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TEACHING READING

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INTRODUCTION

Look through the window of any second or foreign language (L2) reading classroom and, invariably, you will see the teacher and students seated with books open in front of them. This superficial similarity masks vast differences in teaching methodology, however. As the 20th century draws to a close, there are, around the world, at least four distinctive approaches to the teaching of L2 reading: grammar-translation, comprehension questions, skills and strategies, and extensive reading. After brief descriptions of these four approaches to teaching reading and their status in the reading classroom, important issues in L2 reading instruction are addressed, leading to more general concerns involving the relationship among theory, research, and teaching practice.

FOUR APPROACHES TO TEACHING READING

1. Grammar-translation

In foreign language teaching environments (in contrast to second language teaching environments), oral use of a foreign language can be of less importance than a reading knowledge of that language. In such cases, teaching the foreign language and teaching the reading of that language are often synonymous. As a means of studying the foreign language, students may be taught to read texts written in the foreign language by translating them into the native language.

A grammar-translation approach to the teaching of foreign language reading often takes the following form in the classroom: The teacher reads aloud a short passage in the foreign language while the students follow along in their textbooks. The teacher then reads the passage sentence by sentence, and the students read each sentence aloud after the teacher. This rereading is followed by

an oral word-by-word, sentence-by-sentence translation by students. Meaning is taken at the sentence level with less attention paid to the meaning of the text as a whole. Meaning is also constructed via the native language, not directly from the foreign language.

2. Comprehension questions and language work

Another common approach to teaching foreign language reading centers on a textbook containing short passages that demonstrate the use of foreign-language words or points of grammar. These texts, short enough to encourage students to read them word-by-word, are followed by comprehension questions and exercises.

In class, the teacher introduces the text to be read, and usually pre-teaches any new vocabulary. The text is then assigned for reading as homework together with the comprehension questions from the textbook. In the next class, students read the text out loud with the teacher correcting pronunciation mistakes. This is followed by students being called on to answer the comprehension questions. Various grammar and vocabulary exercises from the textbook are worked through. The purpose of using language exercises and texts that exemplify points of language is, like grammar-translation, the teaching of the foreign language. The purpose of the comprehension questions, the heart of this approach, is, however, less clear. Williams and Moran wonder if they are "meant to check comprehension, facilitate comprehension, or simply ensure that the learner reads the text" (1989:225). Most likely it is all three.

3. Skills and strategies

A third approach to teaching L2 reading focuses on the skills exhibited by fluent readers and the strategies that readers use to comprehend a text. In a typical classroom, the teacher prepares students to read a one or two-page passage from a textbook by providing or activating any background knowledge necessary for comprehension. This preparation may include pre-teaching certain vocabulary items that appear in the reading passage. Students then read the passage silently at their own speed while keeping in mind two or three "while-reading" questions, the answers to which they will find in the passage. After reading, the students share their answers to these questions, perhaps in pairs or small groups. Students then complete various tasks or exercises that require them to demonstrate a global comprehension of the passage and their grasp of particular reading skills or strategies (e.g., finding the main idea, making inferences, guessing the meaning of an unknown word by using context clues).

The skills approach first appeared in second language reading teaching in the 1960s. Faced with the need to improve the reading ability and study skills of foreign students already more or less able to read in English, American textbook writers copied the kind of academic reading training given to native-speaking high

school and university students (Silberstein 1987:29). From there, the approach gradually spread to the teaching of second language reading at all ability levels.

4. Extensive reading

The goal of an extensive reading approach is for students to become willing and able readers in the second or foreign language. Students individually read books and other materials mainly for homework. They read at their own speed and for their own purposes, which are usually related to pleasure, information, and general understanding. Reading materials, the majority of which are well within the students' linguistic capability, are self-selected from a library containing a variety of text types and topics. The texts are natural discourse; that is, they are written to communicate a message, not to exemplify language. Post-reading activities are usually confined to the answering of a few questions or preparing a short oral or written book report or reading diary. The teacher encourages students to read and counsels students individually so they can get the most out of reading. The extensive reading classroom may also include work with a class reader (all students reading the same text under guidance from the teacher), teacher read-alouds, and sustained silent reading periods when individual students read their own material at their own pace.

5. The four approaches in practice

The four approaches to the teaching of reading are not mutually exclusive and in reality they may be mixed in any particular course or classroom. For example, a grammar-translation textbook may include comprehension questions and language exercises (see Cortazzi and Jin 1996:66-67); a textbook may combine strategy instruction with comprehension and language exercises; a skills-based reading course may contain an extensive reading component, or conversely, an extensive reading course may include periodic class-wide or individualized instruction in particular reading subskills.

Grammar-translation "continues to be widely used in some parts of the world today" (Richards and Rodgers 1986:4) where it reflects local educational practice and cultural values. The aim is both language learning and character building, often with the goal of preparing students for national or other examinations that include translation. These examinations may serve as rites of passage and as measures of general scholastic aptitude as much as measures of foreign language ability.

Grammar-translation also suits cultures where the teacher is one who knows, but is not necessarily someone who has been trained to transmit that knowledge. As Hino (1992) describes "yakudoku," the Japanese variant of this approach, it "requires little professional training and little preparation is needed for

each class. Anyone who has studied English through yakudoku is able to teach it in the same way without much effort" (1992:106).

With much the same purpose as grammar-translation, a comprehension question-based approach to teaching reading prepares students for examinations. Short reading passages followed by questions are characteristic of many local language examinations as well as international ones like the TOEFL. Also in common with grammar-translation, a knowledge of the foreign language is sufficient training for teaching with this approach.

Widespread though these practices continue to be, translation and comprehension questions are little analyzed in recent general reports of reading theory and pedagogy (e.g., Silberstein 1987, Williams and Moran 1989). The lack of attention is both because the approaches confound the teaching of the foreign language with the teaching of reading and because they are based upon tradition rather than theories of reading or the teaching of reading. However, the 1980s witnessed the comprehension-question approach giving ground to a skills and strategy approach. Williams and Moran note that in textbooks "activities to develop skills and strategies have encroached upon...language or comprehension based activities" (p. 225), and this trend has continued during the 1990s.

There are several reasons for the rapid ascent of a skills approach to its current status as one of the major ways to teach L2 reading. First, the approach gives teachers something actually to teach. In the translation or comprehension-question approaches, teachers can really only help students with the language of a particular passage in order to facilitate the actual reading or translating. The promise of skills and strategies is that, through sharpening students' reading skills and teaching strategic reading, teachers can directly impact the way students read all passages. Second, it is an approach compatible with generally accepted theories of reading as an interactive process: By supplying or activating background knowledge, and by introducing and giving practice in appropriate reading strategies, teachers can help second language readers interact with a text as fluent readers do. The second point, however, is not the same as saying that a skills and strategies approach is based upon accepted models of the reading process any more than the grammar-translation and comprehension questions approaches are. Stahl, Simpson and Brozo (1988:31), in a meta-analysis of L1 materials, conclude that the teaching of college reading subskills is "overly dependent upon a curriculum of tradition rather than one driven by current applied research and/or theory." Similarly, Paran (1996) points out that L2 reading instruction has failed to keep pace with, and has become detached from, mainstream models of the reading process.

A review of recent literature on teaching L2 reading reveals skills and strategies as the pedagogical approach of choice. Reading textbooks produced in the US and UK are now solidly skills based, and such books represent the pedagogical state of the art (see, e.g., Baker-Gonzalez and Blau 1995, Blanchard and Root 1996). Readings, often billed as authentic, are grouped in themes or topics to allow students opportunities to explore a topic in some depth and to build background knowledge as an aid to comprehension. The format for such materials differs across textbooks, but most follow a general pattern: Pre- and post-reading activities, often described as interactive; comprehension tasks or activities that call on students to exchange their understanding of the texts with each other; vocabulary exercises designed to impart strategies to deal with unknown words and phrases; and often, writing tasks.

Teacher training volumes similarly follow their authors' classroom experiences and their reading of theory and the pedagogical implications of research reports. Three new volumes for reading teachers confirm the preference for a skills approach. From the UK comes an expanded and revised edition of Nuttall's (1996) standard L2 reading text, and from the U.S., volumes by Silberstein (1994) and Aebersold and Field (1997) both highlight a reading skills approach.

Journal articles also follow the skills trend. Hood (1996), in a study of British students reading French, notes "the immense gap in reading skills between the most and least able/confident pupils" (p. 17) and concludes that "overt discussion, teaching and use of reading strategies does very quickly bear fruit" (p. 18). Both Anderson (1994) and Janzen (1996) provide theory-based practical guidance which includes overt strategy training. Skills also dominate the more than 120 exercises and activities, contributed by teachers around the world, in Day's (1993) edited volume, *New ways in teaching reading*.

CURRENT ISSUES IN READING INSTRUCTION

1. Automaticity of word recognition

Certain pedagogical concerns more basic than the development of skills and strategic reading have been garnering greater attention recently. One of these concerns, automaticity of basic processes, derives from a research-based cognitive model of fluent reading. For example, Kern (1994) concludes from one subject's think-aloud that "her comprehension difficulties likely stem from lack of automaticity in word recognition as well as working memory span limitations" (p. 448). Ridgway (1994:64) notes the need for readers to automatize the encoding of word percepts. Paran (1996) and Koda (1996b) also stress the need for automatic word recognition as a basis for reading.

2. Affect

A second pedagogical concern more basic than a lack of skills or strategies for improving comprehension is the affective factors that influence reading. It is not that a person's attitude toward reading and motivation to read are new concerns in first or second language reading, but the drift is always for these more abstract considerations to be sidelined by the drive for tangible academic results. It is therefore necessary to be reminded, as by Sweet and Guthrie—speaking of first language reading—that "we cannot afford to ignore the growing knowledge base in literacy motivation. Far too many students fail to acquire basic competencies and choose not to utilize the literacy competence they possess" (1996:662).

The knowledge base on affect was considerably enlarged by Cramer and Castle's (1994) L1 volume, *Fostering the love of reading: The affective domain in reading education*. As Gambrell explains in the forward, it is a book "about teachers and the critical role they play in helping children develop into motivated, active, engaged readers who read both for pleasure and information because they find it to be personally satisfying and rewarding" (1994:v). Parts three to five of the book explore affect in pedagogy, with chapters such as Heathington's (1994), which encourages consideration of whether classroom activities are consistent with what Gambrell calls the "central and most important goal of reading instruction" (1994:p. v).

That affect must be taken into account at every level of reading instruction is also suggested by Dole, Brown and Trathen (1996). Their L1 study found that a student's attitude toward a strategy, rather than the student's self-efficacy for learning, was the key variable in whether the strategy was used or not. The study raises important pedagogical questions, and Dole, *et al.* conclude their report with a major concern: "How do teachers create a balanced program in which students value and use strategies but also possess the passion to read and the critical abilities to evaluate what they read?" (p. 83).

The Dole, *et al.* (1996) study also found strategy instruction to be most valuable when students read texts independently. This is an interesting counter-point to Dickinson (1995), who sought to establish a causal relationship between autonomy and motivation, and indeed concluded that:

> learning success and enhanced motivation is conditional on learners taking responsibility for their own learning, being able to control their own learning and perceiving that their learning successes or failures are to be attributed to their own efforts and strategies rather than factors outside their control (1995:174).

The most basic form of reader autonomy would be choosing what text to read rather than having it imposed. Another form would be choosing when and where

to read. Certain aspects of autonomy in student reading are demonstrated in Buick's (1993) and Stoller's (1993) descriptions of advanced preparation programs.

There is also the affective power of reading itself. It seems that successful reading experiences promote positive attitudes toward reading which in turn motivate further reading. The result for students is an upward spiral toward greater reading proficiency, a phenomenon dubbed "The Bookstrap Hypothesis" by Day and Bamford (1998:30–31). Like Day and Bamford, Rane-Szostak and Herth (1995) find explanation for the powerful draw that reading can have in Csikszentmihalyi's idea of reading as flow experience, citing his view that "enjoyable self-directed activities enhance a sense of well-being" (1995:101). This view ties back to the issue of autonomy, for "the flow experience is not only enjoyable, but—because rewards are no longer relegated to external forces—contributes to the return of a sense of control" (p. 101).

3. Sociocultural factors

Broadly related to affect, and of particular concern in the teaching of second language reading, are socioculturally-derived attitudes toward reading. In a study of out-of-school reading habits of young children of Bangladeshi origin, Gregory (1994) suggests that culturally responsive programs depend upon teachers examining their own and their pupils' unconscious literacy assumptions, for the teacher's model of literacy may not be shared by non-western and non-school-oriented families. A similar conclusion is reached by Bell (1995; see also Hilder and Bell 1997).

How a sociocultural dimension can enrich a narrower cognitively-oriented view of reading pedagogy is well demonstrated by Fitzgerald (1994). She suggests that rather than "teaching" literacy, it should be nurtured in students through social interactions, accessible materials, observing role models, and apprenticeship experiences, in other words what Eskey once called "drawing them into the community of readers and writers" (1995). Such socioculturally sensitive practices are still rare, however. Knutson (1997) is an example of how concerns such as why students read and how they feel about reading are most commonly grafted on to the standard transmission of knowledge and cognitive skills development paradigm of education.

That sociocultural factors are a secondary consideration in pedagogy may be of little consequence when students are actively engaged in their reading studies as is assumed in Knutson's pedagogical suggestions. The fundamental and overriding importance of these factors becomes more important when learning does not go according to plan, as demonstrated in Graden (1996): Students, in the words of a teacher "didn't understand, they got bored, they got tired" (p. 391). The problem, as the teachers saw it, was that the students' ideas about reading were not aligned with their own. According to one teacher, "Reading is really

important to me as an individual. I see it as not so important to many of my students. Actually, I have to convince them that this is something that they need to do" (Graden 1996:392). Failing persuasion, the only option left in the standard educational paradigm is coercion. Announced one frustrated teacher to her class, "If you do not read the story and don't do the homework, then I can't follow my plans. I'm going to give you written homework each day; I'm going to give you a grade each day. It's impossible to have a Spanish class when you do nothing" (Graden 1996:391). And so it becomes clear that all the skills training and all the strategies in the world are for naught if students have not first been led to discover for themselves what reading can mean to them.

4. The power of extensive reading

Automaticity, affect, autonomy, and sociocultural awareness are all prime considerations in an extensive reading approach to teaching reading, which goes a long way in explaining why research studies on extensive reading so often come up with positive results. In *The power of reading* (1993), Krashen gathers a large number of mainly L1 studies to make the case that extensive reading—Free Voluntary Reading (FVR) in his terminology—should underpin L1 literacy work. Day and Bamford (1998) argue the same for second language reading instruction, listing a dozen L2 studies of extensive reading programs that show student gains in reading ability, linguistic competence, affect, vocabulary, writing, and spelling.

Krashen and his colleagues continue to figure prominently in ongoing research. McQuillan (1996) found FVR to be related to vocabulary acquisition, positive attitudes toward reading, and amount of reading. Mason and Krashen (1997) reported gains in positive affect, reading ability, and writing. It is particularly noteworthy that some of these results were obtained from students considered "bad" and failures in English as a foreign language. Rodrigo (1995) found that, for learners of Spanish as a foreign language, extensive reading did the job of teaching reading plus having added benefits in enjoyment and motivation. "This made reading less detestable and, actually, fun," said one participant in the study (Rodrigo 1995:13).

Vocabulary acquisition. Several studies suggest that extensive reading should be an important component of vocabulary instruction so that students acquire not only word meanings but also an understanding of the properties of words in use. Zimmerman (1997) concludes in part that "students should be encouraged to adopt the habit of reading self-selected materials, based on the evidence that incremental knowledge of words may be gained from reading" (136–137). This conclusion is very much the same verdict reached by Ellis (1995) and Ooi and Kim-Seoh (1996), both pointing out the strong relation between vocabulary acquisition and reading.

Raptis (1997) argues that the relative effectiveness of incidental vs. conscious vocabulary learning is far from clear, but recent studies move away from an either-or orientation to explore how intentional and incidental learning can be blended for maximum efficiency. Morrison (1996) reports good results when pairs of students in reading classes thought aloud to each other. Chun and Plass (1996) found higher-than-expected levels of incidental vocabulary learning (about 25 percent chance of learning a word at first exposure rather than previous estimates of 5 percent to 20 percent) when easy-to-access, multimedia annotations were provided. Hulstijn, Hollander, and Greidanus (1996) also append ideas for materials development to their study, recommending that the texts students read be "interesting and motivating" (337); citing Haastrup (1989:43), they note that "Learners will always find out the meaning of words that are important to them" (1996:337).

Language learning. As some of the above studies suggest, the benefits of extensive reading can extend beyond improvements in reading ability. Nation (1997) provides a neat summary of studies indicating the general language learning benefits of extensive reading. In one of the studies he cites, Tsang (1996) found that extensive reading was tied to gains in writing and language use.

Nation also refers to Green and Oxford's (1995) study of language learning strategies and gender, for hidden away, unremarked, in a table in the middle of that study, are some important correlations: Reading for pleasure and reading without looking up all new words were two of the three learner strategies far and away most strongly linked to language proficiency (1995:280). These results echo a similar correlation between extra-curricular reading and proficiency found in an earlier study by Gradman and Hanania (1991). The links between extensive reading and proficiency may reflect the reality that the better one gets in a foreign language, the more there is available to read in the foreign language, the easier reading becomes, and the more reading a student therefore does. But knowing how many proficient people there are who choose not to read suggests that more is going on—something in the nature of what Dupuy, Tse, and Cook, (1996) call an "upward spiral of improvement" (1996:14), or what Day and Bamford (1998:30-31) describe and explain in their bookstrap hypothesis.

Reading beyond the classroom. The utility of the reading habit beyond the classroom is suggested in Pickard (1996). In this study, reading and listening were the most used out-of-class activities for maintaining or improving language ability because they were available, interesting, enjoyable, and motivating, and they allowed student autonomy. Pickard suggests that teacher training courses guide teachers in becoming effective facilitators of their students' out-of-class strategies (1996:158).

5. Teaching extensive reading

In part because of their student-centered nature, extensive reading programs are relatively complicated to organize. Is it really worth it? Davis (1995) poses just this question, and he responds that "any ESL, EFL, or L1 classroom will be poorer for the lack of an extensive reading programme of some kind.... This is true at every level" (1995:335). He goes on to offer much practical advice gained from extensive reading programs in Singapore and The Cameroon. Kim and Krashen (1997) warn, however, that FVR needs a conducive environment and sensitive orientation. Dupuy, Tse and Cook (1996) give detailed advice on how to provide these. Ways to stimulate reading among reluctant students are also discussed by Romney, Romney and Menzies (1995). According to Romney, *et al.*, "One child summed up what she would have liked to find on the library shelves: 'French books that are easy to read but interesting.' Unfortunately, the two characteristics are impossible to reconcile" (1995:487). However, Day and Bamford (1998:51–79) discuss at length just such an essential reconciliation as a basis for L2 extensive reading materials.

One staple of the extensive reading classroom is sustained silent reading. *The Reading Teacher*, a very practical, mainly L1 journal, marked its 50th anniversary in 1996 by reprinting classic articles, including one by Hunt (1970/1996–1997) which introduced the idea of sustained silent reading. Hunt counsels teachers to focus on student strengths, not shortcomings (for example, to focus not on the errors they make but on their search for meaning). He includes a valuable list of questions to ask individual students about their reading. Another of the reprinted classics is Samuels' (1979/1997) discussion of repeated readings, which was also usefully summarized by Anderson (1993:190–191). Among other extensive reading classroom staples is teacher read-alouds. A study by Amer (1997) finds that teachers reading aloud helps lower-level students develop healthy reading habits which in turn improve attitudes toward reading and motivations to read. A variety of other activities for extensive reading programs is introduced in Day and Bamford (1998) and in Jacobs, Davis and Renandya (1997).

Most inspiring of all may be Henry's (1995) *If not now: Developmental readers in the college classroom*. Henry, faced with preparing her students for academic reading, rejected conventional methodology which she felt had turned her students off reading in the first place, and instead did all she could to hook her students on books. She writes so well that you are there with her and her initially aliterate L1 students in their concrete barracks of a classroom, sipping caffeine-laced beverages, and reading Stephen King on a battered yellow couch. It is a volume as powerful and inspiring as it is enjoyable and instructive, which makes it a good choice for teacher read-aloud material in teacher preparation seminars. For a brief L2 version of the same perspective, see Constantino (1995).

THEORY, RESEARCH AND CLASSROOM PRACTICE

The importance of automaticity of word recognition and positive affect, and the various gains found in research studies, all suggest an important role for extensive reading in L2 reading instruction. Indeed, increased academic interest in extensive reading is evidenced by Reading Research Colloquia in 1995 at both the AAAL and TESOL conferences which featured discussions of extensive reading. And yet the field cannot rely on applied linguists to provide all the pedagogical answers. To take two examples of pedagogical suggestions that could be called into question, Paran (1996) and Koda (1996a; 1996b), although both stressing the importance of word recognition, have little (Paran) or nothing (Koda) to say about extensive reading. Paran does conclude that we must "have learners read as much as possible" (1996:30), but most of his pedagogical suggestions involve specially-created exercises to promote word recognition. Koda suggests a skills approach:

> We need to increase our students' visual exposure to L2 print in a variety of meaningful contexts and provide maximum processing opportunities in our classroom environment. We can for example integrate the four skill areas in our instruction so that students can experience the same instructional materials repeatedly through multi-sensory systems. We can also incorporate skills development for the functional application of their newly acquired second language knowledge. Our students, will benefit, for example, from exercises specifically designed to help them identify relevant knowledge sources in given processing components of reading and also from exercises which would provide them an easy and quick access to the target knowledge sources during comprehension (1996b, audio recording).

Yet a much stronger and pedagogically-sound case can be made that increased visual exposure to L2 print and maximum processing opportunities are best and most simply implemented by having students read, read, and read some more—one of the basic tenets of an extensive reading approach.

Rather than slavishly following the recommendations of applied linguists, L2 reading teachers can learn from experience and reflection. Like Henry, they can experiment with different approaches to discover what inspires, excites, and motivates their particular students to become people who actually read in the foreign or second language. In contrast to the orthodox view that pedagogy properly derives from theory and research, this suggests a more complex interplay among research, reading theory, and good classroom practice. For example, Brumfit (1996) makes the following suggestion with respect to pedagogical research:

> [Pedagogical reseach should be concerned with] understanding what the best practising teachers are doing, and accounting for what that is in terms

of the theories that are around derived from other language teaching situations, [and] from studies of language learning, sociolinguistics, and other relevant areas. I would not want to suggest that the process is entirely one way, from practice to theory, but I think it is more that direction than the reverse (1996:15).

CONCLUSION

As the 20th century gives way to the 21st century, there is indication that the dominance of the skills and strategies and the grammar-translation approaches is giving way to a more balanced approach to the teaching of L2 reading. Theory, research, and practice suggest that students need a rich variety of stimulating and comprehensible reading materials and pedagogical activities that reflect real-world reading to discover what L2 reading means to them, and to acquire the automatic word recognition skills that are the foundation of comprehension. Ultimately, it is people who can and do read that are most willing to learn strategies to enable them to become more skilled in doing the particular types of reading they wish to or need to do.

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The authors write from the assumption that reading teachers can use their own experiences as readers as a theoretical and pedagogical foundation for teaching others to read. The 11 chapters move from theory to practice, covering all aspects of planning reading courses and lessons, including the uses of literature and assessment. An innovative aspect of the book is the "teaching portfolio" in which readers are asked to record their work and ideas as they move through the volume, which aids in the reflective process. Since its basic orientation is a skills/strategies approach, the volume might be particularly useful for persons teaching or planning to teach in L2 academic preparation programs.

Cramer, E. H. and M. Castle (eds.) 1994. *Fostering the love of reading: The affective domain in reading education.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

This is one of the few books on affect and reading. While it focuses on the teaching and learning of L1 reading, there is much of relevance for the

L2 teacher working with children or adults. Of particular interest are the chapters by Nell ("The insatiable appetite"), Dwyer and Dwyer ("How teacher attitudes influence reading achievement"), Johns and VanLeirsburg ("Promoting the reading habit: Considerations and strategies"), Cramer ("Connecting in the classroom: Ideas from teachers"), Castle ("Helping children choose books"), and Heathington ("Affect versus skills: Choices for teachers").

Day, R. R. (ed.) 1993. *New ways in teaching reading.* Alexandria, VA: TESOL.

This is a collection of over 100 practical activities, all contributed by L2 reading teachers. The activities are divided into three sections: extensive reading, intensive reading, and oral reading. At first glance, the final section might strike teachers as unusual. But Helgesen, who contributed all of the activities in the last section, observes that oral reading is common in many L2 reading classrooms around the world. The activities are designed to help teachers move away from their traditional practices and take advantage of the usefulness of reading aloud.

Day, R. R. and J. Bamford. 1998. *Extensive reading in the second language classroom.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

This is the first book-length treatment of extensive reading in an L2 context. The volume consists of 15 chapters divided into three sections. The first section provides a theoretical foundation for extensive reading and includes a chapter on the affective aspects of second language reading. The second section presents a discussion of materials development in L2 reading and examines authenticity and simplification. The third section, more than half of the book's length, provides details on the practical aspects of an extensive reading approach, including setting up a program, creating an extensive reading library, choosing activities for the extensive reading classroom, and carrying out program evaluation. The appendix contains a bibliography of language learner literature in English from the work of David Hill and the Edinburgh Project on Extensive Reading.

Henry, J. 1995. *If not now: Developmental readers in the college classroom.* Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook Heinemann.

This book offers a compelling, first-hand account of a professor's experiences in teaching L1 developmental (i.e., remedial) reading. L2 reading teachers will find many parallels between their own and Henry's teaching situation, her students, her setbacks, and her successes. The author explains how she was led to reject a skills approach and adapt a reading workshop format in which her unmotivated and inexperienced reading students could read anything they wanted, as long as they read.

The book's emphasis is on the letters Henry and her students exchanged as they both developed these ideas and expertise—Henry, as a reading instructor, and her students, as motivated readers.

Hill, D. R. 1997. Survey review: Graded readers. *ELT Journal.* 51.57-81.

Hill doesn't pull any punches in his review of graded readers in English, updating and extending the assessments made in earlier articles published over the previous decade. Finding them, now more than ever, "the most versatile resource ever developed for teaching a language" (p. 57), he is forthright in pointing out the strengths and shortcomings of these books in terms of content, language, presentation, and—here he provides his most original insights—aids to reading. This review is must reading for anyone involved in extensive reading or interested in the development of reading materials for language learners. Hill concludes his review with six precepts to help publishers turn out the best possible graded readers.

Krashen, S. 1993. *The power of reading: Insights from the research.* Englewood, CO: Libraries Unlimited.

This short, reader-friendly book is a thorough and impassioned introduction to the benefits of free voluntary reading (FVR). Although the focus is on literacy in the United States, L2 teachers will relate to the arguments Krashen uses in support of FVR, for he is also making the point that "free reading in a second or foreign language is one of the best things an acquirer can do to bridge the gap from the beginning level to truly advanced levels of second language proficiency" (p. x). The first section of the book summarizes research findings, the second discusses a range of pedagogical issues such as motivation and materials, and a final section includes consideration of the links between reading and writing.

Nuttall, C. 1996. *Teaching reading skills in a foreign language.* 2nd ed. Oxford: Heinemann.

The 1982 classic has been revised, expanded, and up-dated to such an extent that owners of the original will want this new edition. It has a different organization (there are now three major sections with 14 chapters), a chapter by Charles Alderson on testing, and a more complete discussion of theoretical concerns. Its usefulness as a teacher training text is also enhanced by interactive activities scattered throughout and a list of further readings at the end of each chapter. Nuttall's strength is that her eclectic approach derives from what works in the classroom. This book makes a handy reference and guide for L2 reading teachers interested in a skills approach. Be advised, however, that its focus, as the author herself

points out, is "on ways of developing the reading skills of students at an intermediate level" (p. 19).

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