33. chef	check cheat chat chef chief
34. collect	correct collect context contact connect
35. serve	savvy swerve curve salve serve
36. encourage	encourage enrage entourage engage
37. weight	waste weight wait whet white
38. junk food	dog food junk yard junk food cat food
39. kitchen	kitten kindle kicking kites kitchen
40. junk food	junk food junk yard dog food cat food
41. healthy	wealthy handy healthier heady healthy
42. collect	collect connect correct contact context
43. encourage	entourage engage enrage encourage
44. simple	simply sample simple symbol subtle
45. chef	chef cheat chief chat check
46. serve	curve swerve serve savvy salve
47. kitchen	kitten kitchen kindle kicking kites
48. healthy	handy healthy wealthy healthier heady
49. junk food	junk food dog food junk yard cat food
50. weight	waste wait whet white weight

ENDNOTES

[1] This refers to the computerized version of the international Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) examination that is typically required of non-native speaking applicants to U.S. universities.
[2] See http://www.readinghorizons.com/
[3] A *rime* is a vowel together with any following consonant(s) in the same syllable.
[4] This rapid word-recognition exercise sheet is based on a reading from *ACTIVE Skills for Reading: Book 1* (N. J. Anderson, 2007), *Jaime Oliver's School Dinners* (Unit 1, Chapter 1).

13 Teaching Reading for Academic Purposes

WILLIAM GRABE AND FREDRICKA L. STOLLER

KEY QUESTIONS

- What are the key component abilities that contribute to reading for academic purposes?
- How can teachers prepare English for academic purposes students for the reading demands that they will face in future classes?
- How can English for academic purposes teachers supplement traditional textbooks to develop more effective reading instruction?

EXPERIENCE

Picture an English for academic purposes (EAP) reading class. You have completed a pre-reading task, directed students to skim pages 17–21 for main ideas, and just asked students to stop skimming. For homework, students will reread the same pages for a different purpose. Four students have raised their hands and made the following statements. All but one of the statements are characteristic of EAP classes with reading skills development goals. Which is the uncharacteristic one?

S1: What? Read pages 17–21! That's too much, teacher. Can we have extra time to read those pages? Or can you make the assignment shorter?
S2: What means this word, teacher? I cannot find the meaning in my dictionary.
S3: Read for details? What do you mean?
S4: Ohhh (sadly). Stop now? Teacher, can we have five more minutes (to read)?

Statement S4 is the unusual one. How often do EAP students ask for more time to read? Yet that is exactly what should happen for reading skills development to occur. In this chapter, we offer pedagogical suggestions that can help students develop the abilities and motivation needed to read more and to read more skillfully.

WHAT IS INVOLVED IN READING FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES?

The ability to read well may be the most important second language (L2) academic skill needed by EAP students. In academic contexts, students' success depends in large part on their grasp of information learned through reading. In such settings, students are typically required to read a lot and for different purposes. Students need to, at a minimum, be able to identify main ideas and details; distinguish between fact and opinion; draw inferences; determine author stance and bias; and summarize, synthesize, and extend textual information to new tasks (e.g., class projects, oral presentations, and examinations). That reading provides a major source of input for further student learning of both language and content is indisputable.

The mastery of academic reading skills requires not only the integration of comprehension abilities but also the development of a very large vocabulary and a reasonably good command of grammar resources (Shiotsu, 2010). Furthermore, to handle academic reading loads, students need a repertoire of reading strategies and plenty of conscious practice using strategies in meaningful combinations to achieve reading goals. In this way, students can work toward overcoming the challenges associated with

reading a lot, untangling dense texts, understanding new concepts, and making connections across texts.

Many EAP students enter our classes with limited L2 reading experience and, oftentimes, little if any practice reading for academic purposes in their first languages (L1s). Fortunately for our students, explicit instruction in reading skills development can make a difference (Grabe, 2009) and establish the foundations for ongoing reading skills improvement and lifelong reading abilities.

CONCEPTUAL UNDERPINNINGS

Reading is a complex skill, as revealed by syntheses of L1 and L2 reading research (e.g., Grabe, 2009; Han & Anderson, 2009; Koda, 2005). Research on L1 and L2 reading suggests that skilled reading requires, at a minimum, the abilities outlined in Figure 1. The first three abilities listed suggest the need for rapid and automatic word recognition and fluent recognition processing of phrase and clause structures to support comprehension. These abilities argue for fluency practice, extensive reading (i.e., reading a lot of relatively easy material), and time spent on the development of a large recognition vocabulary. Abilities 4 and 5 signal the importance of developing main-idea comprehension using all levels of language knowledge, including discourse structure awareness. Abilities 6–10 identify strategic processing as a means for improving comprehension of more difficult texts and carrying out academic tasks that require the application of text information. Abilities 11 and 12 highlight the importance of reading fluency development, reading practice for extended periods of time, and student motivation.

An effective reading curriculum interprets the findings in Figure 1 from the perspectives of institutional and teacher goals; students' abilities and proficiency levels; and constraints imposed by time, costs, resources, and teacher preparedness. Nonetheless, a general set of nine curricular principles (Figure 2) can be proposed to assist teachers, materials writers, and curriculum developers in translating research findings into instructional practices appropriate for EAP reading classrooms. (Note that Figure 2 is not intended

1. Decoding graphic forms for efficient word recognition
2. Accessing the meanings of a large number of words automatically
3. Drawing meaning from phrase- and clause-level grammatical information
4. Combining clause-level meanings into larger networks of text comprehension
5. Recognizing discourse structures that build and support comprehension
6. Using reading strategies for a range of academic reading tasks
7. Setting goals for reading, monitoring comprehension for reading goals, adjusting goals as needed, and using text information to achieve reading goals
8. Using inferences of various types
9. Drawing on prior knowledge as appropriate
10. Evaluating, integrating, and synthesizing information for critical reading comprehension
11. Maintaining these processes fluently for extended periods of time
12. Sustaining motivation to persist in reading

Figure 1. Skilled-reader abilities that have implications for L2 reading instruction.

1. Integrate reading skill instruction with extensive practice and exposure to print.
2. Use reading resources that are interesting, varied, attractive, abundant, and accessible.
3. Give students some choice in what they read.
4. Introduce reading skills and provide students with practice opportunities by first drawing on course book passages.
5. Connect readings to students' background knowledge.
6. Structure lessons around pre-, during, and post-reading tasks.
7. Provide students with opportunities to experience comprehension success.
8. Build expectations that reading occurs in every lesson.
9. Plan instruction around a curricular framework that integrates goals for the development of reading abilities. To do so,
   - promote word recognition efficiency
   - assist students in building a large recognition vocabulary
   - create opportunities for comprehension skills practice
   - build students' discourse-structure awareness
   - develop the strategic reader
   - build students' reading fluency
   - provide consistent extensive reading opportunities
   - motivate students to read
   - integrate content- and language-learning goals

Figure 2. Nine curricular principles for EAP reading instruction.

to map explicitly onto Figure 1 because research findings represent only one contribution, among many, to curricular principles.) Additional principles could be proposed, and some of these nine may not apply to every EAP context, but these nine provide a strong foundation for EAP reading instruction.

These nine curricular principles help frame EAP reading instruction that develops students' reading comprehension abilities. First, and perhaps most important, students build reading abilities through consistent practice and exposure to print. There are simply no short cuts. EAP students improve their reading abilities by reading—and reading a lot. Unfortunately, students do not typically read a lot in EAP classes. Instead, we commonly devote time to a review of comprehension questions and vocabulary exercises, but we do not ask our students to engage in much reading. Such conventional practices need to change if students' reading improvement is to become a curricular priority.

Second, students are more likely to engage in reading (and reading instruction) when text materials are interesting, varied, abundant, attractive, and easily accessible. If mandated textbook readings are not inherently interesting, the teacher should determine ways to frame them so that they are (more) interesting to students. Third, allowing some level of student choice in reading material and activities typically leads to student engagement, motivation, and autonomy, three keys to reading improvement. Fourth, instruction should build reading skills development activities around the main passages in students' textbooks. If important skills, comprehension strategies, and language features cannot be exemplified initially with the texts assigned for the class, then either the textbook does not address the skills that students need (and should be reevaluated) or the skills, strategies, and language features targeted for instruction may not be as important as assumed.

Fifth, students need to call up appropriate background knowledge to support their comprehension efforts. While drawing on loosely related background knowledge is not always helpful, the activation of specific and directly relevant background information improves main-idea comprehension and strategic processing. Sixth, reading lessons should be structured consistently around a pre-, during, and post-reading framework that prepares students for reading, helps them while reading, and then guides them in reconsidering texts (and text information) for a variety of purposes (Figure 3; see also Hedgcock & Ferris, 2009).

Seventh, EAP students need to experience success when reading; a steady stream of frustrating reading experiences inevitably leads to student disengagement, exactly what we do not want as we work to prepare students for future reading demands. Eighth, some actual text reading should be included in *every* class session; too often, this point is overlooked. Finally, students benefit from EAP reading curricula that consistently integrate the instructional goals required for the development of skilled reading (listed under Principle 9 in Figure 2). These goals, explored in more detail throughout this chapter, suggest the need for explicit comprehension instruction along with the development of the strategic reader, and for student involvement and motivation for reading. While these nine goals may not be granted equal time in all instructional contexts, consistent attention to the most important ones, for a given context, will contribute to students' reading comprehension development.

CLASSROOM APPLICATIONS

The goals for reading instruction listed under Principle 9 in Figure 2 translate into practice in various ways. In the sections that follow, we explore each goal and offer instructional tips that have proven effective in a range of instructional settings. EAP teachers may not have the opportunity to adapt every idea presented here for immediate use. Nonetheless, we suggest that EAP teachers identify those practices that might realistically be incorporated into the reading components of their EAP curricula.

Promote word recognition efficiency

Most EAP students, at secondary and tertiary levels, enter our classes with reasonable control over basic word- and phrase-recognition abilities. Over time, students improve their word-recognition skills when engaged in vocabulary development activities, reading fluency practice, and extensive reading. Yet many EAP students benefit from

Reading lesson stage	Objectives
Pre-reading	• Establish a purpose for reading. • Tap prior knowledge. • Provide information needed for comprehension (e.g., key vocabulary, important concepts). • Set up expectations. • Stimulate interest. • Build confidence and motivation. • Explore text organization. • Model and practice common pre-reading strategies (e.g., identifying reading goals, previewing the text, predicting main ideas).
During reading	• Guide reading to facilitate comprehension (e.g., by asking students to fill in a graphic organizer—that is, a visual display of information, such as in a table, chart, graph, or time line—that reflects relationships among ideas in the text). • Help students construct meaning and monitor comprehension. • Give students opportunities to connect what is read with what they know so they can evaluate what is being read. • Support ongoing summarization. • Model and practice common strategies used at this stage (e.g., monitoring comprehension, identifying difficulties, repairing faulty comprehension). • Promote discussions that support comprehension and strategy development.
Post-reading	• Check comprehension. • Explore how text organization supports comprehension. • Provide opportunities for reading fluency development (e.g., rereading activities). • Ask students to summarize, synthesize, evaluate, integrate, extend, and apply text information. • Ask students to critique the author and aspects of the text (e.g., writing, content). • Establish and recognize comprehension successes (e.g., completing written summaries, lining up a set of main-idea statements in the correct order, distinguishing between main ideas and details). • Model and practice common post-reading strategies (e.g., reflecting on what has been learned through reading, making connections across texts).

Figure 3. Objectives at each stage of the pre-, during, and post-reading framework.

word-recognition practice through oral paired rereading (explained later in the chapter), word matching, word- (and phrase-) recognition exercises, and flashcards. Flashcards, while sometimes considered passé, can prove effective not only for vocabulary building and vocabulary collecting but also for word-recognition practice (Nicholson, 2000). Three activities that promote word- and phrase-recognition speed and accuracy, and that support reading fluency, are described next.

Word- and phrase-recognition exercises. Most EAP reading textbooks do not include word- or phrase-recognition exercises, although a few exceptions exist (e.g., Folse, 2004; Jeffries & Mikulecky, 2009a, 2009b). Fortunately, teachers can easily create recognition exercises, also called timed word-selection exercises (Folse, 2004), with vocabulary from the texts that students are reading. Common recognition-exercise formats are shown in Figures 4 and 5. Students generally enjoy recognition exercises in a timed recognition or "beat-the-clock" fashion and with record-keeping charts for tracking progress. Through such exercises, students develop a heightened awareness of the role that rapid word recognition plays in reading. Fortunately, relatively little class time is needed to incorporate, let us say, three recognition exercises per textbook chapter (for suggestions on using recognition exercises in class, see M. Crawford, 2005; Stoller, 1993).

Timed semantic-connection exercises. Another way to provide practice in quick lexical access is to create exercises with words that are already familiar to students. Under timed conditions, students consider the key word (on the left) and multiple choices (to the right), and select the one word (or phrase) that: (1) has something in common with

Key word					
1. indirect	indigo	indispose	indirect	indicted	indicate
2. trail	entail	strike	trial	trail	frail
3. though	though	through	thorough	borough	thought
. . .					

Number correct: ___/20
Time: ___ seconds

Figure 4. Common word-recognition exercise format.

Key phrase				
1. in conclusion	to conclude	in conclusion	in consultation	in retribution
2. as required	as required	as reported	in retirement	as registered
3. on the one hand	on the other hand	on the other band	in the one hand	on the one hand
. . .				

Number correct: ___/20
Time: ___ seconds

Figure 5. Common phrase-recognition exercise format.

the key word; (2) is similar in meaning; or (3) is a common collocate of the key word (see Figure 6).

Lexical access fluency exercise. More advanced EAP students benefit from lexical access fluency exercises (Figure 7). A variation on the timed semantic-connection task (Figure 6), these exercises require the matching of key words (in boldface, on the left) with their definitions or synonyms under timed conditions. Students progress through three sets of the same key words and definitions, with definitions scrambled in each set (see Figure 7) and with less time allowed for the completion of each set (e.g., 60, 50, and 40 seconds). These exercises take little class time and one three-part set could easily be created for each assigned reading.

Build a large recognition vocabulary

It is generally agreed that vocabulary knowledge is closely related to reading abilities (e.g., Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010; I. S. P. Nation, 2008; Pulido & Hambrick, 2008). Evidence also suggests that: (1) students need to recognize at least 95% of

Key word					
1. color	ring	bank	blue	carnation	flour
2. however	often	also	but	and	usually
3. solve	a problem	the bank	her home	the dinner	the bike
. . .					

Number correct: ___/20
Time: ___ seconds

Figure 6. Sample timed semantic-connection exercise.

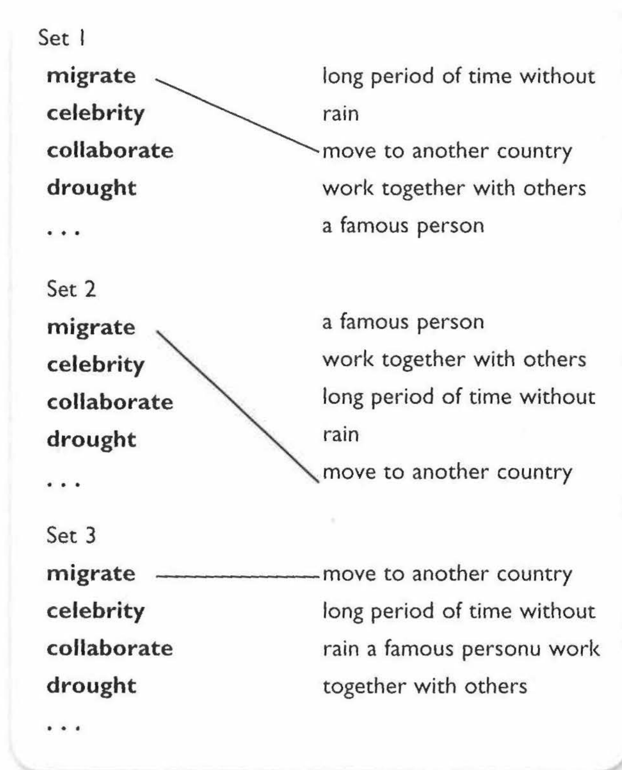

Figure 7. Sample lexical access fluency exercise.

the words that they encounter for adequate comprehension in instructional contexts; and (2) more fluent reading and comprehension generally occur when a reader recognizes 98–99% of the words in a text (Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010; I. S. P. Nation, 2006; Schmitt, Jiang, & Grabe, 2011). The number of words needed for 95% coverage of most texts seems to lie somewhere between 10,000 and 15,000 words; 98–99% of coverage for most texts probably requires a recognition vocabulary of about 35,000–40,000 words (e.g., Schmitt, 2008).

A realistic goal for more advanced reading is an L2 recognition vocabulary above 10,000 words. Of course, the argument that students need to know the first 2,000 most frequent word families still remains a key goal for vocabulary instruction (I. S. P. Nation, 2001). At the same time, direct vocabulary practice with large sets of words may be essential to increase L2 recognition vocabulary knowledge. To institute an active vocabulary development framework that guides EAP teachers, materials designers, and curriculum developers, the following eight resources should be in place: (1) systematic procedures for selecting target words; (2) techniques for introducing new words and encouraging students to use words meaningfully; (3) activities to practice word-meaning connections and work with large sets of words; (4) tasks for building students' word-learning strategies; (5) approaches for creating a vocabulary-rich classroom environment; (6) tasks that guide students in becoming independent word collectors; (7) ways to build student motivation for word learning; and (8) the recycling of texts and vocabulary. Next, we introduce three ideas for building a strong vocabulary development framework. These techniques are more effective for building a vocabulary instruction framework than simply asking students to memorize words (and be tested on them), a technique mentioned frequently by teachers as their predominant vocabulary teaching technique.

Procedures for selecting words that merit explicit instruction. For EAP students to build a large receptive vocabulary, teachers need a systematic way to decide *which* words to focus on because we simply cannot teach students all the words that they need to know. Textbooks often preteach key vocabulary, but there are usually other words worthy of explicit attention, including the most important words for text comprehension, the most helpful words for working with other vocabulary, and the most useful words beyond the immediate text. One systematic way for teachers to select vocabulary for explicit attention is by categorizing unfamiliar words from an assigned reading into one of four types (Table 1). Words falling into the + + category deserve direct instruction; words falling into the – – category are not worth instructional time. Teachers need to decide how much time to devote to words falling into the + – and – + categories.

Concept-of-definition map for introducing vocabulary. One way to introduce a new key word and connect it to what students already know is to build a concept-of-definition map with the class (Figures 8 and 9). In this approach, students view a key word from four vantage points, providing them with multiple perspectives for building their understanding of the word.

Approaches for creating vocabulary-rich classroom environments. Teachers can promote vocabulary learning by creating vocabulary-rich environments. They can do so by placing students' written work

Table 1. Systematic Way for Teachers to Identify Words Worthy of Explicit Attention

Vocabulary Categories	Words Critical for Text Comprehension	Words Useful Beyond the Text Being Read
Plus–plus (+ +)	+	+
Plus–minus (+ –)	+	–
Minus–plus (– +)	–	+
Minus–minus (– –)	–	–

interesting magazine articles, information from the web, book covers from new library acquisitions, and popular song lyrics on the walls and bulletin boards of their classrooms and school corridors. Another option is to place key words and phrases from core readings on the classroom wall (or on a poster board or bulletin board). Of course, the simple display of words (selected by the teacher and/or students) does not guarantee vocabulary learning. The key is to return to the word wall and engage students in tasks that involve the meaningful use of the words on the wall. To assist students in learning the words, teachers can ask students to move words around on the wall to create meaningful word clusters (e.g., words that belong to a particular content area, antonyms, words from the same parts of speech, words with positive or negative connotations, and collocations). They can also have students engage in activities (e.g., speed writes, ranking activities, spontaneous speaking tasks, and role plays) that promote the meaningful use of word-wall items (Eyraud, Giles, Koenig, & Stoller, 2000; Green, 2003). (See also Zimmerman, this volume.)

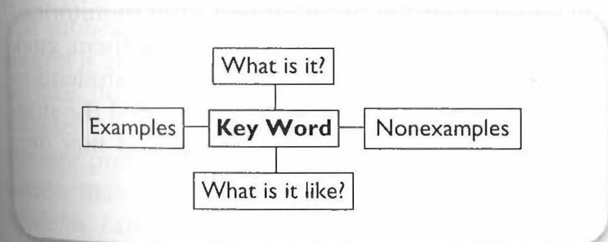

Figure 8. Generic concept-of-definition map.

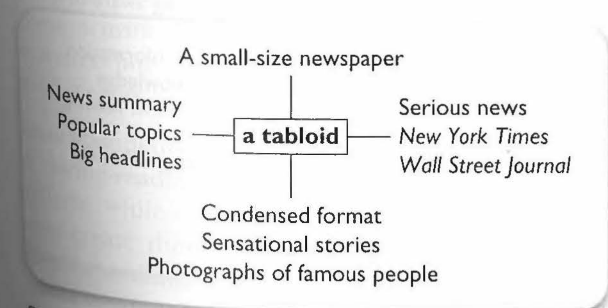

Figure 9. Concept-of-definition map for the word *tabloid*.

Create opportunities for comprehension skills practice

The ability to understand a text underlies all reading tasks; yet it is not a simple ability. Comprehension requires a reasonable knowledge of basic grammar, an ability to identify main ideas in the text, an awareness of discourse structure, and strategic processing. Reading comprehension instruction should direct some attention to grammar, particularly at the beginning and low-intermediate levels. In certain cases, teaching a key grammar point will support students' reading comprehension. However, most EAP reading instruction occurs beyond the beginning levels, and it is not necessary for a reading course to review grammar extensively. Certainly, a reading course is not the place in which to embed a grammatical syllabus. At the same time, it is important not to ignore grammatical knowledge as a resource for more advanced reading comprehension abilities (I. S. P. Nation, 2009).

Main-idea comprehension should be at the core of reading instruction. Typically, however, teachers *assess* comprehension (through post-reading comprehension questions) rather than *teach* it (N. J. Anderson, 2009). Main-idea comprehension is effectively developed through class conversations during which students identify and explore main ideas in the texts that they are reading. During those discussions, students can be guided to note connections across parts of the text, between two or more texts, or between the text and their own background knowledge. Class conversations centered on main-idea

comprehension may start with post-reading comprehension questions, but students should be invited to follow up initial responses with further elaboration, during which students: (1) explain why an answer is appropriate; (2) point out where the text supports their answers; and (3) engage in discussions about how to understand the text better, thereby building their reading strategies (Grabe, 2009).

Main-idea comprehension can also be developed by identifying where main ideas are stated in the text, as well as the words that signal these parts of the text. Asking students to summarize what they have read, or some segment of a longer text, also provides them with helpful practice in identifying main ideas, articulating these ideas clearly (orally or in writing), and establishing links across main ideas and supporting details. To assist students in summarizing, teachers can start out by asking students to fill in a partially completed summary (or outline) while consulting the text. Finally, main-idea comprehension develops from instruction that emphasizes discourse structure awareness through, in particular, the use of graphic organizers.

Many other techniques can be used to promote main-idea comprehension. For example, with the questioning the author (QtA) technique (e.g., Beck & McKeown, 2006), questions not only address text comprehension, but they may also lead to hypotheses about author's purpose, critiques of the author's writing, identification of author bias and tone, and students' stance on the usefulness of text information. Typical questions asked in QtA interactions (Beck & McKeown, 2006) are listed in Figure 10.

Consistently orchestrated, teacher–whole class and student-group conversations about the text can also promote main-idea comprehension (Pressley, 2006). Next, we provide details about two other approaches to main-idea comprehension instruction.

Elaborative interrogation. Elaborative interrogation (e.g., Ozgungor & Guthrie, 2004; Pressley, 2006) is a more gentle approach to main-idea comprehension than its label suggests. In this approach, comprehension questions are followed by *why* questions that oblige students to return to the text, reread, and then explain their answers. When done well, usually in small, consistent doses, student responses generate class discussion and students learn to defend their answers and explain the strategies used for deciding on an answer. *Why* questions lead to an exploration of main ideas in addition to text recall, inferencing (i.e., reading between the lines), and coherence building (i.e., making connections across parts of the text). For elaborative interrogation to work well, students need teacher guidance initially, time to discuss their answers with classmates, and lots of practice.

Comprehension monitoring. Comprehension monitoring, often identified as a reading strategy that improves main-idea comprehension (Grabe, 2009), involves much more than the recognition of main ideas and the identification of difficulties being experienced while reading. Strategies identified as playing a major role in comprehension monitoring are listed in Figure 11. Teachers can support reading comprehension development (and monitoring) by modeling these strategies, discussing them, guiding students in using them, and leading students in discussions about when the students used the strategies, what purpose(s) they served, and how they helped (see N. J. Anderson, 2008).

- What is the author talking about?
- What do you think the author wants us to know?
- That's what the author said, but what did the author mean?
- Does that make sense given what the author told us before?
- But does the author tell us why?
- Why do you think the author tells us this now?
- How is the author making you feel about [X]?
- How has the author let you know that something has changed?

Figure 10. Questions typical of the questioning the author approach (adapted from Beck & McKeown, 2006).

- Having a reason for reading and being aware of it
- Recognizing text structure
- Identifying important and main-idea information
- Relating the text to background knowledge
- Recognizing the relevance of the text to reading goal(s)
- Recognizing and attending to reading difficulties
- Reading carefully
- Rereading as appropriate
- Clarifying misunderstandings

Figure 11. Comprehension monitoring strategies used by skilled readers (from Grabe, 2009).

Build students' discourse-structure awareness

It is well established that reading comprehension depends on a reader's awareness of discourse structure (e.g., Hudson, 2007). Good readers recognize how textual information is organized and the signals that provide cues to this organization; readers use this information (e.g., words that signal rhetorical patterns or topic shifts, transition phrases, headings, and paragraphing) to achieve comprehension. Yet few EAP reading curricula focus on discourse-structure awareness as a consistent instructional feature.

Instruction that aims to raise students' discourse-structure awareness engages students in regular discussions about how texts are structured and how discourse structure is signaled (e.g., Grabe, 2009; Jiang & Grabe, 2009). To show the pervasiveness of discourse structure, teachers should use texts that students are already reading for other purposes, rather than bringing in "special texts." Graphic organizers serve as effective tools for raising students' discourse-structure awareness (Jiang & Grabe, 2007, 2009). Common tasks for exploring discourse structure at different points in a reading lesson are explained in the following sections.

Building discourse-structure awareness at pre-reading stage. At pre-reading stages, teachers can guide students in: (1) examining text headings and subheadings; and (2) hypothesizing what each section is about. The goal is for students, over time, to take these steps independently, without being directed to do so. Students can also be asked to preview preselected text sections and highlight key words that signal discourse structure. Similarly, students can examine predetermined paragraphs and decide their function in the text (e.g., to offer a counterargument, propose a solution, make a comparison, or provide an elaborated definition). These activities not only raise students' discourse awareness but also reinforce automatic behaviors of good readers.

Raising students' awareness of discourse structure at during-reading stage. Textbooks do not often include while-reading activities; thus, teachers must create them to bring text organization features to students' conscious attention. Depending on the nature of the text being read, teachers can ask students to do the following *while* reading:

- Complete an outline of the text (at one or more points, depending on the length and nature of the text) that reveals main text units. As part of post-reading discussion, students can explain what makes each unit identifiable as a separate unit.
- Fill in a graphic organizer (e.g., Venn diagram or time line). As part of the post-reading discussion, students can explain how the information placed in the graphic organizer was signaled in the text.
- Underline lexical clues that indicate major organizational patterns (e.g., cause–effect, comparison–contrast, problem–solution).
- Highlight transition words and phrases that signal new sections (e.g., *And finally* used to signal not only continuation but also the last item in a series; *conversely* used to signal a contrast). As part of post-reading discussion, students can describe what they think the phrases and words signal.
- Assign a brief main-idea label to each paragraph (or sets of paragraphs) in the margin. As part of post-reading discussion, students can compare labels and explore the function of different paragraphs.

Building discourse-structure awareness at post-reading stage. Discourse-structure awareness can be developed further in post-reading discussions and rereading tasks. Many of the during-reading activities just noted can be converted into post-reading tasks. Students can also be asked to reread a text to match main ideas and supporting information across two columns. Also effective are tasks that require students to reorganize the scrambled paragraphs or sentences of a text or to create a good summary. Students can also be given a teacher-generated summary with inappropriate sentences or segments included and be asked to remove inappropriate parts, followed by a whole-class discussion that explores why the discarded parts do not belong.

Develop the strategic reader and promote strategic reading

Good readers typically employ multiple strategies (Figure 12) to achieve their reading comprehension goals. When they encounter challenging texts, they employ strategies with a heightened level of

- Planning and forming goals before reading
- Forming predictions before reading
- Reading selectively according to goals
- Rereading as appropriate
- Monitoring reading continuously
- Identifying important information
- Filling in gaps in the text through inferences and prior knowledge
- Making guesses about unknown words to be able to continue reading without major disruptions
- Using discourse-structure information to guide understanding
- Integrating ideas from different parts of the text
- Building interpretations of the text while reading
- Building main idea summaries
- Evaluating the text and the author, and forming feelings about the text
- Attempting to resolve difficulties
- Reflecting on information in the text

Figure 12. Strategies employed by good readers while reading for comprehension (drawn from Pressley, 2002, pp. 294–296).

metacognitive awareness. These strategies, often applied in combination, support each other to achieve comprehension. Initially, good readers apply some subset of strategies without a lot of conscious thought. It is when the initial set of default strategies does not lead to successful comprehension that a much more conscious problem-solving mode of attention is activated. At this point, good readers may reread the text, reconsider initial predictions, reexamine discourse markers, or try to unravel complex phrases, among other fix-up strategies.

EAP textbooks oftentimes introduce reading strategies, but these are rarely introduced in purposeful combinations to achieve meaningful reading goals. Reading curricula that focus on strategic-reader training, as opposed to isolated strategy instruction, are likely to benefit EAP readers the most (N. J. Anderson, 2008; Grabe & Stoller, 2011; Hedgcock & Ferris, 2009). Teaching for strategic reading involves a number of important steps. First, teachers should introduce a strategy and talk about how, when, and why to use it. The strategy can be added to a "permanent" list (e.g., on a classroom bulletin board or wall) that can be easily consulted by the class (Janzen, 1996). After the strategy has been introduced, it should be practiced and revisited multiple times, with accompanying whole-class discussions. Second, teachers can model combinations of strategy uses while reading aloud to the class and making explicit the strategies being used. Over time, students should be encouraged to verbalize the strategies that they are using and then discuss them as ways to understand texts. Third, teachers need to promote ways to monitor comprehension. Options for students include asking if the text is making sense, rethinking goals for the particular reading, and deciding at certain points what the main ideas of the text are.

Goals for the development of strategic reading should include: (1) student use of multiple strategies in combination for better comprehension; and (2) student familiarity with strategic responses to texts, which, with practice and teacher reinforcement, become more automatic. Teaching students to become more strategic readers should be central to comprehension instruction (Pressley, 2006). Additional approaches for incorporating strategic reading into reading curricula are described in the following sections.

Directed reading-thinking activity. With directed reading-thinking activity (DR-TA), students are guided in thinking like good readers: anticipating, predicting, confirming, or modifying their ideas as they read and then summarizing (Blachowicz & Ogle, 2008). DR-TA guides students in relating background knowledge to the text, determining goals for reading, and engaging in a series of prediction and summarizing tasks at set pause points. It is during prediction practice, and accompanying classroom discussion, that students develop monitoring strategies, text-evaluation abilities, and main-idea comprehension (Blachowicz & Ogle, 2008; Kern, 2000). The prediction cycle involves asking students to: (1) make predictions about what they think is coming next; (2) read to confirm or refute their predictions; (3) discuss predictions and reformulate them using text information; and (4) summarize what they have read before moving on to the next text segment. Questions commonly asked to guide such discussions (with adaptations for different student proficiency levels) include:

- What do you predict will happen?
- What are your reasons for these predictions?
- What do you think now? How accurate were your predictions?
- What made you change your mind?
- Can you find information in the text to support or challenge your predictions?

- What is the main idea of this section?
- What do you think will happen next?

When students have difficulties adjusting their predictions as they proceed through the text (possibly because they are unable to make good inferences or connect text segments), the teacher can ask students to reread particular segments to find information that will improve their predictions.

One key to successful DR-TA activities is the teacher's determination of *how much* text should be read between pauses, during which students revisit, evaluate, and adjust their predictions. The teacher needs to be sure that "there is enough information for the students to check likely predictions, and also enough new information for further predictions to be made" (Blachowicz & Ogle, 2008, p. 140). Another key to successful DR-TA implementation is the realization that prediction is real only when the whole class is reading the material for the first time. Pausing at page breaks or at the end of a well-defined section might lessen students' temptation to read ahead.

KWHL chart. The KWHL chart (Figure 13) is commonly used for promoting strategic reading and motivating students to read by having them discover what they have learned from reading. The approach combines activating background knowledge, goal setting, monitoring for important points, evaluating text information, and relating text information to reading goals. With a KWHL chart on the board, the teacher, as part of the pre-reading segment of his or her lesson, asks students what they *know* (K) about the reading topic, what they *want* to know (W) about the topic, and *how* (H) they will accomplish their goals while reading. While discussing the how of reading, the teacher and students can review reading strategies purposefully (Raphael, George, Weber, & Nies, 2009). During the while-reading lesson segment, students can look for the information that they want to learn, using the stated strategies to do so. Toward the end of the post-reading lesson segment, the class can revisit the KWHL chart and report what they have *learned* (L) and which strategies (listed in the H column) were most effective. They can also connect newly learned information (listed in the L column) with already known information (listed in the K column) to consolidate comprehension and long-term retention.

Identification of challenging parts of a text. EAP students are likely to encounter challenging texts on a fairly regular basis in academic classes. Students' academic success will depend, in part, on their ability to make sense of difficult texts. Teachers can ask students to identify a challenging text segment and then guide them in

Topic: Native Americans in the United States			
K	W	H	L
reservations tribes Apache casinos bows and arrows cowboys and Indians rain dances buffaloes Geronimo teepees jewelry movies Dances with Wolves	customs traditions languages religions medical practices migrations today's problems education government clothes	Preview text to determine main ideas. Write 2–3 questions that might be answered in the passage. Read passage and underline possible answers to questions.	

Figure 13. Sample KWHL chart used with a passage on Native Americans in the United States. Sample includes plausible students' pre-reading responses.

- Absence of concrete examples
- Abstract imagery
- Abstract theorizing
- Assumed background knowledge
- Conceptual complexity
- Confusing formatting
- Density of text
- Grammatical complexity
- Lack of clarity in the writing
- Length of sentences
- Length of text
- New conceptual knowledge
- Poorly signaled organization
- Unfamiliar content
- Unfamiliar vocabulary or new meanings

Figure 14. Possible sources of reading difficulty.

identifying the sources of difficulty (Figure 14) and strategies for overcoming the challenges. Instead of skipping over difficult segments and focusing on what students understand, students benefit from working through difficult texts as a class; in these lessons, students discuss the process of making sense of the passage and develop strategies that will, it is hoped, over time carry over to other reading contexts.

Build students' reading fluency

Fluent reading—rapid, accurate, and prosodically appropriate reading—is frequently neglected in EAP curricula (I. S. P. Nation, 2008) and EAP reading textbooks. However, as reading research has demonstrated in the past decade, reading fluency development is a critical component of effective and successful reading instruction (Grabe, 2009; Schwanenflugel & Ruston, 2008). When fluency practice is incorporated as a consistent component of a reading curriculum, students make important gains in their reading comprehension.

Building word- and passage-reading fluency requires a real-time commitment. Students do not become fluent readers by practicing for a month or two, with one or two readings, or on Fridays only. When students begin to understand the need for fluency development, typically they look forward to fluency activities. Developing word-recognition fluency can be carried out through repetition and beat-the-clock practice with flash cards and timed readings of word lists (with words that have already been introduced). Students can also improve their word-recognition fluency when they are asked to reread texts, read along in a text as the teacher reads aloud, and engage in extensive reading. Passage-level fluency can be developed with: (1) consistent practice in rereading texts, both silently and aloud; (2) extensive reading; and (3) timed- and paced-reading activities. Details on some of these fluency-building activities are explored in the subsections that follow.[1]

Rereading. EAP students are rarely asked to reread texts for additional purposes, despite the fact that the rereading of familiar texts represents: (1) one of the best ways to build reading fluency; and (2) a common practice among skilled readers in academic settings to consolidate content learning. On completion of a textbook chapter, EAP teachers usually direct students to turn to the next chapter instead of giving students a new reason for reading the previously read text at least one more time. And even when in the midst of a textbook unit, students are rarely given a good reason to return to the text, even though so many tasks (Figure 15) can lead to purposeful rereading. Each rereading of a text provides fluency practice as well as vocabulary recycling.

- Confirming an answer to a comprehension question
- Confirming the main idea (skimming)
- Locating details (scanning)
- Preparing for a summary or synthesis task
- Reading between the lines (inferencing)
- Filling in a graphic organizer that reflects text organization
- Determining author stance, bias, and position (and possibly taking a position different from that of the author)
- Locating discourse-structure and main-idea signals
- Finding points of agreement or disagreement with another information source (e.g., a video)
- Connecting information with a previously encountered information source (e.g., another passage, teacher mini-lecture, video, or field trip)
- Preparing for a follow-up activity requiring the use of text information (e.g., a radio report, essay, or debate)
- Reading a full text after a jigsaw activity in which students have read only one part of the text

Figure 15. Rereading tasks that promote reading-fluency development.

Repeated reading. In English L1 settings, repeated reading (not to be confused with rereading) has become an important component of reading curricula (Rasinski, 2010; Rasinski, Blachowicz, & Lems, 2006). Repeated reading, unassisted or assisted, is equally valuable for L2 students in EAP settings. Unassisted repeated reading involves students reading short passages aloud alone (either in class or at home) until they reach a set reading rate. Assisted repeated reading encourages students to read passages: (1) silently along with an audiotape or CD; (2) aloud with an audiotape or CD; (3) with a teacher; or (4) after first listening to the passage and then reading along (among other variations). The nine tips listed here can help teachers initiate a repeated reading routine:

1. Teachers should keep passages to between 70 and 200 words.
2. Teachers should assign only texts for rereading practice that students have *already* read or heard, or that will be easy for students' reading levels.
3. Teachers should limit reading of the same passage to three to four times.
4. Students should read with reasonable accuracy and an effort to pronounce intelligibly.
5. Pronunciation should not be considered a key issue for repeated reading unless the word is pronounced so poorly that it could be confused with a different word.
6. Students can time their reading of a whole passage (from start to finish), or they can read for a set number of seconds (e.g., 60, 90, or 120 seconds), even though in the latter case they may not finish the whole passage.
7. Students can read in pairs, with one student reading and the other listening (and helping out, when necessary).
8. When students read at an improved rate, or when they improve their rate three times in a row with a single passage, they should move to another text.
9. Students chart their progress (time and accuracy) on a record-keeping chart.

Oral paired reading. Oral paired reading, commonly used in L1 settings, should be considered for EAP fluency training. Students work in pairs with passages that they have *already* read for other purposes; in this way, students can focus on reading more fluently instead of focusing on meaning and unfamiliar words. Student A reads the passage aloud for a designated period of time (e.g., 30–60 seconds) as quickly and as accurately as possible. While Student A reads aloud, Student B follows along and assists Student A if necessary. At the end of the designated time period, Student A marks the end point of his read-aloud. Then Students A and B switch roles. Student B reads the exact same passage as Student A, starting at the beginning. After the same designated time period, Student B marks the end point of his read-aloud. The students then repeat the procedure for a second round, rereading exactly the same text from the beginning. The goal of this reading activity is to advance further in the text in the second round. The number of words gained on the second reading is then recorded. After students become familiar with these general procedures and expectations, students typically look forward to these oral paired reading activities because they are fun, but, more important, they contribute to fluency building.

Provide consistent extensive reading opportunities

It should come as no surprise that EAP students can master reading abilities only by reading. It sounds so simple, yet most reading programs do not equate instructional time with actual reading time (Renandya & Jacobs, 2002). One way to ensure that students actually read, and read a lot, is to make extensive reading a regular component of the reading curriculum (I. S. P. Nation, 2009). Extensive reading requires a curriculum-wide commitment if it is to have a major impact on fluency and reading comprehension development. Ten principles for a successful extensive reading program are listed in Figure 16. Additional tips that can enhance an extensive reading program are presented in the section that follows.

Scaffolded silent reading. Teachers can assist students in developing reading abilities by setting aside class time for silent reading. Effective scaffolded silent reading (ScSR), unlike traditional sustained silent reading (SSR), is defined by these practices (Reutzel, Fawson, & Smith, 2008; Reutzel, Jones, & Newman, 2010):

- The teacher schedules ScSR sessions regularly.
- The teacher teaches strategies for the selected reading material.

1. Students read as much as possible, perhaps in and definitely outside the classroom, the latter done when and where students choose.
2. A variety of materials on a wide range of topics is available so as to encourage reading for different reasons and in different ways.
3. Students select what they want to read and can stop reading material that fails to interest them.
4. Purposes for reading, generally related to pleasure, information, and general understanding, are determined by the material and students' interests.
5. Reading is its own reward, yet some level of student accountability is expected.
6. Reading materials are well within students' linguistic competence in terms of vocabulary and grammar. Dictionary use while reading is discouraged because the constant stopping to look up words makes fluent reading difficult.
7. Reading is individual and silent, at each student's own pace.
8. Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower as students read books and material that they find easily understandable.
9. Teachers orient students to the goals of the program, explain the methodology, keep track of what each student reads, and guide students in getting the most out of the program.
10. Teachers explicitly offer students support and assist with comprehension difficulties.

Figure 16. Top ten principles of an extensive reading program (adapted from Day & Bamford, 1998, pp. 7–8; Reutzel, Jones, & Newman, 2010; see also Day & Bamford, 2002).

- Students read student-selected materials and can change reading materials when motivation lags, interest wanes, and/or the text proves too difficult.
- The teacher engages students in short (5- to 10-minute) lessons that explain or model some aspect of fluent reading or a comprehension strategy.
- Students engage in silent reading for a designated period of time.
- The teacher monitors student engagement and text comprehension. Monitoring takes place as the teacher moves around the room and interacts with individual students on a periodic basis.
- The teacher holds students accountable for time spent reading silently (e.g., during teacher-individual student interactions, with completed-book response assignments).

Motivate students to read

Frustrating reading experiences, not uncommon among EAP students, can demotivate students, "a truly unfortunate consequence considering the importance of reading for most of our students" (Komiyama, 2009, p. 32). EAP students benefit from motivational support provided by teachers and the curriculum in numerous ways:

- Teachers share their reading interests with students by talking about what they are reading, why it is interesting, and what other types of reading they engage in. The teacher as role model serves as a powerful motivator.
- Students are encouraged to share what they are reading and why they find it interesting.
- Teachers identify students' interests and then are on the lookout for related readings to bring to class.
- Teachers work toward promoting the development of group cohesiveness so that learners can support each other with challenging reading tasks.
- Teachers increase students' expectancy of success by selecting texts that are within students' ability levels and by devising reading tasks that students are capable of completing. The texts and tasks should involve just enough challenge to require some effort.
- Teachers devise attention-catching introductions to major texts and associated tasks (e.g., by posing provocative questions, connecting students' backgrounds to the text, examining a photo and caption in the text, and connecting the overall theme to students' lives) to build initial interest.
- Teachers build relevance into the curriculum and, by extension, into the assigned readings to motivate students.
- Teachers encourage active student participation.
- Teachers grant students some degree of choice in reading materials whenever possible.
- Teachers help students discover what they have actually learned *from* reading so that students develop an appreciation for the value of reading.
- Teachers, whenever possible, guide students in building real levels of expertise in reading topics (as suggested next in our discussion of content-based instruction).

Integrate content and language learning objectives

One way to build effective EAP reading curricula is to combine emphases on content learning and language learning, an approach often labeled content-based instruction (CBI). (See also Snow, this volume.) The combination of content- and language-learning objectives inherent in CBI (Stoller, 2008) naturally leads to opportunities for extended reading, motivational learning experiences, strategic responses to increasingly complex tasks, greater choices in reading materials, and growing challenges to match expanding skills. CBI naturally lends itself to project-based learning; the recycling of important skills on a regular basis; the rereading of texts; and realistic tasks for interpreting, integrating, and evaluating information from multiple texts. Such activities mirror the types of tasks that EAP students will encounter in academic settings. Teachers interested in integrating content- and language-learning objectives as a way to help students improve their reading skills might want to consider features of two empirically supported curricular frameworks briefly described next.

Concept-oriented reading instruction. Concept-oriented reading instruction (CORI) is a curricular framework that has been used and researched extensively in L1 settings (e.g., Guthrie, McRae, & Klauda, 2007; E. A. Swan, 2003). CORI was initially guided by instructional principles for stimulating student interest and motivation to read. It has since evolved into a more elaborate yet flexible approach organized around four stages: (1) immersion in a main theme through students' personal engagement with the topic and a specific question to pursue; (2) wide reading and information gathering on the theme across multiple information sources; (3) reading-strategy instruction to assist with comprehension; and (4) project work leading to a tangible outcome that demonstrates what students have learned. CORI activities extend well beyond strategy training and include a commitment to vocabulary development, fluency practice, and extensive reading. As students proceed through CORI stages, they engage in content discus-sions and activities that require the purposeful use of multiple strategies, including the following:

- activating background knowledge
- forming and answering questions
- determining main ideas
- monitoring and repairing comprehension
- noting text structure and text characteristics
- paraphrasing
- summarizing
- synthesizing information
- taking notes
- using graphic organizers to integrate information

These strategies are reinforced by consistent teacher modeling, teacher scaffolding, and extensive practice.

Collaborative strategic reading. Collaborative strategic reading (CSR) is based on concepts from reciprocal teaching (Palincsar & Brown, 1984) but is appropriate for L2 learners. It combines reading comprehension–strategy instruction and Cooperative Learning principles to promote content learning, language mastery, and reading comprehension (Klingner & Vaughn, 2000, 2004). During CSR, students work collaboratively in groups to comprehend texts. While working in groups, students apply four strategies to their reading: They preview to predict what the passage might be about; they "click and clunk" to identify difficult words and concepts, and use fix-up strategies to make sense of difficult texts; they read for the gist to restate the most important ideas in portions of the text; and they summarize what has been learned. CSR teachers introduce the four strategies through modeling; role playing; thinking aloud; and discussing why, when, and how to use the strategies. While engaged in these activities, students "activate prior knowledge, make predictions, monitor comprehension difficulties, clarify information, restate important ideas, summarize the text, and form appropriate questions about the text" (Grabe, 2009, p. 233).

FUTURE TRENDS

The coming decades may bring us new ways of reading (e.g., with electronic books and other technologies), but the need to read for academic purposes and the need to read well, strategically, and for different purposes will remain vital for academic success. Because of the importance of reading for academic purposes, we hope to see a

greater commitment to reading in language curricula in addition to the teaching (rather than the testing) of comprehension. With a deeper understanding of the complexities of reading, we hope that the field at large, and individual teachers, will pay more attention to the importance of

- vocabulary instruction for a larger recognition vocabulary
- strategy training with the goal of developing the strategic reader
- extensive reading for reading development
- motivation instruction
- teacher training for effective reading instruction

Most important, we hope to see teachers asking their students to actually read in (and outside) class because our students cannot become skilled readers unless they read—and read a lot.

CONCLUSION

A single chapter on teaching reading for academic purposes can only begin to identify the instructional options (and their variations) that can make a difference in EAP students' reading successes. It is our hope that EAP reading teachers, materials writers, and curriculum designers can use the ideas presented here as springboards for change in their approaches to reading instruction. The ultimate goal is that students become the readers that they need to be to succeed in academic contexts.

SUMMARY

- ➤ Reading is carried out for many purposes and involves many component skills.
- ➤ Among the component skills that are critical to reading comprehension development are word-recognition efficiency, vocabulary building, discourse-structure awareness, main-idea comprehension practice, reading strategies for academic purposes, reading fluency, extensive reading, and student motivation.
- ➤ Nine curricular principles are proposed to guide reading instruction.
- ➤ Implications from reading-related research are translated into specific instructional techniques for EAP reading skills development.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Based on what you have read in this chapter, how have your conceptions of L2 reading changed? Identify three ideas from the chapter that you think are particularly important for EAP reading teachers, and rank them in order of importance. Be prepared to provide a rationale for your decisions.
2. Consider the reading demands faced by students who want to pursue academic studies in an L2. How might an EAP reading curriculum differ from a more general L2 curriculum? What should the essential components of an EAP reading curriculum be? Why?
3. In this chapter, Grabe and Stoller suggest that there is a difference between facilitating the development of the strategic reader and teaching reading strategies. How would you explain the distinction that they are making?
4. In what ways might a content-based approach facilitate EAP students' reading skills development? Would you favor such a curricular approach in an EAP program? Why or why not?
5. Consider your own experiences reading for academic purposes. How do you approach lengthy reading assignments? What steps do you take to synthesize information from multiple texts? How do you approach challenging texts? What can you apply from your own reading experiences to help prepare EAP students for the reading demands that they will almost certainly encounter?

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Create a graphic organizer that depicts your current views of reading for academic purposes.
2. Select three L2 reading textbooks that might be used in an EAP classroom context. Examine one chapter in each textbook.
   a. To what extent, and how, are the following aspects of reading covered: word and phrase recognition, main-idea comprehension, reading fluency, discourse structure awareness, and vocabulary building.
   b. To what extent, and how, are the following characteristics of effective of reading instruction translated into practice: the pre-, during, post-framework; strategy

training; meaningful rereading; the integration of content- and language-learning goals; and student choice.

3. Select a short text (e.g., from a magazine, newspaper, or the Internet) that might be of interest to an EAP student population.
   a. What aspects of the text might prove difficult for EAP students?
   b. Identify 8–10 words (or phrases) that might be unfamiliar to these students. Place each word into one of the following categories: + +, + –, – +, – –. How would you help students learn the words placed into the + + category?
   c. Design three post-reading tasks that oblige students to return to the text to reread for a meaningful purpose. Each task should focus on a different aspect of reading (e.g., distinguishing between main ideas and details, identifying factual and opinion statements, determining author stance, inferencing, unraveling information in complex sentences, connecting information to another text, or using textual information for another task). Be prepared to explain the aim of each task that you design.

FURTHER READING

Anderson, N. J. (2008). *Practical English language teaching: Reading.* New York, NY: McGraw Hill.

This is an easy-to-read volume with insightful discussions of principles, techniques, and activities for teaching reading to beginning, intermediate, and advanced L2 learners.

Grabe, W. (2009). *Reading in a second language: Moving from theory to practice.* New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

This comprehensive volume describes the complex cognitive processes that readers employ when reading and explores variation in reading abilities. The author moves from theory to practice when examining reading comprehension in relation to strategies, discourse structure awareness, vocabulary, motivation, fluency, and curricular models.

Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. L. (2011). *Teaching and researching reading* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Pearson Longman.

This volume helps teachers understand the complex nature of L1 and L2 reading, connects research to evidence-based teaching practices, and showcases an iterative 12-step process for teacher-initiated action research on reading-related topics. Twenty-nine model action research projects are presented to help teachers get started.

Hedgcock, J. S., & Ferris, D. R. (2009). *Teaching readers of English: Students, texts, and contexts.* New York, NY: Routledge.

This volume, dedicated primarily to an exploration of L2 reading instruction, highlights important practical techniques for teaching and assessing L2 reading in secondary and post-secondary contexts.

Jiang, X., & Grabe, W. (2009). Building reading abilities with graphic organizers. In R. Cohen (Ed.), *Explorations in second language reading* (pp. 25–42). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

This chapter explores ways in which teachers can use graphic organizers to promote main-idea comprehension and raise students' awareness of discourse organization. The authors describe how teachers can become skilled at making graphic organizers for classroom use.

Nation, I. S. P. (2009). *Teaching ESL/EFL reading and writing.* New York, NY: Routledge.

This volume provides teachers with practical suggestions for teaching and assessing reading (and writing). Special attention is paid to word recognition, intensive reading, extensive reading, and fluency building.

ENDNOTE

[1] For other fluency development activities, see: J. Cohen (2011); Grabe and Stoller (2011); and Rasinski (2010).