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TITLE

BENEFITS OF READING TO IMPROVE LEI STUDENTS´  
WRITING SKILL

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF  
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LICENCIATURA EN LA ENSEÑANZA DEL INGLÉS

By:

JULIO CÉSAR CORRALES GARCÍA

THESIS DIRECTOR

PH.D. MARÍA AMELIA XIQUE SUÁREZ

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This thesis has been read by the members of the thesis committee of

**JULIO CESAR CORRALES GARCIA**

And is considered worthy of approval in partial fulfillment of the  
requirement for the degree of

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---

Ph. D. María Amelia Xique Suárez  
**Thesis director**

---

Mtra. Leticia Piantzi Varela  
**Committee Member**

---

Mtra. Catalina Juárez Díaz  
**Committee Member**

Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla.

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## **DEDICATIONS**

TO MY FAMILY.

I want to dedicate this Project to my family, who support me in every aspect of this journey and who taught me how to achieve my goals.

TO MY PARENTS.

Who inspired me to become a better person and without their hard work and dedication I would not have finished my studies. Thanks for all their enthusiasm and their lessons through this journey.

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## **ABSTRACT**

Today students need to improve reading because, through this, they can learn much more by themselves that they could ever imagine, and not only that the benefits that come with it. This paper aims to explore and know the benefits that can be acquired by reading. For the gathering of the data in this qualitative descriptive study, a questioning was chosen to know how reading has helped the students in their academic life. Thus, a group of target language was chosen to carry this research and to gather information to answer the research questions: 1. Do ELT undergraduate students consider themselves readers? 2. How does reading influence a LEI students' writing? 3. How do teachers promote reading to improve writing according to the students' experience? The findings showed that the students have an important improvement in their writing skills and they feel more confident about it.

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## **CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM**

### **INTRODUCTION**

When learning a foreign language, it is essential to give the same importance to the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) especially if it is to become an English teacher. Moreover, all the skills are connected to speak; we need to understand what the emitter says as well as to know how to pronounce the vocabulary in a foreign country. To write, students need to read in that language because through reading, students increase their vocabulary and also in a deductive or inductive way can learn the way sentences, paragraphs are written so the reader can understand what they mean when writing. The students can start an intelligent conversation because of the vocabulary they have learned through reading.

The benefits of reading can be seen not only in personal life but also in the academic one. Reading can give us some topics to have a conversation with someone and increase the vocabulary to communicate formally; therefore, the benefits of being a reader go beyond the academic life.

Faulkner (2013) said:

“Read, read everything trash, classics, good and bad, and see how they do it. Just like a carpenter who works as an apprentice and studies the master. Read! You will absorb it. Then write. If it is good, you will find out. If it is not, throw it out the window (Faulkner, 2013, p. 116).

Therefore reading can help us to improve some skills that are necessary for our academic life.

### **1.1 The Problem**

At the BA of Language Teaching (LEI in Spanish) in the Faculty of Languages, students are trained to become English teachers, so they have to practice the four skills, and two subskills: grammar and vocabulary. However, many of the students at the LEI program from the BUAP do not like reading, and as a result, they start facing problems when speaking and writing since they do not have enough vocabulary to communicate neither in these two skills and if they do not, their performance might be deficient. To be skillful in speaking and writing, it is necessary that students have the habit of reading different topics not only from the teaching area but also about other different topics because it will help them to develop their communicative competence in the productive skills.

Talking about writing, it is an essential skill at LEI because students need to develop it to learn to write from the most straightforward writings until the most complex. However, if students have not developed the reading skill, they will have problems to write any kind of texts even their proposal to obtain their BA in language teaching.

### **1.2 Rationale**

The decision to do this research was because reading is not just seeing letters printed on a page; it is about understanding the ideas that are printed on pages, linking every word and truly understanding them. In my experience, reading

has been a great way to know about the ideas that move the world. The first time that I truly began to read was when I read about an author whose stories were terrific for me. The way the author wrote was a great discovery, so I started to read more about the life of the author. Soon I realised that I enjoyed reading and I started to have more vocabulary.

However, starting reading was difficult because sometimes I did not understand the ideas that I was reading; therefore, it was hard to understand what the author was trying to say. Another difficulty that I had when reading was the vocabulary. When I read a word that I did not comprehend I looked it up in the dictionary and I also put it into a context. I also noticed that my writing started to improve. To me, it was great news; therefore, I realised that reading could be a helpful tool to become a better student.

### **1.3 Location of the study**

The research was carried out at a public university. In this language department, there is an undergraduate program where students are trained to become English teachers. There are about 2039 students (Perez, 2018); Inside the Curriculum students take 5 English courses where they learn grammar, and improve the four skills. Also, students take some subjects such as Phonetics and Phonology, Literature, Morphology, and Syntax among others.

### **1.4 Purpose of the study**

To show the benefits of reading and how reading skill can help to improve students' writing skill.

## **1.5 Aims**

The aims in this research are important so that the reader can see what to expect.

Therefore, they are listed below:

- To show the benefits of reading.
- To find out if students frequently read.
- To show results that reading can help to improve writing skill.

## **1.6 Research Questions**

1. Do ELT undergraduate students consider themselves readers?
2. How does reading influence students' writing?
3. How do teachers promote reading to improve writing according to students' experience?

## **1.7 Significance of the study**

Through this study, it is shown the importance that reading has to improve the writing skill. This research could be useful for teachers to show students the necessity to start reading from the first level to improve not only the development of writing but also the speaking skill.

This research is vital because students' writing needs to be improved.

Students face different situations where they need to write in English, but if (some of them) do not do it properly, they might have problems even to organise their ideas and this becomes a problem when students are asked

to write at a universitarian level. Therefore, this research could benefit teachers, especially those who have to use several tools to improve their writing skill.

### **1.8 Content of the study**

This investigation has five chapters. The first chapter contains the characteristics of this study and the problem. The second chapter shows the literature review related to this investigation. The third chapter indicates the methodology that was used in this research. The next chapter, the fourth one shows the results and the fifth chapter focuses on the conclusions, recommendations and suggestions.

### **1.9. Methodology**

This research is qualitative and descriptive in order to interpret the data obtained. Besides, it is a case study because it is focused on trying to solve a problem on a group of students and the benefits they could obtain.

### **1.10. Key terms**

**Reading** “is the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and to the interpretation of this information appropriately”. (Grabe & Stoller, 2002, p. 3)

**Skimming** “is glancing rapidly through the text to determine its gist”. (Nutall C. , 2009, p. 50)

**The text** “is a group of entities, used as signs that are selected, arranged, and intended by an author to convey a specific meaning to an audience in a certain context.” ( Gracia, 1996, p. 9)

**Discourse** “is a linguistic communication seen as a transaction between speaker and hearer, as an interpersonal activity whose form is determined by its social purpose”. (Leech & Short, 1992, p. 3)

**Coherence** “constitutes the meaning of a text”. (De Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981, p. 22)

**Cohesion** “concerns the components of the textual surface”. (De Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981, p. 22)

## **CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW**

In this chapter some concepts that are related to reading and other components such as vocabulary, comprehension, reading strategies and motivation can help to realise the proper role that reading plays when learning a foreign language is presented. To understand teaching reading, we have to understand what a text is, the types of texts that exist and how those texts can be useful depending on the necessities of the person.

### **2.1 First language acquisition**

I consider it is important to have a background about how people acquire a language and to have knowledge about certain processes and the importance of theories about second language acquisition.

#### **Babbling**

Marentette & Petitto (1991) also mention that in the first few months, usually around six months, the infant begins to babbling. They also say that sound produced in this period (apart from the continuing stimulus) controlled cries and gurgles seems to include a large variety of sounds, many of which do not occur in the language of the household.

One view suggests that during this period children are learning to distinguish between the sound of their language and the sounds which are not part of the language. During the babbling period, children learn to maintain the “right” sounds and suppress the “wrong” ones. Infants who are unable to produce any sounds at this early stage due to physical motor problems begin to talk properly once the disability has been corrected. (Fromkin & Rodman, 1998,p 320-21)

Marentette & Petitto, (1991) explain that, during this same period, the vocalisations produced by deaf babies are qualitatively different from those produced by hearing infants. That is to say, they are unsystematic, non-repetitive and random.

“In parallel, the manual gestures produced by hearing babies’ language differ significantly from those produced by deaf infants exposed to sign language. The hearing babies move their fingers and clean their fists randomly with little or no repetition of the same gestures; the deaf infants, however, use more than a dozen different hand motions repetitively, all of which are elements of American sign language, or the other sign languages used by deaf communicate in all countries”. (Marentette & Petitto, 1991. 321)



## **First words**

Sometimes after one year old begin to use the same string of sound repeatedly to “mean” the same thing. They have learned that sounds are related to meanings, and they are producing their first “words”. Most children seem to go through the “one word=one sentence” stage. These one-word “sentences” are called holophrastic sentences. (Fromkin & Rodman,1998)

## **Theories on first language acquisition**

According to Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams (1993), the first view that the neonate is born with a mind that is like a blank slate is countered by the evidence showing that infants are highly sensitive to particular subtle distinctions in their environment and not to others. That is, the mind appears to be “prewired” to receive only certain types of information. In the next part of the chapter I will mention some important theories about reading.

### **Behaviourist approaches**

One of the best-known attempts to construct a behavioristic model, a linguistic behaviour, was embodied in Skinner’s classic verbal behaviour (1957). Skinner was commonly known for his experiments with animal behaviour, but he also gained recognition for his contributions to education through teaching machines and programmed. Skinner’s theory of learning by operating. Operant conditioning refers to conditions in which the organism emits a response, or

operant, without necessarily observable stimuli; that operant is maintained (learned) by reinforcement (for example, a positive verbal or nonverbal response from another person). If a child says “wants milk” and a patient gives the child some milk the operant is reinforced and, over repeated instances, is conditioned.

According to (Skinner, 2000) “Verbal behaviour, like other behaviour is controlled by its consequences”. When consequences are rewarding, the behaviour is maintained and is increased in strength and perhaps rewarded. When consequences are punishing, or when there is a lack of reinforcement, the behaviour is weakened and eventually extinguished.

### **The nativist approach.**

The term nativist is derived from the fundamental assertion that language acquisition is innately determined, that we are born with a generic capacity that predisposes us to a systematic perception of language around us, resulting in the construction of an internalised system of language.

McNeill (1966) described the language acquisition device as consisting of four innate linguistic properties:

1. the ability to distinguish speech sounds from other sounds in the environment,
2. the ability to organise linguistic data into various classes that can be refined,
3. The knowledge that only a certain kind of linguistic system is possible and that other kinds are not, and

4. the ability to engage in constant evaluation of the developing linguistic system to construct the most straightforward possible system out of the available linguistic input.

### **Accommodation Theory**

Giles & Byrne's theory (1982) seeks to explain second language acquisition in a group or a group or intergroup situation. One way to portraying Giles & Byrne's(1982) model is to profile a person from a subordinate group who is likely to acquire the language of the dominant group.

The learner is likely to show the following characteristics (Giles & Coupland, 1991)

1. Have a relatively weak identification with their ethnic group. That is, such learners do not see themselves as purely a member of their minority language group separate from the dominant language group. Alternatively, their first language is not essential to members of their ethnic group.
2. Do not regard their ethnic group as inferior to the dominant group. A functional language, learner, makes "quiescent" comparisons between their ethnic group and the dominant group or are not concerned about a difference of status.
3. Perceive their ethnic as having low vitality compared with the dominant group  
Giles & Byrne (1982) talk of a perception of ethnolinguistic vitality which includes: economic, historical, social, political, and language status of the ethnic group: size and distribution of an ethnic group, mixed marriages, amount of in-

migration and out-migration: and institutional support for the ethnic group mass-media, education, religion, industry, services, culture and government.

4. See their ethnic group and boundaries as “soft and open” and no hard and closed.”
5. Hold adequate status within their ethnic group.

The way learners develop language is conceived differently, it depends on the theory is proposed. Therefore, in the language learning development knowing theories about learning is necessary, but it is vital to take into account others aspects that play.

### **The acculturation model of Second Language Learning.**

Schuman (1978) proposes an acculturation model of second language acquisition whose essential element is the second language learner adapting to a new culture. The model starts with the idea that language is one aspect of culture, and the relationship between the language community of the learner and the second language community is essential in second language acquisition. The basic premise of the model “the degree to which a learner acculturated to the target language group will control the degree to which he acquires the second language” (Schumann, 1978, p.108). Schuman (1978) portrays the various factors that are important in “good” language learning. Expressed in a group rather than individual terms, these facilitating social factors comprise:

1. The target language group and the second language learner group are selfperceived as relatively socially equal. The higher the equality distance, the less the chance of language learning.
2. The target language and second language learner groups both desire assimilation of the learner's social group.
3. Both groups expect the second language group to share social facilities as operated by the target language group.
4. The second language learner group is small, not very cohesive and can be assimilated into the target language group.
5. The extent to which the second language learner group's culture is congruent and similar to that of the target language group thus assisting assimilation.
6. The extent to which both groups have positive attitudes and expectations of each.
7. The extent to which the second language learner group expects to stay with the target language group for a longer rather than a short period. an role in teaching.

## **2.2 Second Language Acquisition.**

Ellis (1985) makes a distinction between three parts to the development of a second language. First, there is a sequence in second language learning. This refers to the general stages through which children and adults move in learning a second language. Ellis argues that irrespective of the language and irrespective of

whether that language is acquired naturally or formally in the classroom, there is a natural and almost invariant sequence of development. Second, the order in which is learned may be different from the sequence. Third, there is the rate of development of the second language and the level of proficiency achieved. While the sequence of second language development may be invariant, and while minor variations in the order of development may occur, there may be significant variations in the speed in which a second language is acquired, and the level of final proficiency achieved.

Situational factors have been mentioned already in consideration of sequence, order and rate of second language acquisition. Situational factors refer to who is talking to whom, the environment of the interaction.

### **Linguistic input.**

Linguistic input concerns the type of second language input received when listening or reading in a second language. For example, how do teachers or native speakers adjust reading in a second language to the level of second language learners to make it comprehensible? What kind of differences are there in the input from the natural settings compared with formal classroom settings? The second language has to be presented in small, highly sequenced doses with plenty of practice and reinforcement. Individual bricks need to be carefully laid in a precise sequence to build second language skills and habits. The input of language learning classrooms varies according to the level of second language

learning. Therefore the importance of knowing the theories can be helpful develop some strategies enhance students' skills.

### **Individual learner differences.**

It is popularly regarded that the level of proficiency a learner attains in the second language is not only a factor of exposure to various contexts and classroom teaching methodology; it is also due to individuals differences. For examples, the age at which somebody learns a second language their aptitude for learning languages, cognitive style, motivation, attitude, previous knowledge, learning style, learning strategies and personality variables such as anxiety have variously been thought to influence second language acquisition.

### **Learning processes.**

Learning process is defined by Gross(2012) as "The process of acquiring, or modifying existing, knowledge, behaviors, skills, values, or preferences(p,267)". In this process Kolb proposes that it consist of four stages

According to David Kolb (1984), the learning cycle involves four processes that must be present for learning to occur:

1. **Activist. Active Experimentation.** This refers that the learner acts first and consider the consequences later, he also focuses on the present. It also refers to doing something new or doing the same thing in a more sophisticated way based on our learning.

2. Reflector. Reflective observations. Thinking about a certain situation. first watching and listening before offering an opinion.
3. Theorist. Abstract conceptualization. Talking about with others and applying what we already know to the situation.
4. Pragmatism. Concrete experimentation. Through experiencing the concrete, tangible, felt the qualities of the world.

Each quadrant represents different learning process as follows:

- Converging processes relate to bringing a number of perspectives to finding a single- usually right or wrong.
- Diverging processes are about generating a number of accounts of different experiences.
- Assimilating processes describe the taking in of new knowledge.
- Accommodating processes describe also the related part of the new knowledge to prior experiences and beliefs.

### **The Natural Order hypothesis.**

This hypothesis suggests that grammatical structures are acquired in a predictable order for both children and adults, irrespective of the language being learnt. When a learner engages in natural communication, then the standard order will occur. This hypothesis has been criticised since“(E,g McLaughlin.1987 )research on morphemes and the development of specific grammatical forms does not support a “strong” version of the hypothesis” (Baker & Prys,1998, p,649 ). This



author states that “variations between different people and a lack of supportive evidence suggest that only a “weak” version of the natural order hypothesis is tenable “ “ (p 648).

### **The monitor hypothesis.**

According to Krashen (1982), the monitor is an editing device that may operate before language performance. Utterances may be modified acted upon by the monitor of learnt knowledge. Such editing may occur before the natural output of speech; it may occur after the output via a correcting device. Krashen (1982) suggested that monitoring occurs when there is sufficient time, when there is pressure to communicate correctly and not just convey meaning, and when the relevant rules of speech are known. Examples include knowing the correct tense to use when to use the third or first person and rules about plurals. This hypothesis has been criticized for being untestable and for lack of evidence. Krashen (1982)

### **Productive and receptive skills.**

In language teaching, communication is usually divided into four primary skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Listening and reading are receptive skills and speaking and writing are productive skills(Davies & Pearse , 2000). There was a time when the terms “passive” an “active” were often used instead of “receptive and “productive”. However, it is now generally agreed that active

listening and reading require as much attention and mental activity as speaking and writing.

### **Productive skills:**

Carel (2012) indicates that speaking is a productive skill, like writing and it involves expressing meanings to other people. He also says that Interactions are two-way communication that involves using language and body language to keep your listener involved in what we are saying and to check that they understand our meaning. (Carel,2012, p.1)

“Writing and speaking are productive skills. That means they involve producing language rather than receiving it. We can say that writing involves communicating a message (something to say) by making signs on a page. To write we need a message and someone to communicate it to. We also need to be able to form letters and words and to join these together to make words, sentences or a series of sentences that link together to communicate the message. Writing involves sub-skills. Some of these related to the accuracy, that is to say, using correct forms of language. Writing accurately means spelling correctly, forming letters correctly, writing legibly, punctuating correctly, using correct layouts, choosing the right vocabulary, using grammar correctly, joining sentences correctly and using paragraphs correctly”.

Carel, (p.3)

### **Receptive skills.**

Goh (2014) points out that:

“listening is not just hearing. It is an active process that may begin even before the first speech signal is recognized and it may go on long after the input or spoken information has stopped. Meaning cannot be simply extracted from the sound signals, and

understanding is the result of active construction occurring at all levels of text (sounds, grammar, and lexis and discourse structure) and context (the topic, the participants, the communicative purpose, and the place or setting for the interaction)” (Goh, 2014,p.40).

For Rao (2009) “Reading is the receptive skill in the written mode” (Rao, 2009, p. 1). He also affirms that it can develop independently of listening and speaking skills but often develops along with them, especially in societies with a highly- developed literary tradition and also can help build a vocabulary range that helps listening comprehension at the later stages, mainly.

### **2.3The role of reading skill in different methods.**

The role of reading in some approaches such as the communicative approach is to give the real context in this approach a language could be taught using a series of events. The teacher describes each event in the foreign language and sets reading and writing and writing tasks in each lesson. The teacher uses full sentences in the foreign language as input rather than words and phrases; no translation is not used in this approach. The aim is to think in the target language.

#### **Direct method.**

According to (Kudchedkar, 2002), the process of learning is essentially one of forming associations: speech with appropriate action, words and concepts and objects. The associations had to be direct, concrete and definite, and cross-associations which conflicted with each other had to be avoided. In this method, repetition was essential if associations have to be formed and reinforced. Memory depends not only on repetition but attention and interest as well. The teaching

materials, namely, texts, dictionaries and grammar should be interrelated and coordinated to make learning effective. The grammar teaching should begin at the sentence level as the syntax is the most of grammar.

### **The audiolingual method.**

In the audio-lingual method, the role of reading is not necessary because this method is more focused on listening and speaking.

Reading method, this method was focused on making learners fluent readers.

Comprehension and not reproduction was the aim.

### **2.4 Reading.**

According to Grabe and Stoller (2002), Reading “is the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and to the interpretation of this information appropriately”(p.9). However, Grabe and Stoller (2002) argue that this definition does not contain all the elements of reading.

Reading is a skill that is developed through time. Grabe and Stoller (2002), argue that “Reading is also an interactive process in at least two ways. First, the various processes involved in reading are carried out simultaneously.” (p.18).

Similarly, Williams (1984) defines reading as a process. “It is a process to obtain meaning from written texts.” (p.3). This means that the brains see the letters and interpret the information given by the text.

In the process of reading, there is a term that is related to reading; it is the working memories which help us to build an idea in our minds. Gabre and Stoller

(2002), point out that the working memories are related to short-term memory. They state that:

Gabre and Stoller (2002) points out that:

“working memory refers to the information that is activated, or given mental simulations, for immediate storage and processing such as recognising and storing word information, using syntactic information, connecting pronoun references, building overall text structure, integrating and restructuring information, assessing inferences and adapting reader goals.” (p.18).

#### **2.4.1 Texts and discourse.**

The text is an essential element to understand reading; it is where the information is. “The text is the core of the reading process, how the message is transmitted from writer to reader” (Nutall, 1982, p. 15). Another definition from text is (Beugrande & Dressel, 1982): “A text will be defined as a communicative occurrence which meets seven standards of textually.”

De Beaugrande & Dressel (1982) mention seven criteria:

Cohesion, according to Nutall(1982). concerns the components of the textual surface, that is:

- Recurrence: employing the repetition of lexical elements, sentence components, and other linguistic elements, text structures are formed.
- Anaphora and Cataphora: Anaphora directs attention to what has previously been said or read (For example, using pro-forms), cataphora points to what is to come through the use of deictic elements.

- Ellipsis: According to Beaugrande & Dressel (1981) this element of the structure usually is unintelligible without the communicative situation and the shared world knowledge (presuppositions) of participants in a conversation. A textual abbreviation, therefore, depends mainly on elements of talk-constellations “the reliance and on rhetorical devices within text linguistics is not an accident since, apart from stylistics, from a historical point of view, rhetoric is one of the most important sources for a supra-sentential grammar” . (Beaugrande & Dressel ,1981, p, 15)
- Conjunctions: These signal connections between events and situation are conjunctions (linking sentences structures of the same status), contra-conjunctions are linking sentences structures of the same status that seem to be irreconcilable, such as to cause and unexpected effect. and subordination (used another sentence structure is dependent on another.
- Coherence (or textual semantics): It constitutes the meaning of a text. “This often refers to elements that do necessarily also require a linguistic realisation. For example, some types of research assume cognitive structures in recipients that are actualised through a text and help to determine interpretations”. (Beaugrande & Dressel ,1981, p, 15)
- Intentionality: It relates to the attitude and purpose of texts producers.

Acceptability is the mirror of intentionality according to Barkhit, (1982).. This author also says that recipients must recognise a text in a particular situation. The author claims that “This criterion is, of course, related to conventionality, and does not mean that recipients can reject a text maliciously”

(Bakhtin,1982.p.23).Acceptability, therefore, concerns the degree to which the hearers and readers are prepared to expect a text that is useful or relevant. Here there can be enormous communicative conflicts. Either the text is not acceptable (unintelligible, incoherent, fragmentary, and so on), or hearers may question its acceptability even though the intentionality is clearly expressed. For example, in some narratives, a listener may question a tiny detail that is irrelevant to the particular conversation.

Informality refers to “the quantity of new or expected information in a text. This addresses simultaneously not only the quantity but also the quality of what is offered: how is the new material structured and using what cohesive means?” (Wodak,1996. p.23)

Situationally means that “the talk -constellation and speech situation play an important role in text production. Only particular varieties or types of text, speech styles or forms of address are both situationally and culturally appropriate”.(Bakhtin, 1982,p23)

Intertextuality, according to Wodak (1986) has two types of meaning. On the one hand, it suggests that a text always relates to preceding or simultaneously occurring discourse, and on the other hand, it also implies that there are formal criteria that link texts to each other in particular genres or text varieties. In the terminology of text-planning such genres would be described as “schemas” or “frames” (Wodak, 1986). Wodak (1986) mentions some examples:

1. Narrative text varieties (tales, stories, etc) rely on temporal ordering principles.
2. Argumentative text varieties (explanation, scientific articles, etc.) use contrastive devices.
3. Descriptive text varieties employ predominantly local (that is, spatial or temporal) elements (as in descriptions, portrayals etc.).
4. Instructive text varieties (such as textbooks) are both argumentative and enumerative.

Just as there are different ways of looking at what people do, and why, when they read, so there are differences in looking written language. It is possible to consider written language from two broad perspectives:

“we can look at features of the product as we see it in written or printed form, or we can look at the underlying sets of meaning which the writer brings into play in the course of producing the text, and which the reader, in turn, processes in the course and interpreting it. We might call these perspectives following, for example. a product dimension and a process dimension. (Alderson & Urquhart, 1984. p 57.)

Leech & Short (1992) states that discourse is a linguistic communication seen as a transaction between speaker and hearer, as an interpersonal activity whose form is determined by its social purpose. The text is linguistic communication (either spoken or written) seen merely as a message coded in its auditory or visual medium.

“Discourse must be understood in its broadest sense: every utterance assumes a speaker and a hearer, and in the speaker, the intention of influencing the other in some way...It is every



variety of oral discourse of every nature from trivial conversation...but it is also the mass of writing that reproduces oral discourse or that borrows its manner of expression and its purposes: correspondences ,memoirs, plays, didactic works , in short , all genres in which some address(themselves) as the speaker, and organizes what(they say)in the category of person. The distinction we are making between historical narration and discourse does not at all coincide with that between written language and the spoken. The historical utterance is today reserved for the written language, but discourse is written as well as spoken. In practice, one passes from one to the other instantaneously. Each time that discourse appears the midst of historical narration, for example, when the historian reproduces someone's words or when (they intervene) in order to comment upon the events reported, we pass to another tense system, that of discourse". (P.4)

### **Models of comprehension.**

1. Kintsch's proposed the Comprehension-integration model (CIM) in 1998. "The CIM is currently regarded as the most comprehensive model of reading comprehension includes reading times, activation of concepts at different phases of comprehension, sentence recognition, text recall, and text summarisation. Some reading strategies back in the CIM" (Kintsch,1998 p,137) Strategies exist, but they do not drive the comprehension engine. Instead, comprehension lies in the bottom-up process, that is related to affective perception, learning, and memory to understand texts. Kintsch (1998) explains that in this process the knowledge in long-term memory from textual input (the construction phase) and the integration of activated ideas in working memory (the integration phase). As each sentence or clause in a text is comprehend, there is a construction phase followed by an integration phase. In this process a strategy is simply a piece of knowledge stored in long-term memory that is periodically activated and recruited during integration. It is mixed in the manifold of hundreds or thousands of other concepts, rules, and

content during construction and integration. Simply put, strategies are nothing special other than being another set of rules that get activated and integrated.

“Like most models in discourse psychology, the CIM assumes that multiple levels of representation get constructed during comprehension. Four of these levels are (a) the surface code, (b) the text base, (c) the situation model, and (d) the text genre. The surface code preserves the exact wording and syntax of the sentences. The textbase contains explicit propositions in the text in a strippeddown, logical form that preserves the meaning but not the surface code. The situation model (sometimes called the mental model) is the referential content or microworld that the text is describing. This would include the people, objects, spatial setting, actions, events, plans, thoughts, and emotions of people and other referential content in a news story, as well as the world knowledge recruited to interpret this contextually specific content. The text genre is the type of discourse, such as a news story, a folktale, or an encyclopedia article. When comprehension succeeds, the representations at all of these levels are harmoniously integrated, yet there is no intentional strategy on the part of the reader to make this happen. It merely falls out naturally from the CI mechanism”. (Kintsch, 1998, p12)

Constructionist model strategies. They play a prominent role in the constructionist theoretical framework proposed by Gaesser (1994). The unique strategies of this model are reflected in these three key assumptions: (a) reader goals, (b) coherence, and (c) explanation.

The reader's goal assumption states that “readers attend to content in the text addresses the goals of reading the text. When a computer manual is read” ( Mc Namara,2006.Pag 13) That is to say that it is read very differently when the reader wants to purchase the computer that when the reader wants to fix a broken hard

drive. The coherence assumption states “that readers attempt to construct meaning representations that are coherent at both local and global levels”. Therefore, coherence gaps in the text will stimulate the reader to think, generate inferences actively, and reinterpret the text to fill in, repair, or take note of the coherence gap. The explanation assumption states that “good comprehenders tend to generate explanations of why events and actions in the text occur, why states, and why the authors bother expressing particular ideas. Why-questions encourage analysis of causal mechanism and justifications of claims”.(Graesser et al,1993p,482)

There are other assumptions of the constructionist theory that are shared by many other models, assumptions that address memory stores, levels of representation, world knowledge, activation of nodes, automaticity, and so on but its signature assumptions address readers goals, coherence, and explanation. The constructionist theory has generated several predictions about reading times, inference generation, recall of text information, and summarization that have not been tested or supported as extensively as the ones proposed in the CIM.

#### **2.4.2 Strategies to read.**

A strategy is a powerful tool to help learners therefore in this part is mentioned some strategies that can be used. It is necessary to know certain strategies, so the learners develop their skills in order to become a better reader.

“A strategy is both of an organisation, and the pathway it follows to achieve that goal”. (Whitehead, 2012,p.5)

Reading comprehension strategy is “a cognitive or behavioural action that is enacted under particular contextual conditions, to improve some aspect of comprehension”. (Mcnamara, 2006,p.6).

### **Strategy.**

Many reading strategies can be useful to read any text. However, first, it is necessary to define the concept. A strategy is “a set of abilities under the conscious control of the reader” (Grabe and Stoller, 2002, p.15).

The notion that coherence and explanation strategies are the hallmarks of a good comprehension, for this reason they determine the selection of content that gets encoded, the constituents, and so on. “Good readers are driven with why-questions more than with how, when, where, and what-if question unless there are particular goals to track such information”.(Mcnamara,2006,p,14) affirms that he explanations of the motives of characters and the causes of unexpected events in a story are much more important than the spatial position of the characters in a setting, what character looks like, and the procedures and style of how characters’ actions are performed. “Such details about space, perceptual attributes, and actions are essential when they serve a critical function, or they address specific reader goals” (Mcnamara,2006,p,14). When readers are asked to monitor why-questions during comprehension, their processing and memory for the text are very similar to reasonable comprehension without such orienting questions; however, when asked to monitor how-questions and what-happens-next-questions, their processing and memory shows signs of being disrupted. (Magliano, 1999).

Some reading strategies are shown in table 2.1.

Table.2.1 Reading strategies

Specifying a purpose for reading.	Connecting text to background knowledge.	Identifying the difficulties.
Planning what to do and what steps to take.	Summarising information	Taking steps to repair faulty comprehension
Previewing the text.	Making Inferences.	Critiquing the author
Predicting the contents of the text or section of the text.	Connecting one part of the text to another.	Judging the text.
Checking predictions.	Paying attention to text structure.	Reflecting on what has been learned from the text.
Posing questions about the text.	Rereading.	
Finding answers to posed questions.	Guessing the meaning of a new word from context.	
Checking comprehension.	Using discourse markers to see relationships	

Source the information was taken from: Reading Comprehension Strategies:

Theories, Interventions, and Technologies, Collaborative Strategies for Teaching

Reading Comprehension and Handbook of Research on Reading Comprehension (2017)

Though these strategies the person evolves and develops the skill of reading, and begins to understand the text that he is reading.

Zimmerman & Hutchins (2003) identify seven reading comprehension strategies:

1. Activating or building background knowledge: “Good readers use their relevant prior knowledge before, during, and after reading to enhance their understanding of what they are reading”. (Zimmermann & Hutchins , 2003, p, 6)
2. Using sensory images: “Good readers create a wide range of visual, auditory, and other sensory images as they read, and they become emotionally involved with what they read”. (Zimmermann & Hutchins , 2003, p, 6)
3. Questioning: Good readers generate questions before, during and after reading to clarify the meaning, make predictions, and focus their attention on what is essential.
4. Making predictions and inferences: “Good readers use their prior knowledge and information from what they read to make predictions, seek answers to questions, draw conclusions, and create interpretations that deepen their understanding of the text”. (Zimmermann & Hutchins , 2003, p, 6)

5. Determining the main ideas: Good readers identify key ideas of themes as they read, and they can distinguish between important and unimportant information.

6. Using fix-up options: Good readers are aware of when they understand and when they do not. If they have trouble understanding specific words, phrases, or longer passages, they use a wide range of problem-solving strategies including skipping ahead, rereading, asking questions, using a dictionary, and reading aloud.

7. Synthesising: Good readers track their thinking as it evolves during reading, to get the overall meaning.

Good readers use the same strategies whether they are reading *Reader's Digest* or a calculus textbook. One moment they are asking a question, the next making an inference, the next creating a mental image, and the next synthesising what they have read. Throughout a few minutes of reading, they will have applied all the strategies without having given it much thought. They use the seven keys unconsciously and fluidly as they harvest the meaning and significance of the written words on the page. There is nothing fancy about strategies. They are common sense. However, to read well, readers must use them. (Zimmermann & Hutchins , 2003, p, 6)

### **2.4.3 Teaching reading**

Teaching reading is a big challenge to all teachers around the world.

Teachers have used different methods to teach learners to read. The first method of teaching reading was the spelling method. In this method, Greek and Romans teachers drilled their students in reciting the alphabet over and over, forward and backward. Students sang it in simple melodies and arranged tiles or blocks with letters on them until they knew the alphabet well.

Through the time, a new method emerged in 1527 and the German teacher Valentin Ickelsamer who wrote a book called the “shortest way to reading described the new method”. In this method, the students first learn to insulate speech sounds, and then learn the letters that stood for them, referring to conventional letter sounds as letters “names”. But not everyone agreed with the new method there was a name for referring to his school “babble factory” (Matthews, p.26,1996).

In 1800 there were some changes in how to teach reading. The most popular reader in this period was William McGuffey; he gave a format for teaching the phonic method. Presently, Sadoski (2004) explains McGuffey’s method.

- Phonic method-first teaches the elementary sounds and their

representatives, the letters marked with diacritical, as they occur in the lessons. Then, the formation of words by the combination of these sounds. Having read a few lessons in this manner, teachers begin to teach the names of the letters and the spelling of words and require the groups “a man, “the man, “a pen, “the pen”, to be read as a reasonable reader would pronounce single words.



- Word method helps pupils to identify at sight the words placed at the head of the reading exercises, and to read these exercises without hesitation. Having read a few lessons, teachers begin to teach the names of the letters and the spelling of the words.
- Word method and phonic method combined help the pupil to identify words and read sentences, as above. Having read a few lessons in this manner, teachers begin to use the phonics method, combining it with the word method, by first teaching the words in each lesson as words. Then, the elementary sounds, the names of the letter, and the spelling.
- Multisensory method seeks to stimulate all available senses simultaneously. One of the best- known examples of a multisensory method is the “look, say, trace a finger over, cover, write, check”, an approach which is often to teach spelling.”(p,84)
- Keyword method has direct application to the teaching of foreign and native language vocabulary and meaning. It also involves the establishment of a phonetic and an imagery connection between a foreign word and its native language native.
- Peer-assisted reading allows students to work together to decode and comprehend a text. Sometimes one student is designated the “tutor” for the peer-assisted reading and helps the other student if they struggle while reading the passage.
- Life skills reading focuses on words and phrases that students must know to function while shopping, enjoying recreation and at home.

- Language experience approach uses children’s spoken language to develop material for reading. This approach utilises a student's oral language level and personal experiences. Material is written by the child and teacher using each child's experience. This can be done in small groups and individually.
- Linguistic method uses a “whole word” approach. Words are taught in word families, or similar spelling patterns, and only as whole words. The student is not directly taught the relationships between letters and sounds but learns them through minimal word differences. As the child progresses, words that have irregular spellings are introduced as sight words.
- Neurological impress technique is a rapid technique. The instructor reads a passage at a fair rate, with the instructor’s voice directed into the student's ear. The teacher begins as the dominant reading voice, but gradually the students spend more time leading these sessions.

#### **2.4.4 Theories about Reading**

There are different theories about reading. According to the American heritage dictionary (2001) “A theory is a set of statements or principles devised to explain a group of facts or phenomena” (p.848). In Thomas’ words (1996)

A theory is an explanation of how the facts fit together. More precisely theorising about (a topic) means the act of proposing (1) which facts are most important for understanding (that topic) and (2) what sorts of relationships among the facts are most significant for producing this understanding. The theory is what makes sense out of facts. Theory gives facts their meaning. Without theory, facts remain a clutter of disorganised specks on the canvas, unconnected spots that form no picture of how and why children grow up as they do (p.4).

Theories also provide the frameworks through which various research studies can be linked both within and between fields of study. As stated previously, by definition, theories provide explanations that can be used to describe a variety of phenomena. Therefore, if a theory can be used to explain the research findings in the study “A”, it may also be used to explain the findings “B”, thus linking the two studies. Research that is theoretically linked to other research makes a more substantial contribution toward extending a knowledge base in any field than that which is not linked (Creswell, 2002). Some theories that help reading to evolve are the following:

### **Mental discipline Theory**

This theory was the first primary historical theory to provide a foundation for the field of education. The roots of this theory can be traced to the writings of Plato (ca. 428-347B.C. E) and Aristotle (ca.384-322 B.C.E). Both Plato and Aristotle lived in ancient Greece, usually considered by Historians to be “the birthplace of the western civilisation. “Although Homer and many other early thinkers of ancient Greece used myths to understand the universe, philosophers such as Plato and Aristotle (as well as Socrates and Isocrates) sought to explain the universe in rational terms (Guttek, 1972). Among his many writings on a variety of subjects, Plato developed a theory, later elaborated by Aristotle, that the mind is like a muscle -its various parts, or faculties, need to be exercised regularly (e.g. through the repetitive reciting of texts) in order to become strong and function optimally. This idea finds a modern form in Mental Discipline Theory. Biggie and Shermis (1992) summarise the highlights of this learning theory:

The central idea in mental discipline is that the mind, envisioned as a nonphysical substance, lies dormant until it is exercised. Faculties of the mind such as memory will, reason, and perseverance are “the muscles of the mind”; like physiological muscles, they are strengthened only through exercise, and after their adequate exercise they operate automatically. Thus, learning is a matter of strengthening or disciplining, the faculties of the mind, which combine to produce intelligent behaviour (p, 21).

Historically, adherence to Mental Discipline Theory results in instruction grounded in practice, drill, and rote memorisation. Advocates of this theory also view the curriculum as a series of skills that can be organised from the easiest to the most complex (Coker & White, 1993).

Historians of educational theory wrote that “Plato's dialogues, because of their extraordinary quality of raising the right questions and identifying the important ideas relevant to their answers, have had more impact and influence on Western philosophy and Western educational theory than any other writings in these fields” (Brumbaugh & Lawrence, 1963, p. 10). As Brumbaugh and Lawrence suggested, Mental Discipline Theory is an example of Plato's and Aristotle's work that has widely permeated the educational and psychological literature approximately 2,500 years. Most educators will readily agree with the notion of students’ minds like muscles that need to be exercised and strengthened in order to develop and grow.

### **Associationism**

It is theory of second language learning, it is from ancient times since Aristotle time, but that is still in use in the educational practice since it explains how learning happens. "Associationism examines how events or ideas can become associated with one another in mind, to result in the form of learning" (Sternberg, 1996 p,20).

Aristotle proposes three types of connections that help memorize and learn (Sternberg, 1996). The first one is *contiguity*, which suggests that the mind links things that happen at the same time or space. For example, some common actions in early routines such as teeth cleaning, showers and breakfast. The second one is *similarity*, which linking is done considering features and properties that are alike. The third one is contrast, where associations are done based on opposite characteristics, it is like antonyms such as thin-fat, happy-unhappy, honest-dishonest and the like.

Aristotle contributed to the theory of associationism thanks to his investigation that allows to observe how things are learnt and gathered through "similarity, contrast, and continuity". (p.209)

### **Unfoldment theory**

In contrast to learning to associations, the unfoldment theory proposes that leaning is innatisms. Rousseau (1712-1778) is one of the theorists who holds the unfoldment theory, which suggests that children learn and evolve in a natural way through their inborn curiosity. Rousseau is famous for the Emile that is a novel that indicates how education may be (1762). In his novel, the unfoldment theory is

portrayed. He suggests teachers to teach children the things children are interested in and the time they feel like learning and curiosity would lead children to learn as well as promoting games, providing guidance and preparing the environment (Morrow et al, 2011).

### **Classical conditioning theory**

Pavlov was the creator of the classical conditioning theory. Tracey and Morrow (2006, p.34) provide details of the theory, which focuses behavioral changes that can be observed and pay attention to responses to stimuli that nourishes learning.

### **Psycholinguistic theory and whole language theory**

According to Diane Tracey and Lesley Mandel Morrow (2006) psycholinguistics studies the bonds between psychology and language (p.57). They support the idea that readers are not passive active agents in the reading process. On the contrary they act to build coherent interpretations of the text, they work with.

### **Sociolinguistic theory**

Snow, Burns, and Griffin, (1998) say sociolinguistic theory considers that the development of the productive skills: reading and writing is possible through oral language. As children live in society, the language is develop in a social interaction (p,160).

## **Schema theory**

In mid- the 1970s, the schema theory was born, this theory is about how knowledge is structured and represented in people memory. A schema refers to an imaginary knowledge structure. It is speculative since it is not a tangible structure. However, the schema is known through the study of the memory and how the memory influences on people to interpretate lived experience.

## **Social Constructionism**

Social Constructionism focuses on how knowledge is developed and considers that social interactions play an important role in that development. Berger and Luckmann (1966) consider that sharing subjectivity with others influence on the way we interpret our world. Everyday life comprises subjective processes that people share with others through language, those processes make us understand language which is vital to understand our reality.

## **Transactional theory**

According to Rosenblatt (1986), reading is a meaning transaction between the reader and the text. The meaning is not in the text, the meaning results from the reader's interpretation that is shaped from their previous knowledge and cognition. When readers work with a text, they make mental interpretations of the text, those representations are the result of observing, analyzing, reflecting on, pondering, explaining, imagining, linking and savoring. When readers explore and

clarify their interpretations, they go constructing meanings of what is in the written text (Thomas, 1996).

### **Social Semiotic Theory**

According to (Van Leeuwen, 2005) semiotic refers to speech and writing and cultural and social meaning. What people we do is articulated with social and cultural trails. Semiotic theorists explain that the meaning of things are portrayed through people culture.

#### **2.4.5 Reading Benefits**

In the next table we can see some of the essential the benefits that reading has for example:

Table 2.2 Reading Benefit

Spelling improves	Comprehension improves
Punctuation accuray	Reading improves
Vocabulary knowledge	Writing is mastered
Speaking imporves	Grammar improves



Critical thinking ability improves	Critical reading happens
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- Through reading students become more skillful. According to Davis (1968):

Table.2.3

Memorizing vocabulary	Inferring unknown word meanings
Identifying explicit information.	Linking ideas.
Inference making.	Identifying internal and external text traits
Identifying text purposes.	Being familiar with text structure.

### 2.5.6 Purposes of reading

Nuttall (1982) argues that teaching reading skills in a foreign language “you read because you wanted to get something from writing: facts, ideas, enjoyment, even feelings of the family community (from a letter): whatever it is, you wanted to get the message that the writer has expressed.”(p.3). Grabe and Stoller (2002) classify reading purposes in seven types.

Reading to search it is the most common and is used very often, in this purpose we usually look for the information that we need, we usually do not tempt to read everything just the part that we are interested in.

**Reading to skim** it includes some skills to locate the critical information in the text.

**Reading to learn** this happens in academic and professional context where he needs to learn more about the area in which the person is.

Reading helps find out information, extend general knowledge, learn. It should not be a scholar task, however much of the reading practice is promoted at school contexts. Reading practice can be required individually, in groups in silence or out loud Goodman (1984). Reading as a foreign language need to go beyond reading to learn vocabulary or practice pronunciation, it may go for meaning.

**Reading to integrate** information refers to have a critical evaluation of the information to integrate them and if the information can fill the goal.

**Reading critique texts** is to select and critique the information from a text.

**Reading for survival helps fulfil** needs or desires.

**Reading for general comprehension** according to Stoiller (2002) reading comprehension occurs when the readers are skillful, it requires processes such as quick and automatic word interpretation, ideas representation, and coordination of those processes match to time requirements.

**Reading for pleasure** is a free practice, nobody else indicate to do the practice. Readers carry out the reading practice because they decide to do it freely.

### 2.5. Comprehension

Comprehension is interpreted in different ways by different people. It is possible when the reader has developed a set of skills (Kintsch, Kintsch, Rapp, & Van den Broek, 2005). The reading process can be easier and unconscious in adulthood.

Understanding a text is a process that needs some developed abilities. The reading comprehension is about interpreting the information in a text correctly.

Fluent reading is related to reading comprehension. The next table shows some process with it comes to reading Grabe &Stoller (2002):

Table 2.4. Processes in reading

The reading process must be:	interactive activity
Strategic activity	flexible
evaluated	with a purpose
understood	brings out learning
linguistic in nature	efficient

Besides this Grabe and Stoller (2002) explain that “fluent reading must occur rapidly in almost any purposeful context, and the more rapidly a text is (successfully) read, the better the various processing components are likely to operate.” (p.18)

### **2.5.1 Skimming and scanning**

Skimming is looking to the text quickly for general understanding. This quick look can help the reader see if the text is the one required. On the other hand, scanning helps as well through a fast look to find specific information. These two techniques can help to make the reading practice an efficient process. (Nuttall, 1982)

### **2.5.2 Difficulties to Understand a Text**

While reading a text, some readers face problems to understand what they read. Some reasons are text complexity, unknown or technical words, lack of familiarity and text content, language code. (Nuttall, 1982)

## **2.6 Language**

In the words of Smith (1994) language can be written or spoken which has certain phonetic and phonological patterns such as “loudness or duration or pitch of the sounds of speech, or the number, size, or contrast of the printed marks of writing” (p.26). According to Sapir (1921) language is a human tool used voluntarily to communicate ideas, ways of being, and wishes. Language begins with simple utterances and continues with complex and full ideas with a specific purpose.

Another characteristic of the language is called displacement, it refers to the ability to express ideas that comes later, in other words, we express future acts. That quality makes people language different from the way animals communicate (Goodall, 2008). Productivity is another language characteristic; it refers to the endless number of ideas that can be created with the language through the combination of some language patterns.

### Modes of Linguistic Communication

Speaking: the most common vehicle of linguistic communication is the voice, and speech can accomplish its work effectively in darkness and light, straight ahead and rounds corners. During the development of the human species, with hands and eyes occupied in hunting, fishing, and food gathering, speakers remained free to report, ask for and give directions, explain, promise, apologise, bargain, warn, and flirt.

Speaking has still other advantages. For one thing, the human voice is sophisticated and has many channels. It has variable volume, pitch, rhythm, and speed; it is capable of wide-ranging modulation. Besides a set of sounds, speech takes advantage of the organisation of those sounds, their sequencing into words and sentences. Like writing and signing, speech can take advantage of word choice and word order. In its natural state, of course, speech evaporates and cannot span time, but modern technologies are making it possible to preserve speech indefinitely (Finegan, 2008, p.p. 16-17).

Writing: Long before the invention of writing, people painted stories on cave walls and exploited other visual signs to record events. Such *pictograms* were independent of language—a kind of cartoon world in which anyone with knowledge of the lives of people but without specific linguistic knowledge could reconstruct the depicted story. When shown adult speakers, depicted stories can be told in Tagalog, Japanese, Arabic, Swahili, Vietnamese, Spanish, English, Indonesian. Pictograms can be understood in any language because they are a direct, nonlinguistic symbolization, like a silent film or the road signs used internationally to indicate a curved roadway or the availability for food or lodging. Among the most famous icons now in use are the “emoticons” :) and :( that is common in e-mail correspondence.

If icons come to be associated not with the objects they represent but with the words that refer to the objects, we have a much more sophisticated system. Written representation becomes *linguistic* when it relies on language for its organisation and communicative success (pag.17)

Speech and Writing are related in different ways to the world they symbolise. Speech directly represents entities in the world -things such as the sun, the moon, fish, grain, light, and height. Writing represents the physical only directly. A written sentence such as *Meg caught the fish* is a secondary symbolization in which the written signs represent the spoken words, not the entities and activities themselves.

Writing has certain advantages over speech. Although it generally takes longer to produce than speech, it can be read and understood much more quickly

than speaking can be heard and understood. Writing (in correspondence or books or on cave walls) endures longer than no recorded speech and if published has a greater reach. A message on a blackboard can be read after its author has left the room; not to the spoken utterance (p, 17).

Signing: the third mode of linguistic is signing, the use of visible gestures to communicate. To accompany their talk, speakers often use gestures and facial expressions to convey meaning in support of oral communication but signing can be used as the sole means of accomplishing the work of language (p, 17).

## **2.7 The role of the teacher.**

The teacher role is crucial to inspire a future reader. A teacher who does not inspire or motivate their students is a teacher that is making a huge mistake. In other words, that teacher will face the responsibility of being a teacher that does not promote reading. In the future the students will face some problems, for example; the writing skill will be not as developed as the student or the other teachers wish. Another example the speech of the students will lack of deepness and cohesion.

However, in the words of Nuttall (1982), “the generalised skill of reading can only be acquired through practising the specific skills required for reading Text A, Text B, and so on. One of the teachers’ jobs is to make sure that the bridge is built between the specific and the general. Moreover, one way of helping the students to generalise their skills to make sure that they read a lot and has much practice in using the skills varied materials.” (p.p. 22,23).

The author mentions that the responsibility of the teacher is not absolute; instead, she claims that the teacher is a vehicle so the student can reach the primary goal.

### 2.7.1 Motivation.

Motivation is typically defined as that which influences the initiation, direction, magnitude, perseverance, continuation, and quality of goal-directed behaviour (Dweek, Elliot, Maehr, & Meyer, 1983,1997)The significance of “goals” in such a definition is clear; according to goal theory, they are mostly what gives an activity purpose or meaning (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007; Maehr & Nicholls 1980). In short, the achievement goal theory specifies the kind of goals (purposes or reasons) that direct achievement-related behaviours.

Motivation can be seen as an active process in which children construct ideas about language and literacy as they communicate. Learners are engaged in selecting activities, in attending to specific parts of these activities, and planning strategies for problem-solving. Learning can be defined as a process in which new information with what they already know. While being engaged in conversations, or in reading texts, learners continuously make predictions, monitor the outcome of these predictions, and seek a solution to the problems they encounter. As such, literacy can be seen as an instrument to foster children's thinking and concept development (Guthrie & Knowless, 2001, p. 4) Table 2.5 Motivational Theories.

Motivational Theory	Theorist
Self-determination theory	Deci, E.I., Ryan, R.M.(1985).
Behavioural theory	Thorndike, E.



Social cognitive theory	Bandura, A.
Expectancy-value theory	Wigfield,A.,Eccles,J,S
Control-value theory	Pekrun, R.

**Self- determination theory:** is an empirically based, organismic theory of human behaviour and personality development. SDT's analysis is focused primarily at the psychological level, and it differentiates types of motivation along a continuum from controlled to autonomous. The theory is mainly concerned with how social- context factors support or thwart people's thriving through the satisfaction of their basic psychological needs: the competence, relatedness, and autonomy. (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 3)

**Behavioural theory:** is a theory of learning based on the idea that all behaviours are acquired through conditioning. Conditioning occurs through interaction with the environment. Behaviourists believe that our responses to environmental stimuli shape our actions. (Thorndike, 1921)

**Social cognitive theory:** started as a social learning theory in the 1960s by Albert Bandura. It developed into SCT in 1986 and posits that learning occurs in a social context with a dynamic and reciprocal interaction of the person, environment, and behaviour. The unique feature of SCT is the emphasis on social influence and its emphasis on external and internal social reinforcement. SCT considers the unique way in which individuals acquire and maintain behaviour, while also considering the social environment in which individuals perform the behaviour. The

theory takes into account people past experiences, which factor into whether behavioural action will occur. (Bandura, 1986)

**Expectancy-value theory:** this theory suggests that for the students to be willing to expend personal effort on a task the activity and the outcome have to be seen as valuable to the learners. If learners do not feel confident about the success, or if the task is not valued, minimal effort will be expended, and low achievement can be anticipated. (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000,p.32)

**Control – valued theory:** according to the control- valued theory, the perceived controllability of success and failure- not the controllability of the causes of success and failure, such as ability and effort – is posited to elicit various emotions. Success and failure may be controllable via the use of causal factors that are themselves uncontrollable, such as the ability. (Smart, 2010, p. 238)

### **2.8 writing and writing skills.**

Writing can be defined as communicating in different dimensions or exchanging messages through the use of different symbols /graphemes, while choosing a specific form; using a tool of writing to convey a message or a meaning, taking consideration for time and place within chosen paths and dimensions. (Ghizan, 2015, p. 10)

The organisations of the paragraph and how sentences are connected to form a well- develop piece of writing can make all the difference for many. In addition to the order of the words, words derivations have to be considered and studied in depth.

Coherence and clarity are essential so that the students can form sentences that are clear, syntactically correct, and semantically meaningful. Vocabulary can affect. For example, after learning the location and type of premodifiers and postmodifiers in English sentence, it becomes easier for a student to place each word in its correct location; the student can automatically decide where to put each derivation. (Ghizan, 2015, p. 25)

According to (Hyland, 2007) exemplifications and reformulating can develop the student's skills as this is considered to be a form of practice. When the student can come up with sentences on a given the word, recognise the category or determine the function of each category, the process of writing sentences, phrases, clauses or vocabulary linked to each other following the rules of writing can be performed more proficiently.

Learning the type of sentences, clauses, and phrases allow students to write and example or correct a sentence and this by itself can teach students, who are willing to develop their writing skills, to apply the rules. The writing system is different from writing style, or form of writing, but both have to be learned by the student in a comparatively short of time. (Ghizan, 2015)

According to (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 32) writers need, at least:

Grammatical competence- knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, and the language system.

Discourse competence- a knowledge of the genre and rhetorical patterns that create them

Sociolinguistic competence –the ability to use language appropriately in different contexts, understanding readers and adopting appropriate authorial attitudes.

Strategic competence- the ability to use a variety of communicative strategies

### **2.8.1 The writing process.**

**Prewriting** allows writers to discover what they know and how to proceed.

During this stage students learn to make decisions about the topic as they ask questions: Do I know enough about this topic to continue? How can I gather more information? Do I like this topic? At this time the teacher has an opportunity to monitor student's progress. Through visual monitoring proximity and relatively quick conferences, teachers guide students, answer questions before the paper is too developed, and advise students as to what works and what does not work in their writing. Brainstorm, cluster, cue, plot, and gather are the strategies to be placed in the cognitive mind of students. There are tools that allow students to initiate the process.

**Writing** for the writer, this is time to record the ideas collected and discovered during prewriting. The paper begins to take narrative form from sentences and paragraphs. Both organisation and logical development begin. Because students have the prewriting, they can produce the first draft. Again, tools help students to continue processing. Through modelling, teachers demonstrate how to focus, share, and create titles.

**Revising** means making changes. The writer works with the draft to add details that bring clarity and voice and that involve the reader. Revising is the most intimidate stage of the process because students do not know what to do. Teacher modelling strengthens the process and opens the door for students to welcome the opportunity to make those changes. Tools involve leads, organisation, questions, description, word choice, and conferences.

**Editing** with a revised draft (probably several drafts after the original), the writer makes the final touches during editing to ensure a reader's comprehension. Although many teachers cover usage and mechanics early on because that is what they are comfortable with, these strategies should come later in the writing process. In the initial stages, writing should be a natural flow of ideas, and editing too early stifles ideas. At the appropriate time, teachers model tools for self- editing, peer editing, and final proofing.

**Publishing** the writer proudly displays the finished product. This is a time for being satisfied with one's accomplishment; it is a time for celebration. Often students have produced pieces of writing only have them handed into the teacher graded and returned. The purpose of the work gets lost. Writing is meant to be read. Attention to celebrations, portfolios, manuscripts, and oral presentations are the tools to demonstrate accomplishment.

### **2.8.2 Teaching writing.**

Caswell and Mahler (2004) suggest the following eight tips to teach writing:

#### **Creative a positive, non-threatening environment**

Unfortunately, many students come to a writing lesson with a negative predisposition. Therefore needs to create a positive environment in the classroom.

Such as:

- Use colour throughout the room.
- Play music that sets the mood of the class.
- Display posters, potted plants, etc. Stuff parks ideas.
- Share yourself. Allow the students to know the human side. This will make them more willing to share themselves through their writing.
- Demonstrate writing. A teacher who writes is a role model.
- Be positive by using praise often and in a positive manner.
- Make reading materials available.
- Provide a supply centre. Possible items: glue, scissors, highlighter, whiteout, markers coloured pencils, and tape.
- Allow students a role in the creation of the classroom.
- Dim the lights.

### **Set the expectations**

Instruct the students on when they may talk and when they may not. During a quiet writing time, students should not talk because this is the time for them to cement their ideas and listen to their inner thoughts. If instructions include the rule that no questions are allowed during this period, can use quit writing to complete necessary tasks.

Arrange sections of the room to indicate that different tasks are acceptable in different areas:

- A conference corner can be created where partners can go to discuss their papers.
- An open area on the floor accommodates small groups who gather to share. This eliminates the need to shift desks and chairs around and allows for closer proximity, so voices do not need to be loud.
- Cubbies or isolated areas provide space for students who work best with limited distractions.

**Provide a system of organisation for the students.**

Creating folders can become a component of the writing class and a valuable tool in teaching and understanding the writing process. Instruct students to bring three two-pocket folders to class. Open folders to class.

Labelling each pocket a different stage of the writing process provide students with a manipulative that will guide them as they write a paper that progresses through each of the processes.

**Determine systems for time management.**

Instructors, who teach the process systematically, walk students through each stage, exploring the different activities the experimenting with multiple strategies. On the first paper students write, it is valuable to provide them with a set of strategies. When learning the writing process, it needs encouragement to

investigate and reflect on the effectiveness of each strategy. As more strategies are introduced, they begin to identify those that are successful for them. For this reason, all students should attempt each strategy introduced during classroom instruction.

### **Use mini-lesson.**

A mini-lesson is the application of any one of the tools from this action tool. They generally take between 10 and 20 minutes of class time, with the remainder of the class dedicated to students writing and applying the skills provided in the lesson. The focus is to keep the lesson short so that students associate more time with the application than with the presentation.

### **Allow time for application.**

Often teachers spend time teaching and reteaching but limit time for application, which is when the real learning occurs. The tricky part for the teacher is to allow students time to write. Without this time, it will not matter what enjoyable activities the teacher presents. When students leave the classroom, they should be independent writers. They must know and be able to work from draft to final, even without a teacher there to guide them.

### **Plan ahead**

When planning, teachers can analyse appropriate grade level skills, interpret students' needs, and consider the purpose, audience, and genre of the writing.

### **Write another paper using different activities.**



It is essential that writing continues. Students are not going to develop their writing skills without intensive practice. Each time teachers assign a new writing project, they need to allow students to work through the process. Reviewing a strategy, encourage students to choose strategies they have identified as valuable, and introduce new strategies. The criteria for selecting which tools to use and which strategies to teach the rest with you and are independent of the students' skills and needs.

## **CHAPTER III. THE METHODOLOGY.**

### **3.1 METHODOLOGY.**

This research is about the benefits of reading and how they can help LEI students to improve your writing skill. The purpose was to research and collect data to find out how reading helps in the skill of writing. Therefore, to collect the data it was necessary to carry out classroom observations.

In this chapter, it will be found the subjects whom the data were obtained the instrument as well used and the procedure followed to obtain the data. The type of investigation and method used will be found in this chapter, too.

### **3.2 Type of investigation and method.**

This research is a case study, and the method to collect the information received was descriptive- quantitative in order to interpret the data to obtain the correct results.

### **3.3 Setting.**

The place was carried out in a language department of a public university, in central Mexico where there are two BA one is English teaching, and the other is French teaching. The subjects that they teach are related to linguistics and also about the cultural part of the language as well as teaching.

### **3.4 Participants.**

Fourteen students were selected to answer the questionnaire, six men and 8 women whose ages were from 20 and 20 years old. They are coursing Target Language V and with an average between eight and nine. The participants in this research were students from a Faculty of Languages in which the subjects selected were persons who had the habit to read and had some impact on their skill of writing and their lives.

### **3.5 The instrument.**

A questionnaire was designed to gather information. The questionnaire consisted of 15 questions, 12 questions were multiple choice and three questions were open questions. See appendix 1.

### **3.6 Procedure.**

The questionnaire was designed and then sent to be checked and validated by two experts. After having done the recommendations given by the experts, the subject was selected and invited to answer the questionnaire. The questionnaire was applied in 2017. The students received a questionnaire where they have to answer some questions about reading. Students answered the questionnaire in 20 minutes.

## **CHAPTER IV: THE RESULTS.**

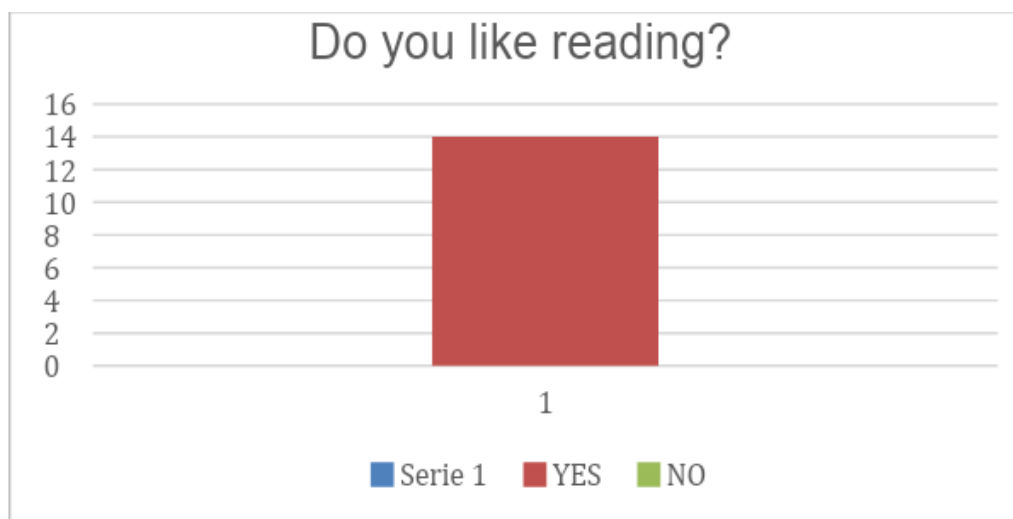
### **4. Introduction.**

In this chapter, it is shown the data obtained from the instrument and its interpretation. Therefore, we can take a look at the results of this research and how the persons whom I obtained the information were agreed in some aspects. As they are great readers and they started at an early age. Also, they have all agreed that reading was a significant factor in the development of their writing skill.

#### **4.1. Do you like reading?**

Figure 4.1 shows that 100% of the students who participated in this study like reading. They argued that reading is an enjoyable activity that help them to acquire vocabulary. Another group said they read in order to get knowledge and to get more information about certain topics.

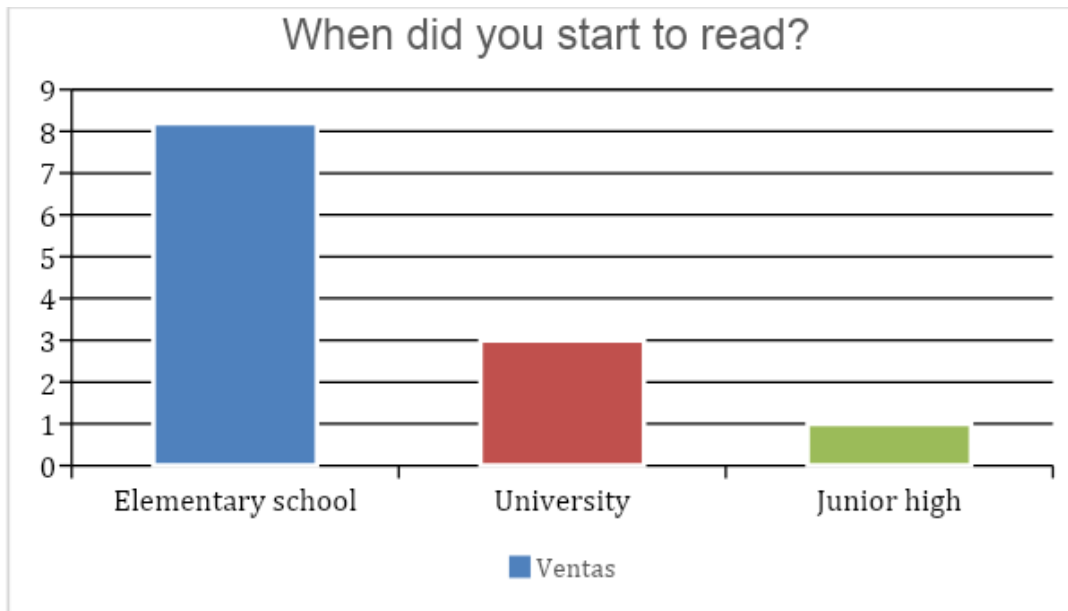
Figure. 4.1 Do you like reading?



#### 4.2. When did you start to read?

Figure 4.2 shows that students started reading when they were studying in elementary school. The rest replied that they began at junior high or at the university.

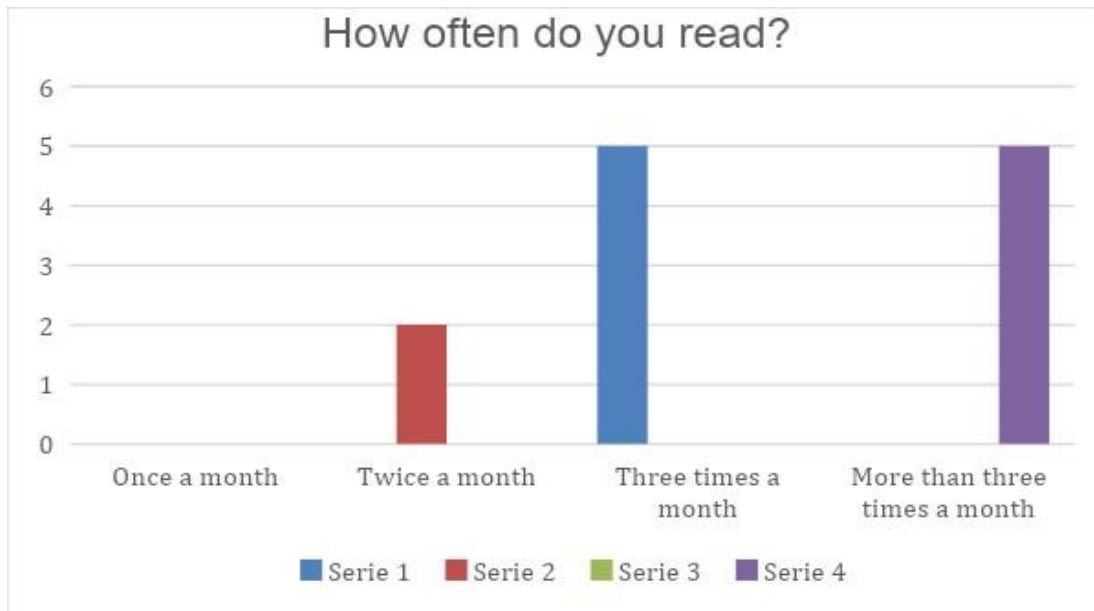
Figure. 4.2 When did you start to read?



#### 4.3. How often do you read?

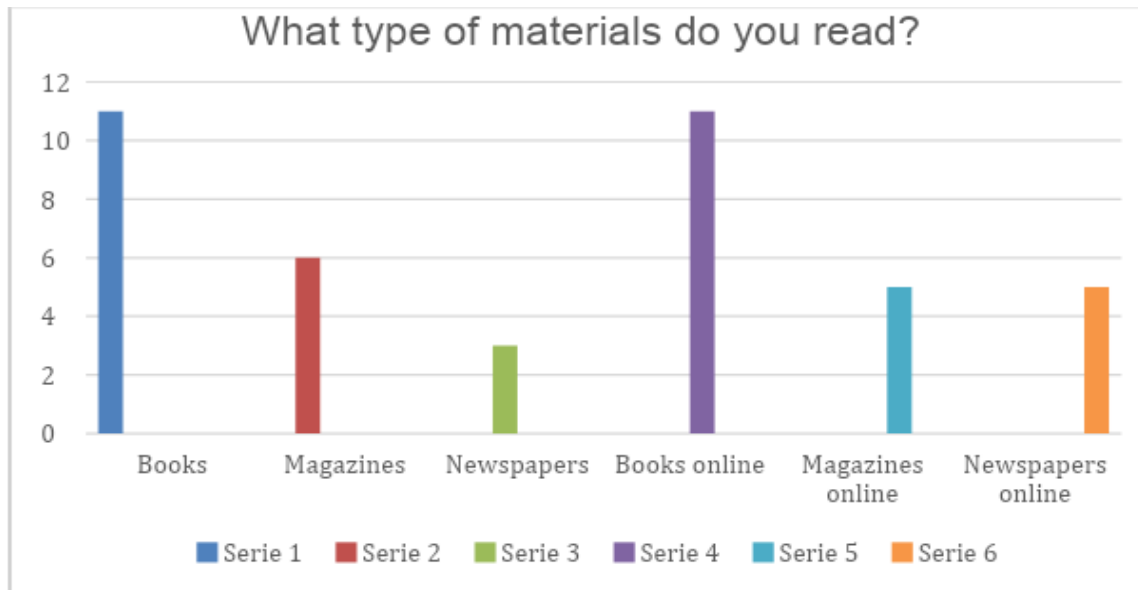
Figure 4.3 shows how often students read. The students answered that they read more than three times a month and three times a month were the highest percent the least were twice a month and nobody answered that they read once a month.

Figure 4.3 How often do you read?



#### 4.4. What type of materials do you read?

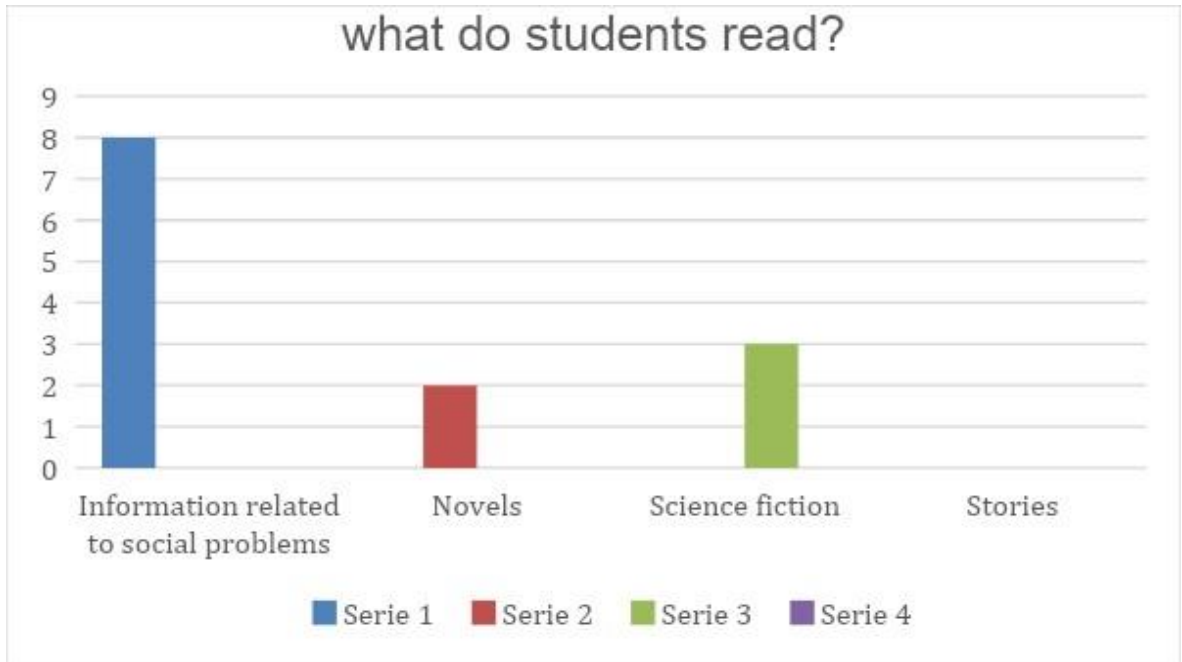
Figure 4.4 shows the reading materials students usually use. Here we can see that books online are the most popular among them. Then it comes to magazines, newspapers, book online, and newspapers online Figure 4.4 What type of materials do you read?



#### 4.5. What do students read?

Figure 4.5 shows what the students read. Most of the students answer that they read topics related to social problems, then novels, science fiction and stories were the least popular for the students.

Figure 4.5 What do students read?

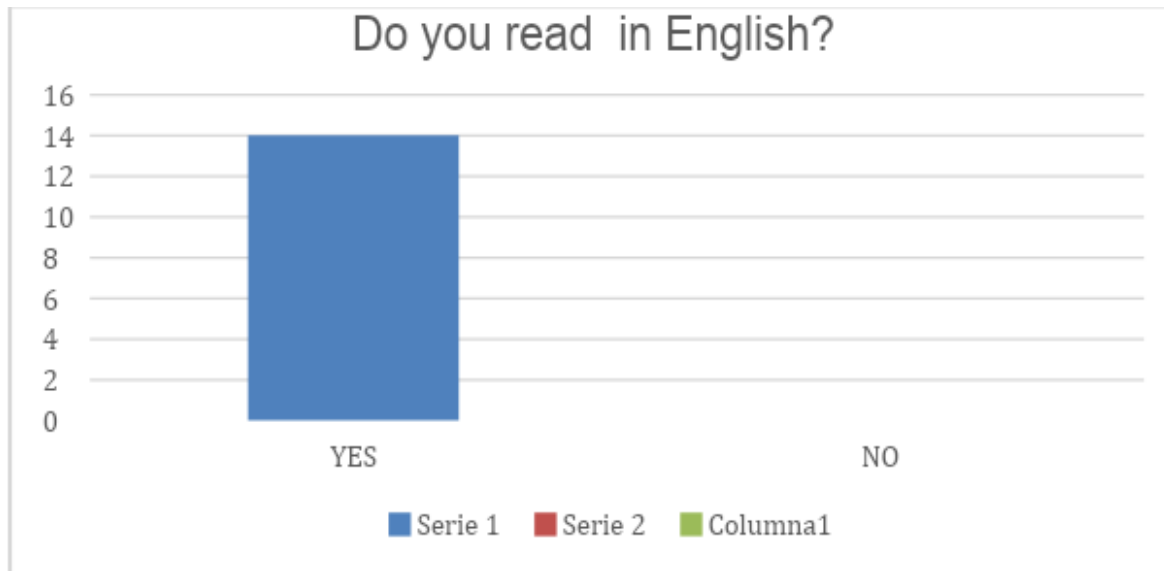


#### 4.6. Do you read in English?

Figure 4.6 shows how many students read in English. The result indicates that 14 of the students read in English that is the 100 of the interviewers.

Figure 4.6 Do you read in English?

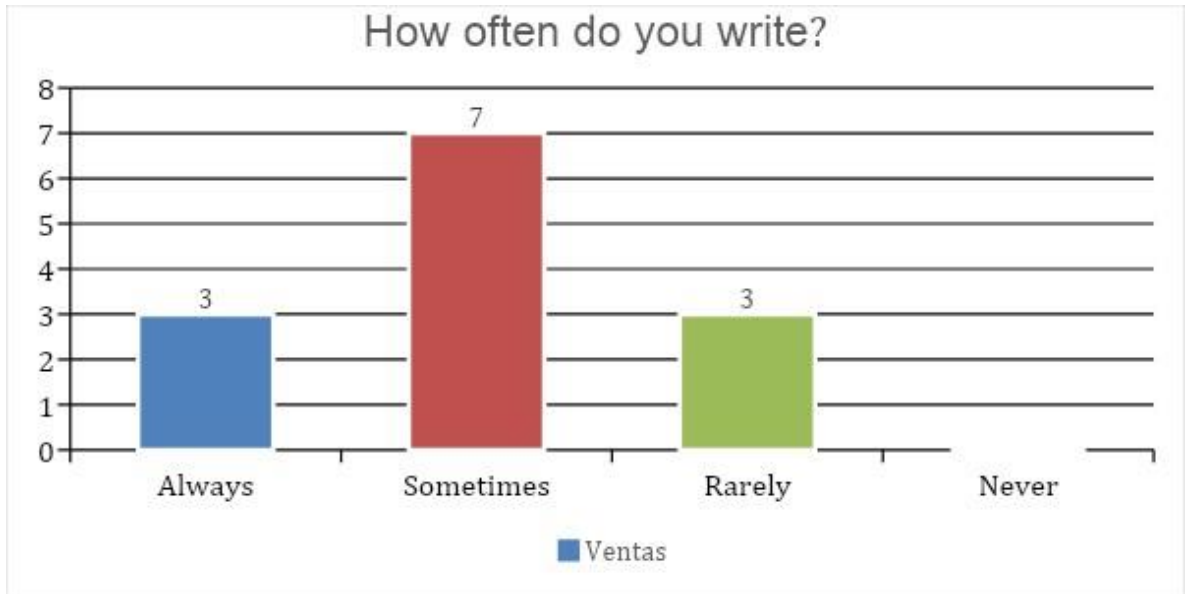




#### 4.7. How often do you write?

Figure 4.7 indicates the frequency students write in English. Seven of them sometimes in English, three of them always write in English, three of them rarely does and only one of them never writes in English.

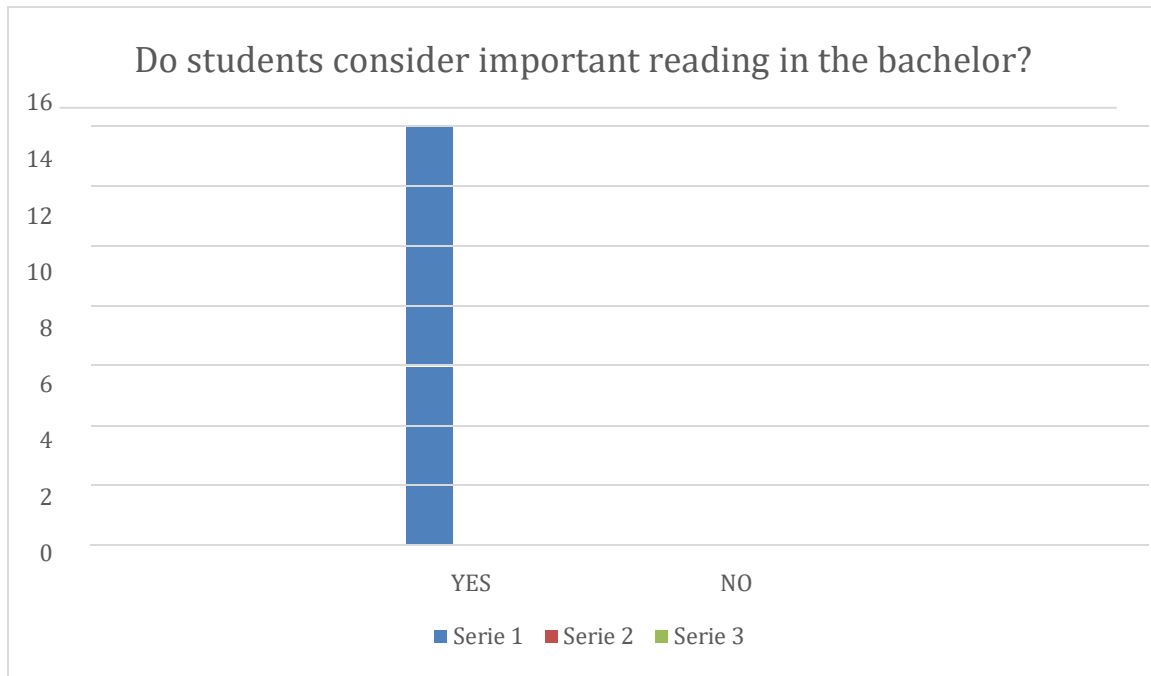
Figure 4.7 How often do you write?



#### 4.8. Do you think the Reading skill is important in your bachelor?

Figure 4.8 shows how many students believe reading is essential in the bachelor degree. The whole sample, 100% of the students agreed that it is essential. They also answered the main reason to read was they wanted to develop their skills and their grammar as well. Another reason by the students was that they want to be better professionals.

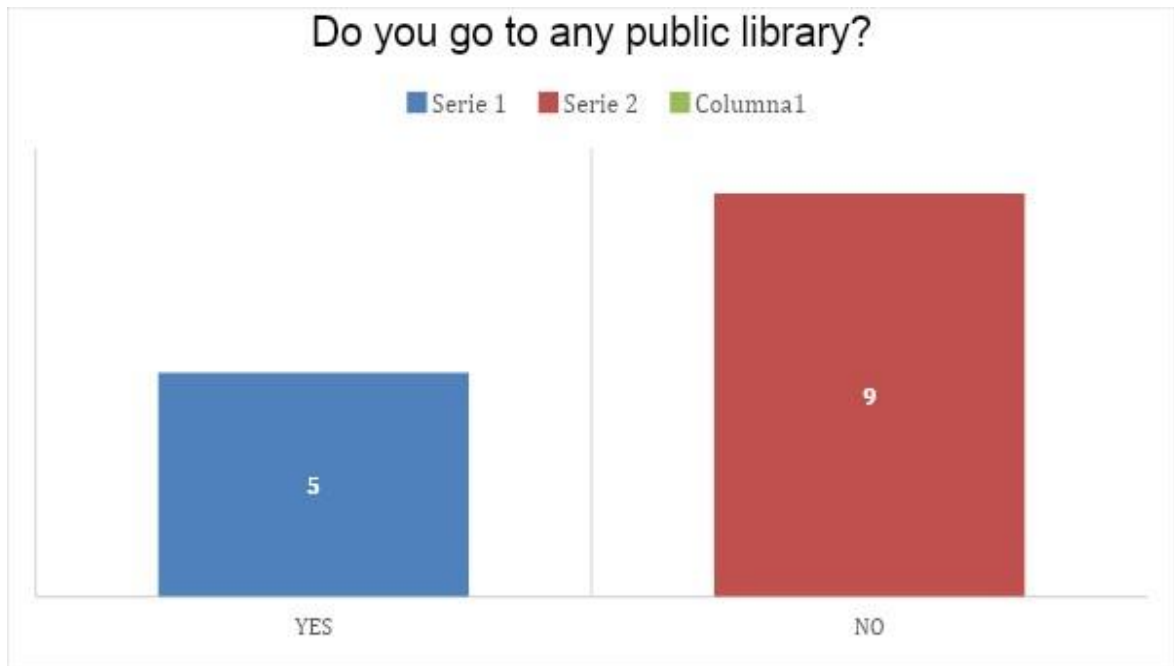
Figure 4.8 Do students consider important reading in the bachelor?



#### 4.9. Do you go to any public library?

The figure 4.9 shows that 65% of the students do not go to a public library and only 35% go. It is important that students make use of libraries.

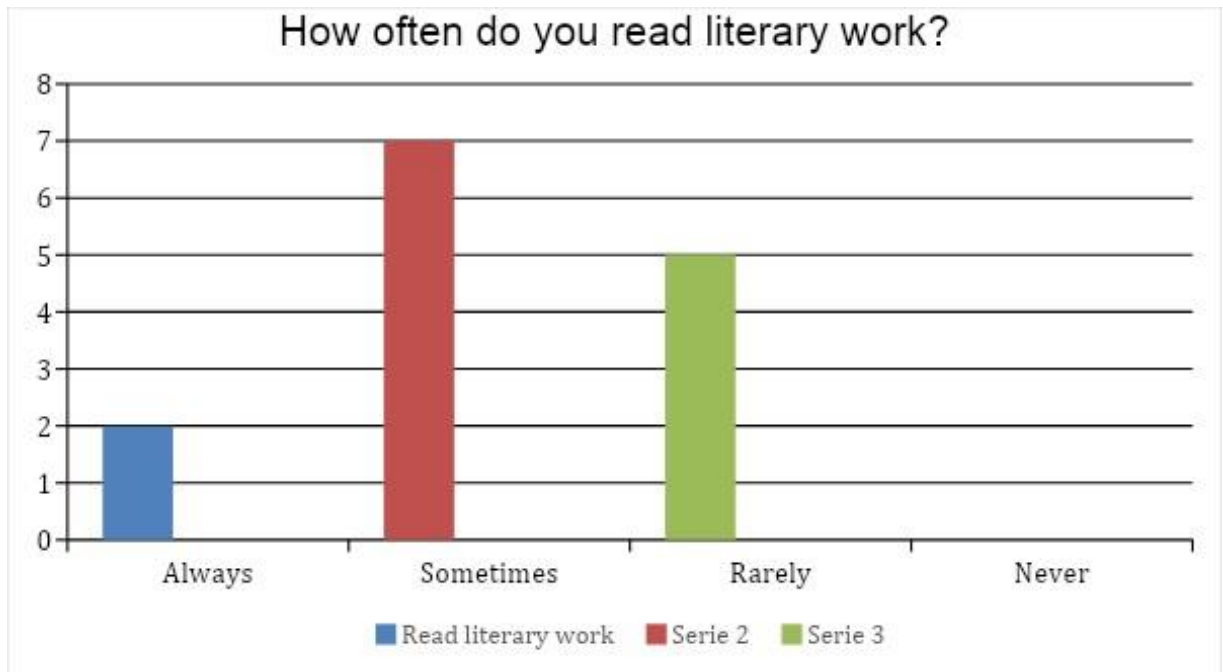
Figure 4.9 Do go to any public library?



#### **4.10. How often do you read literary work?**

The figure 4.10 shows how often students read literary work. The majority of the participants answers, the 65%, show that they sometimes read a literary work. Another 25% replied that they rarely read this kind of texts.

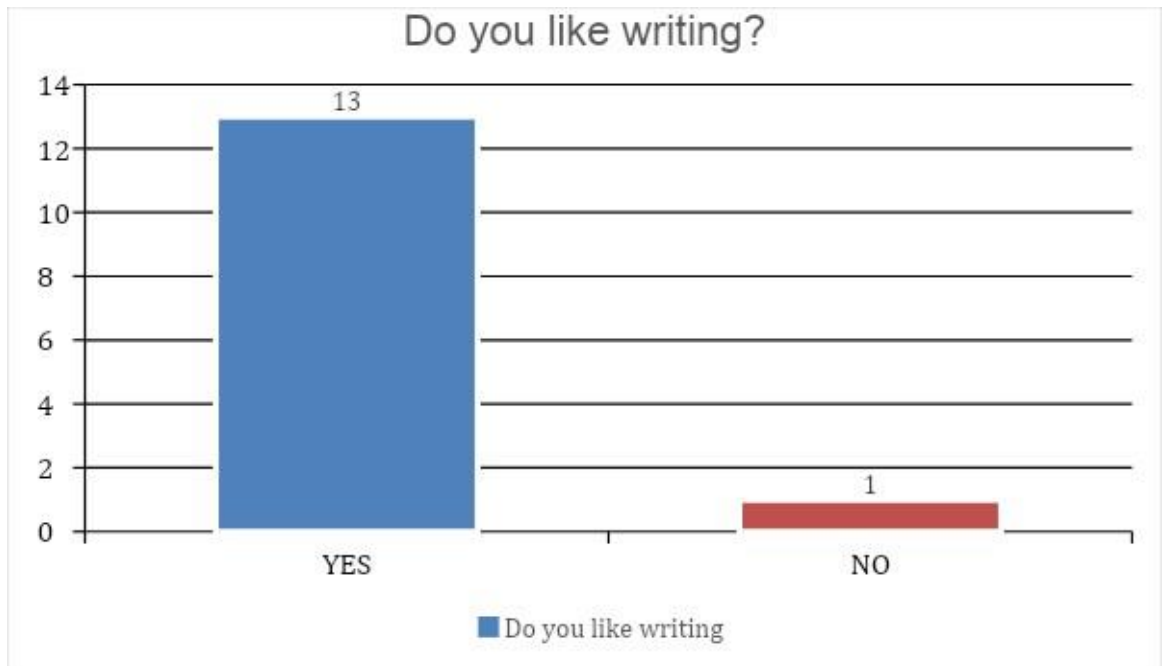
Figure 4.10 How often do you read literary work?



#### 4.11. Do you like writing?

The figure 4.11 shows that students like to write in English. Since 90% of the students answered that they like to write and just 1% replied that they do not like it.

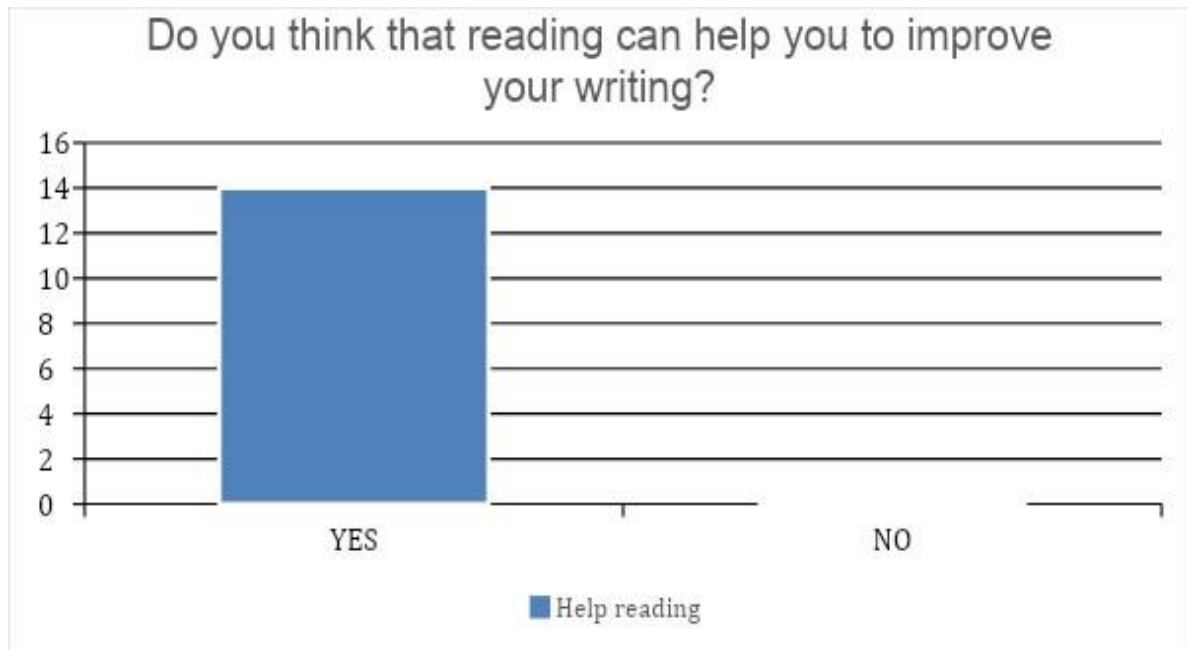
Figure 4.11 Do you like writing?



**4.12. Do you think that reading can help you to improve your writing?**

The figure 4.12 indicates that students believe reading can help them to improve their writing skill as well. The students answered reading can help them to express their ideas and in the proper way.

Figure 4.12 Do you think that reading can help you to improve your writing?

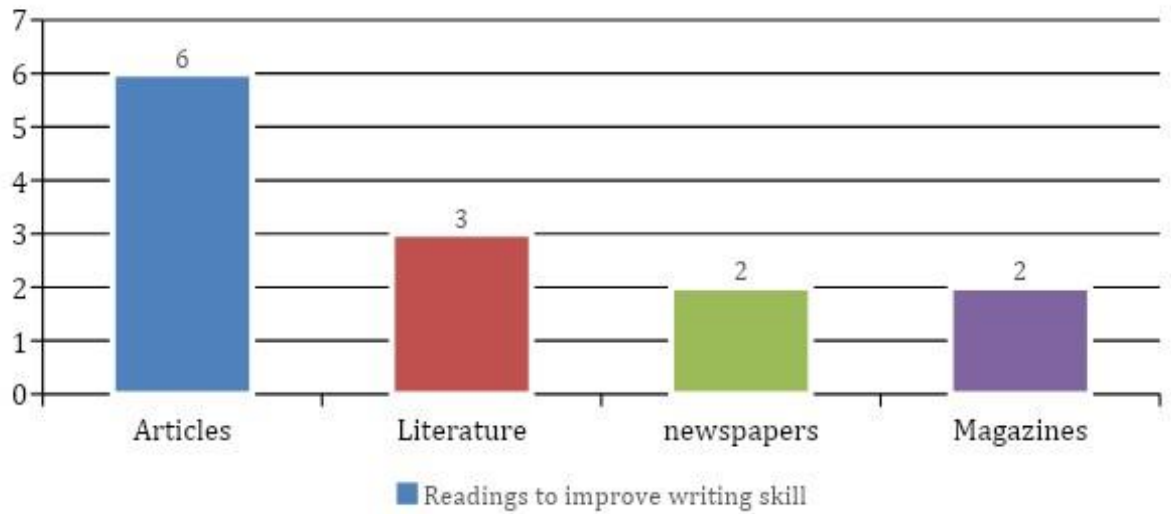


**4.13. What type of readings do you recommend to improve writing skill?**

The figure 4.13 shows that most students recommend improving the writing skill. The results indicate articles were the most popular than literature, newspapers and magazines.

Figure 4.13 what type of readings do you recommend to improve writing skill?

### What type of readings do you recommend to improve writing skill?





## **CHAPTER V: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **Conclusions.**

#### **Research questions:**

##### **1. Do ELT undergraduate students consider themselves readers?**

The information obtained from the instrument applied showed that the subjects enjoy reading and find benefits. Reading helps to develop not only this skill but also the rest of the language skills, especially in the writing skill because it helps to increase the students' vocabulary as well as to organize their ideas when writing coherently.

##### **2. How does reading influence students' writing?**

According to the subjects' answers, most of the students consider reading is a powerful tool that helps them to improve their writing skill because through reading they can learn how to collocate the words in the correct order and also how to use them properly. Another positive influence is in the lexical level since they can increase the vocabulary range because when students read, they can learn more vocabulary so that they can express their ideas in the text they produce.

##### **3. How do teachers promote reading to improve writing according to students' experience?**

Teachers have a big responsibility when it comes to reading, the key to promote the reading habit to students is to set goals to get the attention from the students. It is also necessary to create a vehicle between the teacher and the students and develop those skills students need to achieve their goals. The motivation is also another tool to promote reading because through this the student can feel confident.

Based on the data, we can observe that reading has a real impact in the students' academic life. It was noticed that not only read for academic purposes, they also practice this skill in their personal life since most of them show interest in reading books online. The information also indicates that students usually read stories. Moreover we can find that female participants read more than male. Regarding, the participants read three times a month, a magazine, book etc.

The researcher came up with the following conclusion; the skill of reading has an essential relationship with the skill of writing, both skills have a huge impact, and we cannot understand writing without reading. The writing skill is one of the most challenging skills to overcome; most students have troubles to write correctly. Nevertheless, reading can help to improve the skill of reading. It becomes very important in the university level where students need to develop these skills especially if they will become English teachers and have to be able to correct and teach their students' reading and writing skills.

### **Recommendations.**

Based on the conclusions, the following recommendations are given; that the teachers need to help students to develop their writing skill implementing effective strategies to make them become better writers. Besides they need to motivate their students to read more often three times a month is not enough to become expert readers. The results of this research can help the students and teachers to work together to make reading an everyday practice and promote writing through reading which can be done in a proper way if the students start reading strategically.

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## APPENDIX 1

The information given on this survey will be used to get a degree in Licenciado en la Enseñanza del Inglés. Therefore read each question carefully and answer each question accurately.

### Answer the following questions.

Target language you are taking in this moment \_\_\_\_\_.

General average: \_\_\_\_\_.

Genre:\_\_\_\_\_. Age:\_\_\_\_\_

**Instructions:** Please, read the following questions and answer according to you.

1.-Do you like reading? ( match the answer ) Yes. \_\_\_\_\_ No. \_\_\_\_\_

2.-Why? / Why not?

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3.-When did you start reading?

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4.-How often do you read? (Choose one option)

- a) Once a month
- b) Twice a month
- c) Three times a month
- d) More than three times a month
- e) other: \_\_\_\_\_ -

5. What type of materials have you read? (Circle as many as you want)

- a) books
- b) Magazines.
- c) newspapers

- d) books online
- e) newspapers online
- f) magazines online
- g) others: which ones: \_\_\_\_\_

6. Do you read\_\_\_\_\_?

- a) information related to social problems
- b) novels
- c) science fiction
- d) stories
- e) other. which ones: \_\_\_\_\_

5.-Do you read in English? (match the answer you choose)

Yes

No.

6.-How many books do you read in English per month?

- a) One
- b) Two
- c) three
- d) other \_\_\_\_\_

7.-Do you think Reading skill is important in your bachelor? (Circle the answer)

a) Yes.

b) No.

Why / Why not?

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8.-Do you go to any public libraries?

a) Yes

b) No

9.-How often do you read literary work?

a) Always b )

Sometimes

c) Rarely

d) Never

10.-Do you like writing?

a) Yes

b) No

11.-Do you think reading can help to improve your writing?

a) Yes

b) No

Why? Why no?

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12.-How often do you write?

a) Always

b) Sometimes

c) Rarely

d) Never

14.-Do you consider that reading has helped you in life and in improving your writing skill?

a) Yes.

b) No

How:

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15. What type of readings do you recommend to improve in writing? ( Write 3 types)

a) \_\_\_\_\_

b) \_\_\_\_\_

c) \_\_\_\_\_

I \_\_\_\_\_ (name) agree that the information obtained from this questionnaire can be used so that the researcher of this research can obtain the bachelor's degree in Licenciado en la Enseñanza del Inglés.

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

**THANKS FOR YOUR HELP**