

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### Introduction

Reading instruction has changed considerably in the past 25 years (Tompkins, 1997). In the history of learning to read, the pendulum of reading instruction swung back and forth several times between the two extremes. The educators advocated more of a 'whole word' approach to reading instruction in the middle of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. In the late 19<sup>th</sup> century and the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, the pendulum swung back towards 'skills and drills' instruction. In the 1980s, the pendulum swung back towards whole language and more authentic reading lessons. The end of 1990s saw a swing back to phonics. Recently the National Academy of Sciences released an analysis of research in reading instruction called *Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children* (Snow, Burns & Griffin, 1998), which expressed the hopes to mark the end of the reading debates by shifting the focus to the individual learning needs. According to the 1992 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), most teachers in the U.S. adopted what they described as a 'balanced approach' to reading instruction. Basically, the balanced approach is related to the 'interactive model' of reading. Balanced reading is a compromise between the two extreme philosophies.

Many educators examined literacy programs and their effects on reading comprehension of second or foreign language readers. In this section, the related literature reviewed the theoretical background for this study. It began with reading comprehension. Next, models of reading process in first, second, and foreign language reading research were discussed. Later, the Four Blocks literacy framework and repeated reading were proposed for the current study. Finally, this chapter reviewed the autonomous learning which was developed as the learner-directed mode in this study.

## Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension is an active process in which a reader plays a very active role in constructing meaning based on their backgrounds, purposes for reading, and the overall setting. Bartlett (1967) described reading comprehension as an 'effort after meaning.' He theorized that one's background knowledge is organized and stored in hypothetical abstract cognitive structures called *schemata*.

According to Gunning (2002), the most widely accepted description of reading comprehension is *schema theory*. Schema theory is a proposition about the structure of human knowledge which is represented in memory.

Reading comprehension is a complex cognitive task which has an interactive and constructive nature. It emphasizes an active learner who directs cognitive resources to comprehend a text. Reading for general comprehension is the most basic purpose for reading. It is often accomplished by a fluent reader whose skills occur automatically.

Grabe and Stoller (2002) proposed a process involved in fluent reading comprehension. Fluent reading is a rapid process. The more rapidly a text is read, the better the various processing components are likely to operate. Fluent reading is an efficient process. The various processes involved in comprehension must be coordinated and carried out automatically. It is also an interactive process. In our working memories, linguistic information from the text interacts with information activated by the reader from background knowledge. These two knowledge sources (linguistic and background) are essential for building the reader's interpretation of the text. Fluent reading is an evaluating process. The reader must decide whether the information being read is coherent and matches the purpose for reading, reader's motivation and attitude towards the text.

Grabe and Stoller (2002) outlined the way that reading comprehension processes are likely to work for fluent readers by dividing the explanation as two parts: the lower-level processes and the higher-level processes. The lower-level processes represent the more automatic linguistic processes and are typically viewed as more skills oriented. The higher-level processes generally represent comprehension processes that make much more use of the reader's background knowledge and inferencing skills. These two processes do not operate effectively when a reader

encounters texts that are too difficult for him. Difficulties may arise when a reader does not have adequate background knowledge and necessary linguistic resources. Such problems usually occur in second language reading context where the learner would lose motivation to become a fluent reader.

Reading comprehension can be described as the result of a successful interaction of a reader with a text. Furthermore, schema theory and linguistic theory are the valuable parties to that interaction. In the context of FB-RR instruction, comprehension is the goal of reading instruction. The classroom practice in this study emphasizes developing vocabulary, teaching comprehension strategies, and addressing writing skill.

In the FB-RR classroom, developing vocabulary is essential for reading comprehension. Students cannot make meaning of what they are reading without knowing what most of the words mean. Teaching comprehension strategies guides students as they read and write, and also allows for students to be more actively engaged with the text. Besides, writing is a tool which provides an immediate feedback after vocabulary development and comprehension strategies. It is a collection of skills developed over a period of time.

#### Models of the reading process

Reading is something more than what meets the eye (Barnett, 1989) because it is a mental process that works in the brain to comprehend written text. A reading model is a graphic attempt to depict how an individual perceives a word, processes a clause, and comprehends a text (Singer & Ruddell, 1985). First language learning professionals proposed a variety of theories from their explorations of the reading process by creating reading process models which were categorized into three following groups: 1) the bottom-up models focusing on the decoding skills at a word and structure level; 2) the top-down models focusing on reader's background knowledge and inference; and 3) the interactive models combining the bottom-up and top-down models and offering insights for second/foreign language reading.

##### 1. Bottom-up reading models

Bottom-up models consider reading as a process in which small chunks of text are absorbed, analyzed, and gradually added to the next chunks until they become meaningful (Barnett, 1989). The first model of reading was developed by Gough (1972). He proposed what might be classified as a phonics-based or 'bottom-up'

model of the reading process which portrays the processing in reading as a proceeding in serial fashion, from letters to sounds, words, and meaning in the progression.

Similarly, La Berge and Samuels (1974) proposed a text-driven model of comprehension. With regard to this model, the reader's understanding depends on what appears in the text while the reader performs two tasks when reading which are decoding and comprehending. The decoding involves going from the printed word to some articulatory or phonological representation of the printed stimulus.

Comprehension implies deriving meaning from the decoded material. Carver (1977-1978) indicated that reading and listening comprehension (auding) can be connected together with the term 'rauding.' Rauding refers to the frequently occurring language comprehension situations where most of thoughts being presented in the form of sentences are being comprehended. The primary purpose of most reading and auding is to comprehend the thoughts of the writer or speaker.

In conclusion, the bottom-up models emphasize lower-level processes. The lower-level processes represent the more automatic linguistic processes and are typically viewed as more skills oriented. The reader begins with the written text (the bottom), and constructs meaning from the letters, words, phrases, and sentences found within and then processes the text in series of discrete stages in a linear fashion.

## 2. Top-down reading models

Top-down models consider reading as a linear process which moves from the top, the higher-level mental stages, down to the text itself. The higher-level processes are employed in top-down models. The higher-level processes generally represent comprehension processes that make much more use of the reader's background knowledge and inferencing skills.

Goodman's model (1968) refers to reading as 'a psycholinguistic guessing game' in which readers use four processes in reading that are predicting, sampling, confirming, and correcting. This psycholinguistic process is driven by reader's mind at work on the text to reconstruct the message from the writer.

Smith (1973) also supported the idea that the readers connect their knowledge and experience of the language to their purpose, selection, comprehension, and anticipation. The readers are viewed as predictors and anticipators. In addition, the reading according to this theory is a goal oriented where the goal is meaning.

In conclusion, the works of Goodman (1968) and Smith (1973) on top-down reading theory indicate the influence of cognitive psychology. It emphasizes the concepts of schemata which enable readers to make sense of the word and the text.

### 3. Interactive reading models

Rumelhart (1977), Kintsch and van Dijk (1978), Coady (1979), Just and Carpenter (1980), Stanovich (1980), Pearson and Tierney (1984), Anderson and Pearson (1984), Rumelhart and McClelland (1986), and Luksaneeyanawin (2003) investigated the interactive models. The models refer to a combination of bottom-up and top-down models. The interactive reading theory influences greatly on second and foreign language reading because it answers the question of how vocabulary skills relate to comprehension and suggests that comprehension depends on the printed text. The models relating to the interactive reading theory are discussed as follows.

Because reading is the active process of negotiating meaning between a reader and an author, both of them create meaning in varying degrees (Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978; Pearson & Tierney, 1984). Rumelhart's interactive-activation of schema model (1977) explains that a comprehension occurs when a reader uses syntactic, semantic, lexical, and orthographic information on the reader's perception of print. This is similar to Coady's psycholinguistic model of the ESL reader (1979). It views that in order to comprehend a text, the reader must combine the letter-sounds, syllables, morphemes, syntax, semantics, cognitive strategies and affective mobilizers in his mind.

During the language comprehension, the reader relies on the knowledge of particular cases as well as abstract and general schemata (Anderson & Pearson, 1984). The inference must play a major role in a complete theory of schema activation. In Rumelhart and McClelland's parallel distributed processing (PDP) model (1986), the mind processes information using many different pieces of information and processes exist in the mind at once. According to Rumelhart, the reader looks at the words and spelling in a visual information store (VIS). Then the feature extraction device pulls out the critical features of these words and moves them into the pattern synthesizer. The pattern synthesizer is where all the reader's previous linguistic knowledge and context come together to interpret what has been read.

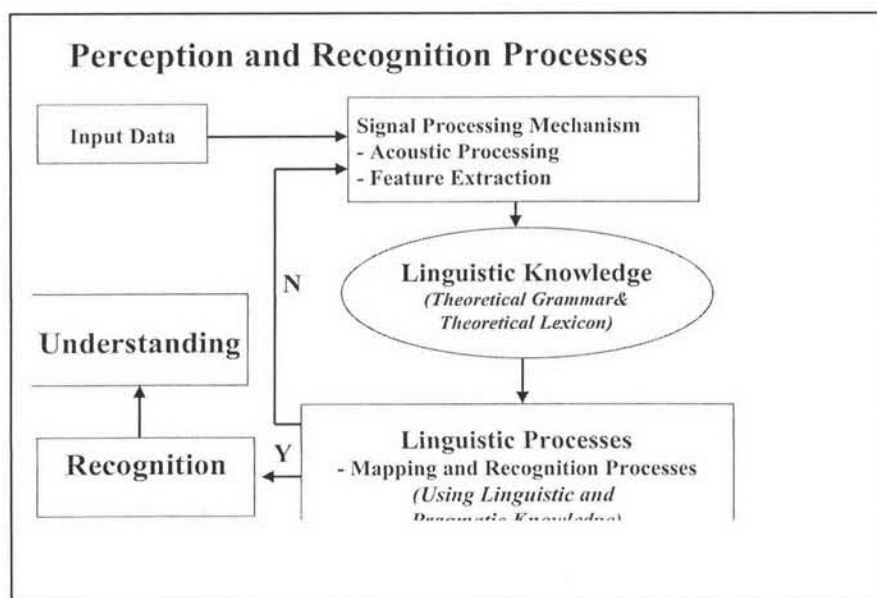
Kintsch and van Dijk (1978) assumed the following comprehension process: multiple micro-processing of the elements or propositions in a text; a drive toward

text reduction; and the use of memory or reader schemata to generate a new text built from the processed propositions. The process is similar to Coady (1979) who views that readers comprehend the text through the interaction of three components: the reader's conceptual ability, process strategies, and the background knowledge.

In addition, Just and Carpenter (1980) defined five comprehension processes: 1) seeing the next word and extracting its physical features; 2) seeing the word as a word and comparing it to the mental lexicon; 3) assigning a case to the word; 4) relating the word to the rest of the words; and 5) wrapping up the sentence when complete. These processes account of individual differences in working memory capacity.

Luksaneeyanawin (2003) presented the perception and recognition processes model which was extended from Fry's work (1970). In Figure 2.1, the reader works the signal processing mechanism and the linguistic knowledge. The linguistic processes occur when the reader uses the linguistic knowledge together with the pragmatic knowledge. If the linguistic processes fail, the reader needs to return to the signal processing mechanism. If the linguistic processes succeed, the reader will be able to recognize and understand the text.

Figure 2.1: Perception and recognition processes



Stanovich (1980) suggested that the strength in one's processing stage compensates for weakness in another. The assumption notes that a deficit in any knowledge source results in a heavier reliance on other knowledge sources, regardless of their level in the hierarchy. The evidence from many experiments revealed that poor readers sometimes show greater sensitivity to contextual constraints than do good readers. As a result, efficient second language readers might use first language skills and strategies to compensate for linguistic weaknesses. Moreover, Coady (1979) noted that the reader's reading processes vary depending upon the text and their language proficiency.

In conclusion, reading is an interactive process between the reader and the text. An interactive reading model recognizes the interaction of bottom-up and top-down processes simultaneously throughout the reading process. The level of reader comprehension of the text is determined by how well the reader variables (background knowledge, attitude, and motivation) interact with the text variables (text type, structure, syntax, and vocabulary).

In this study, the FB-RR instruction is evidently influenced by the interactive reading models. This instruction focuses on developing the reading comprehension. Relatively, comprehension requires an interactive process involving the reader, the text and the context. To help students become interactive readers, the FB-RR instruction encourages them to construct meaning with the text. It allows them to use their own knowledge while reading. Moreover, the instruction may be challenging for students with low or intermediate proficiency to create their own understanding, if they are accustomed to reading word-for-word and focusing on meaning at the word-and sentence-levels.

#### Balanced reading instruction

The balanced reading instruction balances between the whole language and phonics. *Whole language* is an instructional philosophy which focuses on reading as an activity best taught in a broader context of meaning. It is taught as an ongoing part of every student's existing language. Reading and writing are seen as a part of a broader whole language spectrum. On the other side, *phonics* is a method of teaching children to learn the connections between letter patterns and the sounds they represent. Phonics instruction requires the teacher to provide students with a core body of information about phonics rules or patterns.

Literacy at the millennium surveyed by Cassidy, Brozo, and Cassidy (Cassidy & Cassidy, 1999-2000) showed that the approaches of balanced reading, research-based practice, and guided reading received an increase and a more positive attention, focusing on comprehension, vocabulary, and phonics. So balanced reading is clearly in the 'interactive model' of reading.

Regarding the concept of a 'balanced' approach by Adams (1990), a balanced reading places a high premium on teaching and learning phonemic awareness, phonics, and identifying words through the letter/sound patterns, but not before children have had extensive experiences with books. A truly balanced approach to reading is the one that neither ignores the development of skills nor places too much emphasis on learning too many skills, especially prior to and in isolation from reading and writing whole texts.

The balanced reading approach offers an alternative to the extremes of strictly phonics or whole language approach, provides an effective combination of instructional approaches, and accommodates various learning styles. (Atterman, 1997; Pressley, 1998; Weaver, 1998). Honig (1996) also defined the balanced approach as one which combines the language and literature-rich activities with explicit teaching of the skills and the word decoding.

According to Spiegel (1998), a balanced approach is a decision-making approach through which a teacher makes thoughtful decisions each day about the best way to help each child become a better reader and writer. In other words, it is a fine blend of a variety of teaching strategies and styles through scaffolding and personalized instruction that best meets the needs of students (Wharton-McDonald, Pressley, Rankin, Mistretta, Yokoi, & Ettenberger, 1997). The teacher promotes a love of reading and writing and attends to motivational issues related to reading (Baumann and Ivey, 1997; Freppon, 1992; Rosenblatt, 1978; Stotsky, 1983; Vacca & Rasinski, 1992.)

The balanced approach consists of fluency, word study, comprehension and writing instruction. These are critical aspects in the reading development. Therefore, the readers need to be exposed to reading, writing, and spelling the same words. Further, they should spend time practicing writing these words. With proper instruction, the processes of reading, writing, and spelling develop in unison.



There were a number of studies on the balanced reading instruction for early readers. Abbott, Reed, and Abbott (1997) examined whether a balanced reading intervention can bring first graders with severe reading problems up to expected level. The level was based on IQ and grade level in reading and writing. The findings revealed that most children reached expected levels on most of the measures. That is using a balanced reading/writing tutorial was effective.

Fowler (1998) used whole-part-whole instruction to help her 15 six-year-old students discover the joy of reading. The researcher then observed the outgrowth that the children made this knowledge their own.

A summary of research by Duffy (2001) showed that struggling second-grade readers grew in their word identification abilities, fluency, strategic comprehension abilities, perceptions of themselves as readers, attitudes toward reading, and instructional reading levels, after they received the effects of a balanced, accelerated, and responsive literacy program.

McGahey (2002) compared the effects of a balanced reading approach and a Direct Instruction Reading approach on the reading comprehension of second, third, and fourth graders. Results indicated that method of instruction was a significant factor on reading comprehension between groups. A significant factor within groups was years of instruction.

Likewise, Downie (2003) investigated the effects of a balanced literacy approach on the reading achievement of the primary grades. The findings revealed that children met greater success with the balanced literacy approach to reading instruction.

In conclusion, the balanced reading instruction provides an alternative to design an instruction within a context of reading as a foreign language classroom for adult learners. The approach builds up their motivation to read authentic literature relevant to the real world. It also constructs specific reading skills which are the foundation of reading comprehension. This method can improve student's reading comprehension, word recognition, and creative writing abilities.

The FB-RR study has an aim to promote students' learning to read with better comprehension. The FB-RR instruction is influenced by the balanced reading approach which combines both specific skill practice and extensive reading to help students improve their word attack skills and reading comprehension. With FB-R

instruction, EFL university students are able to practice comprehension strategies, utilize comprehension strategies proficiently and engage in reading to construct meaning from a variety of topics. Direct instruction of decoding skills and comprehension strategies are combined as the methodology for the FB-RR.

#### Four-Blocks literacy framework

Four-Blocks literacy framework balances the two extreme reading models. The framework is integrated from the perspective of 'balanced reading instruction.' It is mostly based on the comprehensive reading and writing instruction framework of Cunningham, Hall, and Defee (1991). The Four-Blocks literacy framework first began in one first grade classroom at Clemmons Elementary in North Carolina during the 1989–1990 school year.

Four Blocks has two major goals: 1) to provide beginning readers with instruction consistent with a combination of major instructional approaches to reading; and 2) to provide multilevel instruction that meets the needs of children with a wide range of literacy levels.

There were two underlying motives of Four Blocks. First, students generally placed in the low reading group remain in that grouping throughout their elementary school years and almost never learn to read and write at the appropriate grade-level standards (Allington, 1983). Second, the motive was from the phenomenon of the 'pendulum swing'. Especially in the U.S., various approaches to reading come in and out of fashion. When Cunningham, Hall, and Defee (1991) published their original description of Four Blocks, literature-based reading instruction (commonly referred to the 'whole language') was popular. This approach was losing favor and school boards were mandating phonics. Recent findings from emergent literacy research indicated that children who easily learn to read and write have a variety of experiences with reading and writing that enable them to profit from school literacy experiences (Cunningham & Allington, 1999).

According to Four-Blocks literacy framework, there is no one best method of teaching reading because learners do not learn in the same way or at the same rate. A combination of approaches to reading instruction was recommended. To meet their stated goals, Cunningham, Hall, and Defee developed Four Blocks, a framework for beginning reading instruction that is multilevel and multi-method.

In Four-Blocks framework, the reading and writing time is divided equally among four different approaches to instruction, that is, the 2½ hours of reading and writing instruction are divided as four blocks of 30-40 minutes each. The Four Blocks are: 1) working with words, 2) guided reading, 3) self-selected reading, and 4) writing. They are not necessarily treated as discrete sessions, rather, teachers try to make connections among the blocks. Most often, this is done by taking a theme approach to teaching.

*Working with words* includes word walls, and phonic and spelling. *Guided reading* includes any of shared reading, partner reading, coaching groups, Three-Ring Circus, book club groups, everyone read to (ERT), choral reading, echo reading, sticky note reading, picture walks, predictions, KWL, graphic organizers, doing the book, and writing connected to reading. *Self-selected reading* includes any of teacher read-aloud, conferencing, and sharing. *Writing* includes mini-lesson and teacher modeling, writing and conferencing, and sharing.

According to a research conducted by Hall, Prevatte, and Cunningham (1995), second graders who had experienced two years of the Four Blocks instruction improved their reading ability. The results showed that 97% of second graders in the varied-population school and 83% of the second graders in the high-poverty school read at or above grade level.

The effectiveness of Four Blocks was examined in several schools by Cunningham, Hall, and Defee (1998). The implementation of Four Blocks was investigated with 100 first graders at Lexington One Elementary School, South Carolina in 1995 to 1996 school year. The findings showed that there were statistically significant differences in scores on word recognition in context. Students in the Four Blocks classrooms were, on average, reading above grade level. Students in the control group were on grade level. The scores on the Cognitive Skills Assessment Battery (CSAB) indicated that the total reading mean score for the Four-Blocks first graders was significantly better than that of matched students from previous years (.0001 level).

Cunningham, Hall, and Defee (1998) also examined the effects of Four Blocks with first and second graders at Clemmons Elementary School, North Carolina, which is the school the framework was originally implemented. Data throughout the year were collected from observations, student conferences, running records, and writ

samples. Children were given the Basic Reading Inventory (BRI) at the end of first grade. The results showed that 58-64% of children read above grade level. At the end of second grade, the number above grade level increased to 68-76%. The data were collected across seven years and were consistent across six groups of 100-140 children. Standardized test data on these children collected in third, fourth and fifth grades each year indicated that 90% of the children were in the top two quartiles. Most of the years, no children's scores fell in the bottom quartile.

Another study of the Four Blocks was implemented with all unsuccessful first and second-grade readers at Brockington Elementary School, South Carolina during the 1995-1996 school years (Cunningham, Hall & Defee, 1998). The Metropolitan Achievement Test (MAT) total reading scores for all students including the classes that did not implement the framework indicated that 30% of the first graders and 38% of the second graders had total reading scores at or above the 50<sup>th</sup> percentile. Results for the 1996-1997 school years showed 46% of the first graders and 40% of second graders at or above the 50<sup>th</sup> percentile on the MAT total reading.

Poppelwell and Doty (2000) investigated the effects of Four Blocks by comparing the ability of children taught in the Four-Blocks framework and in a basal reader framework. Two classrooms of second graders were compared on their ability to retell stories and answer comprehension questions. The findings were consistent with the previous research that students in the Four-Blocks classrooms scored significantly better on all measures.

Cunningham and Hall (2002) investigated the Four-Blocks implementation at the School District of Greenville County, South Carolina in 1996-2001. In October, 2000 and May, 2001, the Gates MacGinitie Reading Tests were administered to all first and second graders. The gains showed by both grade levels of children were impressive. Both grade levels of children moved above the national average in percentile ranks. Another study was conducted at the Lowellville School District, Ohio in 1999-2000. Fourth graders tested in 2001 had experienced two years of instruction in the Four-Blocks framework with only partial implementation in the third grade year. Eighty-four percent of these fourth graders passed the proficiency test in reading with 18% achieving the advanced level. In writing, 97% passed the proficiency test with 29% scoring at the advanced level.

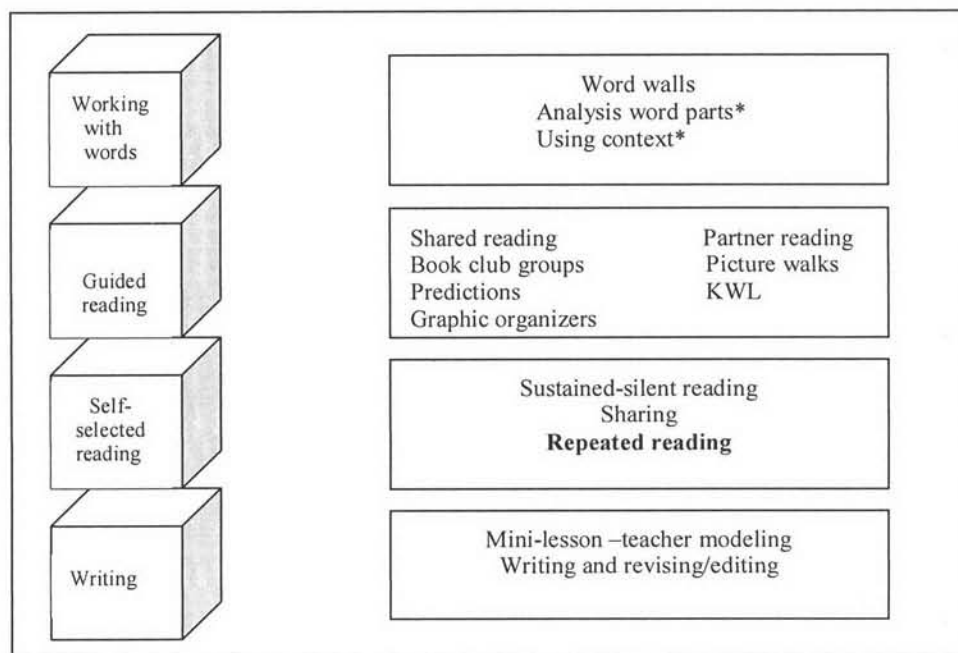
Cunningham and Hall (2002) examined the implementation of Four Blocks at John Muir Elementary School, Illinois in 2000-2001. The results of the Illinois

Standard Achievement Tests for reading and writing given to third graders showed that after only one year of implementation, 71% of John Muir's third graders met or exceeded the performance levels in reading (compared to 57% the year before). No students qualified for academic warning. In writing, 56% met the performance level (compared to 49% the previous year).

Moreover, Cunningham and Hall (2002) studied the effects of Four Blocks at Lew Wallace Elementary and Caldwell Elementary. The results from the Indiana Statewide Test for total reading and total language given to third graders from 1997 (before Four-Blocks implementation) to 2001 for each school showed that the scores increased gradually (46% in 1998 and 1999, 47% in 2000). In 2001, when the framework was implemented in grades K-3, 55% of the third graders achieved passing scores.

The Four-Blocks literacy framework consists of working with words, guided reading, self-selected reading, and writing. In this study, the variations within each block were modified for the Fours-Blocks literacy framework with repeated reading (FB-RR). The variations are presented in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2: The variations of FB-RR instruction



In Figure 2.2, the variations in Working with Words block are word wall, analysis word parts, and using context. The variations used in Guided Reading are shared reading, partner reading, book club groups, picture walks, predictions, KWL, and graphic organizers. The variations in the Self-Selected Reading block are sharing, sustained-silent reading, and repeated reading. The common variations in Writing block include mini-lesson or teacher-modeling, and writing and revising/editing.

### 1. Working with Words block

Correlational studies reveal that vocabulary knowledge is a well-established predictor of reading comprehension (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1997; Spearitt, 1972). Students differ greatly in the size of vocabularies, and those with small vocabularies tend to add fewer words than those with larger vocabularies (Cunningham, 2006).

Vocabulary instruction can be done either explicitly by presenting the definitions, or implicitly by setting the vocabulary in a context of old words that effectively constrains their meanings (Adams, 1990). Working with Words involves explicit demonstrations of how words are related and learners have the opportunity to notice word parts and patterns, and realize that they can manipulate the letters and sounds (Pinnell, 2002). According to Four Blocks, Cunningham, Hall, and Sigmon (1999) specify the goals of the Working with Words block as follows:

- Learn to read and spell high-frequency words;
- Learn patterns used to decode and spell lots of other words;
- Transfer word knowledge to one's own reading and writing.

The activities are multi-level and afford multi-ability strategies which vary greatly depending on the grade level with the total time of 30 minutes.

There are a number of studies investigated in L2/FL context, for instance, using a word wall with EFL Chinese adults (Qian, 1996), analyzing word parts in graduate and undergraduate nonnative-English-speaking learners (Schmitt, 1998; Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002), using context in EAP Chinese adult learners (Li, 1988) and ESL adult learners (Parry, 1991).

For the word wall approach, the findings revealed the effectiveness of learning vocabulary by word list. Eyraud, Giles, Koenig, and Stoller (2000) also supported the integration of word wall activities with L2 instruction to promote vocabulary learning. In research on analyzing word parts, the researchers found that L2 learners had problems in acquiring word family and needed more direct attention to the teach

derivative forms. Inadequate knowledge of word derivatives was a significant problem for advanced learners (Ooi & Kim-Seoh, 1996). In using context clues, the results indicated greater successful guessing from context. The implication was that the teacher should teach strategies and principles of using context clues.

Cunningham (2006) proposed ways to develop vocabulary that are learning to use morphemes, context, and dictionary to help them refine the meaning of words. The variations in Working with Words block are word wall, analysis word parts, and using context.

### 1.1 Word wall

The word wall approach was originally designed by Green in 1993 to challenge and motivate the high-achieving and reluctant first language learners in elementary and secondary levels. It also aims to develop vocabulary learning skills and to internalize new vocabulary (Eyraud, Giles, Koenig, & Stoller, 2000). Working with Words block allows 10 minutes to do a word wall and the back of word wall activities. The teacher introduces five word wall words each week by having learners see, say, chant, write, and check the words. The words are added up every week to a wall or bulletin board in the room. Words are put on different color papers and placed alphabetically. The selection of frequent words and the repetition of words in this activity will foster word learning.

Qian (1996) determined whether L2 decontextualized vocabulary learning in the form of a word list was more effective than vocabulary learning in context, both in terms of the learners' immediate retention and longer-term (one week and three weeks). Sixty-three EFL Chinese young adults were treated as two groups: learning new words in a contextualized situation, and learning in a decontextualized situation. The results showed that the effect of decontextualized vocabulary learning was significantly stronger than contextualized vocabulary learning on all three recalls. The findings revealed that learning vocabulary by word list was more effective for Chinese university learners than learning vocabulary in context.

Cunningham, Hall, and Defee (1998) conducted a case study in Lexington, North Carolina which performed a field test using the Working with Words from the Four-Blocks framework to compare with a traditional instruction. The assessments were two sections of the Basic Reading Inventory, Word Recognition in Context and

Word Recognition in isolation. The Word Recognition in Context scores revealed these first graders were at a second grade level compared to first graders in traditional classrooms who scored at a first grade second month. In comparison to the two classes there was a 15-point difference at the lower level, a 23-point difference for the middle level, and a 28-point difference for the upper third level. The district concluded that the multi-ability framework was more successful than the traditional reading groups.

Johnston (1998) compared three word learning tasks using predictable text. Participants included 51 children in three first-grade classrooms. Class A studied with repeated reading (RR) in which learners had the full support of context and read ten times over a 4-day period. Class B studied with sentence context (SC) treatment in which learners worked with sentence strips and had some support from context. The last class studied with a modified word bank approach (WB) in which learners worked with words in isolation. Three predictable books were used with the shared book approach for three weeks. The findings revealed that the participants learned significantly more words when they used sentence strips and word banks, and they learned the most words using word banks. These findings supported the idea that word learning can be enhanced by planning whole-to-part tasks that increase the reader's attention to process the print.

Aiken and Bayer (2002) used instructional strategy called 'making words,' which is a part of Working with Words block, among pre-service teachers and first graders in an integrated language arts curriculum. The data were collected from audiotaped conversations, videotapes of classroom practices, learner interviews and writings, field notes from classroom observations. The findings revealed that learners succeeded in spelling words that they could read and in constructing the words. Making words was accepted as a spelling-decoding instructional strategy to enhance the language arts.

## 1.2 Analyzing word parts

Analyzing word parts is a bottom-up processing. Learners being familiar with common word parts can provide a useful basis for seeing connection between related words, checking guesses from context, strengthening forms and meaning connections, and in some cases working out the meaning of a word (Nation, 2001). Basically,



learners should deliberately learn the meaning of the most common affixes. Nation (2001: 278) provided the word part strategy for learning new complex words:

Step 1 Break the unknown word into parts. This step requires learners to be able to recognize prefixes and suffixes when they occur in words.

Step 2 Relate the meaning of word parts to the meaning of the word.

Wysocki and Jenkins (1987) investigated the extent to which morphological generalizations can account for increases in vocabulary size. Focusing on derivational suffixes, the study tested learners' ability to use morphological and contextual information to determine the meaning of unknown words. One hundred and thirty-five fourth, sixth, and eighth-graders received training on 12 word pairs. The finding revealed that the scores of sixth and eighth-grade learners were twice as high as those of the fourth-grade learners. The possibility was that the older learners might have been taught the derivational word meanings before.

Schmitt and Zimmerman (2002) examined the ability of 106 graduate and undergraduate nonnative-English-speaking learners to produce appropriate derivatives in the four major word classes (noun, verb, adjective, and adverb) for 16 prompt words. The results revealed that the participants usually had partial knowledge of the derivatives with productive knowledge of two or three forms. Adjective and adverb forms appeared to be more difficult for them. The results may imply a need for more direct attention to the teaching of derivative forms.

### 1.3 Using context clues

Finding context clues entails a top-down processing. Incidental and intentional learning via guessing from context is important in vocabulary learning. Nation (2001) suggested the way to help learners improve using context by having learners find and choose reading materials of appropriate difficulty, encouraging them to read a lot to gain comprehensible input, and providing training in guessing from context. Clarke and Nation (1980) provided the five-step inductive procedure in guessing from context as follows.

Step 1 Decide on the part of speech of the unknown word.

Step 2 Look at the context, simplify its grammar if necessary.

Step 3 Look at the wider context from the word to sentences or clauses.

Step 4 Guess.

Step 5 Check the guess whether it is the same part of speech.

Substitute the guess for the unknown word.

Break the unknown word into parts and justify whether the parts support the guess.

Look up the word in the dictionary.

Carnine, Kameenui, and Coyle (1984) trained young native speakers to guess from context by teaching them a rule and giving practice in applying the rule with corrective feedback. The training involved three sessions dealing with total of 33 unknown words. The finding revealed that the trained learners outperformed the control group which received no training. It was concluded that the rule was not as important as the practice in fostering improvement.

McKeown (1985) investigated the process of acquiring word meaning from context by children of high and low ability. Thirty fifth-grade children with 15 children in each group were given a task containing six items. Each item was designed around an artificial word and clues to the word's meaning. Significant differences were found in favor of the high-ability group. Implications from the study concluded that the technique of teacher modeling would be appropriate for improving children's context skills. After that the children could begin to think aloud and receive teacher feedback.

Li (1988) compared second language learners' guessing from context in repeated contrived contexts through listening and reading. The study was conducted with 48 adult trainees in an EAP centre in China. Four groups of participants received different input information which included listening with inadequate cues, listening with adequate cues, reading with inadequate cues (target words imbedded in short sentences), and reading with adequate cues (target words imbedded in long sentences). Four tasks including a word retention task were performed by each group. The results indicated greater successful guessing from reading. The group that had been given reading tasks with adequate cues achieved better retention of target words than the group that had been given reading materials with inadequate cues.

Parry (1991) conducted a longitudinal study that investigated how language learners built their vocabulary. Four ESL adult learners were asked to make protocols by listing the words that caused them difficulty as they read their anthropology texts, guessing the meanings, and writing the guesses down. The result showed reasonable success in guessing from context. A range of 12% to 33% of guesses was classified as

correct and a range of 51% to 69% of guesses was either partly correct or correct implication was that the teacher should teach strategies and principles for guessing from context.

Fukkink and de Glopper (1998) examined the effects of instruction of deriving word meaning from context during reading. They gave training in a meta-analysis of 21 studies involving native speakers. The treatment aimed specifically to enhance the skill of deliberately deriving word meaning from context. It was found that training resulted in better guessing, particularly if learners' attention was directed to clues in the context. The authors concluded that deliberately deriving word meaning from context was amenable to instruction and the effect of short instruction was rewarding.

## 2. Guided Reading block

Guided reading is an instructional approach in which a teacher brings together small groups of learners who are similar in their reading development. The teacher brings the learners with the determination of strategies and the appropriate level of text (Pinnell, 2002). As originally developed by Manzo in 1975, guided reading was designed to enhance learners' recall of expository materials. The guided reading procedure (GRP) uses: 1) collaborative techniques to recall information from text; 2) rereading to engage learners in self-questioning and self-correction strategies so that they can fill in missing information and correct inconsistencies in their original recalls; and 3) organization to facilitate retrieval of the information from long-term memory. There are seven steps in GRP.

- Prereading purpose setting
- Reading the selection
- Recalling the selection
- Rereading for corrections and additions
- Organizing the information
- Synthesizing the information
- Testing comprehension

Cunningham, Hall, and Sigmon (1999) stated that the goals of guided reading are as follows.

- Teach comprehension skills and strategies
- Promote learners to read different types of literature
- Develop background knowledge, oral language, and vocabulary

- Provide as much instructional-level reading as possible and
- Maintain the self-confidence and motivation of struggling readers

Effective comprehension instruction is the process of enacting practices that reflect the inclusion of readers, texts, purposeful activity and contexts for the purpose of developing learners' thought, competence, and motivated reading (Sweet & Snow, 2002). Guided reading allows 30-40 minutes which is subdivided into *before-*, *during-*, and *after-*reading phases of lessons. Before-reading lesson takes 5-10 minutes. The teacher helps learners with activating prior knowledge, developing essential vocabulary, taking 'picture walk,' making predictions, and starting a graphic organizer or KWL. The during-reading lesson takes 15-20 minutes. The teacher may use the variations during reading such as shared reading, partner reading, and book club groups. The after-reading lesson takes 5-10 minutes. The teacher wraps up lesson by discussing the text/literature, following up predictions, discussing the reading strategies they used, and completing the graphic organizer or KWL chart.

The effects of guided reading were investigated with ESL children (Greaver & Hedberg, 2000). It was conducted in a reading workshop using graphic organizers, story maps, KWL charts, and scaffolding to promote reading fluency and comprehension. Suits (2003) examined guided reading with ESL children. McGlenn and Parrish (2002) incorporated guided reading into an Accelerated Reader program for ESL learners.

Book club is a variation in guided reading block according to Cunningham, Hall, and Sigmon (1999). Book club programs were investigated with young ESL learners (Frank, Dixon & Brandts, 2001; Kong & Fitch, 2002). There were positive outcomes of varying amounts of success of guided reading, such as improvement in reading achievement, reading above grade level, greater range of reading/writing skills, and positive attitude towards reading and writing. Suits (2003) found that the guided reading involved multiple strategies recommended for ESL learners. McGlenn and Parrish (2002) suggested that direct instruction and guided reading are combined in a reading program for ESL learners because the learners often benefited from a combination of methods. The benefits of book club group were that the learners engaged culturally and linguistically in reading, writing, and talking about books. Book clubs provided all members with opportunities to talk about text, construct understandings of what it means to read and think about text, and explore the

processes of constructing meaning from text. Learners had chances to construct understandings of academic and social content. In addition, there was an average gain in reading vocabulary.

The variations used in guided reading are shared reading, partner reading, book club groups, picture walks, predictions, KWL, and graphic organizers.

### 2.1 Shared reading

Shared reading is a time when the whole class or a group of learners gathers together to share literacy experiences by reading and discussing a variety of texts (Fisher & Medvic, 2000). Shared reading is an extension of the bedtime reading experience which was pioneered by Don Holdaway in the 1960s. It involves a daily time for reading and rereading favorite rhymes, songs, poems, chants, and narrative stories to and with learners in order to demonstrate that reading is a pleasurable and meaningful experience (Butler & Turbill, 1987). Best of all, it scaffolds the learner's learning experience so that the learner can go and read the book independently. Text is usually written on chart paper or overhead transparencies, but can also be projected on computer monitors or even handed out as print copies.

The common shared reading begins with a picture walk. Then the teacher reads the book. During the second reading, the teacher turns back to the beginning of the story and comments while the learners are reading along with the teacher. For the third reading, the teacher chooses choral reading format. The benefit of shared reading is that it helps learners build concepts, vocabulary, and comprehension strategies.

Eldredge, Reutzel, and Hollingsworth (1996) compared the effectiveness of shared reading with the traditional round-robin reading on 78 second-grade children's reading growth. They found all children above-average, average, and below-average did better with shared reading than with round-robin reading. However, the below-average children especially benefited most from shared reading. They gained 41% better in oral reading than the children with round robin reading.

Plowman (2003) examined two different reading methods used in the Ontario public elementary system. The methods determined the effects of shared reading and guided reading on learners' vocabulary acquisition. The sample consisted of 47 grade-one children, six to seven years of age. Over the 4-week testing period, the shared reading group typically learned approximately three words that were not known before without any attempted explanation by the teacher.

Thomas (2003) conducted a 39-week qualitative case study on the effects of shared reading on the reading motivation and transaction. One participant was a sixth-grade uncommitted reader whose reading level was slightly below his grade level. Results indicated an increase in the participant's automaticity, independent reading level of two grade levels, and motivation to read.

## 2.2 Partner reading

There are many forms of reading with partners such as paired reading, peer tutoring, and cross-age tutoring (Barchers, 1998). Partner reading allows peers to help each other read. The teacher pairs learners who work well together. For the partner reading to be effective, the learners learn, take turn, ask questions, do sticky notes, and decide to read together in any way they wish. Learners engage in both silent and oral reading in a 12 or 15-minute period. Teacher's role is to circulate through the classroom and to make anecdotal notes. The notes should be about learners' reading fluency and their discussion.

Taylor, Hanson, Justice-Swanson, and Watts (1997) conducted three reading intervention paradigms with 31 academically struggling readers with seven to eight years old. Reading ability and achievement gains were evaluated over a two-year period. The results revealed that participants receiving supplementary instruction (which included choral and partner reading) made mild-to-moderate gains, while participants in the remedial paradigms which were more closed to the Balanced Instruction Approach made the most significant statistical gains.

Mathes, Howard, Allen, and Fuchs (1998) explained the idea of peer-assisted learning strategies for first-grade readers. The main purpose of the research was to find out if the children who experienced this type of program would experience greater reading achievement. The two routines in the program were Sounds and Words and Partner Read-Aloud. The results revealed that this program worked for learners who were labeled as lower than average.

Lorah (2003) examined the effects of the partner reading portion of the Peer-Assisted Learning Strategies (PALS) Reading Methods Program on the reading fluency, reading comprehension, and on-task behavior of four elementary-school children with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). Results indicated minimal gains in reading fluency. Teacher and learner ratings of acceptability

indicated a high degree of satisfaction with the partner reading portion of the PALS reading program.

### 2.3 Book club groups

Book club groups are literature discussion groups which in 1988, O'Flahavan called Conversational Discussion Groups; in 1991, Routman called them Literature Discussion Groups; in 1994, Raphael and McMahon called them book clubs, and in 1996, Short, Harste, and Burke called Literature Circles (Frank, Dixon, & Brandts, 2001).

Book club aims at engaging learners more fully in conversations about books. For book club groups, the teacher selects three or four books which are tied together by author, genre, topic, or theme. After reading aloud or previewing the pictures, the teacher has learners indicate their choices to read. The learners are placed in different groups. Once book club groups are formed, they meet regularly to read and discuss the books. Each day the groups report to the whole class what they have learned in their books. The teacher brainstorms. Then the learners busily try to read. After reading, the groups record what they have learned.

Goatley, Brock, and Raphael (1995) explored the literacy learning of diverse learners' participation small-group literature discussions in book club. The meaning construction of one book club group containing five fifth-grade learners was observed and documented. The participants read and responded to the final novel in their reading program. The book club program included four components: reading, writing, whole-class discussion, and instruction. Data sources included interviews, questionnaires, researcher's field notes, audiotaped discussions and transcripts, videotapes, and learners' written work. The findings revealed that both peers and teachers effectively served in the more knowledgeable role. The members shared vocabulary and general knowledge, provided each other with feedback, and facilitated their text comprehension.

Frank, Dixon, and Brandts (2001) conducted a two-year ethnographic study of book clubs to create communities of readers and writers. The participants were the second-graders during the school years of 1994-1995 and 1995-1996. The class was divided into four heterogeneous groups which met to talk about good books in their book clubs once every other week. They selected their own individual storybooks. One fourth of the class met with the teacher in front of the room for about 30-40

minutes for conference while the other three fourths were reading different books at their desks. The literature discussion groups were investigated on how learners can draw upon both the teacher and peers to help them build understanding of text. The findings from discourse analysis and domain analysis showed that book clubs provided all members with opportunities to talk about text, construct understandings of what it means, read and think about text, and explore the processes of constructing meaning from text.

Kong and Fitch (2002) investigated the use of book club program to engage culturally and linguistically diverse learners in reading, writing, and talking about books. The participants were two groups of four fourth and fifth-graders from homes where a language other than English was spoken. The books used in book club were considered high quality, age-appropriateness, and award-winning. The book club day began with the group discussion (book clubs) for about 12-20 minutes, followed by community share (10-20 minutes), mini-lesson (5-10 minutes), reading (15-20 minutes), and finally writing (15-20 minutes). All learners read the same books and responded to preplanned writing prompts. The program was assessed by informal observation, learner portfolios, Learner Self-Evaluation for book club discussions, and two other pretest and posttests using the Slosson Oral Reading Test (SORT) and the Meta-comprehension Strategy Index. The findings suggested that learners either became more aware of or used more of reading comprehension strategies in their reading at the end. They improved their strategy use in self-questioning, drawing from background knowledge, summarizing and applying fixed strategies, and predicting and verifying. The analysis showed that approximately 95% of the learners gained more than one year of growth in reading vocabulary.

#### 2.4 Picture walks

The guided reading book introduction or 'picture walk' is based on the work of Clay (1991) and her descriptions of an effective book introduction for novice readers. Before reading, the teacher and learners take a picture walk through the book to build important concepts by asking questions. The picture walk should be brief, but should help learners use pictures to connect to their experiences and anticipate what they will be reading. Barchers (1998) suggested that the teacher introduces the book by discussing the cover, title, and pages through the book, and inviting learners to



discuss what is happening. When the story is read, the students can verify whether the predictions and the illustrations are consistent with the written text.

Stahl (2003) explored the effects of three instructional methods on the reading comprehension and science content acquisition. The participants were 31 second-graders. The three instructional methods are Directed Reading-Thinking Activity, KWL, and picture walks. There were three intervention groups (DRTA, KWL, PW) and a control group. Results indicated that the picture walk yielded statistically significant effects on promoting fluency. Moreover, the participants possessed declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge of the strategic processes that are the foundation of interventions, activation of prior knowledge, and prediction.

### 2.5 Predictions

Making predictions before reading is a powerful strategy that helps readers learn to set their own purpose and activate their schemata. Predictions are made on the basis of prior knowledge. Gunning (1992) suggested that in addition to teaching learners what kinds of questions to ask, the teacher should show them the best sources of predictions that are title, illustration, introductory note, and paragraph. Gradually they can create their own predictions as they read. The strategy helps them access prior knowledge, connect reading to experience, and engage them while reading. The teacher puts the emphasis on the making sense prediction rather than the emphasis on right and wrong predictions. Prediction becomes an excellent device for enhancing comprehension when learners are reading independently. Ideally, it should become automatic. As adults, they might use the technique for both expository material and fiction.

Reutzel and Fawson (1989) investigated the use of a literature webbing strategy lesson (LWSL) with predictable books with first-grade learners. Excerpts with illustrations from predictable books were selected to make predictions about the book patterns. The LWSL made use of six steps that are sample the book, predict the pattern, read the book, confirm and correct the prediction, respond through discussion, and participate in reading activities. The results indicated that using LWSL to provide a guided reading lesson with predictable books significantly improved young readers' comprehension.

## 2.6 KWL

The effective and popular way to help learners access prior knowledge and make predictions on informational text is the KWL created by Ogle in 1986. KWL stands for *what we Know*, *what we Want to know*, and *what we have Learned*. On the KWL chart, the teacher labels three columns of KWL. Teachers activate learners' prior knowledge by asking them what they already *know*. Then learners set goals specifying what they want to learn. And after reading learners discuss what they have *learned*. They apply higher-order thinking strategies which help them construct meaning from what they read and help them monitor their progress toward their goals.

Ogle (1992) described the use of the KWL as a general framework for instruction in secondary schools in Kansas City, MO. Through extensive staff development, teachers were provided an alternative including KWL for moving low achieving students into learning that was more strategic and interactive. The learners in turn became more active learners and higher achievers.

Shelley, Bridwell, Hyder, Ledford, and Patterson (1997) used the KWL strategy once a week for eight weeks in teaching science, social studies, health, or language arts. The goal was to facilitate learners' becoming independent readers and learners with increased ability to comprehend, select, and retain important information. The finding was that the KWL strategy worked better when students had some prior knowledge of the topic. It was found that the KWL was helpful in developing vocabulary as learners used and reused terms related to the current topic.

Stahl (2003) studied the effects of three instructional methods on the reading comprehension and science content acquisition of 31 second-graded novice readers. The three instructional methods are Directed Reading-Thinking Activity, KWL, and picture walks. There were three intervention groups (DRTA, KWL, PW) and a control group. Results indicated that KWL was motivational, even though did not yield significant effects on measures of comprehension or content acquisition. Besides, the participants possessed declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge of the strategic processes that are the foundation of interventions, activation of prior knowledge, and prediction.

## 2.7 Graphic organizers

Graphic organizer also known as the *structured overview* was developed by Baron and Earle in 1973 as a strategy that uses a schematic diagram to depict the

concept vocabulary. Gunning (1992) stated that graphic organizers are semantic maps, webs, flow charts, and other devices that allow learners to view and construct relationships among words. To decide which graphic organizer to use, the teacher must determine what the information is and how it can best be organized and displayed. According to Searfoss and Readence (1994), the steps used in the design and construction of a graphic organizer are identifying key vocabulary, arranging words into a diagram, and presenting graphic organizer. Graphic organizers can be used as a means of post-reading reinforcement and review.

Reutzel and Fawson (1991) found that first-grade readers using the webbing procedure which is a prediction technique read the text with higher percentages of accuracy and were also more successful in answering specific questions about the text than a control group. Moreover, Reutzel and Hollingsworth (1991) determined that literacy webbing also had a positive influence on the use of story structure elements in the formulation of predictions and the completeness of a story retelling.

Villaume and Brabham (2001) implemented the second-grade guided reading lesson using graphic organizers. The researchers pointed (often silently) to different parts of familiar graphic organizers such as Venn diagrams, KWL charts, and word maps to keep learners thinking about what they know about text-related topics. It was found that graphic organizers were the powerful conversational scaffolds. They provided subtle but sufficient prompts to keep learners aware of text-related topics.

Knight (2003) examined an intervention to assist able eighth-grade language arts learners as they completed reading-to-writing and performance-based tasks. Two groups practiced how to use multiple sources to respond to open-ended questions by completing three reading-to-writing tasks. The Practice group completed the tasks with achievement feedback about their responses but without explicit strategy instruction. The Practice-Plus group received personalized feedback, and was taught how to use graphic organizers and self-questioning as they completed the three reading-to-writing tasks. The No Practice students served as the control group. It was found that the performance of Practice-Plus group which was taught how to use graphic organizers and self-questioning was higher than the other groups on all reading-to-writing tasks.

### 3. Self-Selected Reading block

Self-selected reading has been historically called individualized reading which was developed by Veatch in 1959. It is also called independent reading, voluntary reading, leisure reading, spare time reading, recreational reading, extensive reading, and reading outside of school. It is now often labeled Reader's Workshop. According to Cunningham, Hall, and Sigmon (1999), self-selected reading is a part of a balanced literacy program where learners get to choose what they want to read and how to respond. Opportunities are provided for learners to share and respond to what is read as well as for teacher to individually conference with learners. Self-selected reading block requires 30-40 minutes in total.

Cunningham, Hall, and Sigmon (1999) provided the goals of the self-selected reading block as follows:

- Share different kinds of literature through teacher read-aloud;
- Encourage children's reading interests;
- Provide instructional-level materials;
- Build intrinsic motivation.

The goals are congruent with four principles of Marzano (2004)'s eight key principles for a successful reading program: 1) access a wealth of reading materials; 2) appeal students' interest at appropriate level; 3) create conducive environment; and 4) do follow-up activities.

A self-selected reading is called differently such as self-selected reading, independent reading, and extensive reading. These names are explained below.

#### Self-selected reading

Self-selected reading is a part of a balanced reading program which allows children to choose what they want to read. For example, when implemented as part of a Four-Blocks classroom reading program, self-selected reading requires teacher read-aloud, children's reading on their own level from a variety of books, teacher's conference with learners, and children's share what they're reading with peers.

#### Independent reading

Independent reading is the reading that learners choose to do silently on their own. It reflects the reader's personal choice of the material to be read as well as the time and place to read it. Developing an independent reading habit requires a large collection of good books and a means for learners to select 'just-right' books

(Searfoss & Readence, 1994). A successful approach to independent practice is SSR (sustained silent reading). SSR intends to provide everyone in a classroom with a designated quiet time to read. Peer pressure and the modeling effect serve to help learners increase and sustain their independent reading for longer periods of time.

#### Extensive reading

“Reading a great deal” allows additional exposure to words which affects fluency, as well as the knowledge of the world that mediates reading comprehension. The goal of extensive reading approach is to make learners enjoy reading in the English language (Day & Bamford, 2000). It is the activity that learners choose to do for a variety of personal, social, and academic reasons. The reading materials must be easy and interesting. The ground rules of extensive reading are selecting the reading materials, avoiding dictionary use, guessing the meaning of unknown words or ignoring, reading for overall meaning, and stopping reading and finding another book if one is too hard (Day & Bamford, 2002).

There were numerous reports of self-selected reading or independent reading or extensive reading on students’ learning English in both foreign and second language settings. The benefits of reading extensively in English were also reported for instance, ESL adult learners (Tse, 1996), Korean EFL learners (Cho & Kim, 2004; Cho & Krashen, 1994), Japanese EFL learners (Day, Omura, & Hiramatsu, 1991; Hayashi, 1999; Mason & Krashen, 1997), Yemen Arab adult learners (Bell, 2001), Malaysian ESL learners (Asraf & Ahmad, 2003). The results showed that self-selected reading can significantly improve learner’s English reading ability, vocabulary, faster reading speeds, spelling, writing, and showing positive attitudes and confidence toward English reading and writing. Moreover, some studies revealed that learners who reported that they read more English books gained more positive effect on both reading comprehension and ability to recognize vocabulary. The variations of the Self-Selected Reading block in FB-RR are sharing and sustained-silent reading.

#### 3.1 Sharing

Sharing provides readers with a wide range of levels and types of books. The reading center is divided such as a big book center, a magazine center, or a science center. There are several ways to hold a conference. The teacher may approach readers and conference with them there. Or the teacher may sit at a table and call

readers over to conference with. The teacher assigns conference schedule on specific days spending 3-4 minutes with each learner. For the fluent readers, there is more discussion and less reading aloud. To assess learner's progress in the conference, the teacher can use running records, a conference form, observation, or anecdotal notes.

Watchmann (1982) designed a two-year study to assess whether improving the classroom observation skills and follow-up conferencing skills of elementary principals would have a direct effect on the academic achievement of learners in the classroom. Results showed that the reading achievement scores of third grade learners remained stable, while the reading achievement scores of sixth grade learners showed a dramatic increase during the second year of the study.

Forsyth (1996) studied an in-depth descriptive analysis of a set of 73 individual reading conferences that occurred between one teacher and 13 less proficient readers during a summer reading program. The results suggested that the individual reading conference was an important instructional format which provided opportunities for the teacher and reader to establish a joint focus of attention for learning and to negotiate intersubjective understandings of reading goals and subgoals. It appeared to be considerate of an individual learner's zone of proximal development in reading and facilitated the movement from teacher regulated learning to internalization of learning in a child.

Peart (2003) examined the effects of oral and creative responses to text on children's literary transactions. This research project built upon Vygotsky's theory of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) and Rosenblatt's transactional theory and provided information about the effectiveness of arts-based reading response activities. Findings indicated that the creative response activity offered appropriate and effective scaffolding for learners with a variety of academic needs.

### 3.2 Sustained silent reading

Sustained silent reading began in the 1950s and 1960s and has been called differently such as free voluntary reading (FVR), self-selected reading, uninterrupted sustained silent reading (USSR), sustained quiet reading time (SQUIRT), drop everything and read (DEAR), and high intensive practice (HIP).

The common objective is to develop each student's ability to read silently without interruption for a long period of time (McCracken, 1971, cited in Pilgreen, 2000). It allows approximately 15-20 minutes of time for students to read their own

self-selected materials with a teacher modeling by reading silently at the same time. There is no report or keeping record for the follow-up activities. This feature makes sustained silent reading different from the self-selected reading which emphasizes accountability measures, such as student-teacher conferences. According to Marzano (2004), sustained silent reading can be effective to inculcate in self-selected reading or wide reading within classes.

Cho and Krashen (1994) reported the introducing Sweet Valley High series to a group of ESL adults who studied English extensively in Korea and had lived in the U.S. for several years. The series were introduced by starting with kid series and gradually moving up to the adolescent series and eventually to the regular romance novels. The learners showed enjoyment in reading, made gains on tests of vocabulary, and reported improvement in their English.

Pilgreen (2000) set up a study of a 'stacked for success' SSR program (sustained silent reading) with 248 intermediate ESL students in grades 10-12. For 16 weeks, the control group from the Home School was compared with the experimental group from the Community School. One program had all eight factors (Access, Appeal, Conducive Environment, Encouragement, Staff Training, Non-Accountability, Follow-up Activities, and Distributed Time to Read), and the other had some of the factors. The pretest-posttest forms of student questionnaire, the Student Attitude Survey, and Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test were used to measure reading comprehension and pleasure in reading. Results on the improved reading comprehension and on greater enjoyment of reading showed that scores of the students in both schools increased with the Home School's average gain in scores was higher than the Community School's average gain in scores with a significant difference.

#### 4. Writing block

The writing block is carried out in 'Writer's Workshop.' This block is more related to reading and writing workshop, which had been formalized by Nancie Atwell in 1987. It is multilevel in that the learners choose their own topics and write about what they know. There are three segments of the writing block that are mini-lesson/ teacher writing, children writing and conferencing, and sharing (Cunningham, Hall, & Sigmon, 1999). The total time allows 30-40 minutes. The block begins with a 10-minute mini-lesson in which the teacher models real writing. Next, the learners

work on their own writing for 20 minutes through the writing process, while the teacher is conferencing with individuals. This block ends with the 'Author's Chair' in which the learners share their writing each day. Cunningham, Hall, and Sigmon (1999) provided the following goals of the Writing block.

- See writing as a way to tell about things;
- Write fluently;
- Learn to read through writing;
- Apply grammar and mechanics in their own writing;
- Learn particular forms of writing;
- Maintain the self-confidence and motivation of struggling writers.

There were positive findings of previous research on writing connected to reading and Author's Chair with ESL learners. The participants were Arab EFL learners (Abu Rass, 2001), minority ESL learners in the US (Abu Rass, 1997; Arthur, 1991; Fitzgerald, 1989), ESL learners in New Zealand (Elley, 1991, cited in Abu Rass, 2001), ESL college learners (Kasper, 1996) and Chinese ESL learners (Han & Ernst-Slavit, 1999).

General results showed superior performance by participants in the programs and some showed significant gain in test scores. Learners demonstrated significant gains in language proficiency. They were also eager to read the assigned novels and enjoyed reading even though they encountered many unfamiliar words. The improvement in proficiency level was noticeable.

Kasper's findings (1996) indicated that that reading performance was enhanced when ESL learners considered English language texts as an enjoyable as well as a learning experience. He also concluded that writing activities will help develop their English language reading proficiency. Fitzgerald (1993) suggested that ESL learners should be immersed in reading and writing at the earliest possible time. In addition, learning about writing should be introduced alongside, or in relation to, learning about reading. The common variation in Writing block includes writing and revising/editing.

#### 4.1 Writing and revising/editing

This format helps learners to write on their own without teacher encouragement. The learners can spend 15–20 minutes on their writing, revising, and published pieces. This is the time when teacher begins to use the Author's Chair, in



which the learners share their published writing. The term Author's Chair was first applied by Graves and Hansen in 1983 to activities that took place in classrooms. The goal of Author's Chair is to develop readers and writers who have a sense of authorship and readership that helps them in either composing process (Tierney & Readence, 2000).

Graves and Hansen (1983) implemented a case study of using the author's chair in a first grade classroom throughout 1981–1982 to explore the development of the learners' understanding of the relationship between reading and writing. The participants read and wrote every day. They shared their versions in oral reading. Their writings were done at one time of the day and were kept in folders in order to be published about one out of every four pieces. Data collection included video, audio, and hand recordings of the learners composing and conferencing in reading and writing. After a year, learners became assertive readers and writers who developed a sense of authorship that helps them in either composing process.

Barksdale-Ladd and Nedeff (1997) applied Students as Authors project with intermediate grade international learners at Central Elementary, West Virginia. The project connected literature, writing, and publishing. The process started with introducing learners to a genre, creating a story map, writing a story, revising, editing, illustrating, and submitting it to WORM publishing. Over the five years of Students as Authors project, results showed higher levels of enthusiasm in engaging in reading and writing, greater demonstrations of the love of reading and writing, increases in learner self-esteem and empowerment, and better problem-solving abilities. Finally, Central Elementary was selected for a 1995-1996 IRA Exemplary Reading Program Award.

Coleman (2000) implemented a Writer's Workshop with 55 first and second graders in a combined classroom situation. Learners participated in lessons on writing skills, instruction and application of the writing process that were brainstorming, pre-writing, editing, peer conferencing, and publishing, and Author's Chair. Data were collected to follow the writing progress of three learners during the year-long study. Learners' writing skills were placed on the First Steps Writing Continuum rated by the Education Department of Western Australia in 1994 and their growth was documented throughout the year. Results indicated learners responded positively to the implementation of a Writer's Workshop and their writing skills improved.

Reid (2002) used Writer's Workshop in the Writing block with struggling fourth graders. The class began with teacher modeling in mini-lesson, learner writing, conferencing, and sharing. The results from state writing test showed that all children's scores improved from the first test to the-end-of-the-year test. They showed dramatic improvement.

In conclusion, Four-Blocks literacy framework was developed by Cunningham, Hall, and Defee in 1989. It is a framework for reading and writing that includes all components for a comprehensive instructional program. It includes guided reading, self-selected reading, working with words, and writing blocks. The framework has been used in numerous early grade classrooms where many children still struggle with reading and writing.

The FB-RR in this study is developed from the Four-Blocks literacy framework for university students. In like manner, the Four Blocks was originally designed for young readers, the FB-RR is developed for non-proficient EFL readers. The instruction has similar blocks and activities. Teaching comprehension strategies such as using prior knowledge, predicting, question generating and answering, summarizing, and retelling are all essential in building students' text comprehension. Equally important, vocabulary strategies, reading for pleasure, and writing practice are also significant for transferring previously learned skills to develop comprehension. Through direct teaching and modeling, as well as personal reading and writing experiences, students can slowly build a repertoire of skills and comprehension strategies.

#### Repeated Reading (RR)

The final goal of reading instruction is comprehension; however, without fluency, comprehension may be impeded. Repeated reading is intended as a supplement in a developmental reading program which aims at achieving fluency. As initiated by S. J. Samuels in 1979, the program consists of rereading a short or meaningful passage several times until a satisfactory level of fluency is reached. Then the procedure is repeated with a new passage.

Repeated reading is theorized from the automatic information processing in reading or automaticity theory (LaBerge & Samuels, 1985). The fluency problems stem from readers' poor decoding skills. When decoding is too slow, it impedes the flow of thought and hampers comprehension. Fluent readers, on the other hand,

decode words accurately, quickly, and automatically, thus retaining many resources they can use for comprehension. Comprehension may be poor with the first reading of the text, but with each additional rereading, student is better able to comprehend. As a result, rereading both builds fluency and enhances comprehension (Samuels, 1979: 405). Suggestions for repeated reading are:

- Ask students a different comprehension question with each rereading of the story;
- Generally, select short passage about 50-200 words;
- Select easy stories which are of interests to students.

The purpose of repeated reading is to build fluency. Fluency is defined as two components: the accuracy of word recognition and the reading speed. During the procedure, the teacher listens and charts progression towards these criteria. After reading the passage, the student is given feedback on words read correctly and incorrectly per minute (WPM). The readings are repeated 3-5 times. When the criteria are achieved on a passage, the student begins practice on a new passage.

Fast and accurate word recognition in reading is necessary for comprehension according to Martens (1994). Fuchs, Fuchs and Maxwell (1988) found that students' fluency was highly correlated with their scores on a standardized reading comprehension test. Increases in comprehension were reported in a number of repeated reading studies (Dowhower, 1987; Herman, 1985; Rasinski, 2006). The significance of repeated reading intervention is that reading improvement can be transferred to unpracticed texts. Dowhower (1987) reported the positive effects of repeated reading and suggested to be applied to daily literacy instruction as well as in independent reading time.

A number of research found that repeated reading helped students make remarkable progress in reading rate even though improving reading rate was not emphasized. General growth in reading, and perhaps most significant, enjoyment of reading also increased (Rasinski, 2006).

Gonzales and Elijah (1975, cited in Samuels, 1979) used repeated reading with third grade students. When students read the same passage twice, the second reading had 3.3% fewer errors than the first reading.

Dahl and Samuels (1976, cited in Samuels, 1979) conducted an empirical study of repeated readings with poor elementary school readers who were of normal

intelligence. When repeated readings were used as an adjunct to regular instruction, significance gains were made over the control group in both comprehension and reading speed.

Herman (1985) examined the effectiveness of repeated reading with eight nonfluent intermediate-grade students over a three-month period. *New Practice Readers* and *Reading for Concepts*, containing eighty stories about 100-175 words long, were chosen as the materials. The treatment of repeated reading began with students selecting their readings. On the two days when reading was taught in a lab, students practiced their story for 10 minutes, then taped-recorded the story, read it as rapidly as they could. To illustrate progress, the goal was set at 85 WPM. Changes in rate of reading, number of speech pauses, and word recognition accuracy were analyzed. Comprehension was estimated indirectly by combining quality miscues with the total number of words read correctly. Results indicated that rate and scores that reflected comprehension increased significantly.

Taguchi and Gorsuch (2002) examined the transfer effects of repeated EFL reading on reading rate and comprehension of new passages with 18 first-year Japanese beginner to intermediate EFL students. Nine students were in control group and the other nine were in an experimental group. The texts used were selected from Heinemann New Wave Readers series, level five. Test sheets of the Ekwel/Shanker Reading Inventory were used for pre- and post-tests to assess reading gains in silent reading rate and comprehension. Students in the experimental group read each passage seven times and recorded reading times and numbers of repetitions. The reading rates were calculated for each of the seven readings. The reading comprehension scores were measured at the first, third, and seven readings. The results showed that the silent reading rate of experimental group improved significantly. With regard to reading comprehension, there were no significant differences between the groups. The research suggested that the number of rereadings in the repeated reading should be investigated in future research.

Chafouleas, Martens, and Dobson (2004) examined the impact of adding performance-based interventions to a repeated reading (RR) on oral reading fluency with three reading difficulty elementary students. Two performance-based interventions were combined with the RR to create the three instructional packages. The packages included repeated readings (RR), repeated readings with Performance

Feedback (RR/FB), and repeated readings with Performance Feedback and Contingent Reward (RR/FB/REW). Results suggested that RR alone led to the greatest increase in reading fluency for participants with the highest reading rates and lowest error rates at baseline. In contrast, the participant who exhibited the lowest reading rates and highest error rate benefited the most with RR/FB or RR/FB/RW.

Therrien (2004) conducted a meta-analysis to ascertain instructional components of repeated reading and its effect on reading fluency and comprehension. The analysis indicated that repeated reading can be used effectively with both disabled and nondisabled students to increase reading fluency and comprehension on a particular passage and as an intervention to increase overall fluency and comprehension ability.

In summary, repeated reading was originally designed to increase fluency. Two indicators of fluency are reading speed and accuracy of comprehension. A great deal of evidence showed that repeated reading improved the efficacy of word recognition, and there was a relationship between word recognition and later reading comprehension. The method of repeated reading deserves to be more widely used as a technique for building fluency and comprehension in reading.

The FB-RR instruction not enhances only reading comprehension, but also fluency. The FB-RR includes repeated reading which is a practice of fluency. Fluency is the bridge between word identification and comprehension. In this study, the teacher encouraged students to read the same passage two to three times. This practice helped students expose to the text and use a more fluent rate when reading. When they become fluent readers, they will focus their attention on text meaning rather than decoding words.

## **Autonomous Learning**

Autonomy is the ability to take charge of one's own learning (Holec, 1981). According to Benson (2001), it is a capacity to control one's own learning. It was seen as a practice of self-directed learning, or learning in which the objectives, progress, and evaluation of learning are determined by the learners themselves.

The concept of autonomy first entered the field of language teaching through the adult education movement in Europe and North America. Many of the early

autonomous language learning projects were carried out within the Council of Europe's Modern Languages Project in 1970s. Henri Holec played a key role in this project as the director of the *Centre de Recherches et d'Applications en Langues* (CRAPEL). The center continues the research and practice on autonomy in the present day. At CRAPEL, autonomy was fostered through self-directed learning which based on self-access center. The self-access center is an open access resource center containing authentic print, audio, and video target language materials.

Autonomy can be fostered, but not taught (Benson, 2001). In order to foster autonomy in the classroom, a teacher should provide learners with the opportunity to make significant choices and decisions about their learning. The teacher should allow learners to plan their own learning activities, monitor their progress, and evaluate their outcomes.

There are degrees of autonomy and autonomy may also take different forms. One of the most influential classroom projects was carried out by Leni Dam and her colleagues in English language learning in Danish secondary schools (Dam, 1995). The classroom learners are simply asked to take responsibility for the major decisions in their language learning throughout the years. The works of Dam showed that teenagers can manage their own classroom learning without negative effect on their proficiency. Johnson, Pardesi, and Paine (1990) stated that primary school children were able to make significant decisions about their language learning. In addition, Holmes (1990) reported similar results for young children with learning difficulties.

The concept of autonomy is closely associated with the concept of individualization. The two concepts are associated by a mutual link to the learner-centeredness. Individualization also takes the form of programmed learning. It is a mode of instruction in which learners are expected to work their way, at their own pace, through materials prepared by teachers (Benson, 2001).

The work on classroom decision-making was carried out in the fields of collaborative experiential learning. This concept sees the needs and choices of other learners in the classroom as a crucial aspect of autonomy development. Autonomy may imply interdependence rather than independence (Little, 1996, cited in Benson, 2003). It supported the capacity to participate fully and critically in social interactions. Benson (2003: 294-296) suggested five principles of fostering autonomy in classroom.

1. Be actively involved in the students' learning.

In traditional classrooms, teachers direct the students' learning. Teachers who want to foster autonomy try to help students take greater control over their learning by becoming more actively involved in it themselves, such as preparation, classroom management, and evaluation.

2. Provide a range of learning options and resources.

Teachers need to bring a range of learning options and resources into the classroom. For example, if we are using a particular textbook, we will need to think about how the activities can be modified or re-ordered according to the students' preferences.

3. Offer choices and decision-making opportunities.

Decision making takes place in the language learning classroom at a number of levels. The physical organization of the classroom may also be important. Students are more likely to take initiative in the classroom if the furniture is laid out so that students can sit in groups, choose whom they work with, and move around during the lesson. By moving around the classroom and sitting with groups of students, teachers can also create atmosphere where the students are encouraged to make decisions.

4. Support the learners.

In order to support learners' choices and decisions to be meaningful, they must be informed. Teachers will probably need to explain the rationale behind each approach, allow the learners time to experiment with peers, and give them the opportunity to discuss and evaluate their experiences. Teachers who want to foster autonomy also often make themselves available as counselors to individual learners during classes.

5. Encourage reflection.

Teachers need to actively encourage reflection, help students to draw conclusions, and help them act upon them. A decision could then be made on what the teacher and the students should do in order to prepare for the next class.

In summary, autonomy was defined as the ability to control one's own learning. At the most basic level, the teachers should be actively involved in students' learning. They should provide various resources of different levels and allow students to make decision in learning. Moreover, they should take a role of facilitators who support students' learning and encourage students to reflect things they have learned.

The reader's independence from the teachers encourages autonomy in the reading process. The learner-directed FB-RR mode in this study was carried out through the concept of individualization in the autonomous learning. It is a mode of instruction in which students are expected to work on their ways at their own pace through materials prepared by the teacher. They had choices in starting the blocks according to their preference. Moreover, the interdependence is a key feature of this mode. The mode employed collaborative or cooperative learning groups which develop students' autonomy.

## **Summary**

Chapter two reviewed the underlying theories related to Four-Blocks literacy framework with repeated reading (FB-RR). The review began with the reading comprehension, models of the reading process, balanced reading instruction, Four-Blocks literacy framework, repeated reading, and autonomous learning. The review provided details of how the FB-RR was developed and what were taught in the FB-RR instruction.

Applying the sequence of four blocks in this study, the teacher-directed FB-RR lesson began with Working with Words block, Guided Reading block, Self-Selected Reading block, and Writing block. The learning of word was conducted at the beginning because it is the underlying component in comprehending a text in foreign language reading. Then the Guided Reading block supported students to read the text using their background knowledge and cognitive strategies. The Self-Selected Reading block allowed time for students to employ reading strategies without teacher's interference, make their own decision, and read for pleasure. In this block, students repeatedly read the same text for a few times. This promoted fluency, comprehension, and word recognition. Finally, the lesson was wrapped up with the practice of writing.

Autonomous learning has gained increasing importance and has taken on a number of associated meanings for language learning. Students assume responsibility for their own learning. They acquire key skills and learning strategies according to their own needs and interests. Moreover, they use available resources and take every



opportunity to learn. This is why it is important for the teacher to prepare a wide range of materials and to encourage students to make use of these resources and develop an autonomous learning in a shared language learning situation.

The FB-RR instruction in this study was developed as the learner-directed mode. It aimed to promote students' reading comprehension proficiency. It was believed that the reading comprehension strategies must be modeled, learned, repeated and reinforced for a reader to evolve from an acclimated reader to a proficient reader. So learning to read requires the interrelationship of awareness, motivation and instructional methods. In other words, the skills and attitudes of a student help him to evaluate and develop an interest in reading to transform into a self-directed learner.