

UNIVERSITY OF CANBERRA
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**EFFECTIVE READING FOR
SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN TAIWAN**

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ABSTRACT

Reading has always received a great deal of attention at both junior and senior high schools in Taiwan. However, reading ability of English after six years' learning is not satisfactory. The main problem is that students do not read for the main idea nor for the relationships between sentences. In addition, English reading skills, even at the college level, are limited to referring to the dictionary and analyzing sentence structures. The purpose of the present study is to explore this area; in particular, to determine the causes of and to provide solutions to the problem of reading difficulty by conducting a content analysis.

This study focuses on a content analysis in four areas:(1) Analysis of reading comprehension questions, (2) analysis of gradation of readability, (3) analysis of gradation of structures, and (4) comparison of cohesive ties between Chinese and English written texts using similar topics.

The text samples to be examined included two areas: (1) Book Six of The Standard English Textbook. This is the final volume of the series currently prescribed for senior high schools in Taiwan, and (2) three texts written in Chinese and English, with similar topics. It is hoped that some implications will be drawn from this study for improving the effectiveness of teaching reading in English at the secondary level in Taiwan.

Lastly, I would like to express my heart-felt gratitude to my beloved wife, Yu-shin Chang and my sons, Shao-ting and Shao-hua, for their understanding and patience with my two years' study. Without their support, this study and my lifelong wish, self-actualization, could not have been fulfilled.

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The results of the study indicate that the reading comprehension questions in Book Six are mainly limited to literal comprehension, the lowest hierarchical level of reading skills. Results of the analysis of the texts of Lessons 1, 7, and 14 of Book Six indicate the lessons are graded according to level of readability and complexity of sentence structures.

Analysis of cohesive ties deployed in three texts with similar topics written in both Chinese and English are consistent with the comment by Dubin and Olshtain (1986:149) that the relations which hold elements in texts together are probably universal, yet the actual devices appear to be language specific.

The findings of the present study suggest that in the light of developing the students' reading skills, there is still room for improving the textbooks currently prescribed for senior high schools in Taiwan. Based on the findings, suggestions are made for improving the Series Textbooks. Moreover, reading lessons and pedagogical suggestions are offered for practical classroom reading instruction. It is hoped that all these will give some impetus to improving the effectiveness of teaching reading in Taiwan.

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

FIGURES

Figure 1: Smith's Psycholinguistic Model of Reading

Figure 2: Coady's Model

Figure 3: Word-attack Skills

Figure 4: Deduction, Initial Placement

Figure 5: Induction, Final Placement

Figure 6: Implied Main Idea

TABLES

Table 1: Analysis of Levels of Questions on the Reading
and Questions for Discussions

Table 2: Mean Number of Barrett's Taxonomy of Reading
Comprehension Questions

Table 3: Statistics for Analysis of Readability

Table 4: Analysis of Gradation of Structures

Table 5: Analysis of Grammatical and Lexical Cohesive
Ties in Selected Chinese and English Texts

Table 6: Mean Number of Grammatical and Lexical Cohesive
Ties in Selected Chinese and English Texts

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
ABSTRACT	vi
List of Illustrations	viii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Statement of the Problem	3
1.2. Purposes of the Study	4
1.3. Significance of the Study	5
1.4. Scope of the Study	8
1.5. Data Collection Procedures	9
1.5.1. Book Six	10
1.5.2. Three Texts with Similar Topics	10
1.6. Rationale for Data Analysis	10
1.6.1. Barrett's Taxonomy of Reading Comprehension Skills	10 11
1.6.2. Flesch Reading Ease Score	11
1.6.3. Comenius's Principles of Gradation	12
1.6.4. Halliday and Hasan's Coding System	13
1.7. Definitions of Terms	14
1.8. Summary	15
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	17
2.1. Efficient EFL Reading	17
2.1.1. Improving Reading Habits	17
2.1.2. Reading in Meaningful Segments	21
2.1.3. Reading for Purpose	22

2.2. Models of Reading Process	24
2.2.1. Psycholinguistic Model	25
2.2.2. Schema Theory Model	28
2.2.3. Interactive Model	29
2.3. Features of the Text	31
2.3.1. Cohesive Devices	33
2.3.2. Rhetorical Organisation	35
2.4. Summary	37
CHAPTER 3: DEVELOPING READING SKILLS	39
3.1. Surveying, Skimming and Scanning Skills	40
3.2. Anticipation and Prediction	43
3.3. Word-attack Skills	47
3.3.1. Using Syntactic Context Clues	48
3.3.2. Using Semantic Context Clues	49
3.3.3. Using Word-form Clues	52
3.4. Text-attack Skills	54
3.4.1. Understanding Paragraph Structure	55
3.4.2. Distinguishing Main from Supporting Ideas	56
3.4.3. Recognizing Discourse Markers	58
3.5. Developing Critical Reading	60
3.5.1. Recognizing Fact from Opinion	62
3.5.2. Recognizing Biased Statements	64
3.5.3. Recognizing the Writer's Intention and Attitude	66
3.6. Summary	67

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS	68
4.1. Analysis of Types of Reading Comprehension Questions	68
4.2. Analysis of Gradation of Readability	73
4.3. Analysis of Gradation of Structures	75
4.4. A Comparison of Cohesive Ties Between Chinese and English Written Texts	76
4.4.1. Findings and Discussions	76
4.4.2. Summary of Results	80
4.5. Summary	81
CHAPTER 5: IMPLICATIONS and SUGGESTIONS	83
5.1. Generalization of Results	83
5.2. Limitations of Book Six	84
5.3. Suggestions for Improving the Currently-used Textbooks	87
5.4. Suggestions for Reading Lessons	89
5.4.1. Making Reading Purposeful	89
5.4.2. Pre-reading Activity	91
5.4.3. While-reading Activity	95
5.4.4. After-reading Activity	99
5.5. Pedagogical Suggestions	101
5.6. Summary	105
BIBLIOGRAPHY	106
Appendix 1: Sample Text (Lesson 1, Book Six, Standard English Textbook Series)	113

Appendix 2: The Wind and the Sun	126
Appendix 3: Some Facts about Taiwan	127
Appendix 4: Keating Calls for Summits with Asia	128
Appendix 5: The Flesch Readability Formula	129
Appendix 6: Halliday and Hasan Modified Coding System	130

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

It is widely acknowledged that reading is a most important skill required in foreign language learning. As Nuttall (1982) points out, next to going to live among native speakers, the best way of acquiring proficiency in a language is to read extensively in that language. This is in accord with Rivers' comment that

the reading skill, once developed, is the one which can most easily be maintained at a high level by the students themselves without further help from a teacher. Through it, they can increase their knowledge and understanding of the culture of the speakers of the language, their ways of thinking, their contemporary activities, and their contributions to many fields of artistic and intellectual endeavour (Rivers, 1981:260).

In Taiwan reading has traditionally received more attention in the teaching of English than the other three language skills. Ironically, the idea that reading as a process and especially for comprehension would become problematic for students at college or university is not considered. It is assumed that when students enter tertiary education, they have developed effective reading skills. However, this is not so.

Two English teachers, Jie and Chen (1988), from Taiwan Tung-hai University, found that even at the college level, students do not read for the main idea nor for the relationship between sentences. More specifically, their English reading skills are still limited to relying heavily on using the dictionary and analyzing sentence structures to

determine the meaning of texts. This type of "cannot see the wood for the trees" reading often brings perplexity when students read textbooks written in English.

The official language spoken in Taiwan is Chinese (i.e., Mandarin). English, as a foreign language, plays a vital role in cultural and informational exchange, foreign trade, and national diplomacy. Therefore, English has been valued as a compulsory course in our educational curriculum, especially during the six years of secondary education.

In Taiwan, senior high school students intending to pursue their tertiary study must pass "The Joint College Entrance Examination". This examination consists of tests in five subjects; four of these are conducted in Mandarin and one in English. The test in English takes the form of written tests, primarily comprising reading comprehension, translation, and composition. This three-part format was developed in 1981 in order to improve teaching effectiveness and learning achievements. The principal reason given for the change was criticism from academic circles and the public about the narrow grammatical focus of the earlier test. However, listening ability and speaking are still not tested. Therefore, they are still being neglected in teaching. Current school textbooks, however, attempt to be communicative.

As far as the methods of English teaching are concerned, teachers rely heavily on the grammar-translation method. They rarely provide opportunities for students to

use English. This is particularly the case with teaching reading. For teaching reading, teachers place considerable emphasis on explanation of vocabulary and idiom using the medium of Chinese, as well as on analysis of sentence structures to help translation (Yeh, 1985).

This fixed method of English-teaching results in a problematic phenomenon: people in Taiwan in general spend many years studying English, but more often than not, they are not capable of actually communicating effectively in English. This also explains why students lack reading skills at tertiary level. Jie and Chen's finding is consistent with Huang's (1986:178) comment in his book published in 1986 that "the current teaching of reading is rather backward" . Professor Huang is one of the most highly-respected linguists teaching at Taiwan Normal University, which is considered to be the best institute in Taiwan for training English teachers.

Ironically, reading has long been emphasized, yet it is still problematic to the college students. This is why I have decided to explore the neglected area, of teaching reading efficiency, in order to improve the teaching effectiveness.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

This study aims to answer the following research questions:

- (1) Whether reading comprehension questions attached to each lesson in Book Six of the Standard English Textbook Series are appropriate to elicit reading comprehension in terms of Barrett's Taxonomy of reading skills. This series of textbooks is currently used in senior high schools across Taiwan.
- (2) Whether the readability of three reading texts selected from the beginning, middle, and end of Book Six are graded in terms of Flesch's Reading Ease Score.
- (3) Whether the structures of three reading texts selected from the beginning, middle, and end of Book Six are graded in terms of Comenius's principles of gradation.
- (4) Whether cohesive ties deployed in three texts with similar topics written in both Chinese and English are universal, yet language-specific.

Reasons for using the theories of Barrett, Flesch, and Comenius are given in Section 1.6.

1.2. Purposes of the Study

The purpose of this study is to contribute to the understanding of the reading process required for Taiwan senior high school students to read effectively. The study will be based on the following approaches:

- (1) presentation of a brief evolution of reading theory;
- (2) discussion of strategies for making the teaching of reading more effective;

(3) suggestions for improvements to the design of standard textbooks for teaching English in Taiwan;

(4) and finally suggestions for reading lessons and their pedagogy for foreign language teaching.

In order to achieve the purposes above, this field study focuses on the following two items:

(1) an examination of a series of senior high school textbooks used for teaching English to see if they are suitable for developing effective reading skills. For the specific purpose in this study, the writer undertook a detailed analysis of Book Six in the Standard English Series;

(2) examined three texts with similar topics written in Chinese and English for a comparison of cohesive ties between both these languages to see if there are any implications for foreign language teaching. The reason for doing this was that the teaching of cohesion has been neglected in the traditional grammar-translation method of language teaching. As a result, as Jie and Chen's report (1988) points out, students, even at the college level, do not understand the relationships between sentences. Hopefully, this comparative study will shed light on some implications for foreign language teaching of reading.

1.3. Significance of the Study

As already discussed, Taiwanese students experience significant difficulties with reading English textbooks. Even at tertiary level, when reading foreign textbooks, they

rely heavily on the dictionary and analyse sentence structures to facilitate translation. They do not develop the reading skills of guessing vocabulary from context or word forms. Nor do they develop skimming and scanning skills. Lack of reading skills can be attributed to the ineffectiveness of English-teaching. For example, because teachers lack a clear understanding of what is involved in students' learning of reading comprehension, they place much emphasis on vocabulary and structures, rather than requiring students to actively work out the text to develop their own skills.

Effective reading is a very important skill for non-native speakers. Next to going to live among native speakers, the best way of acquiring proficiency in a language is to read extensively in that language (Nuttall 1982). Indeed, in my country students seldom speak English outside the classroom; nor do they read in English outside class. Since not much English is spoken in Taiwan, reading in the language could be a valuable source of language input if reading skills were better developed.

For senior high school students, the ability to read well is the basis for success in school and afterwards. At present, senior high school education is supposed to be preparatory for college studies. In Taiwan, most college students are required to read textbooks in English. Since the textbooks are written for native speakers, they are comparatively difficult for Chinese students.

Another aspect of this study is that it can help those who intend to study abroad. When studying abroad, students are expected to read much more extensively for tutorials and essays than in Taiwan. So, efficient reading skills make it possible to get the main points from a book within a limited time. This study considers ways of improving reading efficiency.

Every year many Taiwanese students go abroad to study, especially in English-speaking countries. For example, in 1991, 11275 students went to America and 1380 students came to Australia (Australian Education Centre, Taipei, 1992). The number of students going abroad to study is increasing year by year. The main reason for this is that restrictions on senior high school students studying abroad were lifted in 1986. As a result, as long as they have finished their secondary education, Taiwanese students can make their own choice either to study at home or to study abroad. Since admission to Taiwan colleges and universities is limited to only about 35 % of those wishing to enter, the pressure on students to complete high school successfully is considerable. As admission to local universities is becoming more competitive, more students choose to study abroad (Australian Education Centre, Taipei, 1992).

Another important aspect of the study is the view that once the student's reading skills in L2 (English) have been developed, these skills can compensate for their deficiency in L1 (Chinese) reading. In general, reading skills are not emphasized in teaching Chinese reading. When teaching

Chinese, Chinese teachers require the students to read aloud and then the teacher explains deliberately key words or phrases to get across the passage. In the class, students may be invited to comment on "What is the main idea of the text?" or may be encouraged to write about "What one has learnt from the text?" However, students are not encouraged to preview the text in order to anticipate or predict what the text is about. It seems that reading acquisition in L1 is taken for granted, so reading strategies in L1 are not taught clearly. For this reason, students may not even be aware of their bad reading habits such as word-for-word reading and over-attention to language form instead of function, or to habits of starting to read page by page until they get bored. Therefore, if students' reading skills are better developed in L2, these skills can possibly be transferred to facilitate their L1 reading.

1.4. Scope of the Study

This study focuses on a content analysis of text samples, using Book Six, the final book, of The Standard English Textbook Series, and also three texts with similar topics written in Chinese and English. The selection of written items is discussed in section 1.5.2. A sample lesson from Book Six is given in appendix 1 to illustrate the format of the materials. Three texts with similar topics written in Chinese and English for a comparison of cohesive ties between both languages are shown in appendices (2, 3, and 4, respectively).

The Standard English Textbook Series comprise students' books and teachers' manuals. In examining Book Six, the writer looked at both the student's book and the teacher's manual by undertaking the three analyses of: (1) reading comprehension questions, (2) gradation of structures, and (3) gradation of readability. The bases for these analyses are discussed in sections 1.6.1., 1.6.2., and 1.6.3.

The three texts with similar topics written in Chinese and English are analysed to examine whether all types or subtypes of cohesive ties as listed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) were deployed in both languages and to see if there are any implications for foreign language teaching (see Section 1.6.4.).

1.5. Data Collections Procedures

1.5.1. Book Six

Considering an analysis of types of questions, all the reading comprehension questions in Book Six (i.e., Lessons 1-14) were examined on the basis of Barrett's Taxonomy of reading comprehension. As for analyses of readability and structures, three lessons in Book 6 were examined: Lessons 1, 7, and 14. They were selected from the beginning, the middle, and the end of the book. The purpose of examining readability and structures was to see if they met the criteria in terms of Comenius's principles of gradation. Comenius's main principle was that

knowledge must necessarily come in successive steps, and that proficiency could be obtained only by degrees (Comenius quoted in Mackey, 1972:204).

1.5.2. Three Texts with Similar Topics

The approach of the writer was to analyse samples of texts in two languages, using similar topics for a comparison of cohesive ties between Chinese and English. The analysis of the three texts is based on Halliday and Hasan's Coding System, which has been adapted by the writer. This modification is discussed in Section 1.6.4.

The three text samples were from literature, academic writing, and politics. From literature the text samples studied were Aesop's Fables (English) and Folk Tales (Chinese). Samples of academic materials were taken from "Some Facts About Taiwan" (English) from Book Two of the Standard English Textbook Series and "Taiwan's Natural Environment" (Chinese) from a publication on environmental research. The samples of political text were from a newspaper article on the Prime Minister of Australia, Mr. Paul Keating, which appeared in "The Australian" and a copy of the same article which appeared in "the Australian Chinese Daily".

1.6. Rationale for Data Analysis

1.6.1. Barrett's Taxonomy of Reading Comprehension

The examination of the "Questions on the Reading" and "Questions for Discussion" sections attached to each lesson

in Book 6 for this study was based on The Barrett Taxonomy of Reading Comprehension Skills (1976) because this Taxonomy is readily applicable. Barrett identifies five levels of comprehension.

1. **Literal**
Literal comprehension focuses on information which is explicitly stated in the text.
2. **Reorganization**
At this level, the student has to organize for himself some of the information explicitly expressed. He may have to summarize information or handle it in a different sequence.
3. **Inferential**
Here the student is required to go beyond the immediate text. He has to make use of his own experience and intuition, and possibly predict outcomes.
4. **Evaluative**
This level of response requires the student to make judgements. These may require him to make use of his own knowledge of a particular subject.
5. **Appreciative**
At this advanced level of response to a text the student has to be emotionally and aesthetically sensitive to what he is reading. It also requires some appreciation of literary techniques (Barrett, quoted in Hubbard 1983:266).

1.6.2. Flesch Reading Ease Score

The interpretation of readability of a text was based on Flesch's Reading Ease Score (1948) because the researcher had access to a computer program (Grammatik V) which used the Flesch formula. Readability statistics are one measure of how effectively a piece of writing is (Grammatik V, 1992:100). According to the Flesch formula, average sentence length and number of syllables per word are important (see appendix 5).

The Flesch Reading Ease score is on a scale of 0-100. The lower the score, the more difficult the writing is to read. The following table interprets the score:

Score	Reading Difficulty
90-100	Very easy
80-90	Easy
70-80	Fairly Easy
60-70	Standard
50-60	Fairly difficult
30-50	Difficult
0-30	Very difficult

(Grammatik V, 1992:101)

1.6.3. Comenius's Principles of Gradation

The examination of structures was based on Comenius's Principles of Gradation which are readily applicable. Four types of sentence structures were taken into account: (1) Simple Sentences, (2) Compound Sentences, (3) Complex Sentences, and (4) Compound-Complex Sentences.

Comenius (cited in Mackey 1972:204-205) claims that systematic gradation reduces the difficulties of language learning by distributing the extensive materials of a language into steps arranged "in specially prepared texts in which everything progressed not by leaps and bounds, but gradually".

1.6.4. Halliday and Hasan's Coding System

The three texts with similar topics written in Chinese and English were analysed to examine whether all types or subtypes of cohesive ties were deployed in both languages and to see if there were any implications for foreign language teaching.

In order to achieve this end in the study, the writer used the Halliday and Hasan coding system of cohesive ties, but included intrasentential cohesion (1976). Halliday and Hasan confined their analysis to intersentential relations.

The modification to the Halliday and Hasan work is based on the fact that cohesive ties exist within the boundaries of a single sentence (i.e., intrasententially) as well as between sentences (i.e., intersententially), and their cohesive devices are important for efficient reading. The following two examples illustrate this:

- (1) Mary promised to send a picture of the children, but she hasn't done so. ('Mary' and 'she' with a intrasentential cohesive relation)
- (2) Did the gardener water the plants? He said so. ("the gardener" and "he" with a intersentential cohesive relation)

The detailed coding system of cohesive ties employed in this study is illustrated in appendix 6.

1.7. Definitions of Terms

The definitions of often used terms in this study are provided as follows:

EFL is the short form for "English as a Foreign Language".

It refers to the case in which English is taught to or learned by native speakers of other languages for certain official, social, commercial or educational activities within their own country (Huang, cited in Yeh, 1985). EFL teaching and learning are somewhat different from teaching or learning English as native tongue. The Chinese students mentioned in the present study are, by definition, EFL learners.

Simple Sentence: A simple sentence contains only one independent clause and no subordinate clauses. In most cases, it has one subject and one predicate. However, imperative sentences belong to this pattern because the subject "you" is implicit. On the other hand, a simple sentence may contain compound subjects or verbs, since a compound subject is considered one subject and a compound verb is considered one verb.

Compound Sentences: A compound sentence contains more than one independent clause but no subordinate clauses. Example: Some jobs pay well and some don't.

Complex Sentences: A complex sentence contains a sentence with only one independent clause and at least one subordinate clause. Example: Although it is windy, it is not cold.

Compound-Complex Sentences: A compound-complex sentence contains more than one independent clause and at least one subordinate clause. Example: Although it is windy, it is not cold and the sun is shining.

Cohesion: A constitutive property of discourse whereby elements of a text are explicitly linked together.

Text: A text is composed of a number of sentences organized to carry a coherently structured message.

Cohesive tie: A semantic relation between an element in a text and some other element that is relevant to the interpretation of it.

1.8. Summary

Reading has always received much attention at both junior and senior schools. However, the reading ability of Chinese students of English as a foreign language after six years' learning is not satisfactory. The present study attempts to explore this issue, which was not considered problematic before.

In this Chapter, a general introduction to the present study has been provided. It includes an introduction of the background of English-teaching in Taiwan, statement of the

problem, purposes, significance, scope, sampling procedures and rationale for data analysis of the present study.

Chapter 2 will review the related literature on reading processes mainly concerning three commonly accepted models: the psycholinguistic, schema-theory, and interactive models. In Chapter 3, several major reading skills are presented for facilitating reading efficiency. Analysis of texts and the results are discussed in Chapter 4.

Finally, Chapter 5 deals with pedagogical implications drawn from the findings, a discussion of the limitations of the present study, and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Reading problems have persisted even at the college level for Taiwanese students. These problems could stem from the ineffectiveness of teaching of reading as well as from lack of the notion of the nature of reading. Thus, this chapter presents theoretical issues concerning efficient reading such as improving reading habits, reading in meaningful units, and reading for purpose. Then, three commonly accepted reading models are introduced to facilitate the understanding of the reading process. Finally, textual features are discussed in order to illustrate how the text "hangs together".

2.1. Efficient EFL Reading

2.1.1. Improving Reading Habits

Studies show that many students read in ways that take time and effort without obtaining positive results (Lenier and Maker, 1985). Such students frequently read a chapter or article word by word. This habit can be attributed to the way they read in their mother language. That is, there is a strong transfer of reading habits from one language to another. Nuttall (1982) has suggested that this is an impediment to the development of efficient reading in the foreign language.

In this section, the writer will discuss the transfer of three reading habits from L1 (Chinese) to L2

(English). These habits are: (1) an over-emphasis on language form, (2) subvocalization, and (3) the over-reliance on the use of a dictionary.

L1 orthographic structures have a strong influence on cognitive strategies used in L2 reading (Koda, 1990:404). The Chinese language uses a pictographic written system. When studying Chinese characters, Chinese students are encouraged to pay attention to the accuracy of characters. Because of this, students pay much more attention to language form rather than language meaning.

Besides, according to Swan and Smith (1987), the way the information is "spread out" in each Chinese character may take the reader a relatively long time to identify the information. Since English words take up more horizontal space than they do in Chinese, the eye cannot take in so much text at a time. Therefore, Chinese students tend to be slow readers of English. Chinese students should be aware that they need to change their word-by-word reading habits when tackling an English text or any other text using alphabetical systems.

Another reading habit that needs to be changed is "subvocalization" (i.e., saying words to oneself when reading). The habit stems from the practice of reading aloud in Chinese. For example, Hu (1989:172) states that only after one has learnt how to convey one's thoughts in a language can one use words to express one's self. He adds that the process of learning Chinese, especially in

primary education, is to help students to be able to speak first, then to teach them to recognize characters. Therefore, when teaching reading, we start with reading aloud and proceed to silent reading.

This reading habit may also be employed in learning English. As Nuttall (1982:37) states, there is a strong transfer of reading habits from one language to another. Because of the over-application of reading aloud in the new language, learners tend to make more eye movements in reading. They subvocalize the text, and read word by word instead of searching for sense groups(i.e., meaningful units). The overall effect of this habit is a slow-down in reading (Nicholas, 1989).

Additionally, Taiwanese students rely heavily on the use of a dictionary to determine the exact meaning of every word. The reason for this is that students are encouraged to use a dictionary when coming across unfamiliar words. This situation occurs not only in Chinese lessons but also in English ones. For example, the first lesson in Book One of the Standard English Textbook Series advises students that the best way to learn to read is as follows:

When we find a new word, we can look it up in our dictionary. Our dictionary is our most useful book (Book One, 1988:3).

Obviously, this can explain why students, even at college level, do not read the relationships between sentences, as Jie and Chen's finding mentioned earlier.

Heavy reliance on the dictionary can not only slow down the speed of reading, but more seriously interrupt thought processes and context as well (Nuttall 1982). In fact, in L1 reading, learners of English have acquired the almost unconscious habit of guessing the meaning of words based on the context and cohesive devices.

A useful example to illustrate the above point is provided by Yue (1989). Yue explains that in the sentence "The Indians cut their canoes out of tree trunks by using an adze", the meaning of the word adze can be deduced from the meaning of the whole sentence. It must be a kind of tool for cutting, something like an axe. So it is suggested that the reader should not depend heavily on a dictionary as in the past, but rather try to work out the meanings of new words from every possible clue, such as context clues. These skills will be discussed in the next chapter.

If readers possess the poor reading habits mentioned above, they tend to read verbatim instead of in meaningful units. In order to read efficiently, fewer eye movements should be made in reading. Also, turning the head from side to side or pointing at the line with a finger or a pencil should be avoided. Because reading is a mental process, extra body movements can help neither speed nor comprehension (Fry, 1963:9). If these reading habits can be changed, a reader will read more effectively.

2.1.2. Reading in Meaningful Segments

A poor reader frequently fails to recognize meaningful units in a text as a result of reading word-by-word. However, according to Fry, many individual words have almost no meaning on their own. That is, they make sense only when seen in the context of a whole sentence. Therefore, in order to read more effectively, learners should learn to read in meaningful segments instead of in isolated words.

The literature also suggests that there is a direct relationship between comprehension and the speed of reading (Rudd, 1969:231). The more words readers can see and comprehend at a time, the greater will be their reading speed and the greater will be comprehension (Yue, 1989). As a result, in reading classes, students should learn how to break up sentences or passages into several meaningful units by drawing slashes at boundaries. The following example is suggested by Nuttall (1982:33):

"The good old man/raised his hand/in blessing."

rather than

"The good/old man/raised his/hand in/blessing."

The above sentence should be divided into three rather than five meaningful units. Through the awareness of this skill, the student may become more sensitive to sense groups when dealing with a text. Once the larger sense groups can be recognized and understood, the

better will be the student's speed of reading and comprehension.

2.1.3. Reading for Purpose

One key to efficient reading is the suggestion by Champeau de Lopez (1986) that before beginning to read any text—a book, a magazine or journal article — one should ask oneself two questions:

- (1) What is my purpose in reading this text?
 - (2) What type of writing is this?
- (Champeau de Lopez, 1986:17)

The first question determines reading technique and speed; the second, what one can skim over first and what one must attend to in detail later. According to Champeau de Lopez, in a newspaper article (a news story), the most important information is found at the beginning of the article, usually in the first paragraph. The information toward the end of the article is generally "filler". By contrast, in a technical report, the most important information may well be the last paragraph, where the author summarises the article and gives his conclusions.

Therefore, the key to efficient reading is to spend the right amount of time to think before reading. Because of this, we should not treat all types of materials in the same way. Then we can choose the relevant reading skills to deal with them.

Research has shown that one of the characteristics of a good reader is flexibility (Nuttall, 1982:34). That

is, when tackling the text, efficient readers tend to vary their speed and manner of reading to suit their purpose. For example, when reading crucial materials such as legal documents, careful attention needs to be given to each word. Naturally, the speed of reading is slowed down in order not to miss a single point. By contrast, when reading a novel for pleasure, one does not need to read everything or give equal weight to each word. As a result, the purpose will usually determine the choice of speed and the manner of reading. This also makes reading purposeful and more effective.

A useful approach to efficient reading for the second language reader, as suggested by Eskey (1983), is the ancient and venerable SQ3R technique, which is important for helping any reader to establish appropriate expectations for the text, and these form the basis for the reader's successful predictions as he or she reads. The SQ3R technique (originally described by Robinson, 1946) consists of five steps: Survey (S), Question (Q), Read (R), Recall (R), and Review (R). In this technique, the reader should:

First, survey the article, looking at title, subheadings, illustrations, etc., and perhaps reading the first and last paragraphs and first and last sentences of each paragraph, in order to get an overview of the article. Next, he asks himself questions based on his survey, and reads for the specific purpose of seeking the answer to those questions. Then, he reads the article through, trying to understand the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context as much as possible. After finishing the reading,

he tries to answer the questions he asked himself before reading it; if necessary, he can scan the passage to find the answers. He can later review the article to help him retain the information in it (Eskey, 1983:4).

This technique has been expanded into SQ4R and shown in Richards' observation of a reading lesson (1990). The extension of this is "Reflect". The SQ4R technique is employed in an extensive reading activity. The students are asked to read a chapter on the Cultural Revolution in China in a textbook. The application of this extension is introduced below:

Reflect: After reading the chapter, the student reflects on how useful the information will be. The student pays attention to the connections between the chapter and the student's own knowledge so that it can be remembered when needed (Richards, 1990:94).

This clear-cut conceptualization of reading for purpose is an effective approach to dealing with the text. EFL learners and teachers would find this useful.

2.2. Models of Reading Process

Over the past two decades, advances in psychology, discourse analysis, linguistics, and sociology have increased our understanding of the complex process involved in reading. From the integration of knowledge on the reading process, different models of the reading process have emerged. The three most influential models are: the psycholinguistic model, the schema-theory model, and the interactive model (Williams and Moran, 1989:217).

2.2.1. Psycholinguistic Model

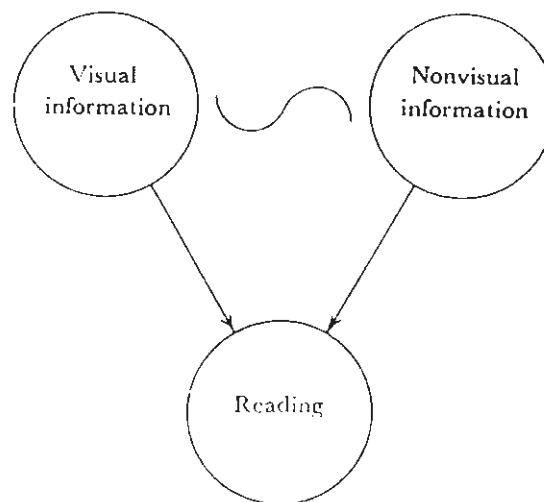
The conceptual model of reading mainly derives from two psycholinguists, Goodman and Smith, and was elaborated by Coady.

The model proposed by Goodman (1967) treats reading as a "psycholinguistic guessing game." In this model, readers play a guessing game with the writer. In order to understand the text, they make and confirm predictions of the meanings from the graphic code by using all their prior knowledge of the language (i.e., semantic, syntactic, and graphonemic systems). Besides, Goodman emphasizes that efficient reading results from guessing correctly with minimal text cues (i.e., sampling), but not from precise perception and identification of all elements.

Goodman describes the reading processes as cycles of: sampling, predicting, testing, and confirming. For example, as we know, when reading a text, we unconsciously make predictions about the meaning of the coming text. These predictions are based on what we have sampled and our prior knowledge. Then we test our predictions by reading more text to see if our predictions are correct. The additional text either confirms or rejects our predictions. If confirmed, we read on, and if rejected, we revise our predictions.

This psycholinguistic view of reading is elaborated by Smith (1971). According to Smith, two kinds of

information are involved in actual reading- visual information and non-visual information. The former is what we obtain from the printed text; that is, it is picked up by the eyes. The latter includes an understanding of the relevant language, familiarity with the topic, and some general ability in reading such as a knowledge of how to read, and our knowledge of the world. This non-visual information is already in our head, behind the eyes. A reciprocal relationship exists between the two kinds of information, described and represented as in the diagram below:



The more nonvisual information you have when you read, the less visual information you need.

The less nonvisual information you have when you read, the more visual information you need. (Smith, 1971:14).

Figure 1: Smith's Psycholinguistic Model of Reading

From Smith's description of reading, the conclusion can be made that what the brain tells the eyes, i.e., non-visual information is much more important than what the eyes tell the brain, i.e., visual information.

In 1979, adapting and following Goodman's psycholinguistic model, Coady (1979) has suggested a model of efficient EFL reading. That is, efficient reading involves a successful interaction between background knowledge and conceptual abilities and process strategies. The following diagram represents an interaction of three key elements of the Coady model.

Coady's(1979) Model of the ESL Reader

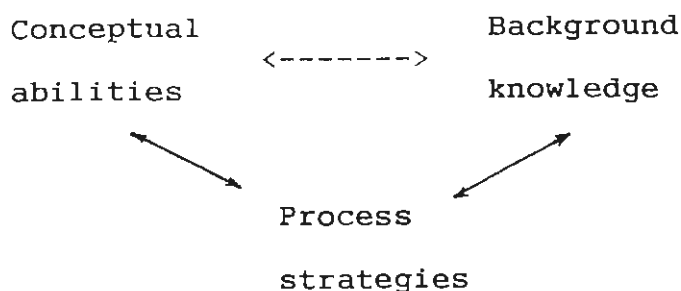


Figure 2: Coady's Model

More precisely, for successful reading, readers must relate their background knowledge of the world to their conceptual abilities (i.e., intellectual capacity such as analysis, synthesis, and inference) and process strategies (i.e., knowledge of grapheme-morphophoneme correspondences, syllable-morpheme information, syntactic information-deep and surface, lexical meaning, contextual meaning, and cognitive strategies (Coady quoted in Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983)).

It is obvious from the above discussion that successful reading at all levels entails the cognitive processes. In addition, skill in reading depends on the

efficient interaction between linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world.

The role of background knowledge of the world in language comprehension has been formalized as a schema theory model.

2.2.2. Schema-Theory Model

Unlike the psycholinguistic model of reading limited to linguistic knowledge as mentioned above, schema-theory is primarily concerned with the reader's knowledge of the world in the reading process.

The schema-theory model of reading deals with three types of knowledge involved in the reading process: background knowledge of language (henceforth, linguistic schemata) content areas of the text (henceforth, content schemata), and rhetorical structures of the text(henceforth, formal schemata).

According to Eskey (1973), the decoding process of reconstructing the writer's intended meaning via linguistic knowledge was inadequate as a model of the reading process because it underestimated the contribution of the reader; it failed to recognize that students utilize their expectations about the text, based on their knowledge of language and how it works.

Carrell (1983b) points out that the roles of background knowledge in reading comprehension are formal

schemata and content schemata. Formal schemata refer to background knowledge of the rhetorical organizational structures of different types of texts. Content schemata is the background knowledge of the content area of a text. Therefore, lack of appropriate schemata may result in ineffective reading. Formal schemata (i.e., textual features) will be discussed in the following section.

Noticeably, studies indicate that a content schema is culturally specific to readers; lack of it makes a text harder to read and understand (Steffensen, Joag-dev, and Anderson, 1979; Johnson, 1981; and Carrell, 1981a). Rivers (1968) also recognized that the strong bond between culture and language had to be maintained for a non-native reader to have a complete understanding of the meaning of a text (quoted in Carrell et al., 1988).

From the above discussions, EFL readers should be aware that reading is, on the one hand, a highly interactive process between themselves and their prior background knowledge and the text itself, on the other hand. This current "interactive model of reading" sheds light on the important role of cognition in an interaction between the reader and the text.

2.2.3. Interactive Model

The prevailing view of reading from the research literature is that it is an interactive process. This view is perhaps best summarized by Richards (1990:87) as follows:

Reading is no longer viewed as a process of decoding, but rather as an integration of top-down processes that utilize background knowledge and schema, as well as bottom-up processes that are primarily text or data driven (Carrell, Devine, and Eskey, 1988).

The bottom-up processing referred to above is a passive linguistic decoding process. In reading, this means constructing the author's intended meaning by recognising the printed symbols, and building up meaning from the smallest units such as letters and words to larger and larger units such as phrases, sentences, and paragraphs.

The top-down processing refers to an active, predictive process. This means the use of background knowledge in understanding the meaning of a message. Background knowledge may take several forms of schemata. It may be the reader's prior knowledge of language (i.e., linguistic schemata). It may be the knowledge of the content area of the text (i.e., content schemata), or the rhetorical structure of the text (i.e., formal schemata).

This reconceptualization of reading has an enlightening implication for teachers and learners. More precisely, to facilitate bottom-up skills, teachers should improve their students' grammatical skills and vocabulary development. On the other hand, for top-down processing, teachers should activate the background knowledge from formal and content schemata when teaching reading (Carrell et al., 1988).

Because of the formal schemata involved in reading, this brings us next to discuss textual features.

2.3. Features of the Text

Most senior high school graduates in Taiwan wish to study at university or college. More and more students pursue their tertiary study in English-speaking countries. Tertiary students encounter textbooks and journals which are written in expository prose. The ideas are unified and presented coherently. For this reason, it is important that they understand how an academic text is organized.

English organization demands that a text has two important characteristics: unity and coherence (Bander, 1971). A text may consist of many kinds of paragraphs. Each paragraph involves only a single topic (often called the main idea or topic sentence). All the other relevant sentences (often called supporting details) in the text expand, illustrate, and/or explain the main idea. It is because each paragraph carries a main idea and is related to the others that the text is developed in a form which displays unity and coherence.

Commonly the ideas presented in an academic text are coherently organized according to the sequence of introduction, development (body), and conclusion, and are developed in four universal ways to suit the particular communicative purposes.

The four forms of writing are: (1) narration, which tells a story or relates a sequence of events in chronological order; (2) description, which describes a person, a place, or an object, and a personal sensation or emotion; (3) exposition, which explains or interprets a process, a definition, a direction, or some factual information; (4) argumentation, which discusses or debates a topic.

Eight techniques used for paragraph developments are: (1) exemplification, (2) contrast, (3) comparison, (4) enumeration, (5) chronology, (6) causality, (7) process, and (8) spatial order (Arnaudet and Barrett, 1984:28). A good writer usually combines a variety of techniques to develop ideas. These techniques are helpful for non-native learners to understand how English texts are organized.

Text analysis is one of the three elements for successful reading. An understanding of textual features (i.e., cohesive devices and rhetorical organizations) as well as their uses in the text is central to understanding its discourse - the way the meanings in a text are organised to convey the message (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986). Therefore, textual features are discussed below.

2.3.1. Cohesive Devices

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), a text coheres through the semantic relations within it. These relations are cohesive because they create the conditions by which a text becomes a connected sequence of sentences. The text is linked semantically and becomes easier to understand through the use of cohesive ties such as lexical and grammatical elements.

Five types of cohesive devices are identified: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion.

- (1) Reference: The students did not attend the party because they wanted to finish their assignments.
- (2) Substitution: "Who broke the window ?" "I think John did."
- (3) Ellipsis: "Gill likes the green ties." "I prefer the blue (ties)."
- (4) Conjunction: He would like to go, but he can't.
- (5) Lexical: He often travels to Sydney for pleasure. This city is one of his favourites.

According to Cook (1989), the neglect of teaching of cohesion affects production and processing. In production, the result of this neglect is the creation of a stretch of language in which each sentence, in isolation, is faultless, yet the total effect is incoherent. In processing, there is an understanding of

every word and every construction in each individual sentence, but no understanding of the whole text.

Based on a survey of "Textual Cohesion and the Chinese Speaker of English", Johns(1984) discovered that reference and adversative conjuncts are identified as the most problematic cohesive devices. Johns concluded from his detailed observation of Chinese ESL writers that the belief in

"sentence as L" (language) rather than "text as L" is strongly held by most students and teachers of English and other foreign languages (Johns, 1984:69).

Johns also found that as a result of this situation, Chinese speakers of English are uncomfortable with writing in English because they

have not been taught to look at the text as a whole or at these features that provide links between sentences in texts(Johns, 1984:69).

Similarly, Cohen and his colleagues (quoted in Steffensen, 1988:140) found that foreign readers of English in science and economics did not "pick up on conjunctive words in their specialised texts." They proposed that non-native speakers read more "locally" than native speakers and that, because they do not attend to conjunctive ties, they

have trouble synthesizing the information at the intra- and intersentential level as well as across paragraph.

In order to obtain a deeper understanding of how a text "hangs together", the writer undertook an empirical study of cohesive ties between Chinese and English (see Chapter 4, 4.4.). Hopefully, this study will make EFL teachers of Chinese students aware of the difficulties experienced by Chinese learners in understanding English texts.

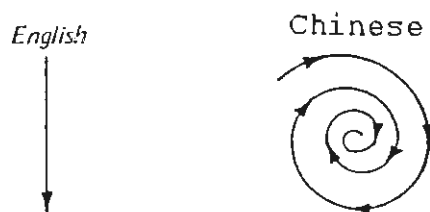
2.3.2. Rhetorical Organisations

According to Carrell (1985:727),

recent research has shown that the rhetorical organization of narrative and expository texts interacts with the reader's formal schemata - that is, the reader's background knowledge of and experience with textual organization- to affect reading comprehension.

Kaplan (1972) claims that second language learners writing expository prose in English will show organizational patterns different from those of native speakers. He explains that the learner is transferring rhetorical organization from the mother tongue and culture. This also applies to Chinese students.

For example, comparing the development of paragraphs between Chinese and English, Kaplan maintains that there is a difference in directness. That is, English natives expect a pattern of paragraph development that is essentially linear and direct. By contrast, the typical Chinese paragraph has a circular pattern of development. This different way of paragraph development can be graphically shown and described below:



The development of the paragraph may be said to be "turning and turning in a widening gyro." The circles or gyres turn around the subject and show it from a variety of tangential views, but the subject is never looked at directly. Things are developed in terms of what they are not, rather than in terms of what they are. Again, such a development in a modern English paragraph would strike the English reader as awkward and unnecessarily indirect (Kaplan, 1972:301).

A specific example of the difference in rhetoric between English and Chinese written request schema was provided by Kirkpatrick at the Applied Language and Linguistics of Australia Conference in Sydney (1992). His conclusion was:

The preferred schema of requests in English follows the propositional structure of request --> reason(s). By contrast, the preferred schema in Mandarin follows the reverse schema of:
Reasons/ Explanations/ Justifications (for Request)
(Kirkpatrick, 1992)

The preferred schema in the letters of request analyzed by Kirkpatrick is different from the preferred schema in "Western" letters of request. Students of Chinese need, therefore, to learn the "Western" schema. When making a request in Chinese, if they were to leave out the facework and place the request at the beginning of the letter and before the reasons for it, they might

be perceived as being abrupt or even rude by Chinese speakers (Kirkpatrick, 1992). In contrast, if they use Chinese schema when making requests in English, they might be perceived as taking a long time in getting to the point.

From the above discussion, it is clear that rhetorical patterns in reading should be emphasized. According to reading researchers (Smith, 1967; Strang & Rogers, 1965), mature native readers are able to adjust their reading skills to the different styles of writing, but non-native readers, because of lack of knowledge of the rhetorical structures together with little exposure to and experience of different textual styles, will experience significant difficulty in understanding textual messages in English. EFL teachers of Chinese students should be aware of this. Techniques for reinforcing rhetoric organizations (i.e., text-attack skills) in reading classes will be discussed in the next chapter.

2.4. Summary

It should be emphasized that reading is an active process of reconstructing meaning through interaction with a written text. In order to reconstruct meaning efficiently, readers must draw heavily on their knowledge of the relevant language, on an understanding of textual features, and on their knowledge of the world.

Because students' comprehension of the written text varies according to their background knowledge of textual features and various content areas of texts, teachers can help them read better by providing background information or activating their background knowledge on the subject matter of the text in reading classes.

CHAPTER 3

DEVELOPING READING SKILLS

In Taiwan even college students are deficient in English reading skills, and often they do not know what reading comprehension is. Therefore, the development of reading skills should play a vital role in current Chinese EFL teaching. This is necessary to assist them to obtain the skills to become effective independent readers.

According to Dubin and Olshtain (1986), successful reading strategies are one of the three elements for coping with reading materials which are written for second and foreign language learners. They also add that the nature of successful reading includes using a wide variety of coping strategies.

Theorists and specialists have different definitions of reading skills. However, they agree that reading involves a variety of skills. For example, some state that there are thirty-six comprehension skills (Friedman and Rowls, 1980:163), whereas others indicate that efficient reading requires nineteen main skills (Grellet, 1981:5).

Obviously, the components of reading skills have such a broad range that it is impossible to discuss all of them in detail in this study. With regard to efficient reading in the current teaching of English in Taiwan, this section will focus on the following five major items:

- (1) Surveying, skimming, and scanning skills,
- (2) Anticipation and prediction,
- (3) Word-attack skills,
- (4) Text-attack skills,
- (5) And critical reading skills.

3.1. Surveying, Skimming and Scanning Skills

Effective reading, as discussed earlier, depends primarily on having a purpose for reading. Therefore, the teacher's job is to help students identify the different purposes and to master the strategies which can be best fitted for achieving those purposes. Precisely, EFL teachers should use reading lessons to develop students' reading proficiency rather than improve linguistic competence.

Three strategies that readers need for reading effectively with a clear purpose are surveying, skimming, and scanning, as suggested by Hyland (1990). The use of these techniques varies according to the purposes for reading. For example, surveying is primarily to obtain a general content outline; skimming, to extract key ideas and gist, and scanning, to search for a specific idea, fact, or detail.

The technique of surveying is to quickly and efficiently preview text content and organization using referencing and non-text material. This strategy basically involves a quick check of the relevant extra-text categories as listed below:

- (1) Reference Data - e.g., title, author, copyright date, blurb, table of contents, chapter or article summaries, subheadings, etc.
- (2) Graphical Data-diagrams, illustrations, tables, maps.
- (3) Typographical Data-all features that help information stand out, including typefaces, spacing, enumeration, underlining, indentation, etc. (Hyland,1990:15).

In order to assist students to obtain the strategy just mentioned above, the teacher can explain clearly to them in any reading lesson, where necessary - the notion "Knowing how to make use of extra-text relevant information may lead to reading efficiency." After that, the teacher can provide the activity or practice for surveying a book, an article, or a chapter.

To achieve the purpose, the following approaches provided by Hyland are useful to help students to facilitate their understanding the benefit of surveying.

Approaches:

1. Predicting content from titles and tables and contents.
2. Matching texts with the correct summaries or diagrams.
3. Predicting which chapters contain answers to given questions, based on chapter titles.
4. Deciding which article can best answer a given question based on a choice of article summaries.
5. Deciding which books on a reading list would be most relevant for a particular researched essay topic (Hyland,1990:16).

In addition, surveying can utilize skimming techniques by looking at the first and last paragraphs and first and last sentences of each paragraph, in order to get an overview of the article. This method of coping with texts purposefully has already been discussed earlier in the SQ3R technique.

Other useful activities in the use of non-text information are provided by Nuttall (1982: 53-64).

A second valuable strategy, skimming, refers to running one's eyes quickly across the lines to obtain a superficial understanding of what the text is about (Oner and Yeo, 1991). More precisely, skimming is a strategy for extracting the gist or main points from a text. According to Hyland (1990), about 75% of the text is discarded in the use of this technique. By skimming material, readers can determine whether it is relevant for more detailed reading. The following useful approaches to skimming are provided by Hyland.

Approaches:

- (1) Ask students to find the misplaced sentence in a paragraph. This develops awareness of topic sentences and paragraph coherence.
- (2) Further practice can entail the reconstruction of paragraphs from component sentences.
- (3) Provide several newspaper or magazine articles on the same subject, and ask students which ones deal with a particular aspect of the topic.
- (4) Have students match a short text with a headline or picture.
- (5) Ask students to give titles to short texts.
- (6) Have students fit topic sentences with particular paragraphs.
- (7) Provide texts with an increasing number of words removed to give confidence in selective reading.
(Hyland, 1990:16)

Another useful strategy for reading purposefully is scanning. By the use of this skill, the reader does not need to read the whole text carefully, but rather to search for key items - that is, for specific information such as a specific idea, fact, or detail. Some approaches to scanning are provided below.

Approaches:

- (1) The student races to locate a single item such as a word, date, or name in a text (e.g., indexes, dictionaries).
- (2) The student races to locate specific phrases or facts in a text.
- (3) The student uses key words in questions to search for indirect answers.
- (4) The student matches adjoining sentences, using supplied markers expressing relationships and logical patterns.
- (5) The student fills in missing link words from a text or reconstructs paragraphs from sentences to help rhetorical pattern recognition (Hyland, 1990:16).

From the above discussions, it is apparent that the three skills of surveying, skimming, and scanning, are valuable in developing reading efficiency. When one has a purpose before reading, one reads only that part of the text which is relevant. In addition, one can anticipate where to find the information and predict what the text is about. For these reasons, reading with a purpose encourages predictive skills (i.e., anticipation and prediction). Both these are essential for efficient reading because they involve relating the student's experience and knowledge to the text.

3.2. Anticipation and Prediction

Reading is an active process which involves constant guessing, predicting, testing, and confirming (Goodman, 1967).

Anticipation and prediction are two essential reading skills for guessing or predicting how a passage will develop. When skimming a text, one usually expects to find certain things in it. These may be answers to questions

about the topic or ideas that interest the reader. This anticipation facilitates purposeful reading.

Readers often make predictions about what is likely to come next; they may find "context clues" that can facilitate their understanding of the text. These clues may be in the meaning or in the grammatical structure of a sentence or the vocabulary itself. All these will be discussed in the next section. Predictions are essential for effective reading because they make possible "prior elimination of unlikely alternatives" (Smith, 1978).

The meaning of a text is much easier to anticipate or predict if readers have prior knowledge of the topic being read. As Nuttall (1982) points out, the reader's common sense and experience helps him/her to guess or to predict what the writer is likely to say next. And when the reader shares many of the writer's presuppositions, he or she can think along with the writer and will find the text relatively easy.

This suggests that when teaching reading, anticipation and prediction cannot be over-emphasized because they encourage predictive skills. More precisely, they connect students' prior knowledge to the text, create expectations, and give them a purpose for reading.

Both these skills can also be applied to any kind of text. For example, students should be encouraged to anticipate or predict the text by using titles, subtitles, non-text information (i.e., diagrams, figures, graphs, maps,

or tables), and topic sentences of paragraphs. The purpose is to help them guess the main point of a text. All of these have been mentioned in the former section.

In order to reinforce the predictive skills mentioned above, a useful reading exercise "reading to confirm expectations" has been provided by Harmer (1983:153).

All language used in real life, according to Lewis and Hill (1985:10), occurs in situations which allow the language user to rely heavily on anticipation and context. Therefore, for confirming expectations, as suggested by Harmer (1983), good preparations for the text should involve the following three stages: lead-in stage, teacher-directed comprehension task, and teacher-directed feedback.

The following approach, aiming to reinforce the predictive skills, is suggested by Harmer (1983) for "reading to confirm expectations".

Stage 1: Lead-in

Before the students read the article, the subject is briefly introduced orally and/or visually by the teacher to interest them before reading. After that, they are asked to think about and write down the article being taught according to the following three questions.

- (1) THINGS YOU KNOW
 - (2) THINGS YOU ARE NOT SURE OF
 - (3) THING YOU WOULD LIKE TO KNOW
- (Harmer, 1983:154)

The purpose of this lead-in is to increase the students' interest, to invite them to think as they read,

and to help them to recall vocabulary and ideas which may occur in the text.

Stage 2: Teacher-directed Comprehension Task

After the lead-in stage, the teacher can ask the students to read the prepared text silently. Then, the teacher can remind the students that their task is to check the answers which they gave in the lead-in stage.

Stage 3: Teacher-directed Feedback Task

After the students have finished reading, the teacher can lead them to discuss the points on the blackboard again and ask them whether the text confirmed what they already know. After that, he can ask questions on the text to check comprehension.

The above approach aims to assist students in developing predictive skills. The application of this method will be elaborated in reading lessons suggested by the author. This will be discussed in Chapter 5.

The important thing for the teacher to consider is: at which stage will the vocabulary be introduced? Some language experts (Doff 1988, Greenwood 1981, and Lewis & Hill 1985) say that vocabulary should be introduced at the lead-in stage. However, only key words whose meaning is crucial to the understanding of the text should be presented. That is, students should be encouraged to guess the meanings of unknown words as they read the text. This leads us to a discussion of the next practical skill-

inferring word meaning through context clues. Three aspects of guessing unfamiliar words are discussed below.

3.3. Word-attack Skills

As already mentioned earlier, Taiwanese students, even at tertiary level, still rely heavily on the dictionary to determine the meanings of unknown words. This habit can mainly be attributed to encouragement from teachers. That is, students are encouraged to refer to a dictionary when coming across new words as well as to make vocabulary lists to learn by heart. Because of this, they believe that to comprehend the text, they must first understand every word in the text by clarifying it in the dictionary rather than guess the meanings from context.

Constantly resorting to a dictionary interrupts the thought processes while reading. The dictionary should be used only if the following context cues (i.e., syntactic, semantic, and word-form clues) are not possible (Nuttall, 1982). This method of working out the meaning of unfamiliar words can be shown below:

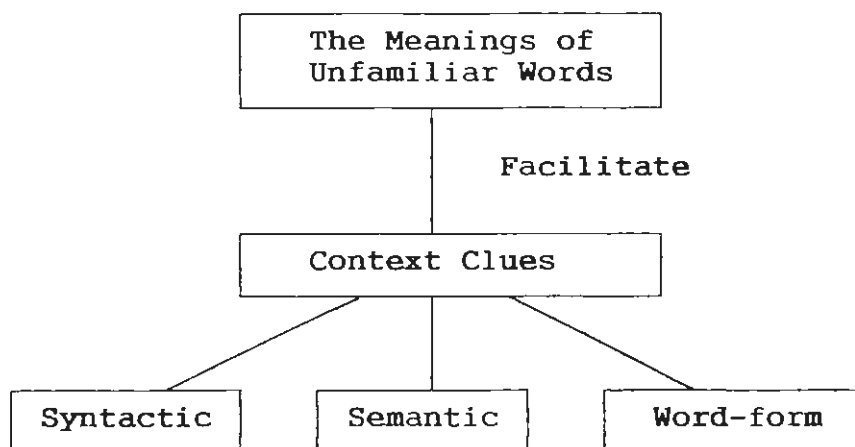


Figure 3: Word-attack Skills

3.3.1. Using Syntactic Context Clues

This refers to identifying the function of a new word in a sentence. More precisely, if students have developed a skill for identifying the parts of speech of unfamiliar words in a text, they may learn that it is not necessary to understand every word in order to understand the text.

An example is provided by Robinson (1983) to demonstrate that students need to use their knowledge of syntax to reduce the possible alternatives for an unknown language unit in a given context. By looking at the position of the word "truculent" in the following sentence,

His truculent criticism of your painting betrayed some jealousy (Robinson, 1983:120).

a skilled reader will conclude that it must be describing the subject criticism and hence is an adjective. Once the function of the word is identified as a modifier, he can ignore it because a modifier only plays a role in reinforcing the meaning of a certain word but does not influence the whole meaning of a sentence.

Therefore, knowing the function of a word in the sentence can reduce "uncertainty" about unfamiliar words. On the other hand, despite the fact that this knowledge is not enough for an accurate understanding of the word, readers may still have an advantage in that they know which word to look up in the dictionary. That is, they will be able to slot the meaning and part of speech straight into its space

and decrease the amount of time spent in referring to the dictionary (Nuttall, 1982).

3.3.2. Using Semantic Context Clues

This refers to guessing the meaning of an unfamiliar word by looking carefully at its surrounding context. The meaning of a word does not stand in isolation, but relates to other words and to the situations in which it is used (Yorkey, 1982). For this reason, students should be made aware of this skill when reading a text. For example, using the following sentences (taken from Lesson One of Book Six), the students can be asked what clues they can use in order to guess the meaning of the word "regular".

Mrs. Denton is a regular guest. She spends a few weeks here every year. She is very wealthy. She is a widow and quite elderly (Book 6 1991:1)

Other kinds of context clues and examples provided by different specialists such as Wilson (1980), Kruse (1981), Ekwall (1981), Wiriyachitra and Apichattrakul (1984), and Jensen (1986) may assist students in understanding the meanings of new words. The clues including explanation (including definition and example clues), comparison, contrast, experience, and summary are discussed below:

(1) Explanation clues:

The meaning of a new word can be inferred from further explanation, often using clues such as "in other words", "that is to say", or "namely", for example:

- . Many young children are hyperopic, or in other words, farsighted (The Open University, 1973:59).

Hyperopic means: "farsighted"

Clue: in other words and farsighted

Further explanations may take the form of definitions and examples. According to Kruse (1979:209), definition clues may often use the clues such as "is...", "explanations in parentheses", or "appositival clause constructions set off by `commas, or , or dashes`." Example clues may often use clues such as "e.g., such as, or for example". Some examples are illustrated below:

- . Anthology is a collection of writings.
(Jensen, 1986:117)

Anthology means: "a collection of writings"

Clue: is

- . The panther (a large black animal related to a cat) is very dangerous and deadly (Kruse, 1979:212).

Panther means: "a large black animal related to a cat"

Clue: The punctuation "parenthesis ", i.e., explanation in the parenthesis

- . Typhoons are clones, storms with strong winds rotating around a low-pressure centre.
(Wiriyachitra and Apichattrakul, 1984:17)

Clones means: "storms with strong winds rotating around a low-pressure centre."

Clue: The punctuation "comma (,)" after cyclones

- . To gyp means to swindle, cheat, or defraud.
(Wilson, 1980:111)

Gyp or Defraud means: "swindle or cheat or defraud"

Clue: The words "means" or "or"

(2) Comparison clues:

These link unfamiliar words with something commonly known. For example,

- . A kayak, like a canoe, is a light, slender boat with pointed ends (Wilson, 1980:111).

Kayak means: "a light, slender boat with pointed ends"

Clue: like a canoe

(3) Contrast clues:

If the meaning of a word in a sentence is known, it is easier to clarify its meaning when contrasting it with another. For example,

- . The question was important to the child, but it appeared trivial to the teacher.
(Wiriyachitra and Apichattrakul, 1984:18)

Trivial means: "not important"

Clues: important, but

(4) Experience clues:

The reader can use his own experiences or imagination to infer the meaning from context.

- . The cat came quickly through the grass towards the birds. When it was just a few feet from the victim, it gathered its legs under itself, and pounced.
(Wiriyachitra and Apichattrakul, 1984:18)

Pounce means: "attack suddenly"

Clue: The reader knows from experience that when a cat sees a bird, it will gather its legs under itself, and then attack suddenly.

(5) Summary clues:

The meaning of a new word can be interpreted from the information in the following sentences. For example,

. The pants looked durable. They were well constructed; all seams were double sewn. The fabric was heavy and looked as though it would withstand rugged wear.
(Wilson, 1980:111)

Durable means: "long-lasting"

Clues: the pants were well constructed...it would withstand rugged wear.

The variety of exercises above for assisting students with reading provides students with enough practice in order to build up confidence in guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words.

The above two examples of guessing the meaning by using commas and parentheses suggest that attention to punctuation needs to be taught in the reading class. The teacher should be on the look-out for significant examples of punctuation in the texts and familiarize students with it , as suggested by Nuttall (1982).

3.3.3. Using Word-form Clues

This refers to interpreting the meaning of a word by word-analysis. Students should be taught to break words down into small elements - stem, prefix, and suffix. Nuttall (1982:67) points out that understanding the meanings of affixes (i.e., prefixes and suffixes) and the way they are used to build words is extremely useful in tackling new lexical items.

Let's take the word disagreement for example. The word "disagreement" consists of three parts. The basic form "agree" is called the "stem"(often called "base" or "root"

word) and can be bound or free. The dis- is attached to the stem of the word. It is called a prefix because it can be only fixed to the beginning of a base or root word. The final part -ment is a suffix. This can only be attached to the end of a stem word. A prefix and or suffix can not stand alone and must be attached to stem words.

Usually, a prefix changes the meaning of a word, while a suffix changes its part of speech. For example, the suffix -ment mentioned above changes a verb into a noun. On the other hand, the prefix dis- changes the meaning to the opposite. For example, agreement means "thinking in the same way" while disagreement means "thinking in the different way."

Obviously, this knowledge of word structure analysis can assist students in guessing the meaning of words. In addition, analysis of word structure can contribute to the association of a word and then to understanding its meaning if the student has adequate knowledge of prefixes, roots, and suffixes. Because of this, the student's vocabulary can be expanded.

Nuttall (1982:68) suggests that in order to enhance the student's vocabulary development, teachers should provide a variety of word formation exercises. By understanding word formation, students will become sensitive to unfamiliar words when the contextual clues do not work. In this case, an analysis of word structure may become a useful substitute.

In conclusion, the use of semantic clues, according to Robinson (1983:120), is the best way to understand an "unknown or hazy language unit" within a text. Students can be encouraged to predict or anticipate new words through contextual clues. He also adds that to predict what they are about to read, readers must be continually involved in integrating the information from these three contexts.

Once students learn to understand the general sense of a sentence or the passage as a whole without knowing what every word means, they will free themselves from over-reliance on dictionaries. It is believed that by weaning students from over-reliance on dictionaries, reading effectiveness will increase.

3.4. Text-attack Skills

As mentioned earlier, Taiwanese students, even at college level, do not read for the main idea, nor do they read the relationships between sentences. This may be because they do not know how the text is organized. Therefore, they should be taught to recognize the organization and presentation of information in the passage. To get a better understanding of a text, the following skills should be taken into account in the reading lesson:

- (1) understanding paragraph structures,
- (2) distinguishing main from supporting ideas,
- (3) and recognizing discourse markers.

3.4.1. Understanding Paragraph Structure

Commonly, in academic writing the English paragraph is structurally and coherently organized (Bander, 1971; Arnaudet and Barrett, 1984). Each paragraph has a topic sentence - that is, a sentence which gives the main idea of the paragraph. The topic sentence commonly appears at the beginning of a paragraph. Occasionally, it is found at the end of a paragraph and very rarely occurs between the two (Nation, 1984:64).

Since the topic is generally found at the beginning of the paragraph, a safe and quick way to obtain a general understanding of an article, as suggested by Champeau de Lopez (1986:19) is described below:

to read the entire first paragraph (the introduction), the first sentence of each of the other paragraphs in the article (usually the topic sentence), and the entire last paragraph (the summary or conclusion).

The technique of speed reading helps students to recognize the main idea. When trained in speed reading, students are often told to preview only the first sentence in each paragraph to gain a general understanding of a text. Usually, the main idea appears at the beginning of the paragraph and is followed by other sentences supporting and developing this idea. This way of paragraph development is called "deduction". This contrasts with another less common type "induction" - in which a paragraph starts with supporting ideas (e.g., a series of example) and ends with a statement relating or linking these examples. Noticeably, still another variation infrequently occurs in textbooks,

that is, the main idea is not stated directly. Therefore, the reader must make an inference (Arnaudet and Barrett, 1984). These are elaborated below.

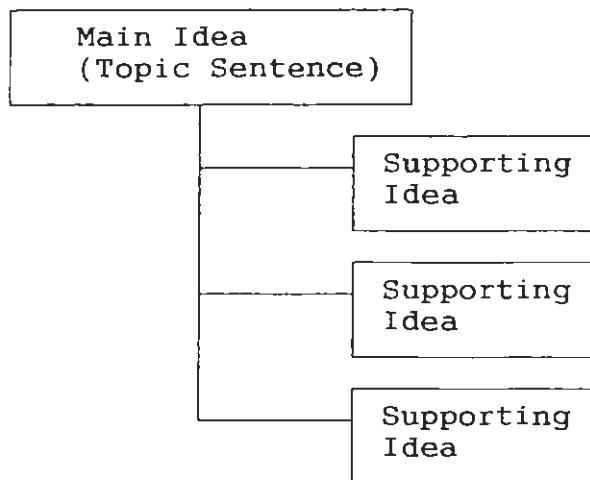
3.4.2. Distinguishing Main from Supporting Ideas

In academic texts, according to Arnaudet and Barrett (1984), there are two main methods of organization: deduction and induction. In both, the main ideas are explicitly stated. In other texts, however, the main ideas are stated implicitly. In this situation, students have to infer the topic sentence from the relevant information in the paragraph.

In deduction, each paragraph contains a main idea. It usually appears at the beginning of the paragraph. A writer using this method announces his main idea explicitly and immediately, followed by the supporting ideas presented as examples or illustrations, cause and effect, comparison and contrast, definition, etc. This can be illustrated by Figure 4 (Deduction, Initial Placement).

By contrast, an inductive paragraph commences by providing a certain number of supporting ideas. It then proceeds to a statement of the more general idea, which is located usually at the end of the paragraph. This is most often used when the subject matter is controversial or when the writer is trying to convince the reader to accept his or her conclusion (Arnaudet and Barrett (1984:9). Figure 5

(Induction, Final Placement) illustrates this kind of organization.



(Arnaudet and Barrett, 1984:5)

Figure 4: Deduction, Initial Placement.

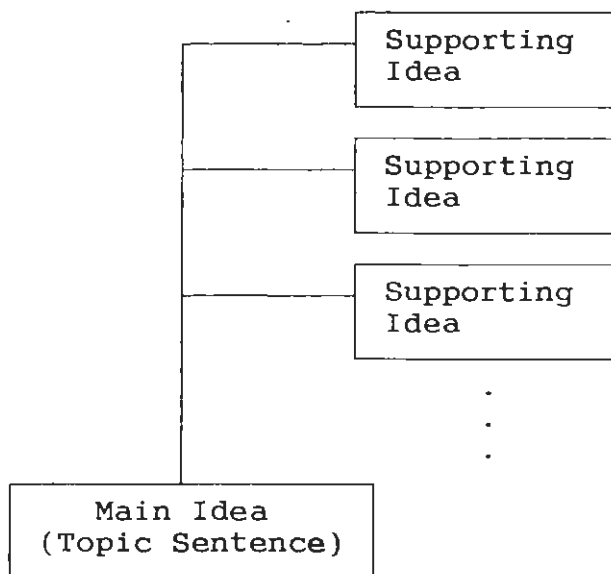


Figure 5: Induction, Final Placement.

In order to infer the main idea which is not stated explicitly in a text, students must synthesize all the supporting ideas, draw a conclusion, and determine the main

idea. Figure 6 (Implied Main Idea) symbolizes this organization of idea.

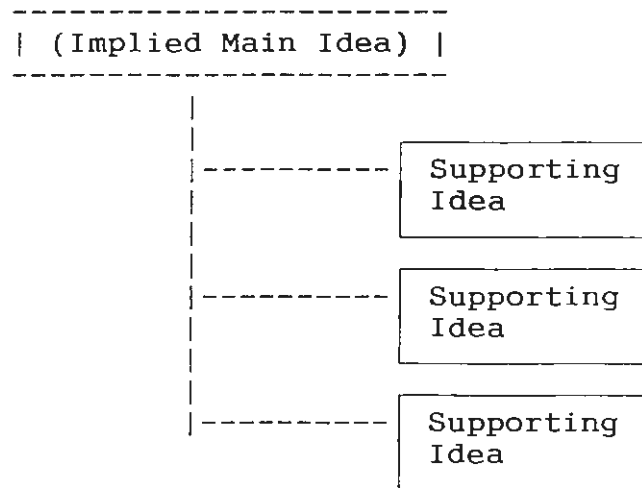


Figure 6: Implied Main Idea.

Students should be trained to understand the different techniques of paragraph development. These will contribute not only to effective reading but also to effective writing. Teachers would provide texts which contains a wide variety of paragraph development. Techniques for recognizing paragraph development are provided by Arnaudet and Barrett (1984:18-21) in order to help students to obtain a better understanding of the organization of a text; that is, to recognize the main idea or implied main idea.

3.4.3. Recognizing Discourse Markers

Taiwanese students do not read the relationships between sentences. This is because students have not been taught to look at the text as a whole or at those features that provide links between sentences in text. In order to obtain a better understanding of how a text "hangs

together", the reader needs to recognize special words, i.e., discourse markers, which link sentences and paragraphs. Thus, the ideas presented in the text become clear and logical.

Different researchers of reading use different terms for these types of link-words, such as connectors, discourse markers, signal words, or transitional devices. Although the terms used are different, they refer to words whose function is to link the ideas between sentences or between paragraphs.

Onaka (1984) has classified discourse markers into two main groups according to function: sentence linkers and paragraph linkers. The former link one sentence to another and show the relationship between them while the latter link a following paragraph to a previous one.

Sentence linkers are classified into nine categories below:

- (1) Addition: and, moreover, further, in addition, also, again, besides;
- (2) Contrast: but, on the other hand, however, yet, nevertheless, on the contrary, unlike, instead;
- (3) Comparison: likewise, in the same way, similarly, in like manner, correspondingly;
- (4) Concession: even though, although, though, despite this;
- (5) Emphasis: in fact, indeed, certainly, as a matter of fact, actually;
- (6) Exemplification: for example, for instance, that is, in other words, in particular;
- (7) Causality: thus, therefore, as a result, then, consequently, hence, accordingly, for this reason, so, because of this;

- (8) Conclusion: in summary, in conclusion, finally, in short, to sum up;
- (9) Sequence: first, second, ... next. (Onaka, 1984:18)

Most of the words listed above frequently function as both sentence linkers and paragraph linkers. However, some sentence linkers such as "and, but, or then" do not serve as paragraph linkers.

All the above discourse markers relate ideas from sentence to sentence. Through these relations, they make texts cohesive and easy to understand. In order to obtain a better understanding of these discourse markers, Grellet (1982) mentions the importance of these link-words and suggests some devices which help students perceive these links through a careful study of the text and training students to understand the value of linking words.

Reading comprehension is expected to be enhanced when students see the relationships among the ideas within sentences and recognize the structure that ties the sentences together.

3.5. Developing Critical Reading

Reading critically is reading skeptically. That is to say, the reader should often ask himself not only, "Do I understand what this means?" but "Do I believe it?" This style of reading or thinking is necessary to tertiary study. Students need such an attitude when reading for essays and

tutorials, and especially when developing a reasonable argument in essays and reports (Oner and Yeo, 1991).

According to Ballard and Clanchy (1988), being critical means making careful and precise judgements, based on wide reading, questioning and analysing. Critical reading does not mean responding negatively to a text, but rather it involves asking evaluative questions which require critical analysis: distinguishing the valid from invalid, fact from opinion, and strengths from weaknesses in an argument.

In the series Standard English Textbooks currently used in Taiwan, the "Questions for Discussion" section attached to each lesson is designed for developing students' oral skills as well as writing skills. This section, as Jie and Chen (1988) point out, constantly makes students feel frustrated. The reason for this is that students lack training in critical thinking and confidence in speaking English. As a result, they have difficulties in formulating and expressing their opinions.

In the current Taiwan scholastic situation, the teacher is the center of the educational process, that is, he imparts all knowledge. This passive method of teaching discourages students from independent thinking. In addition, the teacher often solves problems by pointing out that the answers can be found in the book (implying that books are never wrong.) This often leads students to believe that everything on the printed page is always true. Therefore,

they do not even try to challenge or find reasons to reject what an author said.

This explains why students have difficulty with the "Questions for Discussion" section. In order to answer the discussion questions, students are required to have the abilities of critical reading: analysis, synthesis, and evaluation, (and speaking skills). These skills have not been taught nor encouraged.

From the above discussions, obviously Taiwanese students need to be trained to develop critical reading. Teachers can assist them in developing this skill by helping them to recognize facts from opinions, biased statements, and the writer's intention and attitude.

3.5.1. Recognizing Fact from Opinion

Grellet (1981:239) points out that being able to disassociate fact from opinion is an essential first step in acquiring a critical reading ability. According to Burmeister (1974),

A statement of fact can be either verified or proved false, but a statement of opinion is an expression of personal feeling and cannot be objectively proved to be true or false (Burmeister, 1974:206-207).

More specifically, facts are based on actuality and can not be argued. Opinions are based on emotions or reasons and can be denied or argued against, even though one may agree or disagree with them.

Pearson and Johnson (1978) have suggested five criteria which can help learners to discriminate between fact and opinion. These useful guidelines are:

- (1) **verifiability:** If a statement is such that there could be no argument because it can be verified, then it is a fact. Otherwise, it is an opinion.
- (2) **qualification:** When words or phrases such as "I believe", "I think", "in my opinion", "probably", etc. are used in a statement, they indicate that the author is not certain of the truth of a statement; what he says is just his opinion (Pearson and Johnson, 1978:137).
- (3) **quality versus quantity:** That is, adjectives that deal with qualities indicate opinions, and those that deal with quantifiable phenomena indicate facts which can be tested for truth or falsity. Contrast the following two examples.
 - (a) Susan is nicer than Amy.
 - (b) Susan is faster than Amy.

The empirical test for "niceness" in example (a) has, as far as we know, yet to be developed. By contrast, a simple foot race will allow us to test the truth value of example (b) (Pearson and Johnson, 1978:137).

- (4) **general versus specific:** The more general a statement is, the more likely it is to be an opinion. Conversely, the more specific a statement is, the more likely it is to be a fact.
- (5) **objectivity :** Statements that use neutral language are more likely to be factual than those that use emotionally-laden words.

Some useful exercises provided by Grellet (1981) are designed to enable students to distinguish between fact and

opinion, the truth or falsity of a fact, and the good or poor judgement of an opinion.

3.5.2. Recognizing Biased Statements

Grellet (1984) suggests that most writers have bias in some way and try to influence their readers to look at things in a certain way. It is therefore important that students should be able to recognize this "slanted writing" in order to have a reasonable evaluation of a text. Bias may result from the following reasons.

- ignorance
- prejudice
- desire to blow up something ordinary into "good" stories, as frequently found in newspaper articles (Doan, 1988:51).

Pearson and Johnson (1978) have pointed out five conventions which writers often use to put across their particular viewpoint. They are: (1) using emotional words, (2) employing implicit association, (3) omitting details, (4) stating half-truth, and (5) overgeneralizing. If a reader is aware of these, then he will become more critical of the subject being read. These approaches used by writers to achieve their purpose are discussed as follows:

(1) Using emotional words

In this case, the writer uses words to evoke the audience's emotional associations. By this, s/he could persuade or deceive readers. If a reader is not aware of

this phenomenon, he will often be misled. The following example is taken from Pearson and Johnson.

Writer 1: At 2.30 am four courageous police officers braved darkness and gunfire of mobsters to overtake the vicious criminals in their warehouse hide-out near the waterfront.

Writer 2: In an early morning shoot-out-fist fight three suspects were captured by four city police officers in their warehouse hide-out near the waterfront.

Writer 3: At 2.30 am four burly and brusque city cops burst in on three helpless alleged burglars. Using unnecessary brute force, the police subdued their victims in a warehouse hide-out near the waterfront.

(Pearson and Johnson, 1978:140-141)

All these articles mentioned above describe the same event; however, the words chosen to describe the police are different. More specifically, the first writer is sympathetic to the police because of the word "courageous". The third is biased against the police because "burly and brusque" occurs. The second writer is most objective because s/he does not use any emotional word attached to police.

(2) Employing implicit association

This means that when the writer praises something, he associates it with another thing which is good and welcome. By contrast, by criticizing something, he associates it with something bad or unpopular. This is often seen in advertising.

(3) Omitting details

This means that the writer uses quotations out of context. For example,

Original statement: In the field of secondary reading, Jones's book is the best I have read.

Quotation: "...Jones' book is the best I have read."
(Pearson and Johnson, 1978:144)

(4) Stating half-truth

This device is really an extension of "implicit association". A half-truth consists of two parts: one is true; the other is false or unverifiable. By this, the writer hopes that readers will accept the wrong part when they have accepted the right one.

(5) Overgeneralizing

This means that writers use overgeneralizations in conjunction with factual statements. In doing so, they hope that readers will regard facts as support for their overgeneralized ideas.

3.5.3. Recognizing the Writer's Intention and Attitude

When reading an article or a book critically, the reader should understand what it says and why the author has written it. That is to say, the reader has to determine the author's purpose, attitude, and tone. As Grellet (1981:242) points out, if one fails to recognize the writer's intention and attitude, one can easily misunderstand the whole passage, even though all the sentences have been understood.

A useful exercise suggested by Grellet (1981:243) to help the student to understand the writer's intention, attitude and tone involves a series of evaluations of an article: recognizing type of texts, the author's intention, and the author's attitude and tone. By doing this exercise, students can improve their critical reading.

3.6. Summary

This chapter considers the nature of successful reading. Reading is regarded as a variety of skills. Because of this, explicit strategy training in reading cannot be over-emphasized in order to improve students' skills. However, Rivers (1981) points out that progress in reading must not be hurried but steady, and the teaching of the skill, continuous. To achieve this purpose, a great deal of practice should be provided in the reading lesson. Once the skill is acquired and developed, students will become independent of control by teachers. This skill will help them become self-motivated readers.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

After considering the factors which influence effective reading, the researcher analysed samples of materials used for teaching reading in Taiwan, to see to what extent they provided training and practice in the skills discussed in the previous chapter.

Four types of analyses were carried out. Three of these used the last book in the Standard English Series (Textbook Six) for the analyses, while the fourth analysis used texts on similar topics written in English and Chinese.

The four analyses were of (1) the types of reading comprehension question; (2) gradation of readability, (3) gradation of structures; (4) the comparison of cohesive ties between Chinese and English written texts. Each analysis was conducted in the sequence listed above and the results follow.

4.1. Analysis of Types of Reading Comprehension Questions: "Questions on the Reading" and "Questions for Discussion"

The reading lessons in Book Six of the Standard Textbook Series comprise a comprehension passage followed by two sets of questions: "Questions on the Reading" and "Questions for Discussion". All fourteen lessons in Book Six were examined to determine their difficulty in terms of Barrett's Taxonomy of reading comprehension skills. Barrett's reading criteria include literal, reorganization, inferential, evaluative, and

appreciative comprehension skills, with literal questions being the easiest to answer, and evaluative and appreciative questions being the most difficult.

In this study, the proportion of each type of question, based on Barrett's Taxonomy of skills, is shown in Table 1 in percentage terms(%). The percentage refers to the questions contained in the two comprehension sections, "Questions on the Reading" and "Questions for Discussion". The findings and discussions are reported below.

TABLE 1
Analysis of Levels of Questions on the
Reading and Questions for Discussion (% shown)

Questions	Lessons						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Literal	64.3	57.2	52.9	80	80	84.6	83
2. Reorganization	14.3	14.3	29.4	0	0	7.7	6
3. Inferential	7.1	7.1	5.9	0	12	0	0
4. Evaluative	0	0	11.8	0	0	0	11
5. Appreciative	14.3	22	0	20	8	7.7	0
Questions	Lessons						
	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Literal	25	87.5	81.8	55.5	75	55.6	87.5
2. Reorganization	50	0	9.1	27.8	10	22.2	0
3. Inferential	8.3	0	0	0	5	22.2	12.5
4. Evaluative	0	0	0	0	0	22.2	0
5. Appreciative	16.7	12.5	9.1	16.7	10	0	0

As indicated in Table 1, literal questions are the most common in all lessons except Lesson 8. In general, the proportion of literal questions is more than 50 %. Thus, in Book Six, most or nearly all the questions can be answered by referring to the text by matching key words. These questions help students understand what the author has written rather than understand why the writer has written the texts. Thus, questions of this kind need not involve complete understanding.

As for questions involving reorganization (or reinterpretation), Lesson 8 has the highest percentage, 50%, while four lessons, Lessons 4, 5, 9, and 14, do not include reorganization questions at all. In coping with this sort of question, students have to reorganize or reinterpret for themselves the information obtained from the explicitly stated text. Such a type of question is valuable, as noted by Nuttall (1982), because it makes the reader consider the text as a whole rather than as each sentence in isolation. In addition, questions of this kind make the reader assimilate fully the obtained information.

As for questions of inference, Table 1 shows that Lesson 13 scores the highest, 22.2%. However, this type of question does not occur in six lessons (i.e., 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, and 11). Moreover, when it does occur, the percentage is very low. Questions of this type require the student to understand information not explicitly stated; therefore, s/he has to read between the lines or make inferences. In this case, the reader has to make use of his/her own experience and

intuition to understand the text and then work out its implications.

From Table 1, it can be seen that evaluative questions occur rarely in the fourteen lessons; indeed, eleven lessons contain no such questions at all. Moreover, this type of question only exists in the "Questions for Discussion" section. Such questions require the reader to make considered judgements about the text: distinguishing between fact and opinion, recognizing biased statements and the writer's intention and attitude.

As for the last type of question, appreciative questions, these occur more frequently than inferential and evaluative ones. Questions of appreciation almost exclusively occur in the "Questions for Discussion" section. This is because as stated in the preface of the book, this section is intended for developing oral and writing abilities. Even so, they were included in the analysis because they require the student to understand the text.

Unlike the other types of questions which are mainly concerned with what the writer says, appreciative questions are concerned with how the reader reacts. Specifically, questions of this kind require readers to give their reactions to the content of the text and to say whether they agree or disagree with the writer. In seeking answers to these questions, students may use both textual evidence and their own experience and knowledge. Therefore, questions of this kind aim at recording the reader's personal response,

which is most often involved in creative writing (Nuttall 1982).

An overview of the five levels of reading comprehension questions is summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 2
Mean Number of Barrett's Taxonomy of
Reading Comprehension Questions (% shown)

Levels of Questions	Percentage
1. Literal	71.8
2. Reorganization	12.2
3. Inferential	4.2
4. Evaluative	2.5
5. Appreciative	9.3

From Table 2, it can be seen that literal comprehension questions represent the most common type of reading comprehension question in Book Six. Next to literal comprehension questions is reorganization, followed by appreciative questions. Inferential and evaluative questions rank last as they rarely occur (4% and 3%, respectively) in the fourteen lessons analyzed. This phenomenon is exactly supported by Nuttall's comment (1982:133) that many questions in textbooks are literal questions, with perhaps a few reorganization and appreciative questions included.

4.2. Analysis of Gradation of Readability

An analysis of gradation of readability was conducted on Lessons 1, 7, and 14 in Book Six based on the Flesch Readability formula using the computer program, Grammatik V. Before undertaking the analysis, it was hypothesized that as the lessons progress, the later ones would be less readable. That is, Lesson 1 would be more readable than Lesson 7, which was in turn more readable than Lesson 14. According to the Flesch readability formula, the higher the score, the more readable the lesson. Findings concerning the readability of Book Six are shown in Table 3, and generally support the hypothesis.

It should be noted that Flesch's research was based on first language. For second language learners, parameters additional to word-, sentence- and paragraph-length may be important for comprehension and readability. However, this analysis does not consider other factors.

TABLE 3

Statistics for Analysis of Readability

Statistics	Lessons		
	1	7	14
1.Flesch Reading Ease	85	69	72
2.Average length Per Sentence	7.0	13.6	14.8
3.Average length Per Word	1.35	1.46	1.41
4.Average length Per Paragraph	3.9	3.6	4.8

According to Flesch's formula, Lesson 1 (85) is easier to read than the other two lessons (69 and 72) for lessons 7 and 14, respectively. However, Lesson 7 is less readable than Lesson 14. Even so, they are both considered at the level which is the "preferred level for most readers" (Grammatik V).

As for the average number of words per sentence, there is a considerable difference between Lessons 1, 7 and 14. Average sentence lengths in Lessons 1, 7, and 14 are 7.0, 13.6, and 14.8, respectively. According to Flesch, a low score (i.e., seven words per sentence) indicates choppiness or lack of sentence variation. This situation may be improved by varying sentence length, as suggested by Grammatik V. Lessons 7 and 14 have similar sentence length which according to Flesch's theory means that the passage can be easily understood by most readers.

With regard to the average length per word (i.e., syllables per word), they range from 1.35 to 1.41. The difference can be considered minimal. According to Grammatik V, with words of this length, most native English readers could understand the vocabulary used in these two texts. However, it should be noted that word length is not an entirely reliable measure of readability. For example, the word "happiness" is a long word but is easier to understand than the word "bliss", which is much shorter and less frequently used.

The average number of sentences in each paragraph are 3.9, 3.6, and 4.8, respectively, in lessons 1, 7, and 14. This result also shows that the average paragraph length is also graded and in these lessons is considered, according to Grammatik V, to be easily followed by most native readers.

4.3. Analysis of Gradation of Structures

Sentence structures, as defined in Chapter 1, include simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex. For Lessons 1, 7, and 14 in Book Six, the percentage of each type of sentence structure was obtained. The findings are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4

Analysis of Gradation of Structures (% shown)

Types of Sentences	Lessons		
	1	7	14
1. Simple	80.4	55.7	49.4
2. Compound	5.2	5	3.8
3. Complex	12.4	29.5	25.3
4. Compound-Complex	2	9.8	21.5

An analysis of the results showed that the sentence structures in the selected three lessons indicate a tendency of increasing gradation. That is, more complex structures appear in later lessons. Indeed, Lesson 14 contains 21.5% of compound-complex structures while lessons 1 and 7 contain 2.0% and 9.8% of the same structure, respectively. In contrast, simple structures occur least in Lesson 14. The

average number of words per sentence in Lessons 1, 7, and 14 are 7.0, 13.6, and 14.8, respectively (see Table 3). Lesson 14 contains more complex sentence structures and also uses longer sentences than the other two lessons.

4.4. A Comparison of Cohesive Ties Between Chinese and English Written Texts

The three texts written in Chinese and English, with similar topics were analysed to examine whether all types or subtypes of cohesive ties were deployed in both language and to see if the relations which hold elements in texts are universal, yet linguistically specific.

4.4.1. Findings and Discussions

Six samples of texts were analysed and presented in the following tables.

(1) As can be seen in Table 5 , an analysis of the six texts showed that lexical cohesion was the most common cohesive tie employed throughout the texts. In this category, total recurrence (lexical repetition) also predominates. As also can be seen from Table 5, next to repetition, synonyms were the most frequently used cohesive devices. This suggests that synonyms can be used in a variety of ways to create "elegant variation". This also suggests that writers often avoid repetition of the same word for stylistic reasons. That is, in the same text we can use different words sharing the same meanings with each other and hence create a better style. This applies to both languages in respect of lexical cohesion.

TABLE 5

Analysis of Grammatical and Lexical Cohesive Ties
in
Selected Chinese and English Texts (%shown)

Cohesive Ties	Selected Texts in English and Chinese					
	Literary		Academic		Political	
	Ch	Eng	Ch	Eng	Ch	Eng
Grammatical						
A. Reference						
1. Pronominals	16	25	0	4	7	11
2. Demonstratives	3	2	0	1	0	0
3. Definite Articles	0	6	0	0	0	0
4. Comparatives	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sub-Total	19	33	0	5	7	11
B. Substitution						
1. Nominal	0	0	0	1	0	0
2. Verbal	0	0	0	0	0	0
3. Clausal	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sub-Total	0	0	0	1	0	0
C. Ellipsis						
1. Nominal	2	0	0	1	0	0
2. Verbal	0	0	0	0	0	0
3. Clausal	2	0	0	0	0	0
Sub-Total	4	0	0	1	0	0

TABLE 5 (continued)

Analysis of Grammatical and Lexical Cohesive Ties
in Selected Chinese and English Texts (%shown)

Cohesive Ties	Selected Texts in English and Chinese					
	Literary		Academic		Political	
	Ch	Eng	Ch	Eng	Ch	Eng
Grammatical						
D. Conjunctives						
1. Additives	2	6	2	6	5	6
2. Adversatives	2	2	0	0	0	0
3. Causal	3	2	0	0	3	0
4. Temporal	4	11	0	0	3	2
Sub-Total	11	21	2	6	11	8
Lexical						
1. Parallelism	1	2	0	0	0	0
2. Total Recurrence	56	40	93	83	61	69
3. Partial Recurrence	1	0	0	0	5	2
4. Antonym	1	4	0	0	0	0
5. Synonym	7	0	5	4	16	10
Sub-Total	66	46	98	87	82	81

(2) The next largest cohesive tie category found was "reference". As can be seen in Table 5, "reference" has four sub-types. Pronominals, especially personal pronouns, are used frequently. All these refer back to the previous

referents to link the texts semantically. Relative pronouns and definite articles do not appear in any of the Chinese texts because there are no relatives and articles in Chinese. Besides, in this academic text "The Chuo-shuei River is the longest one among them", "one" is the referent of river. However, in Chinese a noun is replaced by using the same noun instead of a pronoun (one/ones). This is different from English. For example, in English one would say "I prefer red flowers to yellow ones", whereas in Chinese one would say "I prefer red flowers to yellow flowers".

(3) The substitution and ellipsis cohesive ties seldom appear in either language. This is consistent with Halliday and Hasan's observations (1976:88) that substitution and ellipsis may be theoretically treated as one and the same, ellipsis being a case of substitution by omission. Hence the scarcity of substitution and ellipsis cohesion is shown in the data.

(4) Finally, an analysis of cohesive ties in the six texts reveals that both languages use conjunctions extensively. The additive AND dominates in the six texts. However, in Chinese some conjunctions are duplicated. Chinese equivalents usually appear in pairs. For example, "Although Taiwan is small, but it feeds about 21 million people." However, Chinese is more limited in its use of conjunctions than English.

4.4.2. Summary of Results

The findings of the analysis of the six samples of texts are summarized in Table 6.

TABLE 6

Mean Number of Grammatical and Lexical Cohesive Ties
in Selected Chinese and English Texts. (%shown)

Cohesive Ties	Selected Texts	
	Chinese	English
Grammatical		
A. Reference	8.7	16.3
B. Substitution	0	0.3
C. Ellipsis	1.3	0.3
D. Conjunctives	8.0	11.7
Grand Total (Grammatical)	18	28.6
Lexical	82	71.4

Comments on Table 6 follow; an overview of the cohesive ties deployed between Chinese and English written texts is summarized as follows:

(1) Generally speaking, Chinese uses more lexical cohesion than English while English uses more grammatical cohesion than Chinese. This finding is consistent with the working papers on discourse in English and Chinese done by Yu, in Cottrill (ed.) (1984:5-13).

(2) In both languages, lexical ties (especially the use of recurrence (lexical repetition) predominate. As for the occurrence of lexical cohesion in English texts (71.4%), this finding seems to be consistent with the observation by Witte and Faigley (1980:197) that generally speaking, about two-thirds of the cohesive ties existing in a text are lexical.

(3) English uses pronominals (which include personal and relative pronouns) more frequently than Chinese. The relative pronouns (such as, who, which, that, what) only occur in English.

(4) Substitution and ellipsis seldom appear in both languages. Hence substitution and elliptical cohesion are infrequently used.

(5) The study also supports the comment by Dubin and Olshtain (1986:149) that the relations which hold elements together in texts are probably universal, yet the actual devices appear to be language specific.

4.5. Summary

This chapter presents the findings from the data analysis and discusses the practicality of Book Six in terms of reading comprehension questions as well as the gradation of readability and structures.

In terms of Barrett's Taxonomy of reading skills, the results suggest that the reading comprehension questions accompanying each lesson in Book Six leave much to be desired because they are mainly low level, literal questions.

On the other hand, the results indicate that there is gradation of readability and structural complexity in the three lessons examined. According to Comenius, knowledge must necessarily come in successive steps, and proficiency can be obtained only by degrees. Thus, the systematic gradation of

texts is necessary to reduce the difficulties of language learning and enables students to learn rapidly, agreeably, and thoroughly (Comenius, quoted in Mackey 1972). The lessons examined appear to enable the student to do this.

This chapter also presents the findings from the comparison of cohesive ties between Chinese and English written texts using similar topics. The results support the comment by Dubin and Olshtain (1986:149) that the relations which hold elements in texts together are probably universal, yet the actual devices appear to be language specific.

From the above results and discussions, some improvements for textbooks, suggested reading lessons, and pedagogical implications will be discussed in the next chapter in order to improve the effectiveness of teaching of reading in senior high schools throughout Taiwan.

CHAPTER 5

IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

In this chapter, results from the empirical study as well as limitations of Book Six are summarized. Then improvements, suggestions for reading lessons and pedagogical implications are pointed out.

5.1. Generalization of Results

After analysis of the three lessons selected from the beginning, middle, and end of Book Six in terms of the gradation of readability and structures, the results indicate that the selection of reading materials in the present textbook series are graded in terms of readability.

However, it is found that most of the reading comprehension questions (i.e., 71.8 %) in Book Six are limited within the literal meaning level. These questions do not involve true understanding of the text at all.

12 % of the reading comprehension questions fall into the level of Reorganization or Reinterpretation. Noticeably, none of the questions require students to recognize and interpret cohesive devices. As a result, they fail to help the students to understand the relations between sentences or parts of a text through the use of cohesive devices. Such questions are valuable in making the student consider the text as a whole rather than thinking of each sentence in isolation (Nuttall

1982). Furthermore, questions involving inference represents only 4.2 %. None of them require students to obtain a general understanding of the text after initial reading, that is, questions such as: "What is the main idea of the passage?" or "What is the topic of the passage?" are excluded. Because of these drawbacks in reading comprehension questions, Taiwanese students even at college level, do not read for the relationships between sentences nor for the main idea.

5.2. Limitations of Book Six

After examining Book Six and the accompanying Teacher's Manual, the researcher noted that this newly-edited series of books tends to be communicative (as opposed to the traditional grammar-translation approach "linguistically-oriented") so as to improve the effectiveness of teaching of English in Taiwan. However, there is still room for improvement. The drawbacks of Book Six are classified into four categories: (1) Reading comprehension questions, (2) Reading skills, (3) Paraphrases, and (4) Layout of the textbook. These are discussed below:

(1) Reading Comprehension Questions

As mentioned above, reading has been emphasized mainly on the lowest hierarchical level of reading skills, namely, literal comprehension. There are no strategies for fostering efficient reading skills. In

addition, the presentation of reading comprehension questions in each lesson comes after sections on vocabulary, idioms and phrases, and paraphrases relevant to the passage. It seems that such reading questions are not assisting students in developing efficient reading skills. Rather, as pointed out in the preface of each textbook, they are designed for assessing students' understanding of the whole text.

(2) Reading Skills

In the currently prescribed series of textbooks and Teacher's Manuals, reading skills are never mentioned. Deficiencies in the concept of reading comprehension lead to ineffective methods of teaching reading. The reason for this is that only recently second language or foreign language reading has been viewed as an active, rather than a passive process (Carrell 1988:1); that is, efficient and effective second language reading requires both top-down and bottom-up strategies operating interactively (Eskey 1973, Rumelhart 1977, 1980; Sanford and Carrod 1981; Van Dijk and Kintsch 1983; and, Carrell 1988:101, quoted in Carrell et al.: 241). In this sense, it appears that EFL teachers in Taiwan should be aware of the reconceptualization of reading comprehension as well as of reading skills in order to improve the effectiveness of teaching of reading.

(3) Paraphrases

The paraphrase section of each book repeats the reading text using different language. As such, it could be a useful aid to reading comprehension. However, according to the Teacher's Manual, the "Paraphrases" section is designed to help Taiwanese teachers of English present the text in English, using slightly different language from the original. It is only intended for teachers who give lessons in English, but not intended as a way of strengthening reading comprehension.

(4) Layout of the Textbook

In view of promoting cognitive reading skills, the presentation and location of linguistic components such as Vocabulary, Idioms and Phrases, and Reading Comprehension Questions (i.e., Questions on the Reading and Questions for Discussion) should be taken into account. Since there are no instructions provided in the students' textbooks about how to make effective use of these books, teachers or students may not use them properly. Additionally, even in the Teacher's Manual, there is no mention of how the teacher may utilise these sections on vocabulary, idioms, and so on.

It is concluded from the findings and discussion that there is still room for improvement. Some suggestions are made below to improve the effectiveness of teaching of reading in Taiwan.

5.3. Suggestions for Improving the Currently-used Textbooks

- (1) Reading comprehension questions should be strengthened.

According to Grellet (1981), in order to develop reading skills, question-types and question-functions should be incorporated - that is, a certain type of question should contain a certain function to develop a particular reading skill. Because of this, a taxonomy such as Barrett's Taxonomy of reading skills should be taken into account in designing reading comprehension questions.

- (2) Pre-questions should be set before the text.

According to Lewis and Hill (1985:108), all language use in real life occurs in situations which allow the language user to rely heavily on anticipation and context. Therefore, pre-questions to help students understand the text by focusing attention on key words or ideas should be used. Carrell (1988:247) also mentions that despite the fact that pre-questions do not do much towards actually building that knowledge in the reader, pre-reading questions function to help readers predict which prior, existing knowledge to access.

Because of the need to develop the student's reading skills, pre-questions should be taken into account. Considering what kind of questions will be presented

first, Grellet (1981:6) suggests that it is always preferable to start with the overall meaning of the text, its function and aim, rather than work on vocabulary or more specific ideas.

(3) Instructions should be provided on textbook use.

As mentioned above, in the currently-used textbooks and manuals, there are no instructions about how to use the textbooks effectively. Because of this, teachers or students may use them inappropriately. For example, it is a common practice in Taiwan that when teaching English, teachers would first lead the students to read the vocabulary aloud and then to read the text aloud. In addition, most of the class time is devoted to the explanation of each new word or expression, the sentence-by-sentence translation of the text, and the detailed syntactic analysis using grammatical terms, and other exercises. If this situation remains unchanged, it is a hindrance to the development of efficient reading in the foreign language. Thus, suggestions on using each component contained in each lesson are necessary in order to help students to learn the texts effectively.

(4) "Paraphrases" should be integrated into reading activity.

"Paraphrases" is one of the activities in each lesson. However, according to the Teacher's Manual, this paraphrasing section is intended for the teacher's reference - that is, when giving lectures in English. The

paraphrase section is useful for enhancing students' comprehension of the text. It could be an adjunct to both the reading and writing components of the course by providing the student with additional practice.

5.4. Suggestions for Reading Lessons

In EFL reading in Taiwan, much emphasis is placed on the explanation of new vocabulary and expression as well as the analysis of sentence structures to facilitate translation. The students are not encouraged to read actively in the process. This can be traced back to lack of effective instruction on how to teach reading. As mentioned previously, only during the past ten years or so has ESL reading theory and practice been improved (Eskey and Grabe, quoted in Carrell, 1988:223). Because of this, a guided reading procedure is needed in order to improve the effectiveness of teaching English in Taiwan.

5.4.1. Making Reading Purposeful

Modern theorists argue that effective language teaching should encourage a purpose before reading. As Nuttall (1982) points out, we need a reason for reading so that we can decide how detailed our understanding must be. Therefore, it is often useful to make students aware of reading with a purpose. Once the purpose is set, it will enable them to decide what they can skim over and what they must pay attention to in detail.

Authentic texts are of many different kinds: for example, advertisements, instructions, novels, short stories, poems, news reports, book review, etc. Each of these types of text differs from the others in purpose.

To make the purpose of a reading lesson clear, it is worthwhile for the teacher to have a good plan of a task-based lesson. According to Nuttall (1982), before teaching a reading selection, the teacher needs to be clear what sort of interpretive skills it demands, and what methods s/he will be able to use to help students to develop them. This will give students meaningful learning in the reading process and lead them to read with a purpose.

To help students read purposefully and efficiently, teachers should make them aware of applying different reading techniques to different types of text (Ellis and Tomlinson, 1980). Many students open a book and begin to read everything in the same way and at the same speed without a good reading habit. To make students aware of different reading purposes, teachers can provide different types of texts to practice different skills. To sensitize the student's reading with a purpose, teachers may find the techniques suggested in the book "Developing Reading Skills" written by Grellet particularly useful. Through heightened awareness, students may become sensitive to adjusting the manner of reading to different types of text and to the purpose for reading.

In order to make teaching practices effective, many reading experts argue that it is necessary to build up background knowledge and practice the skills appropriate to efficient reading. Reading lessons should be planned in a continuous three-phase framework: Pre-reading, While-reading, and After-reading. Therefore, a procedure for a reading lesson is discussed below:

5.4.2. Pre-reading Activity

It is generally agreed that a brief introduction to the content of the text will be helpful to make students read the text more easily and increase their interest (Nuttall, 1982; Lewis and Hill, 1985; Doff, 1988). The text can be introduced orally and/or visually by the teacher. The purpose of this stage is to relate the reading practice to the student's own experience. The introduction must be relevant; otherwise it causes misleading expectations (Nuttall, 1982). This is only a "warming-up" stage, so it need not be very long. Nuttall also argues that an introduction should not include anything that the student can find out from the text, either directly or by deduction. That is, the teacher should avoid giving the answer to the text before asking students to read it, but rather let them find the answer themselves in later reading.

Following this introduction, the teacher can involve students in doing the following activities:

(1) Previewing the reading selection

By getting students to anticipate or predict the content, the teacher can ask them to preview the text by quickly skimming the heading, first and last paragraphs, the first sentence of every paragraph, and look at the picture or illustration which accompanies each text. This previewing technique is intended to help students to obtain a general understanding of the text and prevent them from giving over-attention to individual words in it.

Immediate feedback from students is necessary; that is, students should be encouraged to say or write down what is a general idea of the content they have read about the text. However, in classroom instruction it is likely to happen that the same brighter students answer all the time, while the others stay quiet. Hubbard et. al. (1989:43) suggest that to ensure that all the class does participate is to make the students answer the questions in writing. Reading like this may help them overcome the word-by-word reading habits.

(2) Introducing Key Vocabulary and Context Clue Exercises

As far as the teaching of vocabulary is concerned, the teacher should remember that at this stage only key words whose meaning is crucial to the understanding of the text should be presented (Greenwood 1981, Lewis and Hill 1985, Doff 1988). Research (Stallman et al. in

press, cited in Moorman and Blanton) shows that pre-teaching a large number of word meanings may not increase comprehension of the selection. Therefore, according to Moorman and Blanton (1990:174), it is important for the teacher to study the text carefully to determine the key concepts and vocabulary critical to understanding it. They also suggest that three to five key words may be the most successful to preteaching new vocabulary. Students need to be encouraged to be "good guessers" - to make use of context to discover definitions of unfamiliar words.

According to Jensen (1986), vocabulary in context exercises should be done in class and not as homework. As such, students will not be tempted to use their dictionaries and thus force themselves to learn to guess unfamiliar words consciously. As for vocabulary context clues design, the teacher can refer to Chapter 3, 3.3.2. of this report or see Bander 1971, for a discussion of vocabulary growth.

(3) Pre-questioning the Context of the text

After introducing the text and presenting the essential new vocabulary, Doff suggests that teachers can give one or two guiding questions (written on the board or OHP) for students to think about before asking them to do silent reading. Hubbard et. al. suggest that global questions which are central to the whole text can be put here; that is, students have to read most of the text to be able to answer such a question. This will give them a

specific reason for reading and they will read more purposefully in order to find the answer or complete the task.

After that, the teacher can remind the students to read the text silently: their task is to confirm the information against the guiding questions. After the silent reading, the teacher helps check whether the class has been able to do this satisfactorily. If not, avoid giving the answers and turn to other questions or tasks and return to the guiding questions later, when the students have understood the text thoroughly (Nuttall, 1982).

This pre-reading activity encourages students to think about the topic and to make predictions and guesses about what they will read (Doff, 1988:133). This important technique has also been emphasized by Harmer (1983:153); that is, "Reading to confirm expectations", as mentioned in Chapter 3, 3.2.

Nuttall has concluded that a good introduction has the following qualities:

- (1) It is usually short.
- (2) It does not tell the student anything that he can find out himself by reading the text.
- (3) It makes the student want to read the text.
- (4) It helps the student to relate the text to his own experience, interests, aims.
- (5) It involves the students actively, for example by means of questioning (Nuttall, 1982:155).

By the end of this pre-activity procedure, the students will have in mind a general idea of the text being read as well as vocabulary or phrases or a number of things they are eager to know about from the text. By this time, teachers can move to the second stage of reading, While-reading activity.

5.4.3. While-reading activity

For effective teaching to occur during the actual reading of text, the following factors need to be taken into consideration:

(1) Reading in meaningful segments

The initial reading of the passage should be done in meaningful segments by the teacher, by the student, or by the teacher and students in chorus. This is necessary in order to help students develop the habits that characterize fluent reading, namely reading in meaningful units, not word by word. However, in order to make this activity more effective, the teacher should be aware that the following three options offered by Papalia (1980:75) should be taken into account:

- orally by the teacher while the students follow the text silently;
 - silently by the students; or
 - orally by the students after a silent reading, or after an oral reading by the teacher.
- (Papalia, 1980:75)

From Papalia's suggestions, one important thing to be considered is that the teacher does not need to lead

students to read aloud as opposed to traditional teaching reading - requiring students to read aloud with the teacher.

The reasons for this are given by Grellet (1981) that reading aloud is not always applicable outside the class; in addition, it would tend to give the impression that all texts should be read at the same speed and thus impede reading efficiency.

Like Grellet, Williams (1983) also recognizes that this is not to deny a place for reading aloud in class. He suggests that reading aloud can be done when

- (a) the writer clearly intends the passage to be read aloud, and
- (b) the teacher wants to focus the attention of the class on a particular crucial point in the passage.

(Williams, 1983:12)

Otherwise, silent reading should be encouraged in most cases in classroom instruction. He also offers good guidance for time allocation for initial silent reading in a lesson that lasts for forty minutes, no more than about seven minutes should be spent on silent reading.

(2) Providing Class Time for Learning

One of the good characteristics for an effective reading lesson is that class time is used for learning (Richards, 1990:96). More precisely, a variety of different activities should be used during each lesson; they must involve students in cognitive processes.

This approach to emphasizing class time used for learning is particularly useful to improve the current standard approach to teaching reading in Taiwan; that is, many teachers in Taiwan tend to occupy most of the time in class simply by lecturing. To improve this situation, in addition to a good plan of a text-based lesson set in his/her mind as mentioned earlier, the teacher needs to provide students enough opportunities such as interactive reading activities which involve cognitive processes to develop their own skills.

Greenwood (1981) suggests that establishing a purpose for reading is done by focusing the learner's attention on a particular cognitive skill. The cognitive reading skill varies according to the purpose. Greenwood has highlighted eight main cognitive skills as follows:

- (1) to anticipate both the form and the content;
 - (2) to identify the main idea(s);
 - (3) to recognize and recall specific details;
 - (4) to recognize the relationship between the main idea(s) and their expansion (examples, etc.);
 - (5) to follow a sequence, e.g., events, instructions, stages of an argument;
 - (6) to infer from the text ("read between the lines");
 - (7) to draw conclusions;
 - (8) to recognise the writer's purpose and attitude.
- (Greenwood, 1981:89)

Grellet (1981) and Nuttall (1982) both provide in their books a variety of useful exercises or activities intended to develop cognitive reading skills. Additional practical, useful exercises and activities can be found in Suarez (1983), Williams (1983), and Murdoch (1986). Teachers may find these useful.

(3) Providing Interactive Reading Activities

According to Papalia (1980:77),

students should be given the opportunity to relate their own lives, activities, and interests and concerns to the second language and to what is being read in the second language. To provide greater interaction with the text and among students, teachers should stimulate work in groups, where students have the opportunity to work together and learn from each other.

This cooperative learning may be hard to carry out in large-group instruction (i.e., approximately 50 students in a class) in Taiwan. However, such cooperative activities involve students in the learning process in a way that individual work or student-teacher work cannot. Papalia suggests that within large-group instruction, provision should be made for some small-group interaction or at least for interstudent discussion.

In practicing reading, the teacher needs to give students prior instruction to complete reading activities successfully. Moorman and Blanton (1990:178) suggest that direction instruction, with the teacher explaining, modeling, and providing opportunities for practice and application, should be used so that instructional activities become part of the reader's repertoire of learning strategies.

With regard to the teacher's role, it is widely agreed that while students are busy with their tasks, the teacher should therefore act as a monitor, circulating

among them and ready to give assistance as need (Papalia 1980; Greenwood, 1981; Suarez, 1983; and Hubbard et. al.. 1983).

(4) Discussing Instructional Activities and their Purposes with Students

Making students aware of utilizing the strategies when reading the text is important to the learning process; so is discussing instructional activities and their purposes with students. As Moorman and Blanton (1990:177) point out, an important outcome of instruction is that these activities are transferred into personal strategies for independent learning. The important point here is to convince students that learning is not the equivalent of finishing assignments and exchanging them for grades.

5.4.4. After-reading Activity

When the "While-reading" activity is over, global understanding of the text should be evaluated in the last stage such as the main idea of the text, the writer's intention, or the student's personal opinions about the writer's aim, etc. At this stage, the hypotheses that the students made about the text earlier can be substantiated and refined, or rejected and replaced.

The following tasks to be undertaken at this stage are suggested by Nuttall (1982:165):

- (1) eliciting a personal response from the reader (agree/disagree; like/dislike, etc);
- (2) linking the content with the reader's own experience/knowledge;
- (3) considering the significance of the text in the book from which it was taken;
- (4) establishing the connection between the content and other work in the same field;
- (5) suggesting practical applications of theories or principles;
- (6) working out the implications for research / policy / theory, etc., of the ideas / facts in the text;
- (7) drawing comparisons / contrasts between facts, etc. in this text and others;
- (8) recognizing relationships of cause and effect;
- (9) ascertaining chronological sequence (e.g., where a narrative shifts from one time to another or uses flashbacks);
- (10) tracing the development of thought / argument;
- (11) distinguishing fact from opinion;
- (12) weighing evidence;
- (13) recognizing bias;
- (14) discussing / evaluation characters, incidents, ideas, arguments;
- (15) speculating about what had happened before / would happen afterwards; or about motives, reasons, feelings, etc. where these are unexpressed (Nuttall, 1982:164-165).

Despite the fact that the tasks suggested should be undertaken at this stage, it does not mean that all the tasks listed above should be included in the evaluation of each text. The reason is that each kind of text requires different treatment. Nuttall also suggests that most of the tasks will be best done orally and be integrated with written work. As far as the final Book Six is concerned, it is intended to develop the student's oral and writing abilities, especially in the "Questions for Discussion" section. However, except for tasks 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 14 in Nuttall's list above, most of the tasks are practiced in the comprehension sections of Book

Six (but some items are found in other exercises in the book). From the prospective of developing reading skills, these evaluative tasks should be incorporated into the textbook.

5.5. Pedagogical Suggestions

(1) Grammatical Teaching

Because of the neglect of teaching cohesion in reading, the student cannot read for the relationships between sentences. Therefore, cohesive devices of English (reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion) and their function across sentences and paragraphs should be emphasized in reading instruction. As Carrell (1988:241) points out, such instruction can make students aware of how ideas in a text are unified by these cohesive elements. Teachers may find the techniques suggested in the following books particularly useful: Nuttall (1982); Grellet (1981); Chapman (1983); and Cook (1989).

(2) Vocabulary Teaching

It is not necessary to teach every new word before students read. As Nuttall (1982) points out, only some key words need to be taught before reading; some new words may be so unimportant as not to affect the student's understanding the whole text, while others can be used for practicing the skill of inferring meaning from context. Vocabulary items should be learned and

memorized within the context. It is clear that the teacher needs to encourage students to use syntactic clues, semantic clues, and word-forms to guess the meaning of unknown words as they read the text. It must be remembered that these context clues must not be used separately, but integratedly as discussed previously in 3. 3. Through the awareness of using context clues, student may be made aware that a dictionary is not the only solution to coping with new or unfamiliar words, but rather the last resort.

Certainly, like any other skills, the use of context clues in reading has its limitations. It is possible that the reader will make wrong predictions of meanings of words by the use of context clues. It is also likely to happen that the meanings derived from context are not very accurate although they are appropriate. Therefore, context clues can only be used effectively when the reader has considerable language proficiency. To achieve this, extensive reading is recommended from the implication of some recent research (Williams and Moran, 1989:225) that extensive reading should receive more attention. Not only would one become a good reader through it, but it is also an effective means of improving writing (Hafiz & Tudor, 1989), enlarging vocabulary (Wodinsky & Nation, 1988), or generally improving language (Robb & Susser, forthcoming).

Carrell (1988:243) also points out that teachers must be aware of the cross-cultural differences in

vocabulary and how meaning may be represented differently in the lexicons of various languages. The reason for this is that many words have distinct meanings in English, but the meanings are represented by one word in Chinese. For example, in English one would say "I saw a snake crawl into your room", while a Chinese learner of English might say "I saw a snake climb into your room." Therefore, Chinese teachers of English have to assist students in learning not only the meanings of new words but also their semantic distinctions.

(3) Providing Background Knowledge

A text becomes difficult not only because it contains unfamiliar vocabulary or syntactic structures, but it may also contain unfamiliar concepts and cultural allusions. Because of this, providing background information on a reading selection is important to facilitate successful reading comprehension. According to Gebhard (1987), providing information about the content of a reading selection before students read can provide them opportunities

to gain new knowledge, as well as recall already existing knowledge, which they can take with them into their reading experience, and this knowledge facilitates successful comprehension (Gebhard, 1987:22).

Take the example of Martin Luther King, Jr.'s dream on non-violent protest against segregation and other kinds of social injustice in Lesson 2 of Book Six. This text deals with American racial problems. Dr. King

mentioned the two states of Mississippi and Alabama. However, in the text, it does not provide information about why he specifically mentioned these two states. In this situation, to help students obtain a better understanding of the text, the teacher needs to build new background knowledge and activate existing background knowledge.

Three methods of providing background information are suggested by Gebhard (1987): previews, pretests, and short class discussions. Previews of the reading can be given verbally, or clearly written paragraphs can be distributed. For pretests, the teacher can test students' knowledge of the content before they read. Such tests can take the form of multiple-choice and true-false questions. Like the other two activities, short class discussions can also be directed before students read.

(4) Integrating with Other Skills

It is widely agreed that reading comprehension should not be separated from the other skills. More precisely, reading activities should be integrated with other skills such as writing and speaking. The following linked-skills are listed by Grellet.

- (1) reading and writing, e.g., summarizing, mentioning what you have read in a letter, note-taking, etc.
- (2) reading and listening, e.g., comparing an article and a news-bulletin, using recorded information to solve a written problem, matching opinions and texts, etc.
- (3) reading and speaking, e.g., discussions, debates, appreciation, etc. (Grellet, 1981:8).

5.6. Summary

This chapter presents an overview of results from the empirical study indicating limitations to Book Six. Then suggestions are made for improving the currently prescribed Series Textbooks for senior high schools across Taiwan. Finally, reading lessons and pedagogical implications are offered for practical classroom teaching. It is hoped that these will bring some impetus to improving the effectiveness of teaching reading in Taiwan.

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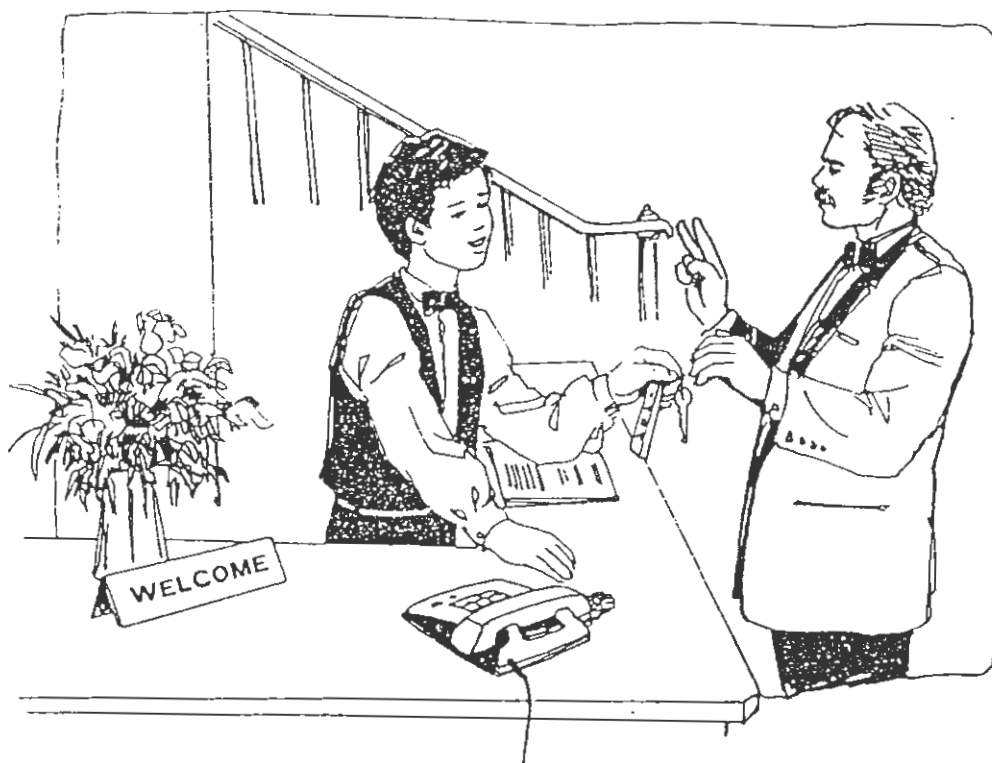
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Appendix 1

Sample Text (Lesson 1, Book Six, Standard English Textbook Series)

THE VIEW FROM BEHIND THE FRONT DESK

There are all kinds of jobs. Some pay well and some don't. Some are dangerous and others are boring. I'm a *desk clerk* at the *Palace Hotel*. My job is rarely boring. I meet hundreds of new people every week. Our guests come from everywhere—Asia,
5 Africa, Europe, the Americas. You ought to meet some of them. Mrs. *Denton* is a *regular* guest. She spends a few weeks here every year. She is very wealthy. She is a *widow* and quite *elderly*.



desk clerk [ˈdesk,klɜ:k]

Palace Hotel

[ˈpælɪs hoʊˈtel; ˈpæləs hoʊˈtel]

Denton [ˈdentn]

regular [ˈregjələ]

widow [ˈwɪdo]

elderly [ˈeldəli]

Here she is now.

Desk Clerk: Good morning, Mrs. Denton. May I help you?

10 Mrs. Denton: Good morning. Yes. Please have *room service*
send up some breakfast to my room. Two eggs,
soft-boiled. Dry *toast*. *Grapefruit* juice and a *pot*
of tea. Tell them to have it there at *precisely*
9:10. I'm on my way out now for my morning
15 *constitutional*.

Mrs. Denton's "morning constitutional" is an eight-kilometer walk in the fresh air, rain or shine. She is the fastest walker I know. She is also old enough to be my grandmother. She could call room service and order breakfast on the phone, but she
20 never does. I think she likes to see people and talk to them face to face.

The first time Mr. *Walters* stayed here, the hotel *staff* was *scared* to death. He seems more like a military officer than a business *executive*.

25 Mr. Walters: Send the *barber* up to my room. I need to have my hair cut. I need a *shave*, too. Have someone pick up the *suit* I left on the sofa. I must have it cleaned and *pressed* for this

room service [ˈrum,səvɪs]

soft-boiled [ˈsɒftˈbɔɪld]

toast [tɔst]

grapefruit [ˈɡreɪp,frʊt]

pot [pɒt]

precisely [prɪˈsaɪslɪ]

constitutional [ˌkɒnstəˈtjuʃənəl]

Walters [ˈwɒltəz]

staff [ˈstæf]

scared [skærd]

executive [ɪgˈzɛkjʊtɪv]

barber [ˈbɑrbə]

shave [ʃeɪv]

suit [su:t]

pressed [prɛst]

evening.

30 Desk Clerk: Right away, Mr. Walters.

Mr. Walters never smiles. You might think that he is an unkind person, but you would be wrong. Last April, *Frederick*, one of our cooks, became ill. When he was in hospital, he received a note and a generous gift from Mr. Walters. Everyone
35 here likes Mr. Walters very much, but we never show it. It would embarrass him.

Look over there. Those are the *Sweeneys*. They're *newly-weds* on their *honeymoon*. They're staying in our honeymoon *suite*. Here comes Mr. Sweeney.

40 Mr. Sweeney: Hello. Could you do me a favor, please?

Desk Clerk: Of course, sir. What would you like?

Mr. Sweeney: My wife and I are going to the theater this afternoon. While we're out, please have the *florist* send up a dozen roses to our suite. I
45 want it to be a surprise.

Desk Clerk: I will be happy to do it, sir. What time will you be returning?

Mr. Sweeney: Not before seven. Oh, she prefers yellow roses.

There is a florist right in the hotel *lobby*. All I have to do
50 is call on the house phone.

Frederick [ˈfrɛdrɪk]

suite [swɪt]

Sweeneys [ˈswɪnɪz]

florist [ˈflɒrɪst]

newlyweds [ˈnjuːlɪ,wɛdz]

lobby [ˈlɒbi]

honeymoon [ˈhʌni,mʌn]

There is not too much activity here right now, but just wait until this evening. We're expecting an *overseas* tour group at five o'clock. Later this evening the radio people will start arriving. They're holding a *convention* here. There are seventy-
55 five people in the tour group and over three hundred attending the *broadcaster's* convention. We will be very busy for the next three or four days. Here comes Miss *Frasier*, one of the convention organizers.

Miss Frasier: Please have someone set up the public address
60 system in the main *ballroom* tonight. We had originally asked for four hundred chairs, but I think we ought to add another hundred. More people are *registering* for the convention than we expected.

65 Desk Clerk: Very well. Anything else?

Miss Frasier: Yes. Could we have a separate *check-in* and *check-out* just for convention guests? That would be very convenient for us.

70 Desk Clerk: I'll ask the assistant manager to call you right away. I'm sure she can *arrange* that. Where will you be for the next half hour?

Miss Frasier: I'll probably be in the *Exhibition* Hall. If I'm not there, I'll be in my room—fourteen twenty-six.

Desk Clerk: Thank you very much, *madam*.

overseas ['ovə'siz]

convention [kən'venʃən]

broadcaster's ['brɒd,kæstəz]

Frasier ['freziə]

ballroom ['bɔːl,rʊm]

registering ['rɛdʒɪstərɪŋ]

check-in ['tʃɛk,ɪn]

check-out ['tʃɛk,aʊt]

arrange [ə'rendʒ]

Exhibition [ɛksə'biʃən]

madam ['mædəm]

75 Conventions and tours are very important to us. Although they pay lower rates for our rooms, they fill up the hotel. They also give a lot of business to our restaurants and other services. Excuse me for a moment.

Desk Clerk: Yes, sir. May I help you?

80 Guest: I would like to send a *telex* to my home office. Where can I do that?

Desk Clerk: Here is a form, sir. Just fill in the telex address and the message. I'll have it sent right away. You can have it charged to your room or to a credit card.

85

Guest: Have it charged to my room, please. Eight seven six.

You'll have to excuse me now. I have to take this form to our telex *operator*. As I said before, this job is rarely boring.

Adapted from *Bridges to English*, 6.

VOCABULARY

1. desk clerk ['desk,klɜ:k] *n.* [C] a person who receives people arriving in a hotel and attends to inquiries from guests 接待人員
2. Palace Hotel ['pælɪs ho'tel; 'pæləs ho'tel] *n.* 皇宮旅館; 皇宮飯店
3. *Denton ['dentn] *n.* (姓氏)
4. regular ['regjələ] *adj.* habitual 定期的
Mrs. Denten is a regular guest.
About ten percent of the population is regular churchgoers.

telex ['telɜ:ks]

operator ['opə,retə]

5. **widow** ['wɪdə] *n.* [C] a woman whose husband has died and has not married again 寡婦; 遺孀
6. **elderly** ['eldəli] *adj.* getting near old age 漸老的; 年長的
My father is getting elderly now and can't walk very fast.
7. **room service** ['rʊm,səvɪs] *n.* [U] a service provided by a hotel, by which food, drink, etc., are sent up to a person's room 房間服務; 房間服務部
8. **soft-boiled** ['sɒft'bɔɪld] *adj.* (of an egg) boiled not long enough for the inside to become solid (蛋等) 煮得半熟的 *opposite:* hard-boiled
9. **toast** [tɔst] *n.* [U] bread made brown by being held in front of heat, usually eaten hot with butter 土司麵包; 烤麵包
I like toast for breakfast.
10. **grapefruit** ['ɡreɪp,frʊt] *n.* [C] a large round yellow fruit, with a thick skin like an orange but a more acid taste 葡萄柚
11. **pot** [pɒt] *n.* [C] 壺; 一壺之量
A pot of tea for two, please.
12. **precisely** [prɪ'saɪsli] *adv.* exactly 正確地; 精確地
The train leaves at 10 o'clock precisely.
13. **constitutional** [ˌkɒnstə'tjuʃənəl] *n.* [C] a walk taken for one's health 爲健康所作的散步
14. ***Walters** ['wɒltəz] *n.* (姓)
15. **staff** [stæf] *n.* (*pl.*) a group of people working together in an organization 全體職員; 人員; 教職員
She was invited to join the staff of the BBC.
There are two students to every member of staff.
16. **scared** [skærd] *adj.* put into or being in a state of fear or anxiety 害怕的; 驚嚇的; 恐懼的 *scare v.*
Why won't you come on the trip? Are you scared?
17. **executive** [ɪg'zɛkjʊtɪv] *n.* [C] 經營者; 管理者; 經理
18. **barber** ['bɑ:bə] *n.* [C] a person who cuts men's hair and shaves them 理髮師
19. **shave** [ʃeɪv] *n.* [C] the removal of hair from the face by shaving 修面; 刮鬍子
He had a shave and a bath.
20. **suit** [su:t] *n.* [C] a set of outer clothes which match, usu. including a short coat (jacket) with trousers or skirt 一套服裝
21. **press** [pres] *v.t.* 燙平; 熨平
22. ***Frederick** ['frɛdrɪk] *n.* (男子名)

23. *Sweeney ['swini] *n.* (姓)
24. newlywed ['nju:li,wed] *n.* [C] a person recently married 新婚的人;
pl. 新婚夫婦
 Mr. and Mrs. Smith are newlyweds.
25. honeymoon ['hʌni,mun] *n.* [C] the holiday taken by a man and woman who have just got married 蜜月(旅行)
26. suite [swit] *n.* [C] a complete set of rooms, especially in a hotel 套房
27. florist ['flɒrɪst] *n.* [C] a person who keeps a shop for selling flowers 花商
28. lobby ['lɒbi] *n.* [C] a hall or passage, not a room, which leads from the entrance to the rooms inside a building 廳; 廊; 休息室
29. overseas ['ovə'si:z] *adj.* to, at, or in somewhere across the sea; foreign 海外的; 來自海外的; 國外的
 Overseas Chinese students have come back to our country from abroad in order to study.
30. convention [kən'venʃən] *n.* [C] (政治、宗教、教育等方面的) 代表大會或定期會議
31. *broadcaster ['brɔ:d,kæstə] *n.* [C] someone who gives talks or takes part in interviews and discussions on radio or television programs 廣播者; 播音員 broadcast *v.; n.*
 He had managed to earn a living as a broadcaster.
32. *Frasier ['frezɪr] *n.* (姓)
33. ballroom ['bɔ:l,rʊm] *n.* [C] a large room or hall suitable for a ball 舞廳
34. register ['redʒɪstə] *v.i.* to make a written and formal record in a list; to put someone's name on a list 登記; 註冊
 Have you registered at the hotel yet?
35. check-in ['tʃek,ɪn] *n.* [C] a place where one reports his arrival 報到處
 Please wait for me at the check-in.
 check in to report one's arrival as at a hotel desk, an airport, etc. 到達(旅館, 機場等地方)時辦理登記手續
 You must check in at the airport an hour before your plane leaves.
36. check-out ['tʃek,aut] *n.* [C] a place where one pays the bill and leaves 付帳處
 Please queue at the check-out.
 check out to pay one's bill and leave (a hotel, supermarket,

etc.) 付清帳離開

I'm going to check out early tomorrow morning.

37. **arrange** [ə'rendʒ] *v.t.* to make plans in advance to see to the details of something 安排; 籌備; 備妥

I have arranged a car to meet you at the airport.

38. **exhibition** [ˌɛksə'biʃən] *n.* [C] display of commercial or industrial goods for advertisement 展示; 展覽 Exhibition Hall 展示廳

39. **madam** ['mædəm] *n.* [C] a respectful form of address to a woman (whether married or unmarried) 夫人; 女士

Can I help you, madam?

40. ***telex** ['telɛks] *n.* [C] a telegraphic method of passing printed messages from one place to another by teleprinter 打字電報(傳送系統)

41. **operator** [ˈɒpə'retə] *n.* [C] a person who works at a telephone exchange or at the switchboard of an office or hotel 總機; 接線生

"Hello, operator?"

"Yes."

"Can you help me?"

IDIOMS AND PHRASES

1. **send up** to send (someone or something) to a person 送(某物給某人或到某處); 喚(某人到某處)

Please send up a cup of coffee to my room.

2. **rain or shine** whether the weather is wet or sunny 不論晴雨

The old man takes a walk every afternoon, rain or shine.

3. **face to face** looking directly at (a person, thing, each other)

面對面; 面對著

The opponents were brought face to face.

During the storm I came face to face with death.

face-to-face *adj.* They had a face-to-face argument.

4. **do (someone) a favor** to do something kind for someone 幫助(某人)

Do me a favor by turning off that radio!

5. **public address system** 播音系統

6. **fill up** to make or become completely full 充滿; 裝滿

The room soon filled up with people.

QUESTIONS ON THE READING

1. Who is Mrs. Denton?
2. At what time does Mrs. Denton want room service to send up her breakfast?
3. Who likes to see people and talk to them face to face?
4. What did Mr. Walters want cleaned and pressed?
5. Why might you think Mr. Walters is an unkind person?
6. What does Mr. Sweeney want the florist to send to his suite?
7. What group is holding a convention at the hotel?
8. How many chairs does the convention organizer think they will need?
9. Who will probably arrange for the separate check-in and check-out for convention guests?
10. Why are conventions and tours important to the hotel?
11. Who wants to send a telex to the home office?
12. Who says a desk clerk's job is rarely boring?

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What do you think of a desk clerk's job? Do you think it is interesting? Why?
2. What kind of job would you like to take after you finish your education? Give reasons for your choice.

ORAL PRACTICE

A. Use *have* in the following sentences. Follow the examples.

Example: I want the staff to fill out the forms.

→ *I'm going to have the staff fill out the forms.*

He wants his hair cut shorter.

→ *He's going to have his hair cut shorter.*

1. He wants that pickpocket arrested.
2. They want their wedding announced in the newspaper.
3. I want Mr. Wang to collect all the papers.
4. She wants her winter clothes cleaned.
5. I want my breakfast sent to my room.
6. I want the windows washed.
7. She wants someone to press her dresses.
8. I want this message sent to the home office.
9. They want the florist to deliver a dozen roses.
10. He wants someone to show him the suite.

B. Practice using the patterns: "Some... some..." "Some...others..."

Example: There are *all kinds of jobs*.
 Some *pay well*, and some don't.
 Some are *dangerous* and others are *boring*.

1. There are all kinds of books.
 Some sell well and some don't.
 Some _____ and others _____.
2. There are all kinds of clothes.
 Some wear well and some _____.
 Some _____.
3. There are all kinds of music.
 Some _____.
 Some _____.
4. There are all kinds of sports activities.
 _____.
 _____.
5. There are all kinds of people.
 _____.
 _____.
6. There are all kinds of movies.
 _____.
 _____.

C. Practice the following dialogues.

1. Desk Clerk: May I help you?
 Guest: I'd like to reserve a room for the night of July 1.
 Is there one available?

Desk Clerk: What kind of room would you like, a single room or a double room?

Guest: A single room will do. What's the price?

Desk Clerk: Twenty dollars a day.

Guest: Are meals included?

Desk Clerk: Only breakfast.

Guest: I'll take one.

Desk Clerk: Will you fill out this form, please?

2. Desk Clerk: May I help you?

Guest: Yes, I have a reservation.

Desk Clerk: What's your last name, sir?

Guest: Wang.

Desk Clerk: First name?

Guest: Ta-ming. T-A-M-I-N-G.

Desk Clerk: Mr. Wang, I see here you requested a king-sized bed?

Guest: No, actually not. I requested twin beds.

Desk Clerk: Oh, I guess we just had the wrong information in our computer. No problem.

Guest: Where's my room?

Desk Clerk: Let's see. Your room is 518. The bellboy will show you to your room.

Guest: Thank you.

D. Find yourself a partner and have a dialogue. One plays the desk clerk and the other plays the guest, following the examples of C.

EXERCISES

A. Use the correct form of the verb.

1. Have the pants _____. (press)
2. Have the assistant manager _____ the records. (review)
3. Have the package _____ from the main post office. (mail)
4. Have the food _____ in separate containers. (put)
5. Have her _____ in. (come)
6. Have the barber _____ him a shave and a haircut. (give)
7. Have the message _____ by telex. (send)
8. Have the broadcaster _____ the story. (repeat)

B. Use the words provided to complete the sentences.

1. The _____ delivered _____ to the _____ who were on their _____.
(newlyweds, roses, florist, honeymoon)
2. The _____ manager sent a _____ to the _____ by _____.
(message, home office, assistant, telex)
3. The _____ used all _____ of _____ as she prepared the _____ meal.
(cook, main, pots, kinds)
4. The _____ sat on the _____ drinking some _____.
(juice, sofa, elderly, widow)
5. The _____, the _____, and the _____ are all _____ areas in the hotel.
(ballroom, separate, lobby, exhibition hall)
6. She likes to eat _____ with a _____ and _____.
(coffee, egg, toast, soft-boiled)
7. The _____ announced the _____ over the _____.
(activities, public address system, organizer, convention)
8. We didn't have time to _____ and _____ the clothes before the _____ sent for them.
(clean, military officer, press)

C. Fill in each of the blanks with one of the words provided.

service	florist	organizer	clerk
cook	pot	eggs	grapefruit
toast	juice	separate	note
message	machine	precisely	

1. There is a lot of activities in the hotel lobby.
The desk _____ is talking to an elderly military officer.
The _____ is arranging roses.
The room _____ waiter is carrying ice.
The tour _____ is setting up charts.
2. Mr. and Mrs. Post are newlyweds.
Mr. Post is the _____ this morning.
He has cut a _____ in half.

There is _____ in the glasses.

He is also making soft-boiled _____.

He will cook them for _____ three minutes.

Right now he is making _____.

Mrs. Post is making a _____ of tea.

They ought to have a nice breakfast.

3. The office staff works well.

Miss Darcy, the assistant manager, sends a _____ on the telex _____.

Mr. Jordan writes a _____.

Mrs. Destry, the office manager, works in a _____ office.

D. Fill the blanks with proper words.

Margaret Bourke-White was the first photographer for Fortune magazine. Later she became 1. _____ of the first photographers for *Life*. 2. _____ a result of her photo essays in *Life*, she became famous. Her name was 3. _____ known than any other photographers.

Surprisingly, Margaret chose her career almost 4. _____ accident. She started college with the idea 5. _____ becoming a scientist. But she found 6. _____ necessary to support herself. She turned to taking pictures. From 7. _____ moment she fell under the spell of photography, she was obsessed by 8. _____ she and the camera could do together. "After I found the camera," she once said, "9. _____ never really felt like a whole person unless I 10. _____ planning pictures or taking them."

E. Write a short composition about the way people of a certain trade or profession work, such as the work of a bus driver or a lawyer.

風和太陽

風看到高懸的太陽受到世上萬物的尊敬和愛戴，非常嫉妒，氣得要死。有一天去找太陽說：「你受到萬物的尊敬和愛戴，不是因為你長得美，而是因為你有那麼點威力。可是你那點威力我還瞧不上眼呢。咱倆今天比一比怎樣？」

太陽無可奈何地說道：「好吧，我從來沒有跟誰比威風的意思，不過既然你有這個要求不妨就試一試。」

風說：「你也知道，世上最聰明最有智慧的是人，所以我們的勝負要以人的判斷來決定。來，先看看咱倆誰能夠把人的衣服扒下來。」

「好吧。」太陽表示同意。

風先發揮威力，對著站在院子裡的人猛吹，一心想把人的衣服吹掉。

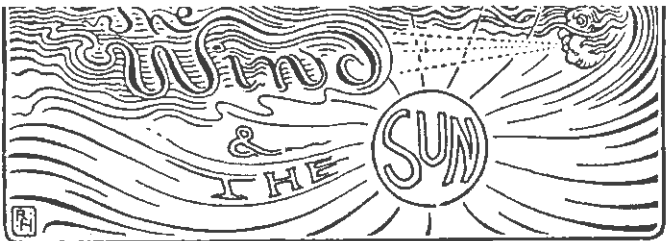
人感到突然來了風，而且這風又這麼涼，就把衣服上的鈕扣一個一個扣上了。風看看急眼了，吹得更猛了。這人見風的來頭這麼大，便拿一根繩子圍在腰上，這樣既能防寒，又不能讓風把衣服吹走。風氣得颯起更大的風，一心想把繩子磨斷，再扒掉他的衣服。可是風吹得越大，人把衣服裹得越緊。最後風氣喘吁吁，氣急敗壞地回來了。

接著太陽對著這個人放起光來，「真熱呀！」人說著，把個膀的繩子解掉了，鈕扣也一個一個解開了。太陽放射更強的光和熱，人就受不了啦，便開始一件一件地脫衣服。最後把僅有的一件也脫掉了。

看到這，風低下了頭，口服心服敬拜太陽了。

講述者：安基宗

搜集整理者：李純得、李光輝



THE Wind and the Sun were disputing which was the stronger. Suddenly they saw a traveller coming down the road, and the Sun said: "I see a way to decide our dispute. Whichever of us can cause that traveller to take off his cloak shall be regarded as the stronger. You begin." So the Sun retired behind a cloud, and the Wind began to blow as hard as it could upon the traveller. But the harder he blew the more closely did the traveller wrap his cloak round him, till at last the Wind had to give up in despair. Then the Sun came out and shone in all his glory upon the traveller, who soon found it too hot to walk with his cloak on.



Kindness effects more than Severity.

Some Facts about Taiwan

SOME FACTS ABOUT TAIWAN

I. The Natural Environment

Geographically, Taiwan, a province of the Republic of China, faces the Pacific Ocean in the east and the Taiwan Strait in the west. It is separated from the Province of Fukien on the Chinese Mainland by the Taiwan Strait, which is about 130 kilometers (at the narrowest point) in width. The total length from north to south is about 394 kilometers. The width at its widest point is about 142 kilometers. The total area of the province, including Peng-hu (also called the Pescadores) and other outlying islets, is about 36,000 square kilometers. The total length of the coastline is about 1,566 kilometers.

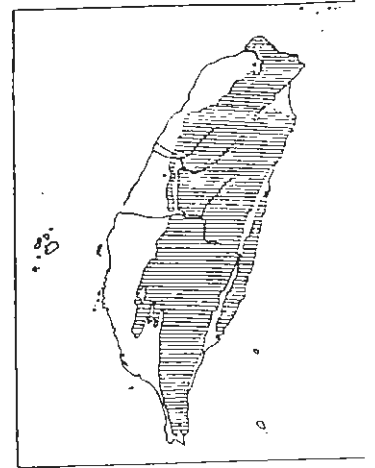
Taiwan itself is a mountainous island. Of all the high mountains, Mt. Jade is the highest. Of the total territory, 70% is mountainous area and 30% is flat land.

The rivers in Taiwan are short and usually flow rapidly. There are 19 rivers which are longer than 50 kilometers. The Chuo-shuei River is the longest one among them.

As the Tropic of Cancer goes through Chia-yi County, Taiwan is divided into two zones. One is the tropical zone and the other is the subtropical zone. The weather is generally hot and humid. During the summer and autumn, there are typhoons which may bring heavy rain and often cause a lot of damage.

II. The Population

According to the census data gathered in 1987, the total population of Taiwan was over 19 million. This included the people living in Taipei and Kaohsiung. Since 1946 the population has more than doubled.



自然 环境

【面积】台湾是中国一个由岛屿组成的海省份。全省由台湾本岛和周围属岛以及澎湖列岛两大岛群，共80余个岛屿所组成。陆地总面积35989.7573平方公里。其中，台湾本岛南北长394公里，东西最宽处144公里，面积35788.0908平方公里，约占全省面积的97%以上，是中国第一大岛。

地形与气候

【地形】台湾本岛是一个多山的海岛，高山和丘陵面积占2/3，平原不到1/3。

台湾是我国受台风影响最多的省份，近海面为夏季台风的主要通道。每年6-10月是台风季节，其中7-9月台风次数最为频繁。

台湾岛地形，中间高，两侧低。以纵贯南北的中央山脉为分水岭，分别渐次地向东、西海岸跌落。但由于高山多集中在中偏东地区，就形成了东部多山地，中部多丘陵，西部多平原的地形特征。

人口与民族

【人口】台湾全省人口，据截至1990年12月底的统计，已达20597388人。人口平均增长率为12.41%。

Keating Calls for Summits with Asia



Keating calls for summits with Asia

By political correspondent GLENN MILNE

THE Prime Minister, Mr Keating, spearheaded his call last night for Australia to turn to Asia with a proposal for a regular meeting of Asia-Pacific heads of government to pursue regional economic and strategic initiatives.

In a bid to define a new political role for Australia in the region, Mr Keating said such meetings should take place every two or three years and be based on membership of the Asia Pacific Economic Co-operation group, first suggested by Australia in 1989.

Australians needed to forget the "blood ties" that had bound the nation to Britain during the Menzies era if it was to capitalise on its geographic potential in the quickly growing Asia-Pacific region.

Australian Chinese Daily 新報

在紐修威大學發表長篇演講表示

**基廷決意摒棄澳英血緣
在亞太區樹立全新形象**

建議定期舉行亞太區國家首腦會議

【新報雪梨訊】總理基廷前晚建議澳洲應與亞太區國家政府的元首，舉行經常性的會議

，以便推行地區性的經濟及策略建議。

基廷表示有關會議須每兩

至三年舉行一次，並應有亞太區經濟合作組織的成員參加。該個組織亦由澳洲於1989年首先倡議成立。

他說，假若澳洲希望利用其地理上的潛力，以打入這個正在不斷發展的亞太區市場，澳洲人便應忘記以往與英國的「血緣關係」。

基廷前晚出席在紐修威大學、澳亞一學院舉辦的專題演講會時發表了長達三分鐘的演說。

在演講會結束後，基廷伉儷更與部份嘉賓，在大学的宴會廳內共晉晚餐。



基廷在紐修威大學發表長篇演說 (April 9, 1992)

The Flesh Readability Formula

The Flesch readability formula

To find out Flesch's Readability Formula on 147-word letter:

1. Find out the average sentence length.
2. Count the number of syllables and divide the total number of syllables by the total number of words and multiply by 100. This will give you the number of syllables per 100 words.
3. Multiply the average sentence length by 1.015. Then multiply the number of syllables per 100 words by 0.846. Add these two figures. Subtract the result from 206.8 to give a reading ease score.

"Reading ease" is measured on a scale from 0 (practically unreadable) to 100 (easy reading for any literate person). An example:

Average sentence	= 24.5
Syllables per 100 words	= 151.7
Calculate:	24.5 × 1.015 = 24.9
	151.7 × 0.846 = +128.3
	Total = 153.2
Readability:	206.8
	- 153.2
	53.6

A score of 53.6 is considered "Fairly Difficult".

Appendix 6

Halliday and Hasan Modified Coding System

A. REFERENCE

(1) Pronominals

e.g., The Prime Minister, Mr Keating, spearheaded his call last night for Australia to turn to Asia with a summit.

(2) Demonstratives

e.g., A traveler was coming down the road. The Sun said:
"Which of us can cause that traveler to take off his cloak shall be regarded as the stronger."

(3) Definite articles

e.g., The Wind and the Sun saw a traveler coming down the road. They decided to cause the traveler to take off his cloak.

(4) Comparatives

e.g., Catherine was offered three jobs. Maria wishes that she had been offered as many.

B. SUBSTITUTION

(1) Nominal

e.g., A: I'm looking for a particular book on syntax.

B: Is this the one you mean?

(2) Verbal

e.g., A: Who broke the window?

B: I think David did.

(3) Clausal

e.g., A: It's going to rain soon.

B: Yes, I think so.

C. ELLIPSIS

(1) Nominal

e.g., Gary liked the green ties. I preferred the blue
(ties).

(2) Verbal

e.g., A: Will anyone be waiting?

B: Jim will, I think. (echo)

(3) Clausal

e.g., I kept quiet because Mary gets very embarrassed if
anyone mentions John's name. I don't know why. (=I
don't know why Mary gets embarrassed if anyone
mentions John's name.)

D. CONJUNCTIVES

(1) Additive

e.g., and, furthermore, that is, incidentally, likewise

(2) Adversative

e.g., yet, actually, but, instead, in any case, however

(3) Causal

e.g., so, consequently, for, it follows, because

(4) Temporal

e.g., before, first, finally, meanwhile, at once, after

E. LEXICAL COHESION**(1) Parallelism**

e.g., The harder the wind blew, the more closely did the traveler wrap his cloak round him.

(2) Total Recurrence

e.g., Taiwan faces the Taiwan Strait in the west. It is separated from the Province of Fukien on the Chinese Mainland by the Taiwan Strait.

(3) Partial Recurrence

e.g., After the coastal Fukien fisherman discovered this, the Mritain crew thanked the fisherman.

(4) Antonym

e.g., The traveler took off his cloak. Later, he found it too hot and put his cloak on.

(5) **Synonym**

e.g., Taiwan, a province of the Republic of China, faces
the Pacific Ocean in the east.