Readings on L2 reading: Publications in other venues
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Shenika Harris, Editor
Lindenwood University
United States

Carolina Bernales, Editor
Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso
Chile

David Balmaceda, Editor
Washington University
United States

Wei-Chieh Fang, Editor
Washington University
United States

Huan Liu, Editor
Washington University
United States

Haley Dolosic, Editor
Washington University
United States

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


http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl
This research study investigated the impact of ABRACADABRA (A Balanced Reading Approach for Children and Designed to Achieve Best Results for All: ABRA) educational software on the literacy skills of young students. Three hundred and fifty-four Kenyan students from six elementary schools in the Mombasa area participated in a 13-week long intervention. Students were randomly assigned to an experimental group \((n = 180)\) and a control group \((n = 174)\). Those in the experimental group received English language instruction along with ABRA at a computer lab for one 90-min lesson weekly, whereas those in the control group received regular instruction. ABRA is an evidence-based educational software consisting of three modules: (a) Student Module, which offers instructional activities to help with students’ English literacy skills, (b) Teacher Module, which provides pedagogical materials such as lesson plans and teaching resources, and (c) Parent Module, which offers support for the use of ABRA outside of the classroom. Pedagogically, the software emphasized the development of skills in the following areas: word decoding, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and reading strategies. The Group Reading Assessment and Diagnostic Evaluation (GRADE) Level 1 was used as the pre- and posttests to measure the development of reading skills including vocabulary, reading and listening comprehension. The Literacy Instruction Questionnaire (LIQ) was used to explore reading and comprehension instruction, students’ learning strategies and the use of technology. To examine the difference in GRADE achievement between the two groups, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. Results showed that the experimental group had significantly greater improvements than the control group in passage comprehension \((F(1, 353) = 12.26, p < .00)\) and listening comprehension \((F(1, 353) = 29.04, p < .00)\), but there was no improvement in vocabulary-related tests. Two additional analyses were performed on gender differences and reading levels. Results showed that boys in the experimental group performed better than boys in the control group on all assessment measures except word reading. The same performance pattern was found for girls. It was also found that gains by low readers were slightly higher than those of high readers on all measures except passage comprehension. The LIQ results showed significant differences between the groups in terms of teachers’ declared use of writing activities and computers. In addition, ABRA instructors reported that they integrated literacy activities more frequently than their counterparts.


This cross-sectional and exploratory project examined which characteristics differentiate weaker readers from stronger readers of English as a foreign language (EFL). All participants \((N = 612)\) were native speakers of Finnish currently studying English in a school belonging to one of the following age groups: the youngest group \((n = 203)\) consisting of 10-year-old 4th graders, the older group \((n = 204)\) consisting of 14-year-old 8th graders, and the oldest group \((n = 205)\) consisting of 17-year-old secondary school students. Based on the results of their reading exams, participants were classified as either weak or strong FL readers. In addition to reading assessments, participants also completed assessments that measured linguistic and cognitive abilities in Finnish and English as well as a questionnaire to explore their motivation regarding learning English. Results indicated that one’s reading ability in Finnish was a significant distinguishing characteristic between weak and strong foreign language (FL) readers for all age groups, especially for the 10 and 14-year-old participants. Additional first language (L1) skills that separated weak and strong readers were writing ability for the youngest group and
vocabulary knowledge for the older groups. Results also revealed that stronger FL readers were able to better segment sentences in their L1 and accurately detect spelling errors of Finnish words. Regarding FL abilities that separated both groups, results showed that the greatest separator was vocabulary size. Better abilities in FL writing, dictation and segmentation also distinguished strong readers from weaker readers. Concerning cognitive factors, results showed that younger weaker readers had poorer reading fluency and general phonological skills while older weaker readers had poorer working memory in both languages and phonological skills in English. Finally, learners’ self-concept as learners of English was the single most significant motivational aspect that distinguished strong readers from weak readers with this aspect gaining in importance as age increased. In conclusion, although this study found several linguistic, cognitive and motional characteristics that separated strong FL readers from weak FL readers, the most significant separator between the two groups, regardless of age, was knowledge of English. Given this important finding, the researchers believe that helping students to improve their FL skills in all areas will result in better FL reading abilities. Given the cross-sectional and exploratory nature of this project, the researchers concluded by calling for future longitudinal studies to better help understand how to help weak FL readers.


This review aimed to accommodate the various definitions of the term “strategy” that have been used in many L1 and second language (L2) reading studies. According to the author, there have been many inconsistencies and overlaps with the use of this term due to various conflicting definitions given to the word “strategy.” This paper focused solely on studies that utilized verbal reporting or think-aloud methods. In total, the author reviewed 41 studies to help alleviate any confusion regarding the operationalization of the term. To this end, the author created detailed tables that not only contained a list of definitions and terms used to refer to “strategy,” but also offered an easier method to compare and contrast strategy-use taxonomies in reading research. With this review, the author hoped to assist L1 and L2 reading researchers as well as second language reading instructors.


This study investigated factors that affect English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) instructors’ use of computer-assisted reading (CAR) in their reading courses. In this study, participants were 70 ESL/EFL instructors with a minimum of 5 years of college-level teaching experience from various universities. Participants completed a researcher developed 37-item survey which included questions about participants’ backgrounds, teaching experiences, and beliefs regarding why ESL/EFL instructors choose to use or not use CAR in their reading classes. Survey results revealed that of the many factors that influenced the use of CAR in the second language reading classroom, many were related to instructors’ personal characteristics, such as their willingness to change, their perceived technical abilities, and their uncertainty about the benefits of using computers in teaching. In the open-ended question responses, participants mentioned that a lack of necessary facilities, technical support, and institutional support also
influenced instructors’ usage of CAR. Given the survey responses, the author recommended more personal development and technical training to assist ESL/EFL instructors in effectively implementing CAR in the second language reading classroom.


The authors of this study used the mixed Rasch model (MRM) to investigate differences within groups of Chinese EFL readers and identify key distinctive features of different classes of readers. A total of 602 Chinese college students studying at five Chinese universities participated in the study. The research instruments used in this study were: (a) the Metacognitive and Cognitive Strategy Use Questionnaire (MCSUQ) to assess participants’ metacognitive and cognitive reading strategies and (b) a nationwide standardized reading test to assess participants’ reading abilities and lexico-grammatical knowledge. Analysis of the data revealed two latent classes of readers. Class 1 readers, the more advanced readers, were more proficient in English, exhibited a higher level of lexico-grammatical knowledge, and frequently used the following reading strategies: planning, monitoring, and integrating. Class 2 readers, on average, performed lower on the lexico-grammatical knowledge task, had lower English proficiency, and employed fewer reading strategies than Class 1 readers. The authors concluded that by knowing an L2 reader’s latent class membership, instructors would be able to provide more tailored instruction to help improve students’ weaker areas thereby improving their overall L2 reading skills.


Given the substantial number of ELs (English learners) that currently form a part of the US student population, this study explored the effect of supplemental instruction on the reading development of first-grade ELs. All 78 students were native speakers of Spanish and had been identified as being at risk of developing reading problems in English. Students were divided into two groups, a treatment group (n = 39) and a comparison group (n = 39). Those in the treatment group received Transition Lessons five days per week. During these 30 min lessons, experienced bilingual teachers and assistants provided lessons to develop the following: (a) decoding skills such as phonological knowledge, word reading and sentence reading, (b) English language proficiency (ELP) skills such as vocabulary knowledge and comprehension strategies, and (c) explicit knowledge about the language structures that are transferable from Spanish to English (e.g., the pronunciation of the letter m) and those language structures that are nontransferable (e.g., the pronunciation of the letter e). Those in the comparison group received the standard or “business as usual” intervention programs for ELs having difficulty in schools. For this study, these programs included the Houghton Mifflin program, Fast Track Phonics, the DISTAR program, and the Harcourt intervention program. To assess the effectiveness of the interventions, students completed the following measures: the Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS) Nonsense Word Fluency (Good & Kaminski, 2002) to measure decoding abilities, the DIBELS Oral Reading Fluency (Good, Kaminski, & Dill, 2002) to measure reading accuracy and fluency, the Stanford Achievement Test, Tenth Edition (Harcourt Brace Educational...
Measurement, 2003) to measure reading ability, the *Group Reading Assessment and Diagnostic Evaluation* (Williams, 2001) to measure reading achievement in the areas of vocabulary knowledge and receptive listening comprehension, the *Bilingual Verbal Ability Test* (Muñoz-Sandoval, Cummins, Alvarado, & Ruef, 1998) to measure students’ English and Spanish language skills in an academic context, and a *Transition Lessons Assessment* to measure specifically all skills addressed during the daily lessons. Although all students showed improvement in reading abilities, statistical analyses of the pre- and post-test scores for the above-mentioned measures showed no differences between the treatment and comparison group. Observational data revealed that teachers in the treatment group dedicated more time to vocabulary development and comprehension strategies while teachers in the comparison condition dedicated more attention to phonics and sentence reading. Although all intervention programs in the current study proved effective in improving reading ability in first-grade ELs, the researchers concluded that more research is needed to determine the optimal amount of time that ELs need such intervention and how the language of such intervention, native language versus second language, affects the outcome.


Using a mixed-methods design, Bartan investigated the relationship between reading and writing in a foreign language. Specifically, the researcher explored the effect of reading authentic short texts in English on the writing abilities of 7th grade EFL students using the *Read for Writing* approach, an adapted version of Corbett’s (2012) *Talk for Writing* model. A total of 79 students enrolled in a private school in Turkey participated in the study. Although all students used the same textbook during class time, students in the experimental group (n = 48) received instruction and practice reading and analyzing different short stories using the *Read for Writing* approach. This approach included activities such as text mapping, reading aloud, working in groups to analyze the story and characters, studying vocabulary, and writing stories in groups and alone. Students in the experimental group also used detailed rubrics to self-assess their stories for criteria such as content, organization, and syntax in addition to completing a questionnaire about the activities completed during the experiment. The control group (n = 31) followed the normal curriculum using the course textbook. Although both groups took a post-test to measure any differences in their writing abilities due to the instructional method, those in the experimental group also completed a pre-test to measure any effects of the *Read for Writing* approach. Regarding the experimental group, results showed that students’ writing abilities significantly improved as a result of reading and analyzing short stories (t = -8.57, p < .000). When compared to the control group, students in the experimental group outperformed those in the control group (t = 8.8, p < .000) with this improvement in writing abilities being true across all assessment criteria. Questionnaire answers revealed that students in the *Read for Writing* group enjoyed many of the activities with “working in groups to analyze the story” being the favorite among students. Although more research is needed on this topic, the researcher recommended the *Read for Writing* approach as an effective way to help improve EFL students’ writing abilities.

The following replication study examined the effect of two different glosses on incidental vocabulary uptake during the L2 reading process. The experiment was conducted three times, each time using a different group of participants. Forty-eight second-year Chinese students majoring in English served as the participants for Trial 1. Trial 2 participants were 48 third-year Malaysian students studying English in New Zealand, and Trial 3 participants were 29 second-year Dutch students majoring in English at a Belgian university. During a weekly class meeting, participants silently read an 800-word narrative text in English which contained a total of 18 glossed words, 6 pseudowords and 12 real words. For each trial, the pseudowords (the target vocabulary for the study) had text-only glosses for those in the text-only experimental group and multimodal glosses (text with pictures) for those in the multimodal experimental group. After completing the reading, students were given a form-recall test consisting of fill-in-the-blank vocabulary items regarding the pseudowords from the reading and multiple-choice text comprehension questions. After this first test, participants completed a second test which consisted of a meaning-recognition matching activity for the target words along with two additional glossed words from the text. While results for all three trials revealed some differences, there were no statistically significant differences between those in the text-only groups and those in the multimodal groups for the meaning-recognition task or the reading comprehension task. However, those in the text-only groups for Trials 1 and 2 performed statistically better on the form-recall task than those in the multimodal experimental groups. A similar result was found for Trial 3; however, the difference was not statistically significant. Given the results of this study, the researchers cautioned instructors and researchers to not overestimate the effectiveness of including images in marginal glosses for L2 reading texts, something that may have occurred in the past.


This study reported on several experiments that explored the initial stages of L1 and L2 incidental acquisition of two grammatical features (subcategorization and (ir)regularity of novel verbs) in German. Experiments 1a and 1b focused on the subcategorization frames of novel verbs. Native adult speakers of German participated in Experiment 1a and advanced adult German learners in Experiment 1b. In both experiments, participants read 20 short texts in which 28 low-frequency German verbs were selected and replaced with pseudowords. Each pseudoverb was inserted in the text three times: one in the infinitive and two in the participle form. For each text, a syntactically simple and a syntactically complex version were created. After finishing reading each of the five texts, participants read self-paced sentences each of which contained a plausible and an implausible sentence. Reaction time was measured. Afterwards, participants read twenty statements about the texts and answered with a yes or no response. ANOVA analysis of Experiment 1a revealed main effects for position and plausibility. No interaction effect was found. Participants were slower in the implausible than in the plausible condition, indicating that once there was a violation of L1 participants’ perception of the novel verbs (intransitive vs. transitive) longer reading times were needed. T-tests of Experiment 1b revealed that L2 participants read the syntactically complex texts at a slower rate than the simple versions (t1(1, 17) = 4.03, p < .001; t2(1, 18) = 2.45, p = .025). ANOVA analysis showed significant effect for position as well as the interaction effect between position and complexity among L2 learners. In
general, results suggested that both L1 and L2 learners were able to infer incidentally the subcategorization with three exposures in the text; however, three exposures were limited for L2 learners. The plausibility effect was stronger for L1 learners than for L2 learners. L2 learners acquired novel verbs better when reading syntactically complex texts. Experiment 2a and 2b focused on the conjugation type of novel verbs. The procedure was similar to Experiment 1a and 1b. Twenty low-frequency German transitive verbs were selected, with each being matched with a phonologically dissimilar pseudoverb. Twenty short texts were selected and each pseudoverb appeared three times. Participants read two versions of each self-paced sentence: morphologically plausible and morphologically implausible. T-tests of Experiment 2a revealed a significant difference in reading time between syntactically complex texts and syntactically simple texts among L1 participants ($t_1(1, 18) = 4.87, p < .001; t_2(1, 19) = 3.03, p = .006$). ANOVA analysis revealed that L1 participants inferred regular verbs slower in implausible sentences than in plausible sentences, but inferred irregular verbs faster in implausible sentences than in plausible sentences. T-tests of Experiment 2b indicated that L2 participants read the syntactically complex texts slower in comparison to the syntactically simple texts ($t_1(1, 16) = 3.73, p = .002, t_2(1, 19) = 3.38, p = .007$). A significant difference between the plausible and implausible conditions for the irregular novel verbs in complex texts was also found. Results showed that L2 learners had the ability to acquire conjugation type of novel verbs incidentally with three exposures. Syntactic complexity assisted L2 learners in the incidental acquisition of irregular verbs. For L1 learners, no evidence was found that L1 learners acquired the regularity of novel verbs in the texts. In general, the study concluded that L1 learners were better than L2 learners in the acquisition of subcategorization, but not in the acquisition of irregularly conjugated verbs. Syntactic complexity significantly contributed to L2 learners’ incidental acquisition of novel verbs.


The present study examined reading abilities in young primary school children residing in the United Kingdom. A total of 160 children participated in the study, and children were either monolingual English speakers ($n = 80$) or English speakers as an additional language (EAL) learners ($n = 80$). All participants were assessed as having weak language skills based on their performance on sections of the following assessments: the Clinical Evaluation of Language Fundamentals Preschool II UK (CELF-Preschool II UK; Semel, Wiig, & Secord, 2006), the Expressive Vocabulary and Sentence Structure, and the Non Word Repetition subtest from the Early Repetition Battery (ERB; Seeff-Gabriel, Chiat, & Roy, 2008). Forty EAL children and 40 monolingual children (ML) were randomly chosen to participate in the oral intervention program while the remaining students served as a waiting control group. The students completed the following measures at the beginning of the first year of primary school (Time 1) and at the end of their second year of primary school (Time 2): (a) language skills tasks consisting of a listening comprehension task, an expressive grammar task and an expressive vocabulary task; (b) literacy skills tasks consisting of a letter sound knowledge task, an invented spelling task, a word reading task, and a reading comprehension task; and (c) a phonological skills processing task. In addition, students also completed a sound isolation task and a non-verbal IQ task during Time 1 but not Time 2. Analysis of the Time 1 assessment scores revealed several differences between the ML
group and the EAL group. While the EAL group performed better than the ML group on phonological processing and word reading assessments, the ML group outperformed the EAL group on language assessments in the areas of expressive vocabulary, sentence structure, and grammar. Analysis of the Time 2 measures revealed that EAL children had stronger word reading and spelling skills than the ML children while ML children had stronger oral language skills. Additional analysis revealed that language skills at Time 1 and word ability at Time 2 combined explained 93% of the variance in reading comprehension skills at Time 2 for ML children and 95% of the variance for EAL children.


This study attempted to explore the impact of word recognition training on L2 word identification, reading speed and reading comprehension. One hundred and fifty-one first-year Japanese university students with a lower-intermediate English reading proficiency level participated in the study. The participants were divided into four experimental groups and a control group. While the control group engaged in silent reading for 20 minutes, the four experimental groups had 20 minute in-class training sessions in semantic processing, orthographic processing, orthographic/semantic processing, or orthographic/semantic/phonological processing. At the end of each four-week treatment cycle, participants read a passage and completed a reading comprehension test (Burrows, 2012). A decision task was used to measure participants’ word recognition fluency and the amount of time needed to read the passage served as a measurement of participants’ reading speed. The results indicated that the participants’ reading speed was positively impacted by the intervention. Students that received word recognition training finished the reading passages faster than those that did not receive training. The results of the reading comprehension and word recognition tasks also revealed that word recognition training was especially beneficial when learners read the passage that was slightly beyond their current linguistic competence. The results pointed to the importance of including word recognition (orthographic, phonological, and semantic) training as an integral part of the L2 reading curriculum.


This paper examined the multilayered complexity of both intellectual and cultural development for international multilingual scholars through reflective practice of the author. The author of this piece completed doctoral studies in a foreign nation, developing literacy practices through these studies. In this self-reflective practice, the author examined a changing reality as a student and scholar from abroad, gaining appreciation for literacy as a non-neutral route for learning and developing as a scholar. Through unique insights as a bilingual researcher, the author was able to gain experiences and develop simultaneously in both languages, reading and experiencing education in new ways as he furthered his studies. In this way, the author experienced the development of new literacy identities through international study. Highlighting the importance of the duality of systems of meaning, cultural and philosophical connotations, and literary curricula, the author explained that these systems did not always operate in concert. Rather, there were moments when the two literacies collided. It was in these times that the author learned to go
beyond the words that were on the page, seeing literacy as more than the ink. While reflecting on the journey, the author further explained that this was only one moment in a lifetime of evolution in literacy identity. In conclusion, the author called for more sensitivity, awareness, and training for students who are linguistically diverse as they become increasingly more present in universities worldwide.


This study investigated the effect of explicit reading strategy instruction on the lexical richness, diversity, and effectiveness of L2 students’ composition writing. The authors explored whether reading strategies such as text-mining and imitating facilitate vocabulary use in students’ written productions. Text-mining and imitating strategies involve analyzing model texts to raise learners’ awareness on organization patterns and lexicogrammatical features for later composition of similar samples. A group of 98 native speakers of Turkish, who were freshman students of English Language and Literature, participated in this study. A pretreatment essay writing task determined that both the experimental group and the control group performed similarly in composition writing. In the treatment phase of the study, those in the control group were exposed to instruction on how to write essays using charts and graphic organizers and were provided with instructions on rhetorical style and text organization. The experimental group received training on how to employ text mining and imitating reading strategies using model essays. After receiving instruction, participants were assigned to write both a descriptive essay and an advantage disadvantage essay of at least 250 words. A corpus of 15,826 (control group) and of 25,027 (experimental group) words were tagged and analyzed using a computerized tagging system (Biber, 1993). Results showed a statistically significant difference in lexical diversity between the two groups in the use of general nouns and verbs, which may be due to students’ incidental vocabulary learning from reading. No significant difference in the use of attributive, predicative, comparative, and superlative adjectives was found. Additionally, a statistically significant, higher level of general success in L2 writing was observed in the experimental group. The authors argued that the training in mining and imitation reading strategies could explain these results as learners were exposed to model essays that served as examples for rhetorical functions and linguistic choices in a text. The authors concluded that providing learners with model essays and teaching them reading strategies, such as text mining and imitating as pre-writing activities, might facilitate both incidental and intentional vocabulary learning.


The present study sought to understand the current realities of organizing and implementing extensive reading (ER) programs, weighing the proven strengths of these programs against the difficulties that many instructors experience in developing and supporting such programs. Specifically, this article sought to understand the reasoning behind implementing second language ER programs and the realities of establishing such programs including the types of difficulties encountered and the systems that were put into place when developing and maintaining a program. One hundred and nineteen teachers of English and other foreign...
languages in Vietnam, Indonesia, Taiwan, South Korea, and Japan with varied years of experience (one to twenty-five years) completed a 23-item questionnaire about their backgrounds, extensive reading and listening, and program implementation. Of these items, only those focusing on extensive reading were analyzed in this study. Results indicated that ER was chosen to be used because teachers believed that extensive reading practices were key for language and reading competency development; however, despite this stated belief in extensive reading, few universities surveyed included ER as part of required coursework for students. Teachers surveyed particularly believed that learners would enjoy reading more after having experienced extensive reading. In addition, teachers also stated that they felt that ER could help learners to gain an identity as an English reader and/or increase social and cultural motivation to learn language. The majority of teachers reported having difficulty “getting students to read” at least sometimes. The key challenges that were highlighted as barriers to students’ reading were lack of interest, lack of time, difficulty in finding suitable materials, and challenges monitoring self-directed reading. Instructors also reported difficulty with monitoring reading, assessing what was learned through students’ reading, and incorporating ER into the often fast-paced curricular schedule. Results suggested that ER was viewed as auxiliary for language education rather than central for teachers in Asia. The authors encouraged patience for practitioners who wish to bring ER to the center of their own programs.


This study endeavored to further understanding of L2 motivation through a close examination of an EFL extensive reading program in Japan, managed through an online interface called MReader. MReader was described as an online managing tool which enabled learners and teachers to track reading progress and provided assessments for all reading selections. Highlighting the strength of the relationship between motivation and L2 reading success, particularly at high levels of motivation, the authors framed this study to understand student responses to the MReader Challenge. Thirty-six university students in Japan studying English across various levels of instruction (beginner to advanced) voluntarily participated in the challenge to read a certain amount (measured in words or books read over a semester) outside of their normal coursework in their English language classes. Data consisted of a survey and some semi-structured interviews with a subset of 11 participants. Findings indicated that learners felt that they had improved in English reading, including increased speed, vocabulary, and understanding. Students also felt that MReader quizzes were challenging and an effective way of marking success in meeting goals. The majority of students reported that they felt that their goals had been met when they passed these quizzes, validating their understanding of the reading. Students also found reading to be enjoyable as they gained knowledge of English vocabulary and grammar structures; however, they reported, in agreement with prior research, that these were not sudden or large changes but tended to be gradual. Extensive reading also appeared to improve the flow and comfort of students’ reading. The authors indicated that such reading may have promoted intrinsic motivation over time, as reading goals aligned with the challenge and provided the learner with an accomplishment toward which they could work.

The project developed ABRACADABRA (A Balanced Reading Approach for Children and Designed to Achieve Best Results for All; ABRA), a web-based literacy program, and investigated its effectiveness on the reading skills of Chinese primary students in Hong Kong. One hundred and twenty-five second-year primary students were randomly assigned to three treatment groups (n = 75) and two control groups (n = 50). The three treatment groups, consisting of two phonics classes and one general English lesson, received the intervention for 14 weeks. Throughout the intervention, teachers first introduced ABRA characters and then implemented the ABRA along with the learning themes of the textbook units and the phonics curriculum. The curriculum covered a wide range of learning domains from word-level activities including alphabetic and phonics-based activities, text-level activities including fluency and comprehension types of activities, to writing activities. Students were also instructed to revisit the ABRA activities at home. The two control groups followed the standard curriculum and used supplementary exercise books without any ABRA. To examine the impact of the ABRA program, several measures were included: (a) The Group Reading Assessment and Diagnostic Evaluation (GRADE), (b) Woodcock-Johnson III Normative Update (NU) Tests of Achievement, (c) Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills 6th Edition (DIBELS), (d) classroom observation and system log, and (e) questionnaires tracking teachers’ practices/reactions and parents’ views towards the ABRA program. The GRADE, NU Tests and DIBELS were used as pre- and posttests. An ANCOVA, with pre-test scores as covariate, was performed on each outcome. Results showed that while the treatment group performed significantly better than the control group on the phonics skills assessment measures (p = 0.04), both groups had similar scores on the letter-word identification, listening comprehension and passage comprehension measures. Given the short duration of the project, the results, and the findings of observation and interview data, the researchers concluded that ABRA is a promising educational program for L2 literacy classrooms.


In an effort to find the appropriate level of text difficulty to better promote L2 acquisition and more positive attitudes toward L2 reading, this mixed-method study examined the effects of reading easier and harder L2 texts on students’ L2 reading comprehension and feelings about L2 reading. Fifty-four students enrolled in two Freshman English for Non-Major (FENM) courses at a university in Taiwan participated in the study. Students were randomly assigned to either the i+1 reading group (n = 27) or the i-1 reading group (n = 27). Both reading groups required students to engage in extensive reading (ER) for two semesters by reading a total eight short novels from the Oxford Book worms series, four each semester. Those in the harder i+1 reading group read four novels at Level 5 and four at Level 6 while those in the easier i-1 read five books at Level 3 and three novels at Level 4. All participants completed a modified version of the Reading Attitudes Survey (RAS) and the English Placement Exam (EPE) at the beginning and end of the project in addition to an open-ended survey at the end of the project. The RAS pre- and post-test scores showed that students in the i-1 reading group had more positive overall
reading attitudes after one year of ER while students’ attitudes in the i+1 reading group did not change. However, there was not a significant effect for the level of text difficulty ($F(1, 52) = .10, p = .32$) between the groups. Students’ EPE pre- and post-test reading comprehension scores showed that all students improved their reading comprehension of English texts after doing one year of ER. However, there were no statistically significant difference between the easier i-l group and the harder i+1 group ($F(1, 52) = .04, p = .84$). Responses from the open-ended survey revealed that most students, regardless of reading group, believed that the activity of ER helped to improve their L2 reading skills, increase their vocabulary in English, and give them more confidence when reading English texts. Given the results, the researcher encouraged the use of ER, regardless of text level difficulty, as an effective method to help improve students’ L2 reading comprehension.


This research article reported a two-year action study which sought to gain understanding of learner autonomy developed through reading diaries and reading strategies instruction. Sixty-five English language learners at a Turkish University, studying advanced reading and writing as part of their training to become English language teachers, participated in the study. In addition to keeping weekly reading diaries, students were asked to complete the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and the Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI). Participants were trained in strategy use early in the semester and were asked to work with peers who shared similar weaknesses over the course of the class. These conversations and resulting developments were expected to be discussed in the students’ reading diaries. During class time, the instructor was involved in reflections about strategy use. Following the course, the researcher conducted a content analysis of reading journals, coding for content and reasoning of students’ reflections about their reading and strategy use over the course of the class. Analyses indicate that students’ self-reported strategies on the SILL and MARSI did not always perfectly align with their diaries. For example, students who said that they rarely look up every word reported in their diaries that they had looked up many words to complete the reading. Over time, use of reading strategies increased and diaries appeared to be good goal-setting devices. However, boredom was cited as a consistent problem for reading strategy use in the diaries. Although students reported extensive use of the dictionary while reading, they believed that such use of the dictionary distracted them from the story and potentially caused comprehension difficulties. Students reported choosing texts which were tailored to their reading goals such as expanding their vocabulary. Metacognitive strategies were particularly encouraged and heavily reported within the diaries. Beyond text-centered strategies, students also reported varied tactics in order to situate themselves in the appropriate physical and mental space for reading. Students initially reported using many strategies which were not helpful as they read. However, over time students appeared to gravitate towards the strategies which had helped them overcome troubles in prior situations. The author argued that goals and strategy adoption were intertwined for these learners.

Writing from a specific text is an essential skill for achieving high academic performance in higher education, and previous research has shown that this is a challenging task for L2 writers. The present study, based on instruction with international students enrolled in a First Year Composition course at a mid-sized university in South Texas, suggested several reading-to-write instructional interventions to assist L2 writers’ writing development. The intervention presented in the study involved two units (Writing Project 1 and Writing Project 2) from week 2 to week 8. Each unit focused on the following sequence: reading strategies, summarizing, synthesizing and paraphrasing. Reading strategies intervention included identifying text genre, connecting texts to personal experience, annotating, using graphic organizers, and evaluating the credibility and readability of texts. A variety of pre-, during-, and post-reading activities were implemented during reading strategies intervention; for example, survey text for reading text features, skimming text, making predictions, using graphic organizers, brainstorming, and one-sentence summary. The objective was to help students apply different reading strategies to nonfiction readings, and students were engaged in summarizing and paraphrasing practice with different source texts for both small and large assignments. Summarizing intervention instructed students to select relevant content and then complete summary writing including such items as effective topic sentences, accurate interpretation of the source, and student writers’ own words. Through both individual and group work, students practiced summary writing and evaluated their peers’ summaries, and instructors provided constant written feedback. Summarizing and paraphrasing intervention focused on helping students identify the relationship between the source texts and their own writing. According to findings from the practice with participants, the study concluded that such reading-to-write instruction greatly helped L2 learners’ writing development. The study concluded by providing the following tips for implementing these interventions: (a) instructors should choose source texts that are readable and appropriate, (b) students must receive extensive practice with writing structures, (c) the reading-writing connection needs to be highlighted to provide L2 readers the strategies needed to move from reading to writing, (d) detailed feedback should be provided for students for further development, and (e) there must be a link between the intervention to authentic writing projects so that students can succeed in high-stakes coursework.


This longitudinal study explored the effect of daily interaction with foreign domestic helpers (FDHs) on the language and literacy development of Chinese-English bilingual children from ages 5 to 9. One hundred and ninety-four children living in Hong Kong, with a L1 of Cantonese, participated in the study. Based on the presence of a FDH and the primary language used with the child, the following three groups were created: (a) English-FDH ($n = 46$) in which English was the main language used with the child, (b) Cantonese-FDH ($n = 32$) in which the Cantonese was the main language used with the child, and (c) Cantonese–No FDH ($n = 116$) in which Cantonese was the main language used with the children and there was not a FDH. In addition to providing background information regarding their education level and that of the FDH when applicable, the children’s parents also provided information regarding their children’s reading habits in English and Chinese at age 5. Participants completed the following assessment measures yearly during the summer months for the duration of the study: a Chinese vocabulary definitions task, a Chinese character recognition task, an English vocabulary task, and an English
word reading task. Results indicated that at age 5, children in the English-FDH group achieved statistically significant higher scores on the English vocabulary task and lower scores on the Chinese character recognition task in comparison to children of the other two groups. However, further analyses did not reveal compounded or diminishing gains or costs in the children’s language development over time. While children in the English-FDH and the Cantonese-FDH groups performed better on the English word reading task than children in the Cantonese-No FDH group at age 6, this difference disappeared after the education level of the mother and the reading habits of the children were factored in as covariates. Overall, the study found that the quantity of English books at home in addition to the education level of the mother were important predictors of children’s English vocabulary and English word reading abilities. Regarding language abilities in Chinese, the frequency of reading books in general at age 5 were important predictors of Chinese language and literacy development over time.


The study reported in this article examines the language comprehension of low-proficiency L2 learners using eye-tracking technology. The goal was to investigate how learners process sentences with words of different frequency and therefore of different levels of difficulty. Two different groups of university students participated in the study. The experimental group consisted of 16 native speakers of English who were low-proficiency learners of Spanish as a foreign language. The control group consisted of 10 high-proficiency participants that were either native Spanish speakers or highly proficient learners of Spanish as a foreign language. All participants answered a language background questionnaire before the study. For data collection, the researchers created minimal pair sentences in which one of the words varied in frequency to examine the consequences on reading behavior. Participants carried out a sentence-reading task in which they read 72 sentences, 18 of which were followed by yes/no comprehension questions to guarantee participants’ attention to the task. Feedback was also provided on correct/incorrect answers. Participants’ eye movements were recorded with a Dr. Bouis Monocular Oculometer. Three eye-movement measures were used in data analysis: gaze duration, total reading time, and number of fixations. Results indicated that lower frequency words had an effect on both low and high-proficiency groups with no signs of a greater effect for the novice learners. Nevertheless, the two groups differed in material processing as high-proficiency learners demonstrated a localized effect in each target word unlike low-proficiency learners who showed a “spillover effect” (the impact that more difficult words have on subsequent regions). This prompted readers to move forward through the text before word recognition occurred and spend more time on re-reading passages. Thus, the researchers recommended that L2 instructors encourage students to fully finish processing words before continuing their reading of a text.


This study examined the use of textual enhancement (TE) during the EFL reading process of 60 Taiwanese high school students. All participants completed two sets of reading tasks followed by a brief reference identification task and a brief reading comprehension task. The pre-test readings

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dealt with jet lag and relationships and had no TE. There were two versions of the treatment readings which discussed a computer company and the brain. Version 1 had the TE of 10 bolded and enlarged anaphors and their antecedents, while version 2 did not have TE. Some students ($n = 30$) read version 1 of the readings, while others ($n = 30$) read version 2 of the readings. Regarding TE and EFL reading comprehension, results showed no difference in reading comprehension for those that read the textually enhanced versions of the readings in comparison to those that read the non-enhanced versions. Results also revealed a positive correlation between anaphor identification and reading comprehension for all participants for both the pre-test and the post-test. The researcher called for future research on the topic, especially research that explores the effect of longer exposure to textually enhanced readings and its effect on reading comprehension.


Grounded in the Planning, Attention, Simultaneous and Successive processing (PASS) theory, the following study examined the relationship among successive processing, (i.e., decoding), simultaneous processing (comprehension), and EFL reading skills. Eighty-one 3rd grade Slovakian children completed the following EFL reading measures: (a) speed and accuracy activities taken from tests created by Kahn-Horwitz, Shimron, and Sparks (2005), (b) word and letter decoding activities taken from the WRMT-R Woodcock Reading Mastery Test-Revised (Woodcock, 1987), and (c) a reading comprehension assessment that was comprised of two short texts in English followed by multiple-choice comprehension questions. They also completed the following cognitive processing measures: the WISC-IV (Wechsler, 2003), the D-KEFS (Delis, Kaplan, & Kramer, 2001), and the Cognitive Assessment System (CAS) (Naglieri & Das, 1997). Results revealed that simultaneous and successive processing explained 34% of the variance of the EFL reading skills for the participants. In addition, there was a statistically significant positive interaction between simultaneous processing and EFL reading comprehension. A statistically significant positive correlation was also found between successive processing and the EFL reading skills of word decoding and letter decoding. Given the scarcity of research on this topic, the researchers concluded by calling for more research on the role of cognitive processes in EFL reading.


This study attempted to identify some possible practices through which parents can help their children learn EFL. The researchers focused on reading aloud due to its relationship with literacy development in the L1 in particular. The participants included a group of Hong Kong students, aged 5-8 years old, and their parents. The families were from a low socioeconomic background, and the children attended three different schools ranked in the last two bands of an academic aptitude classification. This group was chosen because these students were believed to need more support from their parents to develop literacy in L2 than those from the first band. A questionnaire designed to elicit information about parents’ involvement in L2 literacy development was administered to 500 parents from the three schools selected. In addition, a small group of parents ($n = 18$) from one of the schools participated in a workshop that included
a focus group discussion concerning literacy practices used by the English-speaking culture, and they responded to a questionnaire about their opinions in relation to these practices. The workshop focused on practices used in the foreign language such as reading aloud and other activities concerning books. Results indicated that parents consider their involvement as essential for the development of their children’s English literacy skills. Among the practices listed by the parents were teaching their children vocabulary in English as the most common practice, followed by watching videos, reading stories, playing games and singing songs in L2. Focus group data showed that it can be difficult for parents to engage in certain English literacy activities due to lack of time, lack of skills, and a perceived low level of English. Parents found that adopting foreign literacy practices, such as those introduced in the workshop would be too challenging for them. The authors claimed that this last element may be related to the fact that parents chose to support their children in ways that were specific to their culture that can even contradict some practices commonly used in the foreign culture. The preference for particular practices can be associated with parents relying on the ways by which they learned or were taught the language in order to help their children acquire it. Regarding parents’ perceived proficiencies in the foreign language, the authors posited that this was an aspect that had a key role in parental involvement since parents were likely to avoid engaging in certain tasks if they felt insecure about their own ability in the language, leading to feelings of inability to support their children.


In the following study, the researchers explored the reading habits of 26 undergraduate students enrolled in an online “Introduction to Readings in French” course. The course introduced students to a variety of texts in French including comics, songs, and short stories. Each of the ten readings included supplemental information regarding the author, background information about the text, necessary grammatical concepts, relevant vocabulary, in addition to graded and ungraded assessment measures. Students completed an online survey at three points: the beginning of the course (pre-test), at the end of the course (post-test), and one semester after the completion of the course (delayed post-test). The survey asked students to report on their current and projected reading habits for pleasure in English and French. Due to a lack of delayed post-test participation, the researchers only analyzed the pre-test and post-test responses. Survey results indicated that students read more texts in English, both in online and in print format, at the completion of the course in comparison to the beginning of the course. Regarding French, students reported an increase in the amount online reading and a decrease in the amount of print reading. According to students’ self-assessment, they had increased their reading abilities in both English and French, and they believed that reading was their strongest language skill. Assessment measures showed an increase in all language skills with reading showing the largest increase. The researchers urged more individuals to investigate this topic given the great increase in online reading both for academic and non-academic purposes.

The objective of this study was to investigate how different L1 backgrounds affect L2 German learners’ understanding of morphosyntactic disambiguation cues and how resolution of such cues is related to successful L2 reading comprehension. Of interest in this study was whether L2 readers were able to recover from garden path effects and conduct a successful reanalysis for better reading comprehension. One hundred and twenty-one intermediate to advanced learners of L2 German participated in a self-paced reading experiment. Their L1 backgrounds included Italian, Russian, and Korean, all of which differ in morphological case and/or agreement. It was hypothesized that the Russian group would show sensitivity to both cues; the Italian group would be more sensitive to agreement than case; and the Korean group would be more sensitive to case marking than agreement. To test the effects of ambiguity in agreement and case and their potential interactions, learners were presented with twenty-four sets of nine-word sentences in four different conditions: ambiguous, agreement; unambiguous, agreement; ambiguous, case; unambiguous, case. The stimuli were grammatical object-initial sentences that were designed to cause a garden-path effect. Comprehension was assessed by a yes/no comprehension question after each experimental sentence. In terms of comprehension accuracy, data showed that all groups showed high levels of achievement for unambiguous sentences. In comparison to unambiguous conditions, all groups, including the L1 German group, presented lower comprehension accuracy for ambiguous sentences. The authors concluded that the learners’ L1 background was not an indicator of L2 learners’ online sensitivity to morphosyntactic disambiguation cues while reading in their second language of German.


This article gave a summary of 42 seminal works that have influenced our current understanding of the relationship between reading and writing in L1 and L2 contexts. Research about this relationship included a diverse array of studies such as exploratory studies, instructional studies, L1 studies in Composition and Rhetoric, L2 studies in English for academic purposes (EAP) and many others. The authors concluded by identifying several important themes that have emerged from reading-writing research such as: (a) reading skills support writing skills and vice versa, (b) reading and writing skills progress through steps as academic literacy advances, and (c) effective reading and writing instruction should include specific text models at all levels of instructions.


Considering the impact of vocabulary size on reading comprehension indicated by previous studies (e.g., Laufer, 1989; Nation, 2006; Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010), this study attempted to investigate the relationship between these items with a focus on Turkish learners of English. All participants (N = 178) were enrolled in an English Language Teaching program at a university in Turkey. Two authentic expository texts were selected from *The Economist*, and the difficulty level was checked based on the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level. For each text, 10 multiple-choice questions and 10 graphic-organizer questions were inserted to check comprehension. Inter-rater and intra-rater reliability were both checked. All comprehension
questions were written in L1 Turkish, which differentiated the present study from previous ones examining Turkish learners of English. To measure participants’ vocabulary coverage, a vocabulary checklist was used. Results indicated that there was a gradual increase in comprehension scores at the level of 88% vocabulary coverage; however, a decrease was found as the vocabulary coverage went up from 92% to 96%. The researchers explained that this decrease might be caused by the limited number of participants who knew 92% and 96% of the content words in the reading texts. The researchers concluded that there was no threshold at which reading comprehension increased significantly. Pearson’s correlation coefficient revealed a statistically significant interaction between reading comprehension and vocabulary coverage ($r = .41, p < .01$). Vocabulary coverage explained 17% of the variation in reading comprehension, which echoed the study of Schmitt et al. (2001). Pearson’s correlation between the vocabulary coverage for the first 8,000 words and reading comprehension was also found statistically significant ($r = .44, p < .01$), and the first 8,000 words explained 20% of the variation in comprehension. Simple regression analysis demonstrated that vocabulary coverage was a significant predictor of reading comprehension ($B = .125, t = 5.91, p < .01$). Based on the model, university level Turkish learners of English must understand 98% of the content words in order to comprehend at least 70% of an authentic expository text in English. However, the researchers cautioned that even a vocabulary knowledge of over 98% of content words might not result in 100% comprehension. The study’s findings suggested that other skills such as inferencing, making connections, and background knowledge are involved in the process of reading comprehension.


This article presented the Children’s Choice Cognate Database, a searchable database created by the authors to help teachers design vocabulary lessons centered around Spanish-English cognates found in books on the Children’s Choice 2014-2015 reading list. The authors explained that instructing young Latino English learners about cognates allows students to use their existing linguistic background knowledge in order to develop their English academic vocabulary. In order to promote the development of cognate recognition in Latino learners, the authors suggested lesson plans that contain the teaching of root words, prefixes, suffixes, affixes, spelling patterns, double consonant regularities, and consonant digraphs. Calling learners’ attention to cognates during picture book reading would allow Latino students to broaden their linguistic knowledge in both languages.


This paper attempted to explore the effects of teacher training on the English literacy skills of Grade 3 and 4 learners in Ghana. A quasi-randomized study was conducted using five schools, in which classes were randomly assigned to the treatment or control groups. One hundred and sixty-four Grade 3 students, 135 Grade 4 students and 10 teachers from the five schools.
participated in this study. Students in the treatment group worked with teachers who received training in the areas of pedagogy, class content, teaching and learning materials, and lesson plans. The treatment classroom instruction emphasized phonological awareness, vocabulary acquisition, reading comprehension, and writing. The major purpose of the study was to make teachers aware of the literacy ladder, which help student progress from being able to read nothing to letters, to words, to paragraphs, and to stories. To this end, each treatment classroom was closely observed and teachers were provided constant school supervision and corrective feedback by members of the Bonsaaso Millennium Village Project (MVP) education team, the Ghana Education Service (GES), and the Earth Institute education team. Those in the control group received similar training without receiving corrective feedback on their teaching. All classroom observation data were tracked and organized using Literacy Report Cards, an online interface. To monitor reading literacy, an UWEZO-style English literacy test was adopted to assess students’ reading levels (story, paragraph, word, or letters) which students completed at three times during the study to assess their baseline, midline and endline reading levels. Readers who were at the story and paragraph levels were categorized as “children who can read” whereas those in in the word, letter, and nothing levels were categorized as “children who cannot read.” Results showed that the percentages of children of the “cannot read” group decreased over the course of the study with the percentage of non-readers being reduced by 30% in the treatment group and 9% for the control group. Further analyses showed that in both Grade 3 and Grade 4, the increase in the “can read” category was much higher for the treatment group than the control group. The classroom observations showed that while providing teachers with material and training to improve reading skills is beneficial, providing increased pedagogical support, especially in the areas of lesson planning and oral skills, is necessary to help improve literacy.


The following study explored the interaction between verbal reading fluency and reading comprehension in adult learners of ESL. Of the 149 participants, 40 had a L1 of Japanese, 39 an L1 of Arabic, 37 an L1 of Chinese, and 33 an L1 of Spanish. During the first session, participants completed a short background questionnaire and the reading portion of a TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) exam which consisted of short passages in English followed by multiple-choice comprehension questions. During the second session, participants completed an oral task by reading aloud a 245-word text in English. This verbal reading task was used to explore participants’ oral reading fluency in English and was scored for accuracy, prosody, words read per minute (wpm), and words correctly read per minute (wcpm). Regarding the four measures of oral fluency, there were statistically significant differences for all measures for the different L1 groups. Results revealed that for those with an L1 of Chinese and Japanese, prosody was highly correlated with reading comprehension; however, this differed for the other L1 groups. For native-speakers of Arabic, wcpm was highly correlated with reading comprehension while accuracy was highly correlated with reading comprehension for those with an L1 of Spanish. In addition, there was a strong interaction between wcpm and prosody for the L1 groups of Arabic, Chinese, and Japanese. Further analyses revealed the following predictive power of oral reading fluency for ESL reading comprehension: prosody accounted for approximately 18% of the variance in the ESL reading comprehension of the Chinese group and 32% of the variance in the Japanese group, wcpm accounted for 46% of the variance in the reading comprehension of...
the Arabic group, and accuracy and wpm together accounted for 65% of the variance in the reading comprehension of the Spanish group. Given the results, the researcher recommended the use of oral reading activities for ESL learners as a method to improve reading comprehension.


The study attempted to fill a dearth in current research by examining the effect of audiobooks on L2 learners’ listening comprehension skills and exploring their opinions about using such tools in language classes. Participants were 66 first-year college students majoring in English Language Teacher Education at a university in Turkey. Two instruments were used: General Listening Comprehension Skills Scale (GLCSS) which consisted of 11 items and a six-item survey about students’ attitudes towards the use of audiobooks. GLCSS was developed by the researchers and was validated through exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. Two audiobooks appropriate for students’ proficiency level were chosen: *The Pearl* by John Steinbeck and *The Call of the Wild* by Jack London. A control group and an experimental group were compared. Both groups received the same pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading activities; however, the experimental group simultaneously listened to the audiobooks while reading the books whereas the control group only read the print version of the books. The audiobooks treatment with the experimental group lasted for 13 weeks in total. GLCSS was administered before and after the treatment for both groups. Pre-test GLCSS scores showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the control and the experimental group. However, post-test GLCSS scores revealed that the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group (*t* = -2.86, *p* < .01), indicating that using audiobooks significantly improved students’ listening comprehension skills. Qualitative data from the opinion survey revealed students’ positive attitudes towards the use of audiobooks. According to the students, using audiobooks was enjoyable and helped them improve the following skills in English: listening skills, reading comprehension, and pronunciation. However, there were also students, though very few, who expressed that using audiobooks was not pleasurable. The study concluded that audiobooks significantly contributed to the improvement of adult EFL learners’ listening comprehension skills, and learners held positive attitudes towards the use of audiobooks. The researchers suggested that audiobooks be used in foreign language classrooms, with a careful consideration of the quality of the books, the narrators of the books, and the difficulty level of the books.


Using a mixed-method approach, the present study examined the use of strategies during the L2 reading process. Specifically, the researchers explored the interaction among L1 background, proficiency in Chinese, and reading strategy use of distinct groups of L2 learners of Chinese. Sixty-eight students enrolled in courses at universities in China participated in the study. Participants were divided into groups based on the similarity of their L1 to Chinese and their proficiency level in Chinese (elementary, intermediate, or advanced). All participants read two level-appropriate texts in Chinese while verbalizing their thoughts aloud, provided a summary of the texts, and completed a questionnaire about their language background, experiences regarding
their acquisition of Chinese, and their reasons for studying Chinese. Results showed that the strategies of examining titles and subheadings before reading, character decoding, word decoding and rereading of difficult passages were the most used strategies by all participants. Elementary students frequently employed strategies that aligned with a bottom-up approach to reading while paraphrasing and summarizing were common strategies among the advanced students. In addition, both intermediate and advanced students often tried to predict the text content. Six focal students were chosen to further analyze the effect of L1 background and L2 proficiency on strategy use. Results revealed that students with an L1 background similar to Chinese, such as Japanese or Korean, were able to better employ decoding strategies at an elementary proficiency level. However, this advantage disappeared as L2 proficiency increased. Given the high reliance on decoding strategies by all participants, the researchers believed that L2 learners of Chinese would benefit from explicit training on efficient and effective ways to decode at the character and word level in order to become better readers of Chinese.


The present study sought to better understand the reading of English language learners aged fourteen to seventeen with varied L1 backgrounds by examining their oral reading through retrospective miscue analysis. This technique allowed for the reader to explain their understanding or misunderstanding as they read aloud. With eight learners, the author was able to obtain 3,110 instances of miscue to analyze. Based on the Quantitative Reading Inventory (QRI), students were placed in terms of reading comprehension ability in order to pick reading materials to complete the study. Students self-selected their topic to read but were given narrative texts at the appropriate level based on their QRI results. Students were then asked to read their text aloud. After completing the reading task, the researcher and each student listened to the student’s reading sample, and the researcher selected key miscues to discuss with the student. Such miscues could have been misunderstandings or mispronunciations that the students and the instructor would discuss. For example, such miscues might have been that the learner was familiar with the word, and it was part of his or her receptive lexicon but they were unable to pronounce it. In such instances, while they did not generate the word correctly, they had understood its meaning. At times, a miscue could have been based on the linguistic background of the student and their inability to make some sound rather than the expected lack of understanding that one might expect when an incorrect sound was produced. In this study, all miscues were identified and discussed, finding that the mistakes made in L2 reading differed from those expected with L1 students. Some students reported that past learning experiences, such as specific collocations of words with multiple meanings, could trigger current miscues. These miscues caused students to have difficulty comprehending the text in this study. Yet, when students had trouble with grammatical morphemes, this type of miscue had a small impact on actual comprehension. In fact, students were consistently able to construct meaning despite miscues and only partial understanding which originated from each learner’s unique path toward developing English language literacy skills.

Given the importance of vocabulary in L2 literacy skills, the present study examined the use of electronic glosses on L2 vocabulary gains and reading comprehension under diverse learning conditions. Ninety-nine students majoring in English literature at a university in Iran participated in the study. All participants read the same three computerized English texts with each text containing eight multimodal (text, pictures, and audio) glossed words. Although participants read the same texts, they read them under three different learning conditions. Those in the explicit group \((n = 31)\) were instructed to study the list of the target vocabulary words, which included Farsi translations, before reading the text. Participants in the intentional group \((n = 35)\) were instructed to look up the glossed words as they read the text for meaning. Those in the final group, the incidental group \((n = 33)\), were instructed to read for comprehension and use the glosses if they wished. In addition to the texts, participants completed the following pre-test measures: TOEFL, the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS: Paribakht & Wesche, 1997), and the Word Recognition Test (WRT). After the third reading, students were given the VKS, the WRT, and a reading comprehension test as post-tests. Six months after the completion of the study, participants once again completed the VKS and the WRT as delayed post-tests. Regarding vocabulary acquisition, the VKS post-test and delayed post-test scores revealed that those in the explicit group and the intentional group had statistically significant higher scores than those in the incidental group. Results also revealed that the explicit group had higher WRT post-test and delayed post-test scores than those of the other two groups. As for reading comprehension, results showed that participants in the intentional group performed significantly better than the other groups on the multiple-choice comprehension questions while those in the explicit group performed better on the written recall comprehension activity than those in the incidental group. In conclusion, the study’s findings pointed to the effectiveness of multimedia electronic glosses for L2 vocabulary acquisition and general L2 reading comprehension.


This study examined the role of peer relationship in the literary practices of preschool bilinguals. A qualitative case-study approach was adopted to investigate how children’s interactions with fellow classmates influence their responses to books in a bilingual language context. The study focused on three 4-year-old Korean or Korean-American students and their social interaction during class story time at a Korean heritage language school. The data were collected weekly from the class for 30-40 minutes over a period of 10 months across two semesters. In order to ensure the validity of the data, data were collected from the following sources: (a) video/audio-recording, (b) formal interviews, and (c) observation. Emerson et al.’s (1996) and Strauss and Corbin’s (1990) coding methods were adopted to analyze the data, in addition to the use of Reader Response Theory and Bakhtin’s Theory. The results indicated that the children’s peer relationships highly influenced their literacy responses during story time. Children formed dynamic relationships such as close relationships and competitive relationships in different semesters, which influenced the ways they negotiated meaning and responded to books. The social interaction involved within provided opportunities to critically think about the story and explore diverse perspectives. In addition, it was found that the teacher’s use of translanguaging-focused pedagogical practices helped these bilingual students construct meaning through

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interaction with their classmates to better develop their responses to the texts and facilitate critical discussions among the students.


This study aimed to investigate the use of phonological information in learning Chinese as a second language. More specifically, the study focused on determining if phonetic consistency has an effect on the learning and reading of novel L2 characters, and if the interaction between consistency and individual variables (i.e., L1 background, working memory (WM), and L2 proficiency) affect the acquisition of L2 Chinese literacy. Seventy college students (17-28 years old) enrolled in beginning and intermediate Chinese language courses at a Midwestern university in the United States took part in a two-phase experiment of character learning and reading. In the learning phase, participants were presented with 18 low-frequency characters of three levels of phonetic consistency (consistent, semi-consistent and inconsistent). Consistency referred to the extent to which all characters in a family of characters were pronounced the same. In the second phase, the transfer phase, they had to read 60 novel characters, most of which were pseudo characters. Additionally, participants performed two WM tasks (a letter rotation and a reading span test), a language background survey, an L2 proficiency test (a Chinese vocabulary test), and a post-experiment questionnaire. Results revealed an interaction between vocabulary knowledge and the reading of novel L2 characters. Participants with higher scores on the L2 vocabulary test were able to name characters of the consistent family significantly quicker and more correctly than those with lower vocabulary scores. Even though there was no significant difference between semi-consistent and inconsistent families, participants named semi-consistent phonetics slightly more accurately and faster than those of the inconsistent family. The findings of this study also suggested that Chinese literacy was affected by phonetic-family consistency information regardless of L1 background, proficiency in Chinese, and working memory. The authors concluded that orthographic consistency information should form part of teaching materials for intermediate and advanced L2 Chinese learners.


This study examined how advanced L2 Japanese readers use syntactic parsing skills to comprehend different types of texts. More specifically, the authors aimed to determine whether learners with an advanced level of proficiency in Japanese would be able to comprehend text meaning and identify zero anaphors in texts containing difficult noun phrases with several modifiers. A group of 31 undergraduate students at a university in the U.S. participated in this study. All participants had advanced or near-advanced proficiency in Japanese as measured by their performance on the Language Proficiency Test (JLPT) Level 2. To assess their comprehension of oral-like texts, they read four expository texts that had the syntactic structure of spoken discourse (i.e., the use of clausal subordination) and were then asked to answer multiple-choice questions. Think-aloud protocols were used to assess learners’ comprehension of academic written texts. Thus, participants were asked to verbalize their thoughts aloud while
reading a newspaper article that followed the format for reporting research in Japanese (i.e., use of non-clausal structures, such as noun phrases and their constituents). Results showed that participants who had high scores in both the JLPT test and the reading comprehension test of oral-like written texts were not as successful in understanding written academic text in the form of the newspaper article. The think-aloud protocol data showed that anaphoric resolution is essential when parsing syntactic information. Indeed, participants who had a tendency to be inattentive to referents failed to successfully comprehend academic texts. The results also showed that participants successfully identified zero anaphors when they were in clausal structures but failed to identify them in noun phrasal structures which led them to misunderstand the ideas expressed in the text. The authors concluded that comprehension of academic texts in L2 Japanese characterized by complex noun phrase constructs would be reinforced by local as well as global careful reading. They also emphasized the need to instruct learners on how to identify and recognize unstated referents in academic written texts and offer teaching suggestions, such as asking learners to report the content of the text semantic unit by semantic unit and/or underlining zero anaphors and identifying the missing elements.


The authors of this study explored whether sheltered instruction at the college level was a more effective model to follow than mainstream education for international students. The participants in this study, who were mainly from China and Saudi Arabia, formed two groups, ESL students who took a course in a sheltered section and ESL students who studied together with native speakers in a mainstream class environment. The sheltered English 103 section had 14 students with a variety of English proficiency levels and the mainstream English 103 group consisted of 24 students enrolled in several regular sections of the course. Participants completed the Accuplacer standardized reading test twice, during the first and last week of class. The results showed that sheltered students had a higher rate of reading progress improvement than mainstream students. In the sheltered section, 57% of the students showed gains in overall scores compared to only 37.5% of students in mainstream sections. Although 36% of sheltered students declined in overall scores, results showed 50% of mainstreamed had lower overall scores at the end of course. With these results, the authors concluded that the sheltered section was more beneficial to international students, and it appeared that the sheltered course was able to serve the needs of the L2 readers more effectively, especially if the student’s initial reading level was lower than average.


This study explored the interaction between attention and foreign language receptive skills. A total of 252 Taiwanese EFL university students completed the following measures: the Continuous Performance Test (CPT) which measured attention, the Chinese version of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Chung & Long, 1984), the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (Elkhafaifi, 2005), the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (Saito, Horwitz, & Garza, 1999), and multiple-choice listening and reading comprehension tests. Based on students’ CPT scores, students were assigned to the Low Attention group or the High Attention group. Although results revealed an interaction among attention level, EFL listening performance and
EFL listening anxiety, this was not the case with EFL reading. Results showed that there was no interaction among students’ attention level and EFL reading performance, nor students’ attention level and EFL reading anxiety. Given that this is the first study to investigate the relationship between attention and EFL receptive skills while objectively classifying attention, similar research is needed to further explore this topic.


The present article sought to uncover the relationship among topic interest, L2 reading proficiency, and gender in an effort to explore the effect of these variables on L2 vocabulary learning while reading. The pool of participants included a total of 135 ninth-grade EFL Korean students. Over four sessions, participants first completed a background questionnaire and a topic interest inventory. In the second session, participants completed a reading task taken from the National Academic Achievement Test of English that measured their L2 proficiency, a vocabulary pre-test, and a prior knowledge test. Two weeks later, in session 3, they read two expository passages: one about a high-interest topic and the other one about a low-interest topic. Additionally, thirty lexical items were chosen from the passages according to their length, frequency, word class, and concreteness. The reading task consisted of reading one passage for 12 minutes and completing the interest rating scale along with a number of multiple-choice comprehension questions. Subsequently, participants completed the immediate vocabulary posttest. In session 4, four weeks later, participants were asked to complete the same vocabulary posttest. Results revealed a significant positive relation between lexical acquisition and topic interest. A positive relationship was also found between vocabulary acquisition and proficiency. However, no significant relationship was found between topic interest and L2 proficiency. Although results revealed a nonsignificant relationship between gender and L2 vocabulary learning, a significant interaction between both factors suggested that girls learned more words on the low-interest passage than boys. The analysis of delayed posttests revealed that the effects of topic interest and proficiency were stable over time. These findings provided evidence for the involvement load hypothesis (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001) and the assumption that learners acquire more words when they read a text that is more interesting for them, regardless of their level of proficiency. The authors concluded that the insights provided by this study should be incorporated in language teaching as a way to facilitate L2 learning by developing reading tasks that consider students’ interests.


In an effort to explore the interaction among FL reading anxiety, reading strategies, and learners’ beliefs, the following study used path analysis to investigate the relationship among these variables. A total of 372 undergraduate EFL students enrolled in a Taiwanese university completed three questionnaires: (a) a modified version of the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS) created by Saito, Horwitz, and Garza (1999), (b) a Chinese version of the Survey of Reading Strategies Inventory (SORS) created by Mokhtari and Reichard (2004), and (c) a questionnaire created by the researcher to gather information about students’ beliefs regarding their proficiency in English and background information. The results revealed that reading
anxiety negatively interacted with students’ self-assessment of their reading proficiency in English (95% CI [-0.29, -0.12], \(r (372) = -25, p<.001\)). There was also a negative interaction between students’ EFL reading anxiety and their level of satisfaction with their reading ability in English (95% CI [-0.21, -0.08], \(r (372) = -22, p<.001\)). A positive correlation was found between students’ satisfaction with their reading ability in English and students self-assessed reading proficiency in English (95% CI [.56, .79], \(r (372) = .52, p < .001\)). Although further analysis showed that both students’ beliefs regarding their EFL reading proficiency and their satisfaction with their ability to read in English directly influenced their EFL reading anxiety, there was no statistically significant interaction among these variables and reading strategy use. Path analysis found that students’ self-perceived reading ability \((b = -.18, p < .01)\) and satisfaction with their reading ability in English \((b = -.12, p < .01)\) directly affected their reading anxiety. For this study, students with higher levels of satisfaction and confidence in their English reading abilities had lower levels of FL reading anxiety. Although this study has provided important insights regarding the interaction among FL reading anxiety, reading strategies, and learners’ beliefs, more research is needed to better identify and understand the many variables that influence FL reading process.


Situated in the context of English language learning in Malaysia, the study pointed out that Malaysian college students are generally unenthusiastic about reading in English which can result in lower L2 proficiency skills. As previous research has revealed the positive effect of graded readers, the study attempted to investigate the use of graded readers among Malaysian college students and their opinions about the use of such readers. Twenty-eight students enrolled in a remedial English language course at a Malaysian university participated in the study. Nation and Beglar’s (2007) Vocabulary Size Test was used to assess participants’ receptive vocabulary size. Based on participants’ receptive vocabulary size, seven graded readers covering a wide range of topics and appropriate for participants’ proficiency level were selected from Oxford Progressive English Readers (OPER). Participants were required to read one graded reader in one week and then complete an instant book report. After reading all the graded readers, participants completed a questionnaire about their opinions regarding the use of graded readers. Descriptive statistics showed that the average receptive vocabulary size of the participants was much lower than the recommended 10,000-word families at approximately 3,300 words families. Questionnaire results revealed that, excluding the assigned graded readers used in the study, the vast majority of participants, 71.4%, reported that they rarely (1-5 hours per week) read texts in English with 14.3% reporting that they never read materials in English. In addition, no participant indicated that they read English materials very often (16-20 hours per week). With regard to participants’ perceptions, all participants agreed that the graded readers covered a diversity of topics and that one week was a sufficient amount of time to read each graded reader. Although the majority of participants (92.9%) considered the contextual clues in the texts useful, all participants indicated that they had to guess the meaning of unknown vocabulary words. Overall, most participants (89.3%) viewed the graded readers as interesting and informative (78.6%). More importantly, 89.3% of the participants agreed that reading the graded readers had helped improve their English language skills, especially vocabulary knowledge. Based on the
findings, the study concluded that the use of graded readers, especially in Malaysia at the tertiary level, could benefit remedial English language learners by helping promote more positive feelings towards reading in English and developing English language skills.


In this article, the authors posited that there were only a few research studies aimed at examining the relationship between socioeconomic status (SES) and L2 reading development. Based on Bronfenbrenner’s ecological systems theory, the authors investigated the role of SES in Chinese (L1) and English (L2) word reading. They also compared the effect of SES on word reading in both languages, considering the mediating and moderating effects of more proximal factors such as phonological awareness, phonological memory, working memory, and vocabulary. One hundred and ninety-nine Chinese kindergarteners in Hong Kong, most of them from low-to-middle class neighborhoods, were recruited for this longitudinal study. The children were from three schools in randomly selected districts of Hong Kong. Beginning readers in both Chinese and English were chosen to avoid any other confounding factors that may have influenced their word reading performance. SES background was measured by a self-reported parent questionnaire that included parental income, occupation, and educational level. Participants were assessed on phonological awareness, phonological memory, working memory, Chinese and English vocabulary, and word reading in English and Chinese in two testing phases at a one-year interval. The findings suggested a relationship between SES and word reading in both languages. However, the correlation seemed to be stronger with English word reading than Chinese word reading. The effects of SES on English word reading were observed in both testing phases even after age, phonological awareness, phonological memory, vocabulary, and working memory were controlled for. In contrast, the effects of SES on Chinese word reading became nonsignificant under the same conditions. Additionally, results showed that phonological awareness may be the most significant mediating factor between SES and Chinese word reading. Nevertheless, phonological awareness as well as vocabulary knowledge seemed to mediate the relationship between SES and English word reading to a lesser extent. The results of this study provided evidence for the important role of SES in L2 reading performance from an early age. The authors concluded that understanding the relationship between SES and reading development in both L1 and L2 in Chinese societies may contribute to the development of educational interventions to help students of lower SES gain access to equal opportunities.


This study examined the predictive power of expressive vocabulary growth on the ESL word reading skills of 141 Cantonese-speaking kindergarteners. All children were observed six times during a 15-month period and were assessed on the following: nonverbal IQ, letter knowledge, English phonological awareness, Chinese reading, English expressive vocabulary, and English word reading. Children were tested individually every three months. Although English vocabulary was evaluated during each meeting and English word reading during the last meeting, the children completed the other assessments only once during the first meeting. Results revealed
a significant positive interaction between English expressive vocabulary growth and the children’s English word reading skills ($p < 0.01$). Regression analysis showed that the growth rate of English expressive vocabulary, letter knowledge, and Chinese character reading were significant predictors of future English word reading ($p < 0.01$). The researchers concluded by encouraging kindergarten teachers and parents to undertake initiatives to help develop ESL children’s expressive vocabulary due to its importance for word reading abilities in English.


The following study explored the relationship between reading and writing by examining the effect of summarizing on the FL reading abilities of 80 first-year students studying International Relations at a public university in Poland. All students were enrolled in EFL courses that met twice per week for 90 minutes. Of the four 20-student EFL courses, the researcher randomly chose two to serve as the control groups and two as the experimental groups. All groups used the same syllabus, textbook, course readings, and activities. However, for homework, the students in the experimental groups summarized all readings while those in the control groups completed more standard post-reading activities such as multiple choice and true/false comprehension questions. In order to measure EFL abilities and development, all students completed the reading tasks of the First Certificate in English test (FCE; Carne, Hashemi, & Thomas, 1996) at the beginning and end of the six-month course. Results showed that those in the experimental group had statistically significant higher post-test scores on the FCE test than those in the control group ($p = 0.00$). In addition, those students that summarized each reading had developed their EFL reading abilities more than those in the control groups ($p = 0.00$). Further analysis showed that those students in the experimental groups with the lowest pre-test FCE test scores showed considerable improvement in their FL reading abilities. In conclusion, regular summary writing seemed to be a beneficial method for helping students improve their FL reading abilities.


This study investigated the effect of inserted questions on the L2 reading comprehension of learners of Spanish. All participants ($N = 70$) were native speakers of English enrolled in university intermediate-level Spanish courses. Participants completed the following measures: two reading passages in English followed by multiple-choice comprehension questions, two reading passages in Spanish (one narrative and one expository) followed by three comprehension tasks in English, a questionnaire about the reading passages (e.g., topic familiarity and text difficulty), a background questionnaire about reading habits and language experience, and an automated reading span activity to assess participants’ working memory capacity (WM). The 70 participants were randomly divided into three groups: the TS questions group ($n = 24$) which had two what questions inserted at the middle and end of the Spanish passages, the EI questions group ($n = 23$) which had two why questions inserted at the middle and end of the Spanish passages, and the NQ group ($n = 23$) which did not have any questions inserted in the Spanish passages and served as the control group. Results revealed that there was no significant interaction between group membership (TS, EI, NQ) and L2 reading comprehension as assessed by the comprehension measures. Thus, inserting adjunct questions into reading passages did not
improve L2 reading comprehension. However, after analyzing for WM, results revealed that there was a weak interaction between working memory capacity and L2 reading comprehension performance. Those with larger working memory capacity benefited from the inserted questions in the reading passages while those with smaller working memory capacity did not. In an effort to better understand the effect of inserted adjuncts on L2 reading, the authors concluded by encouraging future research to manipulate the number, language, and type of inserted adjuncts, among other variables.


Given the difficulty and importance of acquiring idiomatic expressions in a second language, this study investigated the effectiveness of different approaches on the acquisition of English idioms. A total of 52 Iranian males between the ages of 14 and 16 years of age were divided into three groups to learn English idioms: experimental group 1 (n = 17) read short stories in English, experimental group 2 (n = 15) used pictures, and the control group (n = 20) used traditional methods such as literal translation. The students learned a total of 30 idioms over the course of 10 sessions. Each student took a proficiency measure to verify his proficiency level of English and a post-test during the last session to assess the effectiveness of the instructional methods. Results indicated that those in the experimental groups (short stories and pictures) had statistically significant higher post-test scores than those in the control group (literal translation). In addition, independent samples t-test showed that those in the picture experimental group had statistically significant higher post-test scores than those in the short story experimental group. Thus, the researchers concluded that both the use of pictures and short stories are effective methods to teach idiomatic expressions to beginning learners of English.


In an effort to explore the applicability of self-regulation learning (SRL) to the EFL reading context, the following study examined the effects of SRL training on the reading process of Iranian EFL learners. A total of 120 females, with intermediate and advanced English proficiency levels according to students’ results on a portion of the Preliminary English Test (PET; Hashemi & Thomas, 1996) and the Cambridge English: Advanced (CAE; Cambridge ESOL, 2003), were divided into two experimental groups and two control groups. Students in the experimental groups completed fifteen 90-minute in-class practice sessions using Zimmerman’s (2000) SRL model which consisted of three phases: forethought, performance, and self-reflection. All phases were modeled by the students’ reading instructor which was the same for all treatment and control groups. Students in the control groups received traditional Iranian EFL reading instruction. In addition to the PET and CAE proficiency measures, students also completed a slightly modified version of Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, and McKeachie’s (1993) Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) which measured students’ self-regulation abilities in the areas of motivation, learning strategies, and resource management strategies. In order to get a better picture of students’ reading processes while actually reading, all students used the think-aloud protocol to verbalize their thoughts while completing the post-treatment reading tasks taken from reading sections of the PET for the intermediate students and the CAE for the
advanced students. A two-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) of the MSLQ posttest scores revealed that students in the treatment groups used more self-regulatory processes during the reading process than those in the control groups \((F(1, 115) = 234.296, p < .05, n^2 = .67)\). Similar results were also found after transcribing and identifying the self-regulatory usage of 10 randomly chosen think-aloud protocols from each group. A two-way ANCOVA revealed that those in the treatment groups used more self-regulatory strategies while completing the post-test reading tasks than those in the control groups \((F(1, 115) = 1,198.096, p < .05, n^2 = .912)\). No statistically significant differences were found for proficiency levels and self-regulatory behavior. Given the study’s results and that previous research has found self-regulatory behavior to result in more efficient readers, the researchers encouraged EFL reading instructors to include such strategies in the EFL reading curriculum.


This study explored whether and to what degree implementing popular language-learning programs in classroom instruction affects high-stakes English test performance in areas of university writing, reading, speaking, listening, and grammar. Four language-learning programs were adopted: Rosetta Stone (RS), Tell Me More (TMM), Memrise (MEM) and ESL WOW (WOW). Seventy-eight Chinese learners of English participated in a 15-week long quasi-experiment, in which 19 participants were assigned to the RS group, 19 participants to the TMM group, 21 participants to the MEM group, and 19 participants to the WOW group. To measure the impact of the programs, a university placement exam was used as the pre- and post-test, including (a) two reading sections with 15 comprehension questions, (b) a writing section containing an argument essay, (c) a listening section of 20 questions in response to audio dialog, (d) a speaking section consisting of a brief conversation with the researcher, and (e) a grammar section. Several paired samples analyses were performed to show the differences between pre- and posttest. Results by linguistic areas showed that: no group significantly improved their reading abilities, all groups significantly improved writing abilities, only the WOW group significantly improved in listening skills, and only the MEM and WOW groups significantly improved in speaking. It was also found that the time spent on using the language-learning program software was not correlated with the post-test scores. The researcher called for more research to help build on the study’s findings given the importance of L2 high-stakes exams and the prevalence of technology use in today’s world.


The following study examined the impact of the extensive reading approach (ER) on the academic writing ability of ESL students studying at an American university. A total of 56 students enrolled in one of two writing courses for international students participated in the study. Both courses included detailed grammar reviews and writing-centered activities. However, the course using an ER approach had students read for 15 minutes during class, while the course using a more traditional approach had students do free writing for 15 minutes during class. All students wrote a pre-test essay at the beginning of the course and a post-test essay at the end of the course. The same prompt was used for both essays. Holistic essay scores showed that...
although all students improved in writing in English, those in the ER course had greater improvement than those in the more traditional writing course. Further analysis revealed that those taught with the ER approach had higher essay scores in all categories including content, organization, syntax, and vocabulary. Although the results pointed to the effectiveness of ER for L2 writing development, the researcher cautioned that one must take into consideration the ESL context, which undoubtedly offered additional input to the students, when considering the implementation of ER in writing courses in non-ESL contexts.


Taking an experimental approach, the study investigated the effect of syntactic enhancement on L2 English reading and writing development. The study defined syntactic enhancement as an attempt to draw L2 readers’ attention to both a single formal feature and the overall syntactic structure. Syntactic enhancement was achieved by using the visual-syntactic text formatting (VSTF) technology which converted a textbook into one with syntactic enhancement. Participants were 282 sixth grade English language learners (113 low-proficiency and 169 high-proficiency) from 24 classrooms in school districts in Southern California. Twenty-two teachers were also involved in the study. By randomization, 14 classrooms with 160 students served as experimental groups and 10 classrooms with 122 students served as control groups. During an academic year, both groups received typical English Language Arts (ELA) instruction. The experimental group read a VSTF-formatted textbook on laptops, whereas the control group read a regular textbook either on laptop or in print. In the VSTF-formatted textbook, the beginnings of new sentences were marked by extra space between sentences, and paragraphs were distinguished by colors. The ELA portion of the California Standards Test (CST) was utilized as a pre- and post-test. The reading section of the CST measured reading comprehension in addition to skills in word analysis and literary response and analysis. The writing portion assessed students’ abilities to identify appropriate forms of writing. Classroom observations were completed by two researchers using a 5-item Likert scale to rate students’ comfort and engagement levels and their attention and participation during reading activities. Open coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) was used to keep track of teachers’ and students’ comments. A 90-minute semi-structured interview with VSTF teachers after the intervention was also conducted. Observations showed that students had very little difficulty using the VSTF-reformatted textbook, and they were actively engaged during class. On average, students’ comfort levels ranged from 4.25 to 4.91, and students’ engagement level from 4.4 to 4.6. The interview revealed that teachers agreed with the positive effect of the VSTF-reformatted textbook on literacy skills, particularly benefiting low-proficiency students’ reading fluency and paired reading. However, two teachers reported that some students were unwilling to use the VSTF-reformatted textbook, with a concern that it might slow down reading. Two-way multivariate ANOVA (Group × Proficiency) analysis revealed that low-proficiency students in the VSTF group had statistically significant higher post-test scores than those in the control group for written conventions ($p = .003$) and writing strategies ($p = .000$). No significant difference was found for any subtests in the reading portion. The study concluded that VSTF-reformatted textbooks can help students, especially low proficiency L2 learners, increase L2 literacy by making students more aware of L2 syntactic structures.

Pretorius, E., & Spaull, N. (2016). Exploring relationships between oral reading fluency and

Following a thorough review of oral reading fluency, outlining its many facets and representations particularly in the American school system, this study sought to fill the dearth of L2 benchmarks for oral reading fluency. The authors outlined the realities of education in South Africa, a multilingual context which allows for education to take place in a variety of languages early in students’ educational experiences, including Afrikaans and English. With data that were collected by the National Education and Evaluation Development Unit of South Africa, a non-random sample of Grade 5 learners in South African rural schools was drawn from a larger study, creating a sample of 1,772 learners who had completed oral reading measures. Students were purposely sampled to become participants based on their comprehension performance in order to guarantee representation of varied performance within the sample. Results indicated that students overall performed poorly on these reading tasks although texts were designed to be below the expected level for Grade 5 students. In general, females outscored males across the sample. However, students in Afrikaans-medium schools studying English as a second language outperformed students learning in English-medium schools. These findings were difficult to interpret as English is not the first language of many students in English-medium schools, but Afrikaans is the native language of many students studying in Afrikaans-medium schools. When benchmarking the results of these tests against American benchmarks for ESL, the distributions of scores during the same time periods did not align, highlighting the unique nature of this learning context and difference between students of the same age across differing systems. Comprehension scores and fluency of reading were clearly interrelated through a robust relationship, even when controlling for other factors such as school level, language of instruction, and the socioeconomic profiles of students. This relationship, however, had a ceiling effect, meaning increases in oral reading fluency are only beneficial to a certain point. After meeting this cutoff point, found here to be 70 words per minute correct, students’ gains began to diminish compared to the increase in words per minute correct. The cutoff found in this study was twenty words per minute correct lower than the ceiling effect reported in first language literature for similar tasks. The authors argued that these comparably low scores were a result of low instructional quality in Grade 1, Grade 2, and Grade 3 where decoding should have been mastered. The authors believed that these effects were greater than the effects of socioeconomic status.


This study explored previewing a text as a key global reading strategy under the assumption that, as a top-down reading strategy, it may help increase comprehension as a result of schema activation, global text awareness, and general reading strategy use. To investigate these issues empirically and assess the impact of strategic reading on EFL readers’ comprehension, the authors employed eye-tracking technology together with a strategy use survey (Survey of Reading Strategies, SORS; Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). Eye-movement data from 38 Japanese L2 readers of English was analyzed to determine if they used previewing strategies to read an expository text and carry out a summary task. Participants were asked to read a short article for three minutes and then write five or six sentences in English to summarize the text. Their
summarizing ability was analyzed as an indicator of the relationship between previewing behavior and task performance. The reliability of eye-movement recordings to measure previewing ability was tested by comparing them with learners’ responses to the SORS. The analysis of eye-movement data showed that Japanese EFL readers used previewing as a strategy to a limited extent. Indeed, most of the previewing was done by reading the title or the subtitle of the text, but not all the readers engaged in this kind of previewing. Previewing of the structure of the texts was not significant either as evidenced in the low number of fixations on the body of the texts or its images prior to linear reading, which revealed a lack of attention to the structure of the text. This tendency was reflected in the low quality of the summaries produced by the learners, which were missing a great portion of relevant information about the expository text. As a matter of fact, summary scores correlated only marginally with fixation duration of the body of the text during previewing. Similarly, readers were not inclined to preview topic sentences, which led the authors to conclude that that might have affected their summary writing as they tended not to focus on the main points of the text. The authors also uncovered a negative relationship between the SORS data and participants’ eye movements. The authors concluded that more research is needed to ascertain that pre-reading strategies can enhance L2 readers’ ability to summarize. They offered pedagogical implications and suggested that learners can benefit from strategy training that targets pre-reading and other global reading strategies.


This study investigated how target word variables affect incidental acquisition of vocabulary through extensive reading by adult learners. These variables included frequency, patternedness, length, cognateness, and lexicalization. Two groups of adult learners, consisting of 20 monolingual English (EL1) speakers and 32 Chinese learners of EFL respectively, were recruited for the experiment. Both groups were given a copy of the novel *BFG* (Dahl, 1982) to read without being allowed to consult external references. The EFL learners read the text over three English classes, and the native speakers of English were asked to read in their leisure time. Participants received a handout with instructions on how to complete the reading task, which was later assessed through interviews and class discussions. Participants were also given a list of target words to measure meaning recall of vocabulary. EFL learners’ vocabulary knowledge was assessed by implementing the Vocabulary Size Test (Nation & Beglar, 2007). Results indicated that EL1 speakers incidentally acquired more target words than EFL learners, that acquisition of patterned words was higher than non-patterned words for both groups, and that frequency and cognateness were the main contributors in vocabulary acquisition in both groups. The authors asserted that the results of this study confirm previous research on vocabulary acquisition as they demonstrated that repeated encounters through extensive reading increase vocabulary knowledge. However, the authors problematized these findings and posed that even though contextualized vocabulary exposure promoted the understanding and eventual vocabulary acquisition, the process may not always be efficient. Consequently, they proposed the implementation of an extensive reading program (using computer assisted language learning technology or graded readers) that ensures learners’ repeated encounters with target vocabulary and thus increases the probabilities of vocabulary learning.

This article aimed to get deeper insights into the emotional realm of languages from a plurilingual approach, which emphasizes individuals’ plurilingual competence and the influence of sociolinguistic issues in the emotionality of languages. To do so, the author built on the emotional contexts of the learning hypothesis by exploring whether naturalistic contexts were necessarily a requirement for readers to feel strong emotions. She examined the tenets of the theory of language embodiment to explore the influence of the status of a language in the reader’s emotions. Twenty-four adults participated in twenty-four semi-structured interviews which inquired about the participants’ special reading experiences. Participants were not directly asked about any specific feeling or emotion they may have felt while reading in their respective languages. Most of the subjects were migrants living in Spanish Catalonia, France, French Basque Country, and western (French-speaking) Switzerland, who had read books in at least three languages. A qualitative analysis of participants’ responses showed that some interviewees experienced strong emotions while reading books in languages that they had mainly learned and used for educational and professional purposes; that is, languages that were not meant to be as emotional as a family language. Other participants expressed affective difficulties due to the fact that they did not feel any intense emotion while reading in their respective family language. The author interpreted these results as a proof that the relationships between languages and emotionality are dynamic and are affected by time and different personal circumstances. That was why, in some cases, languages associated with education and professional settings could elicit stronger emotions than family languages do. The author suggested that this phenomenon might be related to cultural goods consumption via mass communication media, which leads individuals to sense a foreign language as a more familiar language. Regarding the lack of strong emotions that some readers mentioned, the author attributed these emotions to sociolinguistic inequalities and the emotions that the individual associates to status of the language. The author concluded that the emotional contexts in which languages are appropriated should include the importance of sociocultural issues, and she posited that social practices are crucial for the emotions that a person may feel about a language. A pedagogical implication offered by the author involved the development of reading activities that take into account all the elements that affect the emotionality of languages.


The purpose of this column was to discuss the use of a fluency-based reading intervention with a small group of elementary Spanish-speaking English language learners (ELL) with specific learning disabilities (LD). Three elementary school students with LD in math and reading (Monica, age 9; Orlando, age 10; Antonio, age 12) took part in the supplemental reading program, which consisted of daily lessons in both Spanish and English. In each 7-8 minute session, three aspects of reading were assessed: phonics, sight phrases, and oral reading passages. Students were assigned 60 seconds to read the stimuli presented to them while the program administrator corrected their mistakes orally, logged their mistakes, and charted their performance (i.e., number of words read and mistakes made). To measure progress in students’ reading fluency, two assessments were administered at the beginning and end of the school year:
the Great Leaps Assessment (from Campbell’s (1998) intervention program) and the Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills Next Benchmark Assessment (DIBELS). At the end of the intervention, all participants showed gains in reading fluency. Monica showed significant growth in reading fluency and phonemic awareness; Orlando made progress in reading fluency and phonemic awareness but had difficulty with storytelling; and Antonio showed improvement in reading fluency and phonemic awareness but was unable to master short vowel sounds. Results showed that reading fluency can be improved in students with LD. However, the three participants were additionally exposed to reading techniques in their own classrooms outside the experiment, and therefore, the evidence of this study might not be generalizable to other students and other classroom settings. The author suggested that having a program which focuses on phonemic awareness and sight words is essential for ELL with LD as improving their reading skills can make a positive impact in most academic areas. He also concluded that this type of repeated reading program, which is easy to use and requires minimal teacher training, could be an effective intervention tool for ELL and those with LD in reading.


The study pointed out the inconsistency of previous research on the role of text structure on different levels of L2 reading comprehension. To shed more light on the issue, the study focused on the effect of descriptive and enumerative text structure on two levels of comprehension: literal and inferential. Participants were 180 EFL learners from various majors in universities in Iran. The Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was used to select participants meeting the required English proficiency level of upper-intermediate. All participants read two descriptive and two enumerative texts selected from the ETS TOEFL Reading Collection. The selected texts were also tested by the Coh-Metrix 3.0 Readability Formula (2012). After reading each text, students answered several multiple-choice comprehension questions, five literal and three inferential. After completing the above tasks, students answered an extra question regarding their background knowledge about the texts. Those with a great amount of background knowledge were eliminated from the data set. For literal comprehension, a significant difference between descriptive and enumerative texts was found ($t = -3.28, p < .05$), with participants doing better with the descriptive texts. Similar results were found for inferential comprehension. Results showed a significant difference between the two types of texts ($t = 2.08, p < .05$), with participants doing better with the descriptive texts. Within the descriptive texts, participants significantly outperformed in literal comprehension items over inferential comprehension items ($t = 4.27, p < .001$). Similarly, within enumerative texts, participants significantly outperformed in literal comprehension items over inferential comprehension items ($t = 9.10, p < .001$). To explain the findings, the researchers argued that literal comprehension primarily depends on context, facts, and sequence of ideas, and when readers combine these three components, successful comprehension at the literal level can be achieved. However, enumeration contains only facts, making the construct of the whole picture of the text difficult. The researchers also pointed out that inferential comprehension depends on non-linguistic knowledge such as world knowledge and pragmatic knowledge. Pedagogically, language teachers/testers need to take text structures into consideration when developing reading assessments. In addition, the researchers suggested that reading materials developers should include reading tasks varying in text
structures and involve activities focusing on main ideas and the relationship between sentences of the texts.


This mixed-method study examined factors that contributed to the growth of the L2 reading skills of 1,149 first-year Japanese students enrolled in 44 different EFL classes. The reading portion of the Secondary Level English Proficiency (SLEP) test was used to assess the growth rate of participants’ reading proficiency while a questionnaire was used to gather information about class norms and other factors that influenced participants’ motivation for studying English. While results did not show any significant difference in rate of participants’ individual development in reading ability, it was revealed that those classes with higher career aspirations showed a steady growth rate in reading ability as assessed by their scores on the SLEP. In fact, normative career aspiration was the only factor that significantly explained differences in L2 reading growth rate among the classes. Of the 1,149 participants, twenty-eight students volunteered to complete semi-structured interviews to better understand the role of normative career aspirations. Of the 28 students, 16 students were from classes that had high normative career aspirations and 12 were from classes with lower normative career aspirations. Interview responses revealed that students often undertook specific measures outside of class to improve their language proficiency as a result of their classmates’ high career aspirations. Since the sample consisted of first-year university students only, the researchers called for more longitudinal studies to better understand the relationship among environmental and personal factors that influence L2 learning motivation.


In the following article, the researchers offered recommendations for developing vocabulary knowledge using reading lessons for classrooms consisting of native language (L1) and L2 speakers. The suggestions were based on results from the LARS (Language and Reading Skills) program, a reading program that has been used with second and third grade elementary school students in the Austrian school system. Students that were instructed using the LARS program increased both vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension of German, the majority language. Before reading a text in the target language, the researchers recommended that teachers present the relevant vocabulary needed to understand the text in separate lessons. For these pre-reading vocabulary lessons, teachers should present 10-15 high-frequency topic-relevant vocabulary words that follow regular orthographic rules. Students should practice these words by completing activities in groups and independently, before proceeding to the text. While reading the texts, students’ knowledge of the pre-reading vocabulary words should be reinforced by completing activities such as underlining the target vocabulary words, defining the vocabulary words, and completing a summary of the text by inserting the correct vocabulary words. Given the vital role of vocabulary for reading comprehension for both L1 and especially L2 learners, reading lessons following the above-mentioned guidelines would be of great benefit to classrooms containing both L1 and L2 learners.

This longitudinal study investigated cross-language relationships in reading development between L1 Chinese and L2 English. The main objective was to determine if L1 reading and associated cognitive abilities could predict learning difficulties in the subsequent development of L2 literacy, including word reading and higher order skills such as reading comprehension and writing fluency. The second objective was to find out if reading difficulties in the L2 could be predicted by early L1 reading difficulties. Eighty-seven native Cantonese-speaking Chinese students that were attending the second semester of grade 1 at a public elementary school were tested on word reading, rapid naming, morphological awareness, and phonological awareness in Chinese and English. Participants’ parents also answered a demographic questionnaire in which they provided information about their educational level, English proficiency, and languages spoken at home. After the initial tests at the beginning of the study, learners were tested on increasingly more advanced cognitive abilities in English every 12 months. A group of twenty-five students were categorized as poor readers and formed the reading at-risk group. The control group was composed of participants with higher test scores. Test results showed that students from the reading at-risk group were evidently weaker than their peers in Chinese reading cognitive skills, English word reading, and rhyme awareness at grade 1. In grade 2, their performance decreased in word reading, phoneme awareness, and rapid letter naming. The same trend was observed throughout grades 3 and 4. The two abilities that were the most significant predictors for English reading and writing performance were Chinese rapid digit naming and phonological awareness (i.e., rhyme detection). The only ability that did not significantly contribute in predicting any text-level reading and writing tasks in English was Chinese morphological construction. The authors suggested that the results support the notion that some cognitive abilities specific to reading, such as rapid naming and phonological awareness, are language-general whilst others, like morphological awareness, are language-specific. The authors also suggested that the results support the possibility of cross-language transfer between languages that have marked differences in orthographic, phonological, and morphological structures, such as English and Chinese. However, they acknowledged that further testing should be done in order to prove if the results coincide with other L1 and L2 combinations. Even though the authors warned against taking the results as direct evidence for language instruction, they advised teachers to focus on phonological awareness and rapid reading speed as those skills seem to be amenable to instruction.


This article introduced the English Reading Comprehension Observation Protocol (ERCOP), an instrument created by the authors to observe the pedagogical practices of EFL instructors during reading lessons. Initially, the ERCOP was a checklist containing 71 possible scaffolding teaching strategies (e.g., asking questions, modeling, giving feedback, etc.) that were evaluated using a four-point Likert scale ranging from a score of one for “weak” to a score of four for “strength.” After testing the clarity and comprehensibility of the original ERCOP by 99 observers comprised of graduate students and educators, the checklist was shortened to 45 items. To test the reliability
of this observation tool, a generalizability study (G-study) was conducted using five trained raters and five secondary EFL instructors working in the Netherlands. Each instructor was video recorded teaching four of their classes, and the observers used the ERCOP 45-item checklist to indicate the scaffolding and teaching strategies used by each EFL instructor during EFL reading lessons. The results of the G-study revealed that over half of the variance, 51.7%, was the result of the observed differences in the EFL instructors pointing to the reliability of the ERCOP. The generalizability results were used to conduct a decision study to explore how many observers are needed for reliable observations using the ERCOP. The decision study results revealed that only two trained observers are needed to yield reliable observations. Given the importance of scaffolding strategies in developing effective and competent EFL readers, the authors believed that use of the ERCOP is a reliable first step in assessing the use of scaffolding strategies by EFL reading instructors in an effort to promote greater use of such strategies during reading lessons.


This meta-analysis reviewed original research published between 1970 and 2015 that examined the L2 reading comprehension difficulties of young L2 learners. The following search criteria was used to identify the 16 chosen studies: (a) the participants were L2 leaners between the ages of 4 and 18, (b) participants completed assessments for reading abilities, oral language skills, and decoding abilities, (c) participant sample included learners with reading difficulties and those without, and (d) the research was published in English. Results revealed that L2 learners that have been assessed to have specific reading comprehension deficits (SCD) exhibit extremely low oral language skills ($d = -0.80$), especially when compared with native-speaking children identified as having SCD ($d = -0.84$). However, the reading comprehension of these learners was shown to be much weaker ($d = -2.47$) than their oral language abilities. In addition, L2 learners with SCD performed poorly on measures assessing lexical knowledge, listening comprehension skills, and syntactical knowledge when compared with typical readers. Given these findings, the authors recommended that intervention which seeks to improve the reading comprehension of L2 learners also include instruction to help improve oral language skills. The authors called for more research on L2 SCD learners to be able to better understand the problems of these L2 learners and develop effective intervention measures to assist them.


Adding to the growing body of research regarding extensive reading, the following study explored the effect of extensive reading on the L2 learning of Korean EFL learners. Specifically, the researcher examined the effect of extensive reading on L2 vocabulary acquisition, L2 reading rate, and L2 reading comprehension. A total of 171 Korean university students enrolled in 15-week reading classes at a Korean university participated in the study. The extensive reading classes formed the experimental group ($n = 83$) and the intensive reading classes formed the control group ($n = 88$). All classes had the same instructor, the researcher, used the same course textbook, and completed many of the same activities. The main difference between the classes was that students in the extensive reading classes read self-selected graded readers silently for 15
minutes followed by 15 minutes of extensive reading-related activities (e.g., writing a three-minute paper, listening to a story, reviewing book blurbs). In addition, students’ homework also required them to complete extensive reading activities outside of class. To assess comprehension and reading rate, all participants completed a pre- and post-reading test during class which consisted of four short passages followed by comprehension questions. After reading each passage, participants recorded how long it took them to complete the passage. Students also noted the amount of time that it took for them to answer the comprehension questions for each passage. In addition, students completed a researcher-developed pre- and post-vocabulary test. Results revealed that students in the extensive reading classes, the experimental group, achieved higher post-test scores on all three measures (reading comprehension, reading rate, and vocabulary) than those in the intensive reading classes, the control group, indicating that extensive reading had a positive impact on the participants’ reading in English. In addition, vocabulary acquisition was the area that showed the greatest improvement. Given the results of the present study and previous research, the researcher recommended that extensive reading form part of L2 reading courses. The researcher encouraged those wishing to implement extensive reading to set clear goals for the amount of reading to be completed by students and monitor students’ progress through quizzes, reading logs, and discussions.


The first objective of this article was to establish the likelihood that children at risk for developing reading disabilities (RD) among a group of English language learners (ELL) reflect a discrete latent class. Latent-class analysis was used to categorize subgroups of participants that have similar attributes (i.e., patterns of responses). The second purpose was to determine the distinct mental processes (i.e., phonological, language, and cognitive) that predict the risk for developing RD. This study was carried out with elementary school children over three years. The initial sample in Year 1 included 489 ELLs who were all native speakers of Spanish distributed in grades 1-3. A battery of reading, language, cognitive, and phonological tests in Spanish and English was administered each year. Results showed that four latent classes emerged across all three testing waves: nonbalanced bilingual-good readers, balanced bilingual-good readers, reading disabled, and classroom inattentive children. The researchers estimated that 23% of the children in the study were at risk, and also that about 10% of the inattentive class ended in the RD risk group by the last year of evaluation. The authors also found that phonological processes superseded some cognitive processing in lower grades, whereas cognitive processes related to working memory (WM) took on increasing importance as children transitioned into higher grades. Furthermore, low teacher ratings of attention, English comprehension, and nonbalanced English-Spanish language proficiency predicted at-risk conditions in the later grades for children who were initially assessed as good readers. In contrast, the children initially identified as balanced bilingual good readers did not transition into the risk class group. In addition, the best predictive model of RD in the later stages incorporated measures of Spanish phonological processing, Spanish naming speed, English and Spanish oral language, English verbal WM, and visual-spatial WM. Overall, the results suggested the at-risk condition was a stable latent class.

This qualitative study examined the use of online pop-up dictionaries during the L2 reading process. Eleven college students, with a native language (L1) of English, served as participants for the study. The participants completed the following tasks: a vocabulary knowledge test, a reading task, a comprehension test, and three vocabulary-related tests, including a form recognition test, and immediate and delayed vocabulary translation tests. During the reading task, participants verbalized their thoughts aloud as they read an expository text and had access to an online pop-up dictionary with L1 definitions. Results revealed that participants at a higher proficiency level were able to identify more than 93% of the target words correctly. The performance on the delayed translation test showed that participants retained between 39.1% to 100% of the word meanings, leading the researchers to conclude that online pop-up dictionaries aided in the vocabulary learning of the participants. The results of the think-aloud protocols showed that advanced participants tended not to use the pop-up dictionary and utilized top-down processing, whereas the lower-level ones tended to use the dictionary excessively and adopted bottom-up processing. Given that all students were able to understand the main idea of the text, according to their comprehension test responses, the researchers concluded that online pop-up dictionaries are able to enhance L2 reading comprehension. The researchers concluded that to deeply interact with the target texts requires a certain level of proficiency, and that providing a pop-up dictionary can benefit vocabulary learning.


The author of this study explored the metacognitive reading strategies of first-language (L1) and L2 readers while reading texts online. In addition, the study examined whether L1 reading strategies influenced online L2 reading. The following two groups participated in the study: 38 Iranian graduate students with an L1 of Farsi and an L2 of English and 51 Canadian university students with an L1 of English. The Modified Online Survey of Reading Strategies for L2 readers (MORSRSL2) and the Modified Online Survey of Reading Strategies for L1 readers (MORSRSL1), questionnaires based on Anderson’s (2003) Online Survey of Reading Strategies, were used to assess participants’ reading strategies. After reading three passages in English followed by comprehension activities, Canadian participants completed the MORSRSL1 while the Iranian participants completed the MORSRSL2. Two weeks after completing the MORSRSL2, the Iranian participants completed the MORSRSL1 after reading three passages in Farsi followed by comprehension activities. As part of the results, the author found a significant difference between the Canadian group reading in English L1 and the Iranian group reading in English L2 with the former reporting more strategy use. The same significant difference was found between Canadian readers of English L1 and the Iranian readers of Farsi L1. There was no significant difference between the Iranian readers of L2 and Farsi L1. Consequently, the author found, that Iranian readers choose similar strategies when they read in both English L2 and Farsi L1. Also, the L1 readers of English (the Canadians) reported using more global strategies when reading online. The Canadian readers also used strategies more frequently than the Iranian readers. These findings suggested that metacognitive strategies use can transfer from L1 to L2.

This exploratory study examined the impact of reading a text in English on the knowledge structure of 23 Chinese-English bilingual university students. Participants completed the following online activities after receiving an experimental packet via email: pre-sorting tasks in English and Chinese, reading a text in English, and post-sorting tasks in Chinese and English. For the item-sorting tasks, students were provided with a list of 15 keywords selected from the text and were instructed to drag the words to the desired location to illustrate the relationship between words (e.g., related words should appear closer together). Students were instructed to not look at the pre-sorting tasks as they completed the post-sorting tasks. Results revealed that completing a Chinese post-sorting task followed by an English post-sorting task resulted in more relational structures in both languages while the opposite post-sorting task order (English then Chinese) resulted in less relational and more linear structures. In addition, regardless of the language order of the post-sorting tasks, results showed that the form of the first sorting task influenced that of the second sorting task. The researchers concluded by encouraging future researchers to use larger sample sizes in order to help confirm the results of this small exploratory study.


The study investigated the effect of cognitive and linguistic factors on the comprehension of Chinese narrative and expository texts. Participants were 66 12-year-old Tibetan and 45 Yi ethnic minority students who were users of alphasyllabary. Forty-two Han Chinese students, users of Mandarin Chinese, also participated. Specifically, the study explored three issues: (a) Chinese learning motivation, (b) Chinese reading comprehension among Tibetan, Yi and Han students, and (c) the role of working memory, orthographic processing, and sentential processing on the comprehension of Chinese texts. Participants completed the following measures: (a) Students’ Approaches to Learning (SAL) which measured students’ learning strategies, motivation, and self-concept, (b) a reading comprehension task consisting of two narrative and two expository Chinese texts followed by open-ended comprehension questions, (c) two verbal working memory tasks, (d) two orthographic processing tasks, and (e) two sentence processing tasks. Results revealed that there were differences in the motivation, learning strategies, and self-concept among the three groups of students with Han students significantly outperforming Tibetan and Yi students on SAL. The Han students also outperformed the Tibetan students in all tasks except for orthographic constraints and the Yi students in verbal working memory, orthographic constraints, and sentence integrity tasks. No significant difference was found between the Tibetan and Yi students. Multiple regression analysis was conducted to predict comprehension of Chinese expository and narrative texts from age, gender, verbal working memory, orthographic processing, and sentential processing. Results revealed that, for Tibetan and Yi students, these predictors together explained 42.9% of the variation in narrative text comprehension and 43.2% in expository text. For Han students, these predictors together explained 30.9% of the variation in narrative text comprehension and 26.7% in expository text. The study concluded that verbal working memory, orthographic, and sentential processing had significant effect on the comprehension of both Chinese expository and narrative texts.
especially for Tibetan and Yi students. Pedagogically, the study argued to teach Tibetan and Yi students the structure and function of Chinese characters for text comprehension.


Grounded in the theory of psychonarratology, the study explored the interaction among thought presentation, speech, understanding, and appreciation of English literary texts by English language learners. The study also investigated the relationship between the self-image of learners’ concerning readership and reading comprehension. A convenient sample of 42 junior-year college students from English teacher training programs at a Turkish university participated in the study. A questionnaire was used to collect demographic information and learners’ reading habits in their L2 of English and their L1 of Turkish. Six extracts (Cuckoo, Pride, Ulysses, Night, Eveline, Old Man) were selected from each literary text. Over three successive weeks, participants were presented two extracts during a three-hour class period. For each extract, participants were asked to complete three written tasks: (a) general information about the extract (overall idea of the text and its point of view), (b) perspective (point of view of each sentence), and (c) comprehension and appreciation questions. An interview with 30 participants was conducted immediately after the completion of the tasks. In the fourth week, participants completed the demographic and reading habits questionnaire. Results showed that for the first task, participants performed best for Extract 2 which was written in the objective 3rd person but performed lowest for Extract 3 which frequently used Free Direct Thought (FDT). For the second task, in general, FDT caused the most difficulty for participants when determining whose point of view was expressed for each sentence because FDT has no indications or hints available. In contrast, participants performed better at determining Narrator’s Representation of Action (NRA) and Direct Speech (DS). For the third task, comprehension and appreciation questions, participants performed best for Extract 2 which frequently used DS but lowest for Extract 3 which had a frequent use of FDT. With regard to the relationship between participants’ self-image of readership (both Turkish and English literature) and reading performance, no statistically significant correlation was found. While preference to read Turkish fiction over non-fiction did not elicit any significant difference in performance, it was found that participants preferring to read English fiction performed significantly better on determining the speech and thought presentation modes than those preferring to read English non-fiction. The researcher emphasized that more research is needed on the topic in order to make generalizations regarding non-native speakers.


The present study explored the relationship among lexical ability, meta-cognitive knowledge (higher order skills) and reading comprehension in secondary students. More specifically, it aimed at examining whether these relationships differed between students in seventh and ninth grade and between monolinguals and bilinguals. The participants in this study were 328 Dutch students from first and last year of prevocational secondary education. A language background
questionnaire determined that 237 (72%) participants were monolingual and 91 (28%) of them were bilingual. Additionally, participants’ reading comprehension level was assessed using a test for adolescent low achievers (Van Steensel, Oostdam, & Van Gelderen, 2013) in which students read texts from different genres followed by comprehension questions. A lexical decision test (Van Bon, 2006) was used to assess word decoding, and a 73-item multiple choice test (Hazenberg & Hulstijn, 1996) measured students’ vocabulary knowledge of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Lastly, meta-cognitive knowledge was assessed with a 45-statement instrument that focused on knowledge of reading and writing strategies and knowledge of text characteristics. The authors found positive effects of vocabulary and meta-cognitive knowledge on reading comprehension that were consistent across grades and across monolinguals and bilinguals, together with a significant effect of word decoding for seventh graders. No significant effect was found for word decoding on ninth graders’ reading comprehension, which suggested that word recognition becomes automatic at an earlier stage as demonstrated by the significant effect found on seventh graders. Another finding pointed to the positive effects of bilingualism on reading comprehension when differences in vocabulary are controlled for. The authors argued that bilingual students may have more advanced reading skills than their monolingual peers, but limited L2 vocabulary knowledge impedes an appropriate implementation of such skills, indicating some form of linguistic threshold. The authors concluded that because bilinguals’ reading comprehension is hindered by a lack of vocabulary knowledge in their L2, they may greatly benefit from an increase in vocabulary knowledge. The article highlights the need for vocabulary and meta-cognitive instruction for low-achieving adolescents.


This study developed an adaptive computer-assisted reading system. To examine its effect on contextual vocabulary learning, a 4-week online reading experiment was conducted. Seventy EFL learners from Taiwan, aged 18 on average, were assigned to the typical reading group (n = 35) and the adaptive reading group (n = 35). During reading, both groups were instructed to read for meaning, click on any unknown words, and answer multiple comprehension questions upon completion of each text. No online glossaries were given so that unfamiliar words could be contextually inferred and learned incidentally. Those in the adaptive reading group read texts that contained instant and repeated encounter of the words that were unknown to them whereas those in the typical reading group read online texts without the recurrence of the unknown words. The adaptive mechanism has the capacity to identify the unknown words through the mouse clicks from the first text and then automatically screens the following texts in order to provide texts containing the unknown words from the first text. Upon completion of the experiment, both groups completed: (a) an online immediate vocabulary test (L2→L1), measuring word gains, (b) an online delayed vocabulary tests at the interval of two weeks, measuring word retention, and (c) a system evaluation questionnaire. Two independent-samples t-tests were performed to compare the differences between the two groups. Results showed that the adaptive reading group outperformed the typical reading group on both the immediate and delayed vocabulary tests. The questionnaire results showed that the participants perceived the adaptive reading design as a useful and motivating tool for learning vocabulary.

This study examined the strategy use and differences between skilled and less skilled EFL students during their collaborative reading of short texts in English. Ten EFL Taiwanese high school freshmen with an intermediate proficiency level of English participated in this study. The ten students were randomly divided into pairs and verbalized their thoughts as each pair read four short stories in English and answered multiple-choice comprehension questions about each story. The results showed that Pair 1 achieved the highest comprehension score (85%) while Pair 3 achieved the lowest score (50%). Due to their performance on the comprehension questions, Pair 1 and Pair 3 were selected for a comparative analysis of strategy use and reading performance. While both pairs employed similar reading strategies, they varied in the frequency of use of the strategies. Pair 1 used the strategies of drawing on prior experience/knowledge, inferring, predicting text content, summarizing, and expressing disagreement at significantly higher rates than Pair 3. Not only did Pair 1 use the above strategies more frequently, the pair also used them more effectively as evidenced by the shorter think-aloud transcript and the higher comprehension scores. In comparison to Pair 3, Pair 1 also displayed a higher linguistic proficiency in English and connected all pieces of the short stories to ensure comprehension. The author encouraged EFL instructors to include strategy reading instruction in their lessons to develop more effective EFL reading skills.


The present study investigated age-related changes in reading performance at both local and global levels among bilingual older adults. Thus, in order to study the effects of word frequency and word predictability on word processing, the authors used eye movement measures (i.e., gaze duration, skipping rate, go-past time, regressions, and total reading time) and aimed to determine if older adults experience reading performance decreases across their known languages. The participants in this study were 124 French-English bilinguals, who were divided in two groups according to their age: half of them were between 61 and 87 and the other half were aged between 19 and 30. An adapted version of the Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire (Marian, Blumenfeld, & Kaushanskaya, 2007) was used to gather information about participants’ language background. Moreover, older adults’ cognitive health was estimated using the Montreal Cognitive Assessment (Nasreddine et al., 2005) to determine if participants were suitable for the study. Participants’ eye movements were measured using an EyeLink 1000 desktop mounted system as they read four authentic paragraphs, two paragraphs in their L1 and two in their L2. The authors reported three main findings of their study. The first one was that word frequency had a greater impact on older adults during early and late stages of reading performance. The second main finding suggested that the effects of word predictability did not vary during early and late stages of reading. However, the evidence suggested that older adults spent larger amounts of time processing less predictable words during late stage reading. The third finding reported here unveils that the impact of word frequency was greater in the L2 than in the L1 for both groups during early and late stages of reading, meaning that L2 lower
frequency words prompted slower processing for both younger and older adults. Among the implications of this study, the authors discussed the development of more generalized models of bilingual language processing and more particular computational models of eye movement control for reading comprehension.


The aim of this study was to explore a validation approach for the relationship between test scores and test-taking strategies for answering a reading comprehension test. In the process of generating and validating their approach, the authors followed four steps. First, they formulated three hypotheses about score validity, which dealt with the relationships among the strategies used in answering tests (meaning comprehension, test management and test wiseness), the different kinds of tasks involved (the testing method), and the performance in the test. To validate their proposed validation approach, the authors used data from the Canadian English Language Proficiency Index Program-General (CELPIP-General) reading pilot test carried out with 189 participants. Test-takers also answered a cognitive test-taking strategy survey in which participants reported their level of engagement in a list of 10 test-taking strategies (i.e., engagement in comprehending meaning, engagement in test management, and test-wiseness).

The third step in the process was to carry out structural equation models. Results confirmed the hypotheses of the study and indicated that (a) test takers engaged more in comprehending the meaning of a text than in skills related to test-management and test-wiseness; (b) the characteristics of the tasks, such as task difficulty, affected participants’ strategy use and their performance in the task; and (c) test performance was positively influenced by higher engagement in comprehending meaning and negatively affected by higher engagement in test management and higher engagement in test-wiseness. The data also showed a somewhat positive relationship between test performance and test-management strategy. The authors interpreted the results as evidence supporting the validity of the CELPIP-General reading test scores. As the final step, they offered limitations of their model and future research directions that propose ways to improve their validation approach.


The present study examined the impact of L1 reading abilities, L2 listening abilities, and L2 proficiency on the L2 reading acquisition of EFL learners. Three hundred and twenty-five Japanese college students completed the following measures: an L2 reading task consisting of five short stories in English followed by multiple choice and fill-in-the-gap comprehension questions, L2 listening comprehension tasks consisting of brief to extended conversations followed by comprehension questions, an L1 reading task which followed a similar structure of the L2 reading task but used texts in Japanese, and L2 knowledge tasks consisting of error identification and sentence completion activities. Participants completed all measures during class time over the period of five weeks. Using Rasch modeling and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), the full sample analysis revealed that L2 knowledge, L2 listening, and L1 reading ability combined explained 94% of the variance in L2 reading for the participants with...
L2 listening being the strongest predictor followed by L2 knowledge. Interestingly, L1 reading was not found to be a significant predictor of L2 reading for the full sample analysis. Further subsample analysis revealed similar results with the combination of the previous mentioned constructs explaining 93% of the variance in L2 reading. However, unlike the full sample analysis, L2 knowledge was found to be the strongest predictor followed by L2 listening. In addition, L1 reading was also found to be a significant predictor of L2 reading for the subsample analysis. The researchers called for more research, especially longitudinal, in order to have a better understanding of the complex relationship among L2 listening, L2 knowledge, and L1 reading and L2 reading.


The author of this study introduced a pedagogical technique called International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) transcription reading to help improve the English oral language skills of Turkish gifted and talented students (GTS). The author defined GTS as those who often have advanced language skills, are curious for learning and have a rapid learning pace. The methodology of the IPA transcription reading consisted of teaching students the English segmental and suprasegmental features of the International Phonetic Alphabet and then applying such features to specific well-known texts. Specifically, for the GTS, the author proposed the 36 tales of Nasreddin Hodja, a 13th century philosopher whose humorous stories have been used in many literature and L2 classrooms. The author transcribed Hodja’s tales using the IPA transcription reading technique and posted recordings of the transcriptions on YouTube. GTS are to practice the transcriptions by reading them aloud individually or in pairs, and teachers are to monitor and evaluate students’ progress. The author believed that this special oral reading technique would allow GTS to improve their English oral language skills at their own pace.


The present study examined the influence of processing skills in the areas of phonology, orthography and morphology on the Chinese word reading abilities of native speakers and L2 learners of Chinese. Two hundred and ninety-five Singaporean fourth graders were separated into the following two reader groups: (a) the L1 group (n = 180) which consisted of children that used Mandarin as the primary language of communication at home and (b) the L2 group (n = 115) which consisted of those that used English as the primary home language. All children completed the following types of tasks in Chinese: two orthographic processing tasks, two phonological awareness tasks, two morphological awareness tasks, a receptive vocabulary knowledge task, and a word reading task. Results revealed that children in the L1 group had statistically significant higher scores on all tasks except one phonological awareness task which showed no significant difference between the two groups. Separate Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) analyses revealed that orthographic processing abilities (β = .469, p < .001) and morphological awareness skills (β = .733, p < .001) were significant predictors of Chinese word reading for the L1 group. For the L2 group, phonological awareness (β = .436, p = .006) and orthographic processing (β = .368, p = .003) were found to have significant effects on Chinese
word reading. Given the study’s findings, the researcher recommended that reading instructors provide more explicit instruction on orthographic forms and morphology for L2 Chinese learners.


This study endeavored to understand the relationship between incidental word learning and morphological awareness. Because morphemes are central to the reading and writing of Chinese characters, the researchers hypothesized that increased morphological awareness may help learners to gain greater vocabulary through Krashen’s *i + 1* framework wherein words may be learned incidentally through reading. Further, this study attempted to discover how such an influence might affect students’ word knowledge and what the impact of more or less salient radicals within characters might be. With 20 Thai students studying Chinese at intermediate (*n* = 10) and advanced (*n* = 10) levels of instruction, researchers examined morphological awareness and reading through a two-part test. The first test examined morphological awareness through discrimination tasks, morpheme meaning tasks, radical form tasks, and radical explanation tasks. The second test consisted of four passages of reading with pseudo-characters to learn, meaning inference tasks, and a syntactic function task. All tests were taken on the same day with a break between Test 1 and Test 2. Reported results indicated that the advanced group had a higher degree of morphological awareness (*p* < 0.001, *d* > 0.8). Therefore, the authors argued that morphological awareness can improve with general proficiency. There was also a difference between intermediate and advanced learners scores regarding word learning during their reading, meaning more advanced learners were able to learn more words. Further, character learning and morphological awareness were significantly correlated (*r* = 0.83, *p* < 0.05) only for the intermediate group where morphological awareness was a strong predictor of success in incidental learning. The authors concluded thereafter that advanced students may be using other skills and strategies to outperform intermediates. Students across levels were able to learn the pseudo-words through incidental contact. However, the orthographic information appeared to be relied upon for comprehension more significantly at the lower proficiency level. Results of the meaning inference task indicated that advanced students only had a slight advantage when radicals were non-salient. Yet, the advanced group was better able to identify syntax function for pseudo characters, particularly for non-salient radicals. In conclusion, the authors argued that at different levels of instruction different skills are relied upon to arrive at successful comprehension, particularly for students of Chinese.


The following longitudinal study examined the role of L1 and L2 in the reading abilities of young Spanish-English bilingual children. A total of 117 children, ages 4 to 5, participated in the study. All children were enrolled in bilingual Head Start programs in the Southwestern United States. Children completed the following four measures at the midpoint of their prekindergarten year (Time 1) and at the end of their prekindergarten year (Time 2): the Woodcock Johnson Tests of Achievement (WJ-III) which assessed their English vocabulary and wording reading skills, the Woodcock-Muñoz Prueba de Aprovechamiento which assessed their Spanish
vocabulary and wording reading skills, the Phonological Awareness Test which measured their phonological awareness in English, and the Habilidad Fonológica which measured their phonological awareness in Spanish. Results from assessments taken at Time 1 revealed that children’s vocabulary knowledge of English was a stronger predictor of their concurrent reading abilities in English than their vocabulary knowledge of Spanish. Similarly, children’s vocabulary knowledge of Spanish was a stronger predictor of their concurrent reading abilities in Spanish than their vocabulary knowledge of English. Analyses of Time 1 and Time 2 assessment scores revealed that, over time, vocabulary of Spanish was a strong predictor of Spanish word reading while both vocabulary knowledge of English and phonological awareness in Spanish were strong predictors of English word reading. Regarding word reading in English, results also revealed a positive interaction between Spanish vocabulary and English word reading over time. Given the important role of both languages in English word reading, the researchers recommended that teachers work to develop both languages to help improve word reading.

About the Editors

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

Carolina Bernales is an Assistant Professor in the Linguistics Department at the Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso-Chile, where she teaches graduate and undergraduate courses in English syntax and L2 learning. She holds a MA in Applied English Linguistics and a PhD in Second Language Acquisition from the University of Wisconsin-Madison. Her current research focuses on cognitive and lexical processing in a foreign language and reading comprehension. She has published on classroom interaction and foreign language learning. E-mail: carolina.bernales@gmail.com

David Balmaceda is an Applied Linguistics doctoral student at Washington University in St. Louis in the Department of Education with concentrations in Language Learning and Teaching, and Language Program Administration. He holds a Master’s of Arts in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages, and a Master of Arts in Foreign Languages, Cultures, and Literatures in Spanish from Southern Illinois University. Some of his research interests include language teaching and learning, language teaching material development, and Computer-Assisted Language Learning. E-mail: dbalmaceda@wustl.edu

Wei-Chieh Fang holds an interdisciplinary background in applied linguistics and cognitive psychology. His recent research explores the potential of using smartphones to facilitate communicative language teaching and the development of strategic competence in speaking. He
was on several projects exploring the effects of motion-sensing technology on reading and vocabulary learning. He received an award for Excellence in Online Teaching from Shu-Te University, Taiwan. E-mail: wfjohnny@gmail.com

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

Haley Dolosic is a doctoral student studying Applied Linguistics in Education at Washington University in St. Louis. She holds Bachelor’s degrees in Global Studies and K-12 French Education from Southeast Missouri State University. Her specializations include second language reading, language research methodology, and language policy. Her current research interests include self-assessment in language learning across diverse linguistic backgrounds and advanced research methodology in applied linguistics. She has been published in a peer-reviewed journal on second language self-assessment in specialized language immersion contexts. E-mail: dolosichn@wustl.edu