KEY WORDS _____

IMPORTANTE: Estabeleça um objetivo claro antes de iniciar a leitura; Localize as partes do texto que são relevantes para o seu objetivo.

MARIHUANA, also known as hashish in the Orient, a habit-forming drug. It is the dried leaves and flowers of the Indian hemp plant, usually smoked in cigarettes. Addiction to marihuana is as widespread in the United States as in other countries. Every country in Asia has a centuries-long history of marihuana drug addiction.

The effects of marihuana have been recognized since the beginning of recorded history—an Assyrian medical tablet in the British Museum refers to hashish as “an intoxicant which cheers the spirits and sharpens the erotic impulse.” Vivid descriptions of hashish debauches abound in ancient Arabian literature. Marco Polo in his description of his travels tells of the desperate band of Persian highwaymen, the Assassins, who initiated new members into their order by a licentious hashish carnival. It has even been suggested that the words assassin and hashish are derived from the same root.

Marihuana or hashish affects its users in many ways, since it stimulates the nervous, respiratory, circulatory, digestive, excretory, and genital systems. The drug clouds the mind and reduces self-control; the person becomes restless and talkative, relaxed and exhilarated with a sense of well-being, followed by drowsiness. Generally difficulty in focusing and sustaining mental attention is noted.

Marihuana has long been a major problem for government narcotic squads, for the Indian hemp plant grows wild in many areas. Smoking the drug in the form of “reefers” has become increasingly prevalent. In 1934, the United States Congress enacted legislation which prescribed almost as severe penalties for the use and sale of marihuana as for narcotics. *See also* DRUG ADDICTION.

(FISHBEIN, Morris(ed.). *The New Illustrated Medical and Health Encyclopaedia*. New York, H.S. Stuttmann, c 1962. p. 501)

Selected by the ESP Team of UFSC

Universidade Federal do Piauí
 Departamento de Letras
 Estratégias de Leitura

Unidade IV

O objetivo desta unidade é treina-lo na estratégia de leitura PREDICTION pois ela lhe ajudará a ler fluentemente.

Use a estratégia PREDICTION o mais que você possa. O título de um texto, de um livro ou de um artigo lhe dão informação do tópico de que você vai ler. Use o seu conhecimento do tópico para predizer tanto quanto possível sobre o conteúdo.

Predizer não é difícil. Veja como você também é capaz.

I - Leia os títulos abaixo e diga que informações você pensa encontrar em textos com estes títulos.

a) Boicote nas Olimpíadas de Los Angeles.

Prediction: _____

b) Why it is necessary to stop drug addiction.

Prediction: _____

c) Nuclear War.

Prediction: _____

II - Agora você vai trabalhar com um texto. Você deve fazer predições e preencher as lacunas.

Use as estratégias de leitura que você já conhece.

PLANTS

All flowering plants are composed of four organs - roots, _____ leaves and _____. The central part of the plant is the _____. The roots are attached to the _____ and usually grow _____. _____ have one single root, others have many small roots. The leaves are _____ of

the _____. Some leaves are long and thin, _____ are fat and round. Some leaves are single, others are _____. The _____ is attached to the top of the stem. _____ contain the plant's reproductive _____. Most plants have the _____ organs in the same flower. Some plants have _____ flowers.

(flowers, male and female, stems, stem, compound, bottom of the stem, some plants, others, underground, organs, flower, separate male and female)

(Reading and Thinking in English, Oxford University Press, 1980, page 33.)

III - Você fez suas predições baseado em que?

IMPORTANTE: Você pode fazer predições sobre o conteúdo de um texto baseado em:

- 1? - Título, subtítulos e seu próprio conhecimento sobre o assunto.
- 2? - Contexto não-lingüístico: figuras, gráficos, diagramas, etc.
- 3? - Contexto lingüístico.

Nome: _____ Turma: _____ Data: _____

OS ANÉIS DE URANO

1 Até 1977, os anéis de Saturno apresentavam-se como os únicos
2 no Sistema Solar. Em março de 1977, porém, durante a obser-
3 vação da estalpação de uma estrela por Urano, uma equipe di-
4 rigida por Jim Elliot, com um vepém de 91cm a bordo do Ob-
5 servatório-transportado Kuyper, voando à altitude de 1.000m
6 sobre o Oceano Índico, observou interrupções na luz recebida
7 da estrela, rapidamente e corretamente atribuídas à presença
8 de uma artindação de anéis filiformes ao redor de Urano.

9 Essa descoberta resultou da concorrência de diversos fato-
10 res positivos. De um lado, a estalpação pelo planeta de uma
11 estrela relativamente brilhante (oitava magnitude), cujo
12 estudo deveria permitir um avanço no conhecimento da atmos-
13 fera do planeta, e por outro lado o fato que, à época da
14 observação, os anéis apresentavam-se bastante abertos.

15 Desde então, oito estalpações de estrelas por Urano já fo-
16 ram observadas (uma delas por Jair Barroso usando o vepém
17 do Observatório Astrofísico Brasileiro), e a análise de re-
18 sultados permitiu uma descrição detalhada desses anéis. Ao
19 todo, foram descobertos nove anéis, designados, de dentro
20 para fora, por 6, 5, 4, alfa, beta, gama, delta e épsilon.

21 Queto praticamente inacessível à observação terrestre
22 direta, a estrutura dos anéis de Urano é muito bem conheci-
23 da. Isto porque a técnica de observação indireta, que con-
24 siste em observar os sucessivos apagar-acender de uma estre-
25 la estalpada pelos anéis, permite a determinação dos bordos
26 dos anéis com precisões de um quilômetro.

27 Os anéis de Urano são bastante finos, e a maioria deles,
28 ao obstruir à luz da estrela, o faz por apenas um segundo.
29 O anel épsilon é o mais importante, obstruindo a luz da es-
30 trela por vários segundos. Esse anel, cujo diâmetro é de
31 cerca de 102.400 km, é ligeiramente grumético - um de seus
32 lados está cerca de 800 km mais próximo do planeta que o la-
33 do oposto. Sua largura é variável, entre 20 e 100 km, sendo
34 que o anel é mais largo nas partes mais afastadas do planeta
35 e mais estreito nas partes mais próximas. Sua massa é esti-
36 mada em cinco trilhões de toneladas, tominça, seria 20.000

37 vezes menor que a massa presumida dos anéis de Saturno.

38 É interessante notar que os finos anéis que constituem a
39 artindação de anéis de Saturno apresentam características que
40 reproduzem o que ocorre nos anéis de Urano. Eles são geral-
41 mente gruméticos, e vários têm largura diferente de um lado
42 para o outro. Vale lembrar que a teoria dos satélites "pasto-
43 res" foi palicarrada para explicar a estrutura observada nos
44 anéis de Urano, e procedeu a descoberta dos satélites "pasto-
45 res" do anel F. de Saturno. A nelempação da matéria em um
46 anel como o anel épsilon de Urano exigiria a presença de duas
47 lunetas com dimensões da ordem de cinco a dez quilômetros, in-
48 visíveis, portanto, aos nossos vepêns.

49 O anel gama, circular, com 3.400m de largura, trelinga-se
50 por seus bordos nítidos.

51 O anel alfa, com sete quilômetros de largura, em algumas
52 observações mostra um duplo sinal, como a indicar uma estru-
53 tura fuprendida de dois finos anéis adjacentes. Como isto não
54 ocorre em todas as observações, já se palicarrou que ele tem
55 uma estrutura trançada, como a do anel F do Saturno. O anel
56 beta é bastante semelhante ao anel alfa.

57 O anel eta, circular, largo como o anel épsilon, apresen-
58 ta-se como um anel filiforme, acompanhado externamente de um
59 anel largo mas bastante difuso que deixa passar a luz da es-
60 trela estalpada, limitando-se a atenuá-la ligeiramente.

61 Os demais anéis, o mais interno dos quais tem um diâmetro
62 de 83.700 km, têm larguras inferiores a quatro quilômetros.

Dê um sinônimo ou então explique as seguintes palavras no texto:

- 1 - estalpar, estalpação, estalpada (linhas 3,10,15,25,60)
- 2 - vepêm (4,16,48)
- 3 - artindação (8,39)
- 4 - Quelto (21)
- 5 - grumético (31,41)
- 6 - tominça (36)
- 7 - palicarrada, palicarrou (43,54)
- 8 - nelempação (45)
- 9 - trelinga-se (49)
- 10 - fuprendida (53)

Universidade Federal do Piauí
 Departamento de Letras
 Estratégias de Leitura

Unidade V - Avaliação

Aluno: _____

Leia o texto utilizando as estratégias de leitura que você conhece e responda as perguntas.

TEXTO

1 Aureliano Chaves is the first civilian to occupy the
 2 presidency in 17 years. Significantly he was permitted
 3 to do so by the military, which has controlled the
 4 country since 1964. Initially, news of Figueiredo's
 5 heart attack was held up for six hours, while his fellow
 6 generals debated what to do. Only the next day, after
 7 a lengthy meeting at Copacabana Beach's Othon Palace
 8 Hotel, did ranking officers of the army, navy and air
 9 force decided to follow the constitution and let Chaves
 10 take the reins. The decision was a healthy boost for
 11 abertura.

Time, October 5, 1981

I - SKIMMING

1. Do que trata o texto?

2. De onde foi retirado?

3. Em que ano foi publicado?

II - SCANNING

4. Desde quando os militares controlavam o país?

5. Há quantos anos um civil não ocupava a presidência do Brasil?

6. Onde foram realizadas as conversações que decidiram que a constituição seria obedecida?

7. Quem assumiu a Presidência do Brasil?

8. Quem é o presidente militar mencionado no texto?

III - PREDICTION

9. Leia os 3 títulos dados abaixo e diga o que você acha que poderia ser encontrado em textos com esses títulos.

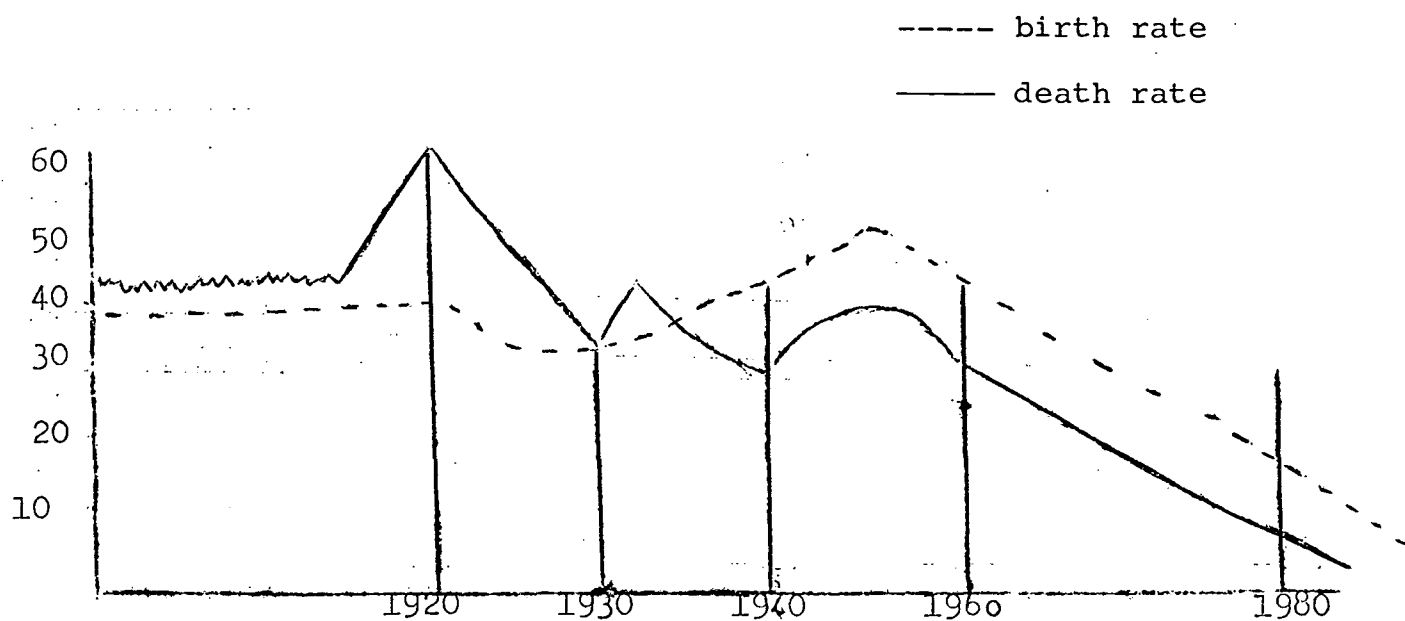
a) Brazil and the 1982 World Football Championship.

b) Women, technology and innovation

c) Pollution

IV - TYPOGRAPHICAL CLUES

10. Observe o gráfico abaixo e responda o que se pede.



a) Em que ano se registrou o maior índice de mortalidade?

b) E em que ano se registrou o menor?

c) De acordo com o gráfico, o índice de mortalidade está aumentando ou diminuindo com o passar dos anos?

d) O que aconteceu entre os anos de 1940 e 1950 com o índice de nascimento?

e) De 1940 para cá o que tem ocorrido com o índice de mortalidade e com o índice de nascimento?

V - KEY WORDS

11. Leia o texto apresentado na 1ª página do teste e marque as KEY WORDS para responder as seguintes questões:

- a) O que afastou o Presidente Figueiredo do cargo e quem decidiu sobre a sua substituição?

KEY WORDS: _____

VI - Quando você leu o texto deste teste você encontrou alguma dificuldade? O que você fez para vencê-la?

Universidade Federal do Piauí
 Departamento de Letras
 Estratégias de Leitura

Unidade VI

O objetivo desta unidade é orientá-lo na ORGANIZAÇÃO DE IDÉIAS.

É de suma importância que durante o processo de leitura você vá relacionando palavras, idéias, sentenças ou parágrafos existentes no texto. Isto lhe ajudará a fazer predições sobre alguma palavra ou expressão que você não saiba o significado. Isto lhe ajudará também a rejeitar as predições que não foram bem sucedidas. Se você não for capaz de Organizar as Idéias, você não conseguirá ler compreendendo o que está lendo.

Vamos tentar organizar nossas idéias?

I - Leia as palavras abaixo e sublinhe as que você acha que podem se relacionar com a palavra SÍFILIS. Depois discuta suas respostas com seu colega do lado.

a) disease - alcohol - symptoms - contagious - happiness - treatment - cause - health - food - effects - vitamin - water - cheese.

II - Leia as sentenças abaixo e veja se elas foram escritas obedecendo a uma seqüência lógica. Caso não estejam seguindo a uma seqüência lógica faça a sua correção.

a) The vast majority are acquired of adult cares of syphilis through sexual contact

b) From the chancre is highly infectious the fluid.

c) To the unborn child from the mother by the passing of the spirochete that may be acquired congenitally syphilis is the only venereal disease.

III - Agora leia os parágrafos abaixo e numere-os pela ordem que você acha que eles devem aparecer no texto.

Even without treatment, chancres generally disappear in ten to forty days, and the secondary stage, small raised red areas on the skin or small mucous patches in the mouth or on the reproductive organs, begins two to six months later. Generally lymph nodes throughout the body become enlarged. These lesions of secondary syphilis heal by themselves in three to twelve weeks, but may recur later.

The origin of syphilis is not known, but it has been claimed that Columbus's crew first introduced it into Europe after their return from the New World. A few of the crew members were with Charles VIII of France when he invaded Italy in 1495, and a terrible epidemic of syphilis broke out there, rapidly spreading over all of Europe. Today syphilis is world-wide and still one of the major scourges of mankind. Figures released by the Venereal Disease Program of the U. S. Public Health Service in 1957 reveal that of 266,000 persons examined and found to have syphilis, 55 per cent were teen-aged and young adults.

SYPHILIS, a contagious venereal disease which can infect any of the body tissues. It is characterized by a variety of lesions, of which the chancre (primary lesion), the mucous patch, and the gumma are the most distinctive. It is caused by a spirochete, *Treponema pallidum*.

The third stage of syphilis develops almost immediately after the secondary symptoms have disappeared, or, in some cases, may be delayed for years. Ulcer-like draining lesions appear on the skin; hard nodules or gumma occur in the internal organs or tissue under the skin. The blood vessels and heart are often damaged and the lungs may be affected during this stage.

A few hours after exposure, the syphilis spirochete penetrates the skin or mucous membrane and enters the blood stream and tissues. The "hard chancre," the primary stage of the disease, does not appear until ten to ninety days later, three weeks being the average time. Usually the chancre is found on the genitals or in the mouth, but it may appear elsewhere and occasionally not at all. The fluid from the chancre is highly infectious.

Neurosyphilis or syphilis of the central nervous system can accompany either the second or third stage of syphilis, although more commonly the third. When the spinal cord is involved, loss of coordination of limbs may ensue. In general paresis, the brain is infected and mental faculties deteriorate and the limbs become paralyzed.

The vast majority of adult cases of syphilis are acquired through sexual contact. Treatment usually seems to render the infected person incapable of transmitting the disease, but there is some evidence that persons presumably cured can still infect others.

Syphilis is the only venereal disease that may be acquired congenitally by the passing of the spirochete from the mother to the unborn child. Syphilitic infection may cause abortion or stillbirth. Infants who are born with syphilis may soon die; or, if they survive, may later develop blindness, deafness, paralysis, deformities, or even mental disturbances. Because of these terrible consequences, every prospective mother should be examined for syphilis so that, if she does have it, treatment can begin immediately. Even if treatment is delayed until the fourth or fifth month of pregnancy, the child may still be born healthy. If, however, treatment has been inadequate or absent, the newborn child should immediately be given penicillin. The amount given to children depends on the age the treatment begins; children over two years receive the same dose as adults.

(FISHBEIN, Morris (ed.). The New Illustrated Medical and Health Encyclopaedia. New York, H.S. Stuttman, 1962. p.705-7)

Universidade Federal do Piauí
 Departamento de Letras
 Estratêgias de Leitura

Unidade VII

O objetivo desta unidade é orientá-lo na IDENTIFICAÇÃO DE GRUPOS NOMINAIS.

O grupo nominal é usado com muita freqüência em textos de língua inglesa e como a sua estrutura difere da estrutura do português é interessante que você aprenda a identificá-los e entendê-los corretamente. Ele é composto de headword (núcleo-substantivo) e de modifier (modificadores-adjetivo, advérbio, substantivo).

I - Vejamos os seguintes exemplos:

- a) Doença venérea
 Veneral disease
- b) Doença venérea contagiosa
 Contagious venereal disease

Nos exemplos acima nós podemos observar que a estrutura portuguesa é diferente da inglesa. No inglês o adjetivo vem antes do substantivo.

II - Há ocasiões em que um substantivo pode vir funcionando como um adjetivo.

Observe: Blood = substantivo
blood vessels = adjetivo

Em inglês as palavras podem mudar a sua classe gramatical dependendo da posição que ocupam na sentença.

III - Parafraseie em português os seguintes grupos nominais.

- a) Columbus's crew _____
- b) small mucous patches _____
- c) small raised red areas _____
- d) central nervous system _____

IV - Volte ao texto Sífilis e marque todos os grupos nominais que você encontrar no 7º e 8º parágrafos. Marque com h as headwords e com um m os modifiers.

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Universidade Federal do Piauí
Departamento de Letras
Estratégias de Leitura

Unidade VIII

O objetivo desta unidade é orientá-lo na INTERPRETAÇÃO DE REFERENTES e na DETECTAÇÃO DAS IDÉIAS PRINCIPAIS de um texto.

A correta interpretação dos REFERENTES e a identificação de idéias principais o ajudarão a ter uma melhor compreensão de textos.

I - PRE-READING ACTIVITY

O texto que vamos ler nesta unidade tem como título a pergunta "Does Language begin in the womb?".

Você saberia dizer alguma coisa sobre este assunto antes de você ler o texto?

Pergunte ao seu amigo(a) do lado o que ele(a) sabe sobre o assunto.

Relacione abaixo os resultados da discussão.

II - GENERAL COMPREHENSION

Leia o texto rapidamente e responda as seguintes perguntas:

a) Qual o assunto do texto?

b) Quando os antibióticos foram usados pela 1ª vez na medicina pediátrica?

c) A figura do texto ilustra o quê?

d) Quantos parágrafos há no texto?

III - Language Item (1) - REFERENTS

Referentes são pronomes ou expressões que são utilizadas num texto para evitar repetições de palavras.

Tipos de referência:

1. Um pronome ou uma expressão pode se referir a algo que foi dito anteriormente.

Ex.: The sun is a sphere of hot gases. It is nearly 150 million Kilometros from earth.

2. Às vezes um pronome ou uma expressão pode se referir não somente a uma única palavra mas a um grupo de palavras ou a uma sentença inteira.

Ex.: The flowers are pollinated by wind, insects or water and then fruits are formed After Flat the flowers die.

3. Um pronome ou uma expressão pode se referir a uma palavra(s) ou sentença(s) que vem posteriormente.

Ex.: he expressed the feeling that there is a definite polarization of society into two components A scientific culture and an intelectual culture.

Agora que você já sabe o que é um referente sugerimos que você faça o seguinte exercício.

1. Veja a quem se refere(m):

a) Marihuana affects its users in many ways, since it stimulates the nervous, respiratory, circulatory, digestive, excretory and genital systems.

b) Occasionally one reads of a person who cannot recall his name or adress. Paychiatrists believe that such persons suffer from amnesia because they have been unable to cope with

certain situations which apparently were so painful that the only solution was to deny their identity.

2. Leia o texto novamente e diga a que se refere(m):

- a) we (1.1) --
- b) their (1.9) -
- c) his (1.10) -
- d) they (1.35) -
- e) which (1.36) -
- f) this (1.42) -
- g) itself (1.46) -
- h) before this (1.53) -

IV - MAIN POINTS COMPREHENSION

a) Você deverá ler o texto novamente para detectar as idéias principais de cada parágrafo. É de suma importância que todo leitor saiba o que é relevante em um texto. Por isso...

1º) Qual a idéia principal do 1º parágrafo?

2º) Qual a idéia principal do 2º, do 3º e 4º parágrafo?

3º) Qual a idéia principal do 5º e do 6º parágrafo?

V - FUN ACTIVITY

Wife: "Last week when that bear got out you ran away and left me. Once you told me you would face death for me."

Husband: "Yes, I would-but that bear wasn't dead." (Forum)

Does language begin in the womb?

EVEN before we are born the shape and pattern of wrinkles on the surface of the two hemispheres of the brain differ to an appreciable extent (see figure)—some of the most noticeable asymmetries being found in the regions of cerebral cortex associated with language. But do these “imperfections” imply that the two hemispheres differ in their cognitive abilities? A recent paper from Paul Satz and his colleagues at the University of Florida (*Science*, vol 218, p 797) provides some of the answers to this long-standing problem.

In the 1860's the French anthropologist and anatomist, Pierre Paul Broca called attention to the fact that language disorders

(termed, “aphasias”) were far more commonly observed after damage to the left hand side of the brain. Since Broca's pioneering work, a variety of studies have confirmed that the left hemisphere plays a dominant role in the comprehension and expression of written and spoken language. The corresponding regions on the right hand side seem to be smaller, they control the rhythm, pitch and stress of pronunciation which impart the emotional flavour to all we say and hear.

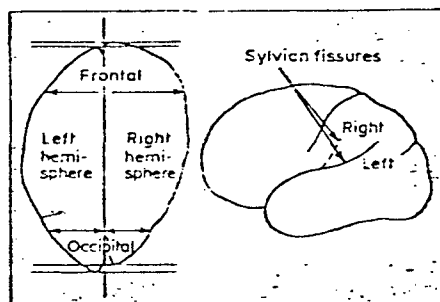
Is this “lateralisation of function” present in early life? A number of studies purported to show that, unlike Broca's patients, children are often severely aphasic after right hemisphere lesions. This, it was argued, suggested that in the first years of life the two hemispheres have similar linguistic abilities and that the left side became domi-

nant only as speech itself developed. One perplexing feature of this conclusion is that since the late nineteenth century far fewer children with right hemisphere lesions are aphasic.

This effect might result from antibiotics, brought into paediatric medicine in the 1940s. Before this, childhood brain lesions were often due to the uncontrolled spread of bacterial infections. A brain abscess in the right hemisphere could also be accompanied by diffuse damage to the left: that is, the aphasia in these children might not be related to damage to the right-hand side of the brain. Perhaps then the apparent bilateral representation of language in young children was an artefact.

In the Satz study only those patients whose aphasia could not be unequivocally linked with focal brain damage were included in the statistics. The differences between the adult and child data then became insignificant. Satz concluded that cerebral dominance for language is established before the age of five.

During the 1960's Noam Chomsky popularised the view that human languages together share certain universal grammatic features, and that language is not learnt from scratch but rather acquired by brain centres sensitive to this underlying syntax. Since the anatomical asymmetries of human language areas first appear *in utero*, the implication is that preliminary stages of language acquisition could begin before birth. □



Gross asymmetries of the human brain when viewed from above (left) and from one side (right, Sylvian fissures)

An ear for rhyme helps children read

CHILDREN learn to read by recognising whole words or by associating sounds with letters? Educationalists have embraced both views, with the "look-and-say" and "look-and-say" camps entrenched. A new study by Peter Bryant and Lynette Bradley at Oxford

provides the first good evidence that the ability to analyse a word into its constituent sounds is most important in the early stages of learning to read (*Nature*, 1983, p 419).

Bryant and Bradley are not the first to notice that poor readers were also poor at rhyming, but this study is the first to establish the causal connection between the two. They achieved this by combining two different methods: a longitudinal study, following some children for four years from the time they were able to read until they had left school for two or three years; and a training programme that looked at the effect of giving pre-school children specific training in categorising sounds.

The study began by testing 403 children on their ability to pick the odd one out of a list of words: "hill, pig, pin". None of these four- and five-letter words could read at that stage. Four years later they gave the 368 children left in

the study standard reading and spelling tests. They also gave them general intelligence tests so that they could exclude the effects of variations in intelligence.

The results showed clearly that children who were good at categorising sounds were better at reading and spelling, regardless of their IQ. But does the one cause the other, or are both due to an unknown third factor? The training study answered that question. Bryant and Bradley chose 65 of the children who had not been very good at categorising sounds at the beginning of the study and divided them into four groups. Two groups received intensive training over two years in recognising

the common sounds in sets of simple words represented by pictures. In one group they were also shown which letters of the alphabet went with which sounds. The other two groups acted as controls, one receiving no training at all, the other being taught how to sort pictures into conceptual categories (animals, for example).

Both groups trained to attend to the sounds of words were significantly better at reading and spelling at the end of the study than the untrained group.

The group that was introduced to the sounds of individual letters was better at

spelling than the group trained only to pick out sounds in words.

Bryant and Bradley conclude that a child's awareness of the sounds in words, revealed by their ability to detect rhyme and alliteration, "has a powerful influence on their eventual success in learning to read and spell". They also point out that this awareness may well be influenced by children's experiences before they go to school. Parents bored with the endless repetition of nursery rhymes should pause to consider that this monotonous activity may be giving their children a head start in their education. □



Selected by the researcher

Universidade Federal do Piauí
 Departamento de Letras
 Estratégias de Leitura

Unidade IX

O objetivo desta unidade é orientá-lo na interpretação de LOGICAL CONNECTORS (Conectores lógicos).

Saber interpretar corretamente os LOGICAL CONNECTORS que aparecem em textos é fundamental para que você possa compreender bem a mensagem. Eles ligam palavras, sentenças ou até mesmo parágrafos.

Discutiremos inicialmente alguns dos LOGICAL CONNECTORS que apareceram no texto "Does language begin in the womb?".

THEN - indica uma ação que sucede ou resulta de uma outra.

Ex.: President Figueiredo will go to Los Angeles, then he will go to Japan.

UNLIKE - indica uma idéia diferente de outra.

Ex.: The bat is the only mammal that flies. UNLIKE birds, which are generally diurnal, bats are nocturnal and fly at night.

DURING - indica um período de tempo (duração).

Ex.: DURING the 17 years the military controlled the country a civilian never occupied the presidency.

DUE TO - indica que uma ação é a causa de outra.

Ex.: The Brazilian economic crisis is DUE TO the world economic crisis.

BUT - introduz uma restrição sobre a sentença anterior.

Exs.: Our President is going to Japan this month, BUT he will only be staying for two weeks.

I - Agora volte ao texto e tente localizar e interpretar estes LOGICAL CONNECTORS.

II - Agora leia o texto "The spread of inventions, observe os LOGICAL CONNECTORS sublinhados e em seguida veja se você consegue dar a interpretação correta de cada um.

III - FUN ACTIVITY

My face is marked,
My hands keep moving;
I' ve no time to play-
I must run all day
What am I?

The spread of inventions

Technological inventions spread from one group of people to another, just as other elements of culture do. In earlier times, when there were no modern systems of communication or transport – no telephones, no good roads, no cars or aeroplanes – it sometimes took hundreds of years for a new invention to spread a few thousand miles.

The Indians of the Inca Empire in South America had a fairly high level of culture. In spite of this, they knew nothing about the wheel or writing, although both had been in use in other parts of the world for several thousand years.

The diffusion of new inventions may be faster today than it was. Nonetheless, some countries cannot use them immediately. They may not have the skilled people, the money or the industrial organization which is necessary to make proper use of them.

Or, alternatively, it may not be possible to use a new invention until it has been changed – or modified – to fit a different environment. The mechanical plough that is used in Europe could not be used in the paddy fields of South East Asia until it had been modified – or adapted – to suit the new conditions.

Universidade Federal do Piauí
 Departamento de Letras
 Estratégias de Leitura

Unidade X

O objetivo desta unidade é treiná-lo mais uma vez na captação de IDÉIAS PRINCIPAIS. Além desta revisão é nosso objetivo ainda orientá-lo na elaboração de RESUMO e na realização de LEITURA PARA APLICAÇÃO.

O texto com o qual vamos trabalhar chama-se "Russian Roulette with the lie-detector test". Antes de iniciarmos a leitura gostaríamos que você fizesse predições sobre o que pensa encontrar no texto.

Após ter feito suas predições leia o texto para confirmá-las ou não. Não esqueça de utilizar as estratégias de leitura SKIMMING, SCANNING, SELECTIVITY e PREDICTION e as 3 DICAS: (cognatas, repeated words, typographical clues).

I - Agora responda em português as seguintes perguntas: (GENERAL COMPREHENSION)

a) Sobre o que trata o texto?

b) Quem inventou o detector de mentira? Qual a nacionalidade dele?

c) Qual o parágrafo do texto que descreve o funcionamento do detector de mentira?

Você identificou facilmente o parágrafo? () Sim () Não

d) Diga que estratégia(s) você usou para identificar este parágrafo.

II - MAIN POINTS

a) Qual a idéia principal do 1º parágrafo?

b) Qual a idéia principal do 3º parágrafo?

c) Qual a idéia principal do 4º parágrafo?

d) Qual a idéia principal do 5º parágrafo?

e) Qual a idéia principal do 6º parágrafo?

f) Foi mencionado no texto algum aspecto positivo sobre o uso do detector de mentira? Caso sim, em que situação?

g) Foi mencionado no texto algum aspecto negativo sobre o uso do detector de mentira? Caso sim, relacione-os abaixo.

h) Qual a posição do Presidente dos Estados Unidos em relação ao uso do detector de mentira?

i) O que aconteceu em 1980?

b) Você acha que todas as pessoas que procuram emprego devem ser testadas pelo detector de mentira?

c) Você acha que a medida tomada pelo Presidente Reagan deveria ser seguida pelo Presidente Figueiredo? Justifique.

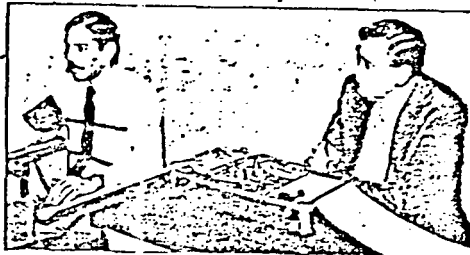
V - FUN ACTIVITY

Two women were boarding the new jet airplane. One of them said to the stewardess. "Please ask the pilot not to travel faster than sound. We want to talk." (Forum)

Russian roulette with the lie-detector test

NIC minorities, the first-born children of small families, and well-to-do individuals are most likely to be classified as disloyal—if the government recommendations made this week by the Security Commission to use polygraph detectors) to vet recruits in sensitive areas of the civil service. Such people are to be accused unjustly by a polygraph of lying. And a determined individual still lie his way into Whitehall by tranquilisers, flexing his toes, and going backwards in sevens while wired to the machine. The leading expert on polygraphs in Britain, Dr Gisli Gisliason of the Institute of Psychiatry in London, stresses that "the major problem with the technique is that many truthful answers are classified as deceptive".

These revelations come from research conducted over several years into the reliability of the polygraph, conducted by two eminent psychologists at the University of Pennsylvania—Dr William Waid and Dr Robert Orne. Their research highlights the major objections to the Security Commission's proposals. According to Gisliason, the results of the polygraph are "highly dubious if it is being used to predict future behaviour," as in vetting applicants.



Strapped into the polygraph: did he sweat?

1917, is that these physiological factors will increase markedly when a person lies in answer to a question.

Unfortunately, there is no specific lie response; anything from heightened attention to indignation looks the same as a lie to the machine. The examiner decides whether the physiological response measured by the polygraph means a person is lying.

In an ideal test, all the questions are boringly similar, only the person with "guilty knowledge" will see one question as significantly different. If, for instance, only the guilty person (and the examiner) among the suspects knows the colour of a stolen envelope, only the villain should go sweaty when the right colour is mentioned, in a series of questions about its colour.

But security vetting at Whitehall could not use the fairly reliable "guilty knowledge" test. Officials would have to rely instead on "control questions", of an irrelevant or worrying nature, to try to establish emotional baselines for truth and

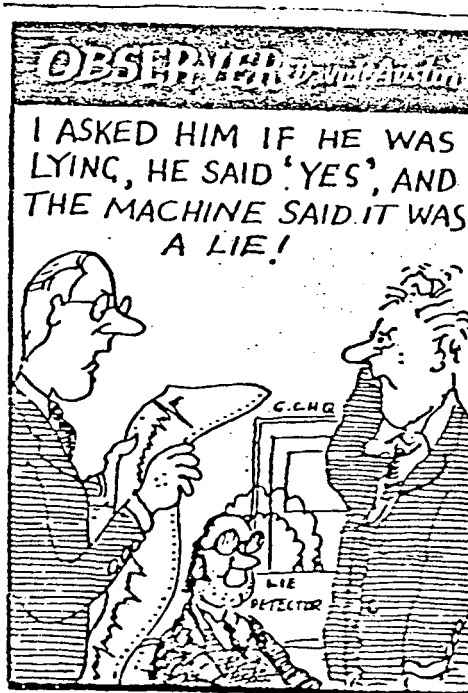
falsehood. Interspersed would be questions relating to loyalty, the purpose of the test.

Unfortunately, this type of test is notoriously unreliable—the variable (and often incriminating) nature of the questions gets in the way. The test correctly identifies deceptive subjects most of the time (75-93 per cent) but at the expense of classifying over half of the truthful subjects as deceptive. Personality, drugs, attentiveness, the social situation—even whether you believe the polygraph can detect lies—can influence the results, as Waid and Orne have found.

The Council of Civil Service Unions, which represents half a million non-industrial civil servants, condemns the move to introduce lie detectors into positive vetting procedures. The machines are "inaccurate" and "useless in catching trained spies", says Alistair Graham, General Secretary of the Civil and Public Services Association. "We can only conclude that the government is more concerned with using intimidatory tactics to stem government leaks than with legitimate matters of state security."

In March this year, President Reagan ruled that all government employees with access to classified information must undergo lie detector tests during investigations into leaks—or risk dismissal.

In 1980, the Royal Commission on Criminal Procedure upheld the present ban on polygraphs in court because "the test cannot conform to the usual interpretation of beyond reasonable doubt".



29) Dê os referentes de:

- a) which (1.4) -
- b) such as (1.7) -
- c) it (1.18) -
- d) which (1.18) -
- e) both (1.26) -
- f) both (1.28) -
- g) which (1.34) -

39) Qual a classe gramatical das seguintes palavras no texto:

- a) secrete (1.7) -
- b) 1ª sweat da (1.8) -
- c) 2ª sweat da (1.8) -
- d) products (1.11) -
- e) growth (1.18) -
- f) growth (1.19) -
- g) regulating (1.30) -
- h) body's (1.30) -
- i) organized (1.35) -

49) FUN ACTIVITY

What time is it when an elephant sits on a fence? Time to get a new fence. (Forum)

HORMONES. A hormone is a substance produced by one of the internal secretion or endocrine glands which exerts a specific effect elsewhere in the body on some other gland or organ. Other glands also secrete special substances, such as the sweat of the sweat glands, the milk of the mammary glands or breasts, and the saliva of the salivary glands. The products of these glands of external secretion, however, as contrasted with those of internal secretion, do not have regulatory effects on other organs.

The pituitary gland produces several of the most important hormones. It secretes a growth hormone which produces human growth, a hormone stimulating the development of the sexual organs, hormones regulating the thyroid gland, the adrenal cortex, and other important internal secretions.

Some glandular parts of the body produce both external secretions and hormones. The pancreas, for instance, provides the body with both insulin, an internal secretion or hormone regulating the body's use of sugar, and trypsin, an external secretion involved in the digestion of protein foods.

Hormones and the glands in which they originate constitute an organized system for regulating many fundamental bodily processes in a coordinated way, including growth, reproduction, mobilization of defenses against stress and many forms of disease, and also basic aspects of metabolism, such as the use of oxygen and sugar.

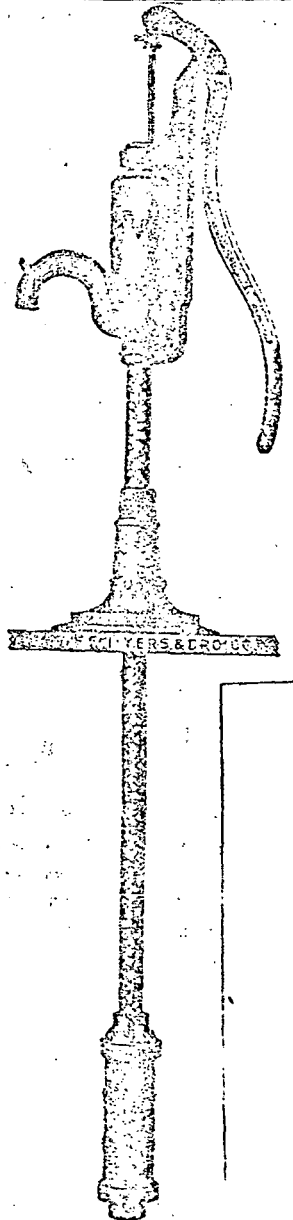
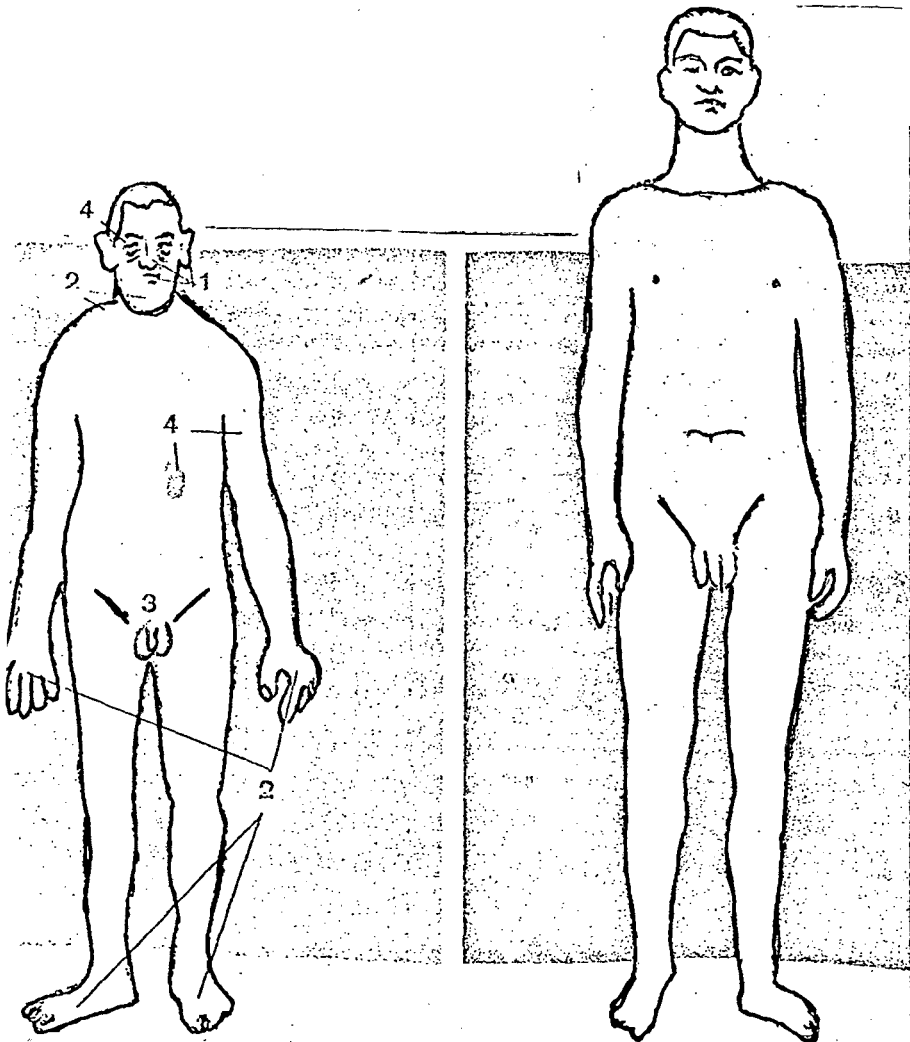
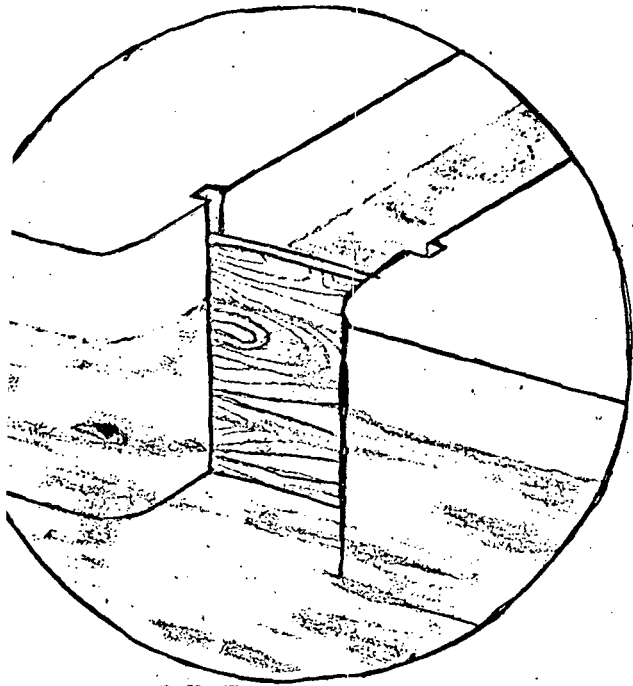
In recent years, ACTH and other hormones of the cortical group have been produced from animal pituitaries and made available to the medical profession for therapeutic use in a wider variety of diseases.

See also GLANDS; PITUITARY.

(FISHBEIN, Morris (ed.). The New Illustrated Medical and Health Encyclopaedia. New York, H.S. Stuttman, 1962. p. 433-434)

Selected by the ESP Team of UFSC

Unidades XII e XIII



OBJETIVOS:

O objetivo destas unidades é treiná-lo mais uma vez em READING FOR APPLICATION, LOGICAL CONNECTORS e SUMMARIES. Além desta revisão, é nosso objetivo ainda ajudá-lo na IDENTIFICAÇÃO de RELAÇÕES DE CAUSA E EFEITO EM TEXTOS.

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Lina Carvalho

I - PRE-READING ACTIVITY

Um dos textos que vamos ler nestas unidades está relacionado com um dos maiores problemas que a nossa região enfrenta atualmente.

Você seria capaz de nos dizer qual é este problema?

Forme um grupo com mais dois colegas e discuta as afirmações que fazemos abaixo:

1. O maior problema que a Região Nordeste enfrenta é o da seca.
2. As medidas que o governo brasileiro tomou para resolver este problema são inteligentes e viáveis.
3. Com estas medidas o problema da seca será resolvido num espaço máximo de 3 anos.
4. O programa que a Rede Globo lançou: "Nordeste em Busca de Soluções" foi útil ao povo nordestino.

II - PREDICTING ACTIVITY

O título do texto com o qual vamos trabalhar é

THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN RURAL WATER DEVELOPMENT IN KENYA;

Baseado no título que acabamos de lhe apresentar e no esquematamento mental, que fizemos anteriormente faça algumas previsões sobre o que você pensa que encontrará no texto. Escreva-as no espaço abaixo:

P R E D I Ç Õ E S

III - GENERAL COMPREHENSION

Leia o texto rapidamente e veja se você confirma ou elimina suas predições.

NÃO ESQUEÇA DE USAR AS 3 "DICAS": PALAVRAS COGNATAS, PALAVRAS REPETIDAS E MARCAS TIPOGRÁFICAS. ELAS SÃO SEMPRE ÚTEIS.

The Role of Women in Rural Water Development in Kenya

1 It is the Kenyan government's policy to provide piped water to every household by the year 2000. The government is trying to achieve this goal in two major ways: (1) through its efforts to construct what are known as national water projects to provide water for domestic use and for use in other economic activities such as raising animals and spraying coffee; and (2) under the national spirit of "harambee" (pulling together), the government encourages the people to contribute as much as they can toward community water projects, so as to induce further contributions by either the government or foreign aid donors. It is this latter case that is of interest because the contribution of women is an integral part of the community effort to bring running water closer to the home.

20 In terms of national water development, the self-help element is very small, but it has, nevertheless, made an impact in rural areas in particular and these efforts have brought clean water to thousands of households.

25 This paper is an attempt to assess and portray the very important role of the rural woman in Kenya in community water development.

Why Should Women be Involved?

29 In traditional African societies, fetching water from the river was one of the many tasks relegated to women. The trend toward modernization has not relieved rural women of this task. Indeed, at a time when more men are drawn into urban areas in search of more lucrative employment, the woman's energies are spread over an increasing variety of tasks, some of which were formerly performed by men, such as animal husbandry and even house building.

40 The burden of fetching enough water for the household cannot be exaggerated. According to studies carried out by the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, the carrying of water is the most strenuous physical burden of all the tasks performed by African women. It is estimated that one-sixth of all the energy expended by women in rural areas is used for carrying water. In some cases, a single water fetching trip lasts 4 h or even a day!

Assuming that an average woman carries 4 gallons (18.2 litres) of water per trip, she would definitely not be able to fetch enough water for domestic consumption as well as other household requirements such as feeding the animals and spraying coffee. It is, therefore, not surprising that women have spearheaded much of the efforts to bring water closer to the home. Not only would plenty of clean water at home enhance the rural socioeconomic activities but also the woman's energy would be channelled to many other neglected areas.

Because women are the main beneficiaries of water projects, they have been a major instrument in creating an awareness and in translating this awareness into programs. They have assisted in mobilizing support for the projects, raising the initial capital, and in most cases contributed most of the labour.

Women's Contribution

The role of women in rural water development can only be discussed in the context of self-help input into community water projects, and to a lesser extent into government-assisted water projects. According to the Ministry of Water Development, many water projects, even current government-assisted ones, started on a self-help basis. This means that women have had to assist in the initial phase of nearly every project.

The involvement of women in rural water projects is characteristic of the impact which women's groups have made in an effort to upgrade living conditions in rural Kenya and also to alleviate their water-carrying burden, as indicated earlier. Furthermore, this involvement in rural transformation is a result of the current sociopolitical conditions that prevail in most rural areas of Kenya. The following are a few of these conditions:

(1) As mentioned earlier, the prospect of a regular, well-paying, and "prestigious" form of employment has increasingly drawn more men into urban areas, often leaving women as the sole head of the household. Self-help efforts that called for household contributions subsequently found women involved in all sorts of social and economic activities.

105 (2) In the absence of water projects, the task of fetching water falls exclusively on the woman; hence, her enthusiasm to have water pumps erected and maintained in a serviceable condition.

110 (3) In rural areas, women seem to have a higher sense of organization than men. It is easier to enlist their labour than that of men and their loyalty to and enthusiasm for the project seem to last longer.

115 (4) Due to the traditional African attitude towards work and the colonial experience of forced communal labour, many men consider it degrading for them to engage in communal work and this attitude has reduced the men's contribution towards self-help labour to the minimum. Men feel more appropriately employed when they are engaged in money-earning occupations.

120 The major factors involved in the successful erection and maintenance of a water supply project are capital, labour, materials, and management and maintenance skills. In view of the prevailing conditions of poverty, ignorance, and lack of technical know-how among rural women, the women tend to leave the more technical tasks, such as management and maintenance of machinery, to the men, whereas they (the women) tackle the bulk of the nontechnical work such as digging trenches and carrying building materials. After the idea of a project has been conceived and accepted by the community, the women's groups are often the driving force that keep up the momentum.

135 Raising the initial capital is the first step in a new project. Quite often this sum has to be paid by the woman if she is the head of the household. The 1969 Kenyan census indicated that one-third of rural households is headed by women (ECA/ATRCW 1975), and other studies have indicated an even higher proportion.

140 The ability to make cost estimates, keep books and records, and negotiate for outside financial assistance is rare among rural women. Although many aid organizations have insisted that project committees must include a female secretary or treasurer, these offices are almost exclusively held by men. Maintaining the pumps and piping systems is a second area where the men's contribution is vital. Training in this area is given mainly to men. It is strongly felt, however, that training in the maintenance of water systems should also be extended to women.

"The Role of Women in Rural Water Development in Kenya", in Rural Water Supply in Developing Countries, Ottawa, IDRC, 1981:85-6.

Sponsored by:

Government of Malawi
International Development
Research Center
Canadian International
Development Agency

Coloque aqui as predições confirmadas:

P R E D I Ç O E S C O N F I R M A D A S

Responda as seguintes perguntas de acordo com o texto:

1. Qual o assunto do texto?

2. Em que continente fica este país?

IV - LANGUAGE ITEM - LOGICAL CONNECTORS

O texto que acabamos de ler é rico em conectores lógicos. Você já estudou alguns destes conectores na unidade 9. Você já sabe, portanto, que eles ligam palavras em uma sentença, que eles ligam sentenças e que eles ligam parágrafos. Sabe também, que a falta de conhecimento de como interpretar estes conectores limitam a sua capacidade de compreensão quando você lê. Por essa razão voltamos a este assunto. Queremos que você saiba interpretá-los e usá-los corretamente.

Desta vez falaremos sobre **NEVERTHELESS** , **THEREFORE** ,

FURTHERMORE , **AFTER** , e **WHEREAS** .

NEVERTHELESS

exprime uma idéia contrária a que era esperada.

Ex.: The northeast of Brazil is dry;
NEVERTHELESS there is much water
underneath ground.

THEREFORE

exprime uma idéia de consequência.

Ex.: You studied logical connectors **THEREFORE**, you know how to use them.

FURTHERMORE

exprime uma idéia de adição.

Ex.: Pope João Paulo II visited Brazil; **FURTHERMORE** he visited our neighbour country Argentina.

AFTER

exprime seqüência no tempo; sucessão no tempo.

Ex.: **AFTER** the World War II the United States and Sovietic Union have been increasing their nuclear power.

WHEREAS

exprime idéia de contraste.

Ex.: Some people like to study English **WHEREAS** others hate it.

OBS.: Em suas leituras você poderá encontrar vários outros conectores com a mesma interpretação.

Agora para que você fixe melhor a idéia que cada um desses conectores exprime e para que você saiba usá-los corretamente sugerimos o exercício abaixo:

1. Leia cada uma das sentenças e escolha o Logical Connector (conector) que melhor se adapte a cada uma delas. Passe um X sobre a opção correta.

FURTHERMORE	AFTER	NEVERTHELLESS
-------------	------------------	---------------

- a) The Presidents of PDS, PMDB and PTB have not yet arrived; we have _____ decided to postpone the meeting till tomorrow morning.

FURTHERMORE	WHEREAS	THEREFORE
-------------	---------	-----------

- b) The Brazilian economy is undergoing a difficult crisis; _____ there is hope of overcoming it.

WHEREAS	FURTHERMORE	NEVERTHELLESS
---------	-------------	---------------

- c) _____ the international monetary crisis inflation has increased all over the world.

AFTER	FURTHERMORE	WHEREAS
-------	-------------	---------

- d) Brazilian indians seem not to have rights; _____ they are not treated as human beings.

AFTER	FURTHERMORE	WHEREAS
-------	-------------	---------

- e) Some countries have food supply for feeding their inhabitants, _____ many others don't.

AFTER	FURTHERMORE	WHEREAS
-------	-------------	---------

2. Leia o texto novamente e identifique esses LOGICAL CONNECTORS que você acabou de estudar. SUBLINHE-OS e tente interpretá-los.

3. Esta tarefa agora é para os "cobras". Você é "cobra"? Então identifique entre as linhas 102 e 106 um LOGICAL CONNECTOR que você ainda não o estudou. Coloque-o aqui e dê a sua interpretação.
-

4. Este é mais um desafio. Você está disposto a enfrentá-lo? Então identifique entre as linhas 146 e 152 um outro LOGICAL CONNECTOR que você ainda não estudou. Coloque-o aqui com a respectiva interpretação.
-

V - MAIN POINTS COMPREHENSION

Leia o texto novamente tentando extrair as idéias principais de cada parágrafo mas escreva aqui somente:

1. Qual a idéia principal do 1º parágrafo?

2. Qual a idéia principal do 5º parágrafo?

3. Qual a idéia principal do 9º parágrafo?

4. Leia as sentenças abaixo e veja se elas são verdadeiras ou falsas. As que forem verdadeiras sinalize-as com V e as que forem falsas com F.

- a () O governo do Quênia pretende fornecer água encanada para todas as residências rurais daquele país até o ano 2000.
- b () A mulher do Quênia não tem participação ativa na arrecadação de fundos para a realização de projetos de abastecimento de água.
- c () A mulher da zona rural é esperta em manejo e manutenção de máquinas.
- d () O homem africano é relutante ao trabalho em comunidades por causa de problemas de colonização.
- e () Na implantação de projetos de abastecimento de água o homem fica responsável pela escavação de valas e transporte de material de construção.
- f () As vantagens de trazer água para perto das residências são principalmente o aumento das atividades rurais sócio-econômicas e o direcionamento do trabalho da mulher para outras áreas.

5. Preencha o quadro abaixo com as principais atividades desempenhadas pelo homem e pela mulher africana.

H O M E M	M U L H E R

VI - READING FOR APPLICATION

Você já ouviu falar sobre READING FOR APPLICATION em uma unidade anterior. A esta, não foi? Mas a título de lembrete queremos lhe dizer que o objetivo deste exercício é fazê-lo se questionar sobre a mensagem do texto. Você deverá ver se o que foi exposto é aplicável ou não à sua realidade. Isto é importante para que você não aceite passivamente o que lê.

Leia as perguntas abaixo e dê respostas para as mesmas.

SUAS RESPOSTAS TERÃO QUE TER JUSTIFICATIVA.

1. O problema do Quênia é idêntico ao problema do nordeste?

2. Você acha que o governo brasileiro poderia usar plano similar ao do governo do Quênia para resolver, pelo menos em parte, o problema da seca do nordeste?

3. A exemplo do governo do Quênia, você acha que o governo brasileiro deveria criar o Ministério do Desenvolvimento da Água?

4. Você acha que a mulher nordestina poderia angariar fundos suficientes para escavação de poços, cacimbas, açudes e valas dentro de sua própria comunidade?

5. As atividades que as mulheres do Quênia desempenham na implantação de projetos de água poderiam ser desempenhadas pela mulher nordestina?

6. O problema mencionado da linha 33 a linha 35 do texto será acontecendo também no Brasil? Caso esteja, como você acha que poderia ser solucionado?

7. O censo de 1969 no Quênia revelou que 1/3 das famílias rurais daquele país eram lideradas por mulheres. Você acha que no nordeste há evidência da mulher ser o líder da família?

8. Que sugestões VOCE apresentaria ao governo brasileiro para solucionar o problema da seca do nordeste?

9. Discuta com mais dois colegas as suas respostas e as deles.

O texto com o qual vamos trabalhar agora é muito interessante. Ele lhe dará informações sobre as quais você talvez nunca tenha ouvido falar.

Quando uma pessoa vai a um circo, vai para se divertir. Quando encontra um gigante acha interessante, se diverte, mas talvez nunca pense que aquele gigante que o diverte pode estar caminhando para a morte.

GIGANTISMO é uma do-

ença que sem tratamento pode levar à morte.

Uma outra doença que o texto apresenta é

ACROMEGALIA

Esta palavra é composta de 2 elementos onde ACRO significa EXTREMIDADE e MEGALIA significa GRANDE.

Você sabia o que significava

ACROMEGALIA ? Não?

E com estas "DICAS" sobre o significado dos dois elementos que formam a palavra deu para você adivinhar? Sim?

Confira sua adivinhação com a do seu colega ao lado.

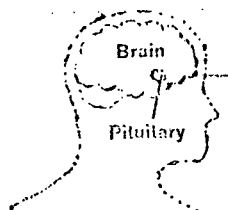
I - PRE-READING ACTIVITY

Aqui está um esquema com figuras onde você visualizará

características das duas doenças: **GIGANTISMO** e **Acromegalia**

Observe as figuras, leia as legendas e discuta com seu colega ao lado.

Acromegaly and Gigantism (Diseases of Overactive Pituitary Gland)



Tumor of anterior pituitary gland results in overproduction of hormones controlling growth

If tumor becomes active ...

after normal growth years ...

Acromegaly

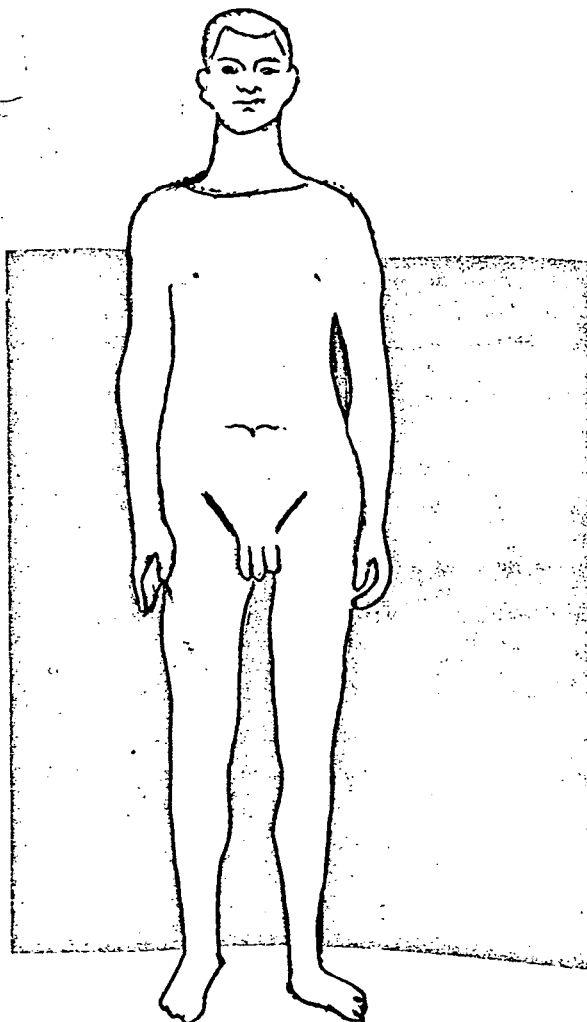
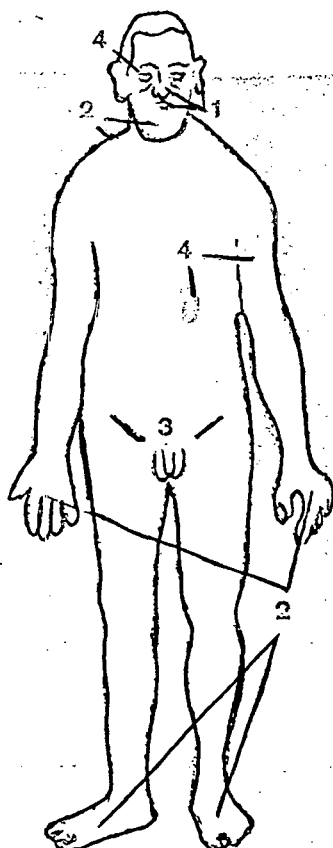
With growth no longer possible in long bones, excessive growth slowly takes place in other areas:

- Disturbance of sexual functions—impotence in men, ceasing of menstruation in women
- Soft tissues—lips, tongue, ears, nose
- Other possible complications—diabetes, visual disturbances and blindness, loss of strength
- Bony structure—protruding lower jaw, spade-like hands, enlarged feet, hunched back

before normal growth years ...

Gigantism

1. Long bone growth continues, resulting in well proportioned giant 7-8 feet tall
2. However, if not arrested, gigantism may progress to stage of increasing weakness and death



Você deve estar curioso para saber mais sobre essas doenças. Não está ? Então leia o texto pois com certeza ele vai satisfazer a sua curiosidade.

5 ACROMEGALY, a chronic condition in which the extremities and some soft parts of the body continue to grow after normal growth has stopped. The jaws and mouth, the nose, and the hands and feet are most often affected. The condition results from excessive action of the anterior part of the *pituitary gland*,
10 which secretes the special substance, or hormone, which ordinarily brings about normal growth during childhood and youth. A related condition is *giantism*, in which overgrowth affects all parts of the body.

15 The first symptom of acromegaly is enlargement of the soft tissues, which may include the lips, tongue, ears, and nose. This is closely followed by excessive growth in associated bones, such as the lower jaw and the hands and feet. Gradually the face assumes a gross appearance, the hands become pawlike, and enlargement of the vocal cords deepens the voice. The entire body begins to show hair growth. The function of the sex glands is disturbed and, contrary to popular myth, the sexual
20 power of the acromegalic is impaired rather than heightened. Women who have the disease rarely bear children.

25 Since the symptoms of acromegaly are evident after normal growth has been reached, they can rarely be detected until postadolescence. Overactivity of the pituitary gland's growth stimulation, when it occurs in a person still in the normal growing years, produces giantism. Sometimes it stops at a point, permitting the person affected to live normally. Occasionally a single part of the
30 body, such as a finger or toe, may grow to giant proportions. Generally, however, giantism progresses to a stage of increasing weakness and finally is fatal.

30 Male giants are more common than female giants. Usually the limit of such growth is well short of eight feet. However, the so-called Alton giant, named Robert Wadlow, measured more than eight feet, and some eight-footers have been recorded. Such people usually have tremendous appetites and eat enormous quantities of food.

35 Pituitary overactivity, with respect to growth, can sometimes be brought under control by x-ray. Sometimes surgery to remove part of the gland and eliminate the excess has been beneficial. The condition may be regulated by action affecting other glands closely related to the pituitary. Drugs, such as estrogen, act internally and depress the growth of hormone functions. Other drugs containing testosterone are also used in association with hormonal treatment.

40 The nervous system may be involved with growth, and changes in one or more parts of it may be responsible for certain instances of overgrowth. Sometimes great size is attained without any detectable glandular disorder. *See also* ENDOCRINE GLANDS; PITUITARY. *See* MEDIGRAPH page 37.

FISHBEIN, Morris (ed.) - The New Illustrated Medical and Health Encyclopedia, New York: H.S. Stuttman, 1969 (p.914-5).

II - MAIN POINTS COMPREHENSION

O nosso principal objetivo aqui é desenvolver mais ainda a sua capacidade de extrair idéias principais de um texto. Não esqueça que para isto você precisa inicialmente de uma leitura a nível de GENERAL COMPREHENSION.

Proceda como nas unidades anteriores. Utilize as 3 "DICAS" e depois responda:

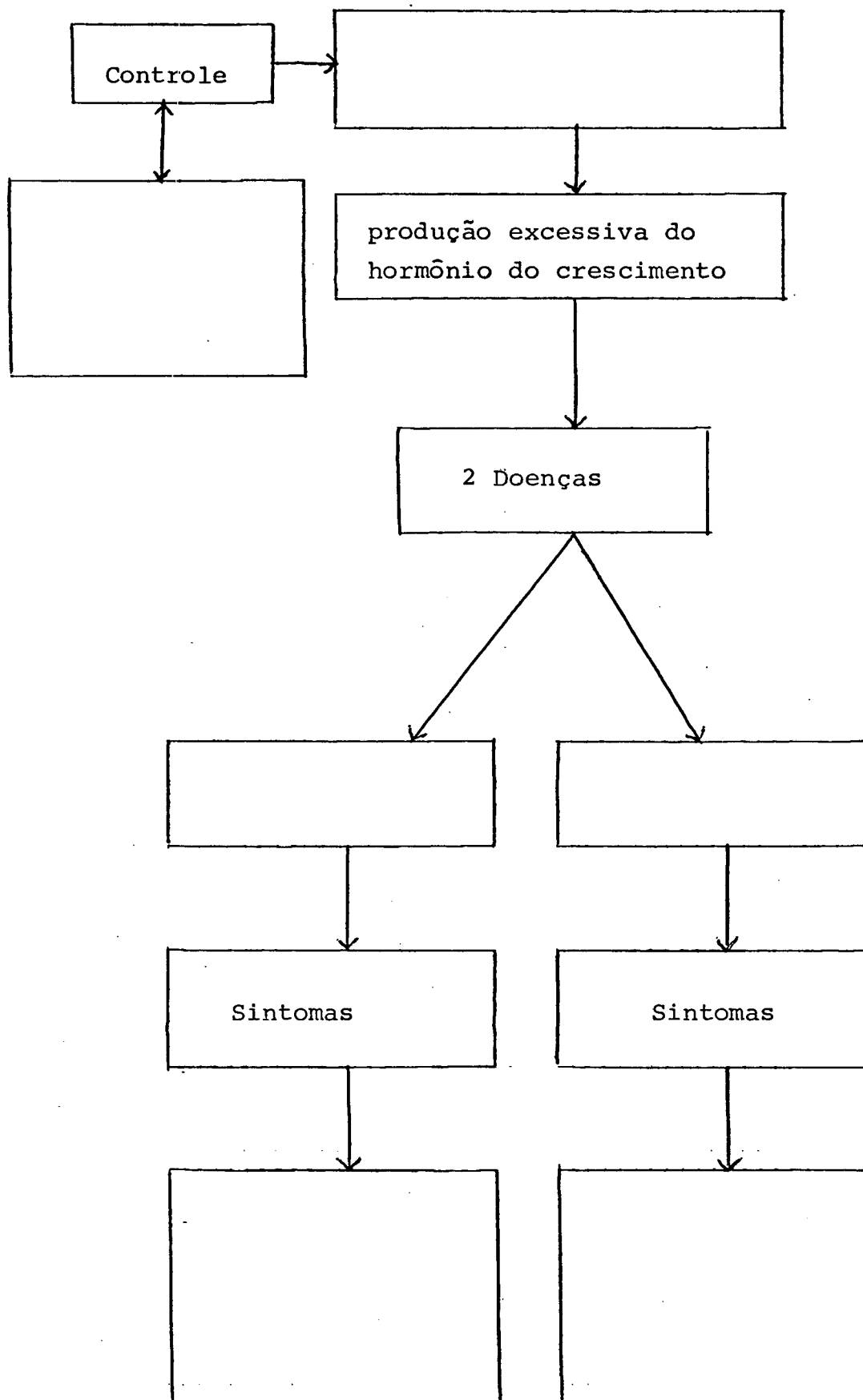
1. Circule que pessoa(s) você acha que poderiam se interessar na leitura deste texto.

engenheiro - mestre de obra - médico - professor - assistente social - estudantes universitários - qualquer pessoa.

2. Volte à página onde lhe foi apresentado o esquema e tente relacionar os números da figura do lado esquerdo do esquema com as legendas do mesmo lado. Feito isto, escreva aqui as estratégias que você utilizou para chegar ao seu resultado. Depois, compare seu resultado e as suas estratégias com seu colega ao lado.

3. As duas doenças mencionadas no texto têm cura?

4. Leia o texto novamente e preencha o diagrama de acordo com as informações contidas no texto.



III - LANGUAGE ITEM - CAUSE-AND-EFFECT RELATIONS

Um ACONTECIMENTO tem sempre uma CAUSA ou RAZÃO, isto é, um ACONTECIMENTO é o RESULTADO ou o EFEITO de um OUTRO ACONTECIMENTO. Essa relação de causa e efeito pode ser evidenciada de várias maneiras. Geralmente, palavras como BECAUSE, REASON, THEREFORE, CONSEQUENTLY, TO CAUSE, TO RESULT e muitas outras são usadas para exprimir essa relação.

Veja o exemplo abaixo que foi retirado do texto que você acabou de ler.

Ex.: The nervous system may be involved with growth, and

changes in one or more parts of it

may be responsible for certain instances of overgrowth.

1. Agora que você já sabe o que é uma RELAÇÃO DE CAUSA E EFEITO, leia o texto novamente e tente localizar as sentenças que exprimem essa relação. Em seguida coloque-as no diagrama abaixo:

C A U S A	E F E I T O
Ação excessiva da parte anterior da glândula pituitária depois do crescimento normal...	
	pode(m) controlar a atividade excessiva da glândula pituitária
Remédios que agem internamente.	

IV - SUMMARY

Resumo não é novidade para você pois na Unidade X você aprendeu como se faz um resumo e teve oportunidade de ver vários resumos de livros, não foi? Mas, a título de reforço, lembre-se que num resumo você deve colocar somente as idéias principais da mensagem do texto.

1. Leia o texto novamente **SUBLINHANDO** as idéias principais de cada parágrafo. Depois, escreva com as suas próprias palavras, e em português, o resumo do texto.

Seu resumo deverá ter, no máximo, um parágrafo.

V - FUN ACTIVITY

1. WORD PUZZLE GAME

Tente localizar no quadro abaixo 16 alterações pelas quais passam as pessoas que sofrem de acromegalia e gigantismo. Elas foram escritas na horizontal, vertical e diagonal. Veja se você é capaz.

N	W	O	M	E	N	J	L	M	N	Q	T	R	S	T	H	O	P
I	M	P	O	T	E	N	C	E	I	N	M	E	N	R	O	V	S
N	W	O	M	N	N	E	L	P	D	R	O	J	L	O	V	I	S
O	S	S	E	T	E	B	A	I	D	W	T	H	S	M	X	S	H
I	D	I	N	Z	Z	X	Y	W	Z	L	M	O	P	U	Z	U	T
T	A	U	L	O	S	S	O	F	S	T	R	E	N	T	H	A	W
A	B	V	A	J	L	N	O	P	Q	G	R	S	L	O	X	L	O
V	C	X	R	W	E	A	N	K	N	E	S	L	O	J	Y	D	R
R	D	Z	G	I	A	N	T	A	B	E	D	E	F	L	E	I	G
T	F	E	E	T	V	C	T	O	N	R	T	H	A	A	A	S	E
S	E	L	D	N	E	L	I	D	E	I	M	R	T	O	B	T	N
N	N	A	M	A	O	M	N	T	H	S	E	H	L	M	C	U	O
E	X	C	E	S	S	I	V	E	G	R	O	W	T	H	D	R	B
M	O	L	E	V	L	N	E	S	S	F	O	R	M	T	E	B	G
F	Q	U	E	B	C	D	E	A	I	P	B	S	H	H	F	A	N
O	P	O	N	E	H	U	N	C	H	E	D	B	A	C	K	N	O
G	S	S	E	N	K	A	E	W	R	S	T	N	E	S	G	C	L
N	I	L	O	P	S	S	L	L	W	E	A	J	L	N	H	E	N
I	W	A	J	R	E	W	O	L	G	N	I	D	U	T	O	R	P
S	A	E	C	S	D	N	A	H	E	K	I	L	E	D	A	P	S

Caso você não tenha conseguido localizar as 16 alterações volte ao esquema que lhe foi apresentado na página 46.

Esta 2ª parte da FUN ACTIVITY não está relacionada com os textos que você leu. Está sendo inserida nesta unidade para que você possa se descontrair e rir a valer. Porém, só depois de terminadas todas as tarefas desta unidade.

RIDDLES

- A. It isn't my sister
Or my brother,
But still it's the child
Of my father and mother.
Who is it?
- B. What is it that surely
Belongs to you,
But that your friends use
Much more than you do?
- C. What can you hold,
No matter how old,
In your left hand
That you can't hold,
No matter how bold,
In your right hand?

JOKE TIME

Although the little boy was only three years old, he already knew the alphabet. His proud parents were showing off his accomplishment to a friend.

"My, you're a smart young man," said the visitor. "And what is the first letter?"

"A," said the little boy.

"That's right," said the visitor, "and what comes after A?"

"All the rest of them," said the little boy.


Time for a Smile



A man was carrying a grandfather clock through the streets of the city. He was obviously doing it with a lot of difficulty. Finally, another man came up to him and asked, "Pardon me, it's none of my business, but don't you think a wristwatch would be simpler?"



As I was walking along a street in a small town a man came up to me and asked, "What time is it?" I looked at my watch and answered, "It's five o'clock." "I must be going crazy," said the man. "All day long I keep getting different answers."


"How do you spell 'extravagance,'" the teacher asked the little boy.

"E-x-t-r-a-v-u-g-a-n-c-e," he answered.

"No," she said. "The dictionary spells it e-x-t-r-a-v-a-g-a-n-c-e."

"But you asked me how I spell it," said the boy.

- A. Myself
B. Your name
C. Your right elbow
- RIDDLES

Forum, April, 1981

Forum, January, 1982

Forum, October, 1976

Universidade Federal do Piauí
Departamento de Letras
Estratégias de Leitura

Unidade XIV - Avaliação

NOME: _____

A - Leia o texto rapidamente e responda:

a) Qual o assunto do texto?

b) Quais foram as perguntas lançadas pelo autor?

c) Foram sugeridas respostas? Sim? () Não? ()
Caso sim, diga qual.

d) Que estratégias de leitura você utilizou para responder as perguntas a, b, e c ?

B - Diga com suas palavras o que você entendeu sobre o 1º parágrafo.

C - Caso você tenha encontrado no texto alguma palavra ou expressão que você não sabia o significado exato, escreva-a (a) aqui e diga o que você fez para dá-la um "possível meaning". Escreva também a sua descoberta!

D - Você sabe que a interpretação correta dos 'logical connectors' é fundamental para uma boa compreensão de um texto. Então, tente interpretar corretamente as seguintes 'logical connectors'!

- a) therefore (1. 5)
- b) then (1. 6)
- c) though (1.10)
- d) however (1.14)

E - Você sabe também que a identificação correta de grupos nominais ajuda na compreensão. Por isso, identifique 5 grupos nominais no 2º parágrafo e marque o modificador e o núcleo de cada um.

- a)
- b)
- c)
- d)
- e)



Test-tube babies under the microscope

SINCE THE birth of the first "test-tube baby" three and a half years ago, it has become increasingly obvious that fertilising human eggs in the laboratory is not simply a clinical technique for relieving infertility (see p 312). First, the doctors involved gave their women patients fertility drugs to increase the number of eggs available, and therefore to raise the chances of a successful laboratory fertilisation. Then Australian researchers began to freeze "spare" embryos, which meant that some could be saved to be implanted in women who had not given the egg in the first place.

Most doctors involved in in vitro fertilisation (IVF) are clinicians: their concern is to treat the ailment of infertility. And though some argue that infertility is not a disease, and therefore does not justify even the hypothetical risks in curing it; others point out that disease, by definition, is whatever people feel they suffer from and should if possible, be cured. The arguments, however, are not simply those of medical practice. For IVF also offers enormous potential for scientific research—for studying the human embryo, normally a hidden, mysterious object. The important ethical question is: should scientists conduct research on live human embryos? When do embryos become people? A moratorium on the limited, clinical applications of in vitro fertilisation will not help us to answer those questions: they can be settled only by widespread public debate among scientists, and between scientists and the public. □

Universidade Federal do Piauí
Departamento de Letras
Estratégias de Leitura

Unidade XV

O objetivo desta unidade é treiná-lo na habilidade de RECONHECER A FUNÇÃO de um texto. Isto é essencial para que você possa entender adequadamente a mensagem do texto.

Quando alguém escreve uma mensagem ele tem um objetivo em mente. Ele pode estar querendo lhe persuadir, lhe dar informações, lhe fazer um convite, etc. Cabe a você portanto, descobrir qual o objetivo do autor.

Vejamos, portanto, o xerox que lhe é apresentado.

Leia cada um dos textos e tente descobrir qual o objetivo do autor. Depois relacione cada texto com suas respectivas funções. (Faça o exercício 1.1 e o exercício 1.2)

1 Aim and function of the text

1.1 Function of the text

- Specific aim:** To train the students to recognize the function of the text.
- Skills involved:** Understanding the communicative value of the text.
- Why?** It is impossible to understand a text if one is not aware of its function. When confronted by a new text students should be encouraged to find out its function first. The origin of the document, its presentation and layout are usually very helpful in determining its function, as can be seen in this exercise.

Match the following passages and their function:

We Request the Pleasure of your Company
at a Party
at 21 Park Street, London
on June 19th. (7 pm.)

1

DO NOT USE K2r ON:
• cloth • chambray • fur •
• latex • leather • plastic • rubber •
• suede • varnished surfaces •
• jute (rayon & cotton blend) • sun (rayon) • rayon •
• waterproof fabrics

2

3
Admission: Although the Museum of Fine Arts is a public museum, it is sustained not by government funds but by individual support. Membership subscriptions, gifts, and other charges sustain this outstanding cultural treasure.
Hours: Tuesday, 10 to 5; Wednesday through Sunday, 10 to 5
 Closed Mondays, New Year's Day, July 4, Labor Day, Thanksgiving, December 24, and December 25.

- Persuasion
- Warning
- Giving information
- Giving directions
- Invitation
- Request

A PUNABLE ROOM WITH A SEPARATE SATINBATH & KITCHEN FOR A MOST MARVELLED COUPLE. EXCELLENT REFRESHMENTS PROVIDED. PHONE JS1-0090

5

THE PUNABLE ROOM WITH A SEPARATE SATINBATH & KITCHEN FOR A MOST MARVELLED COUPLE. EXCELLENT REFRESHMENTS PROVIDED. PHONE JS1-0090

6

Unique and delicious salads and dressings, soup, magical frozen yogurt, juice and healthy shakes. Also hot vegetable casseroles such as eggplant parmigiana and vegetable quiche
 Addresses:
 1345 Avenue of the Americas
 (55th St. between 6th and 7th Avenues)

1.2 Functions within the text

- Specific aim:** To train the students to recognize the function of sentences and utterances in a text.
- Skills involved:** Understanding the communicative value of sentences and utterances.
- Why?** Whereas a given text usually has one main function only, several language functions often appear within the text. It is sometimes easy to recognize the function (e.g. through the use of indicators such as an interrogative for a question) but in many cases it may prove more difficult (e.g. use of a statement to convey a suggestion). Exercises such as this one may help the students to become more conscious of the communicative value of utterances.

Read the following dialogue and match what the characters say and the functions listed underneath.

- A Hello Jane!
 B Hi Sue! How's life?
 C Fine. But I've got to move next term. My room-mate's going and I can't find anyone else to share with.
 D But why don't you keep looking? You've got another month and a half, haven't you?

II How the aim is conveyed

- E Yes, but I've never quite liked my room anyway. It's noisy and I'd much rather have something near your place.
- F That's a good idea! It's really a lovely district to live in!
- G Is it expensive?
- H Rather, but if you start looking right away . . .
- I Good, I will, and I'll give you a ring soon. Bye!
- J Cheerio!

- 1 Demand for evidence
- 2 Agreement
- 3 Farewell
- 4 Asking for information
- 5 Greeting
- 6 Evidence (explanation)
- 7 Giving information

Universidade Federal do Piauí
Departamento de Letras
Estratégias de Leitura

Unidade XVI

O objetivo desta unidade é encorajá-lo a ler usando as estratégias de leitura que você conhece a fim de que você possa ler buscando MEANING (sentido, significado).

Leia o 1º parágrafo do texto "How Brazil's gasohol scheme backfired" para o seu amigo do lado. Durante a sua leitura pense em voz alta tudo o que você está fazendo para vencer algumas dificuldades que você possa encontrar. Em seguida, peça seu colega para agir da mesma forma com o 2º parágrafo. Hajam assim até o término do texto. Discutam, entre si, as dificuldades e o que vocês fizeram para vencê-las. Discutam, também, sobre o conteúdo do texto.

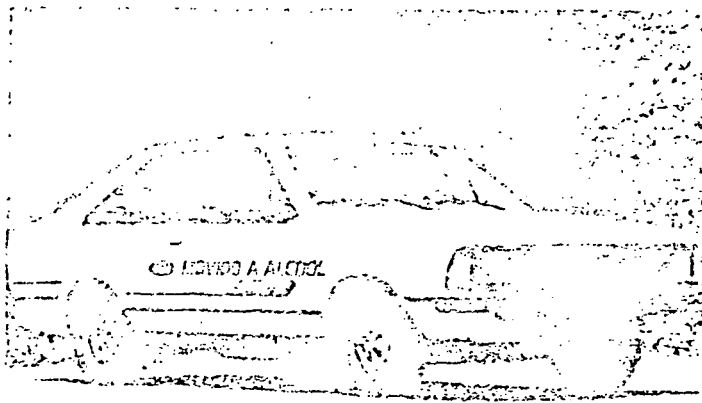
New Scientist 16 July 1981

OF Brazil's leading environmentalists has a blistering attack on the country's policy of fuelling its economy with alcohol to save oil. Lutzenberger, an agronomist, claims that the programme, Proalcohol, is destroying ecosystems, exploiting the poor, misusing land and spraying massive quantities of potentially dangerous pesticides.

The Proalcohol programme was launched in 1975. The government claimed that it had saved the country 1.6 million litres of oil by 1976. Its target is to save 10.7 million litres of oil a year by 1985. Officials say that this will reduce the nation's oil consumption by 40 per cent, but Lutzenberger says the real saving is nearer 20 per cent. In the first years of the programme, sugar was the raw material, but in the longer term the plan is to develop the technology to rely on cassava, a root crop grown profusely in Brazil.

Lutzenberger says that the real story of Proalcohol is one of the multinationals' manipulation of government to make intensive use of arable land. For a long time, he says, Proalcohol was originally set up by the sugar barons in the richest region of the country. The government became enthusiastic when the motor industry had been persuaded to drop its opposition. It has been offering cheap loans for setting up alcohol distilleries—but only to large plants. Today, although Brazil depends on alcohol for commercial transport, alcohol is not a substitute for diesel fuel. Lutzenberger said: "We could give up our oil, but we cannot give up our trucks. They would starve." And many lorry-

How Brazil's gasohol scheme backfired



A car that runs on alcohol—but at what cost?

drivers would be ruined if the government insisted they use gasohol. He says that this "small calamity" pales into insignificance compared with the environmental, social and economic problems that Proalcohol poses for Brazilians. For example, one alcohol business, in southern Mato Grosso do Sul state, is growing 1700 sq. km of sugar cane to produce 1.1-1.5 million litres of alcohol per day—less than 1 per cent of national fuel needs.

There would be no objection to huge plantations in Brazil's 8.5 sq. km if they were on the several million hectares of land abandoned by smallholders who have gone to the cities. But instead, the Fazenda Bodoquena enterprise of bankers and sugar barons from Sao Paulo has levelled 1700 hectares of a "unique ecosystem of 'cerradao' forest", with a technique developed by the US army during the Vietnam war—pulling the trees down with a huge chain dragged by two tractors. The timber is burnt. "In the Amazon similar alcohol farms are now razing

enormous tracts of forest for cassava," Lutzenberger said. He also alleges that the banned defoliant Agent Orange is being used in Brazil.

Lutzenberger claims that "Proalcohol will be a boon to the pesticide industry... hypermonoculture makes the use of soluble chemical fertilisers and agricultural poisons inevitable." Brazil is already the third largest consumer of agricultural chemicals in the world.

The main by-product of these vast alcohol plants is "a highly concentrated organic soup", which could be raw material for fertiliser, biogas or even cattle feed. Instead it

is dumped into rivers. Lutzenberger singled out one offender—a plant owned by Brazil's minister of the environment.

But perhaps the worst consequence of Proalcohol will be its effect on working people, by displacing small farmers to the cities. In the North East, where big landowners have always controlled the land, preventing "a healthy, locally adapted peasant culture from developing," working people have, in desperation, moved to the big cities such as Rio de Janeiro, Sao Paulo and Belo Horizonte, where, Lutzenberger says, "the filthy slums... overflow with Nordesteiros". He predicts that Brazil's alcohol programme will spread this problem of migration and its attendant social ills to the rest of the country.

Lutzenberger says he is not against alcohol fuel per se—only the way that Brazil is developing it: "There is no energy crisis for a country the size of Brazil, but we do have a crisis in our technological, social and political models." □

Selected by Scott