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**Scaffolding Extensive Reading in the Beginning
Adult Education ESL Classroom**

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Report

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Dedication

To my students for their continual inspiration
and to Fred, Emily, Kate, Megan, Kiernan, and Kyah
for their support, patience, and understanding.

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Abstract

Extensive Reading in the Beginning Adult ESL Classroom

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Research has showed repeatedly the value of extensive reading in the L2 classroom for improved reading comprehension (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981; Mason & Krashen, 1997; Renandya, Rajan, & Jacobs, 1999). However, additional support beyond traditional extensive reading practices may be needed for very low proficiency learners. This report reviews research on implementing an extensive reading program for beginning level adult-education English language learners. It presents arguments for supporting extensive reading through shared reading, including read-alouds, use of children's literature, and strategy modeling techniques. It also discusses the benefits of student-generated texts for boosting vocabulary and comprehension skills. The report concludes with pedagogical implications for including a strong reading component in the adult education ESL curriculum and suggestions for evaluating the strength and utility of such a program.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Reading at the beginning level of adult education English as a Second Language (ESL) classes is an oft-neglected component of the curriculum. The general approach has traditionally been to focus on survival and oral–aural skills, with only cursory attention to reading and writing (Wrigley, 1993). However, in recent years there has been a trend to reverse the approach of teaching language skills in favor of examining the value of reading as a tool for acquiring language skills (Greenberg, Rodrigo, Berry, Brinck, & Joseph, 2006; Renandya, Rajan, & Jacobs, 1999).

The case has been made for extensive reading as a means to promote comprehension skills, incidental vocabulary, and increased motivation to read for pleasure (Bamford & Day, 2004; Day & Bamford, 1998; Grabe, 2005; Krashen, 2003). Grabe (2009) provides a thumbnail history of extensive reading from its beginning in the 1920s to its 1960s blossoming in K-12 classrooms as Sustained Silent Reading (SSR), in which a portion of class time was, and still is, devoted exclusively to silent reading for pleasure. However, at the very beginning levels of ESL instruction, it is not enough to provide books and encourage student to read. Even those who are proficient readers in their L1 may be discouraged by encounters with unfamiliar names and syntax. Most lack a vocabulary base in L2, and many of them do not have appropriate L1 reading strategies to transfer to their L2 reading (Burt, Peyton, & Van Duzer, 2005). This report addresses the value of extensive reading and scaffolding for independent L2 reading in the form of shared reading activities and construction of student-generated texts.

Up until 1981, research on reading was couched largely in terms of the L1 classroom (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981; Pulido, 2009). It was the publication of Elley and Mangubhai's 1981 8-month Fiji book flood study that showed extensive reading and

shared reading to be effective instructional tools for L2 reading. This landmark study unleashed a spate of research studies focusing on reading instruction for second- and foreign-language learners.

The Fiji study involved 4th and 5th grade students in 12 primary schools divided into three groups: Shared Book, Silent Reading, and Control, with 8 classes in each group. The classrooms of the experimental groups received donations of approximately 250 books. In the Shared Book groups, the teachers chose interesting books, often enlarged so all the children could see the words and pictures, to read aloud to the class. The stories were read repeatedly, with encouragement for the children to read along with the teacher on the second and third readings. The reading was accompanied by questions, predictions, and clarification of new vocabulary and followed by activities such as art projects, role-playing, word study, and writing.

In the Silent Reading classrooms, teachers occasionally read some of the books aloud, but the key activity for this group was simply to engage in silent reading (SSR) for half an hour a day. The Control group teachers were instructed to teach their classes using their usual audiolingual methodology.

Post-test results after 8 months showed significant improvement in the book flood classes compared to the control classes. The Silent Reading and Shared Reading group both had twice the growth in reading as the Control group, with the additional finding that the Shared Reading group outperformed the Silent Reading group in listening comprehension. This study clearly made a case for the effectiveness of both extensive reading and shared reading.

In the present study, the use of student-generated texts as scaffolding for independent reading is a repurposing of the language experience approach (LEA), which first gained popularity with the 1963 publication of Sylvia Ashton-Warner's diary of

teaching Maori children in New Zealand. She found traditional British teaching methods to be ineffective with her students and developed what has come to be known as the language experience approach to make a connection between students' spoken language and print. "First books," she wrote, "must be made out of the stuff of the child himself" (p. 35). Ashton-Warner's "organic" teaching method gained popularity in L1 elementary school classrooms before it migrated to remedial reading and writing instruction and to L2 instruction for all ages. This teaching strategy has fallen in and out of favor over the years, and the details of its form have taken on various characteristics (e.g., whether the teacher writes exactly what students say, errors and all, or makes corrections during the transcription phase), but the core principle has remained constant: transcribe the students' words to provide them with a comprehensible reading text.

This report reviews research on implementing an extensive reading program for adult-education beginning ESL students, drawing on shared reading and strategy modeling techniques to scaffold reading comprehension and using student-generated texts to boost vocabulary and comprehension skills. Inasmuch as possible, the research cited has a focus of adult education ESL. The report concludes with pedagogical implications for including a strong reading component in the adult education ESL curriculum and suggestions for evaluating the strength and utility of such a program.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This literature review is divided into three parts: extensive reading, shared reading, and student-generated texts.

RESEARCH ON EXTENSIVE READING

The five studies reviewed here all investigate the effectiveness of extensive reading with adult learners. One (Mason & Krashen, 1977) uses low-achieving university participants. Two studies (Marusic, 2006; Renandya et al., 1999) examine the benefits of extensive reading with professional employees in Croatia and Vietnam. The study by Greenberg, Rodrigo, Berry, Brinck, and Joseph (2006) looks at extensive reading employed, not with L2 learners, but with low-achieving native English speakers, to determine the effectiveness of extensive reading with a low-achieving, reading-resistant adult population. One study (Horst, 2005) is specific to the incidental vocabulary acquisition from extensive reading by adult education ESL students.

Mason and Krashen (1977)

Mason and Krashen (1997) report on three studies that support the value of extensive reading in a foreign language acquisition environment. The first of these is particularly relevant to the research question under consideration. This study addresses the benefit of extensive reading for low-achieving students at a women's university in Osaka, Japan. The experimental group consisted of second, third, and fourth year students who had previously failed English as a foreign language (EFL) classes (retakers). The control group consisted of second year students in the general education curriculum. Both classes met for 90 min once a week and were taught by the same teacher (Beniko Mason, one of the authors of the study). The study spanned the second semester of an academic

year. During the first semester, both classes were taught using a traditional curriculum, to which the control group responded very well. In the retakers group, however, many students failed to turn in homework; homework that was submitted was incomplete; students were often late to class; attendance was poor; test scores were low; one-third of the students dropped out of the class. During the second semester, the semester of the study, both groups were given a 100-item cloze test as a pre-test. The control group continued with the traditional curriculum, but the retakers class spent the entire semester reading graded readers, both in class and as homework. Students were required to read 50 books during the semester and to keep a reading diary in Japanese. Though none of the students reached the 50-book requirement, some read more than 40, and the average number of books read was 30. At the end of the semester, all students were given the cloze test again as a post-test.

For data analysis, 20 students were selected randomly from each group. As expected, the control group outperformed the experimental group on the pre-test, but by the end of the semester, the experimental group nearly closed the gap, with significantly greater gains than the control group. In addition, the experimental group developed much more positive attitudes about L2 reading. However, the study is not without limitations, in that it involves only two classrooms, only one measure was used, and one of the experimenters taught both sections.

Renandya et al. (1999)

Renandya et al. (1999) investigated the effects of extensive reading with older adult English learners. Variables included the amount of extensive reading material read; the extent to which participants perceived the material as interesting, easy/difficult, or incomprehensible; and whether participants perceived extensive reading to be a useful

and enjoyable activity. Participants were 47 Vietnamese government officials (47% male; 53% female) who were in Singapore for a two-month intensive English course. They ranged in age from 21 to 55 years, and their proficiency in English ranged from low to high intermediate. Extensive reading was a key element of the participants' intensive English course, with a large selection of graded readers from which to choose. Participants were required to read either 20 books of their choice or fewer than 20 books, provided the total number of pages was at least 800. Post-reading activities consisted of small-group discussions and retelling.

Data analysis was based on pre- and post-tests of English proficiency, participants' book record form, and a two-part questionnaire designed to elicit further information. Findings suggest that extensive reading can be implemented successfully with older adults. Although there were initial complaints about the amount of required reading, an average score of 2.63 (halfway between *Enjoyable* and *Very Enjoyable*) was given in response to the question of whether the extensive reading assignments were enjoyable. By the end of the course, participants were making comments such as "I read fast now" and "I think I will continue reading English books after I return to Vietnam." One of their greatest rewards for the authors in conducting this study was seeing reluctant readers (i.e., those who tended to avoid reading) become eager readers.

Horst (2005)

Horst (2005) published an ingenious study investigating the vocabulary benefits of an extensive reading program. She and her research assistants scanned the first twenty pages of 37 of their 70 graded readers to create vocabulary lists from the books. They then used VocabProfile (<http://www.lex tutor.ca/vp/eng/>), an online lexical frequency profiling application, to classify the word lists into four frequency categories: (a) the

1,000 most frequent words families of English; (b) the 1,001 to 2,000 most frequent; (c) the 570 word families that occur frequently in university texts across disciplines; (d) off-list words—less frequent words and proper nouns that do not occur on any of the earlier lists. It was the post-test knowledge of the off-list words from books students had read that served as an indicator that the words had been learned from the reading, since these words were not in the lists of highly frequent words and not likely to have been encountered elsewhere. Participants were 21 adult immigrant ESL students in a Montreal community center representing a variety of L1s: Arabic, Chinese, Farsi, Korean, Polish, Spanish, and Russian. Their English proficiency levels ranged from elementary to high intermediate. The authors did not explain how they determined these levels or how they correlated to placement test scores. Participants' ages and genders were not given. Participants did most of the reading at home, but they were given a total of about one hour a week of class time to check out and return books and engage in activities that supported their reading, such as engaging in book discussions, updating vocabulary lists, or reading silently. There was a wide range in number of books read per student during the six weeks of the study, from 3 to 33, with a mean number of 10.52 books, or 1.75 books a week. A 100-word pre-test and 100-word individualized post-tests were prepared from the frequency lists from the scanned books. The format of the test was a modified version of the Horst and Meara (1999) self-report checklist. Participants rated themselves on their confidence in knowing the meanings of the words on the list by circling YES (knows the word), NS (is not sure about the word), or NO (does not know the word). After six weeks, individualized post-tests were administered to 17 of the 21 participants; individualized tests could not be made for the remaining four participants, and they were given the same type of test that was used for the pre-test.

The results and discussion of the study are based on the 17 students who were given individualized post-tests. All students had a greater number of YES answers on the post-test than they had on the pre-test and showed a mean gain of 17 words, including more than half of the off-list words. To verify the results, participants were given an additional vocabulary test consisting of off-list words for which the participant had responded NO on the pretest and which were used in one or more of the books the participant had read. This second test, though limited in number of words, provided an opportunity for participants to demonstrate their knowledge of the words through definition, translation to their L1, and use in a sentence. Results of this test reveal learning of more than half (51.43%) of previously unknown words. Limitations of the study include the small number of words tested (100) and the even smaller number of words that qualified for use in the verification test (one to three items per participant). In addition, the researcher was unable to administer a delayed post-test, so there is no way of knowing the permanence of the new vocabulary knowledge. A final limitation lies in the immense reading gap between native speakers of English who have been reading and amassing vocabulary all of their school lives, and adult English language learners who are only beginning to read in English. “ER programs may help to narrow the gap,” Horst observes, “but only if they can motivate learners to read in large amounts.” (p. 378)

Greenberg et al. (2006)

The 2006 research published by Greenberg et al. is unique to the present study in that participants were not L2 learners. Rather, they were native English speaking adult literacy learners, a population that often possesses negative childhood school experiences and anxiety about reading books. The 27 participants (7 male; 20 female) ranged in age from 17 to 63, with an average age of 39. Most were African American; three were

Latino, one Asian, and one Caucasian. The authors devised a carefully planned extensive reading program that also included a read-aloud component, similar to that used in the Fiji study (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981). Classes, with five learners each, ran for two hours a day, four days a week, for approximately 13 weeks, totaling an average of 71 hours of instruction. Classes typically read silently for about 20 minutes of each class period. Some participants chose to take books home for continued reading outside of class. Participants were administered pre- and post-tests consisting of a reading survey, the Woodcock Johnson Psycho-Educational Battery-III, the Boston Naming Test, and the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-III.

The study confirms that incorporating extensive reading into the adult literacy curriculum is a viable option, although participants did not demonstrate reading gains in all areas measured. There was no significant improvement in receptive vocabulary, word identification, comprehension, or decoding. There was significant gain, however, in fluency and expressive vocabulary. In addition, the survey results indicated participant enjoyment of extensive reading, and by the end of the study, most students reported that they read more and were more confident readers.

Marusic (2006)

Marusic (2006) takes a unique approach to extensive reading to facilitate language learning in that she formed a book club to help Croatian participants maintain their English skills in between available on-the-job English courses. In organizing the book club, she followed closely the 10 principles of extensive reading put forth by Bamford and Day (2004). The 12 participants met for one hour once a week for five months. Participation in the book club was completely voluntary, and all of the participants were eager to improve their English language skills. There was no record

keeping of participants' progress and no pre- or post-test data. Participants had the option of keeping a record of their reading and sharing the contents of that record with others in the group, but the record was not mandatory, and the author did not read the participants' comments about their reading. The author describes the club as a highly motivating atmosphere for the low-pressure exchange of ideas and language practice. The group chose books to read by consensus and had a shared goal of reading a minimum of 10 pages per week.

Results of the book club experiment derived from participants' comments about their experience, which generally reflected their pleasure in reading. The book club provided an opportunity and an excuse for extensive reading and contributed to the confidence and general language learning ability of the participants. An additional benefit was the washback effect of the book club in influencing two generations to become readers. One participant reported that through the example of his own extensive reading, he was able to help his children develop a positive attitude toward reading for pleasure.

RESEARCH ON SHARED READING

The benefits of shared reading, along with those of extensive reading, were documented in the Elley and Mangubhai 1981 Fiji study. Shared reading can mean many things. Primarily, it is reading aloud to students, but it also encompasses modeling of reading strategies, repeated readings, group and pair discussion and student retelling, and dramatization of key scenes (Elley, 2000). Students follow the text as the teacher reads, so the text should be large enough for all students to see. It can be an oversized book, it can be projected, or students can have their own copies of the text. The three studies reviewed on the following pages examine shared reading from various perspectives. Dhair (1990) and Amer (1997) examined the efficacy of teacher read-alouds with

university and 6th grade L2 populations, respectively. Fisher, Flood, Lapp, & Frey (2004) interviewed urban public school L1 teachers who were considered “expert” at read-aloud in the classroom to determine exactly what qualities define a good read-aloud.

Dhaif (1990)

Dhaif introduced his study by questioning the (then) prevailing belief that reading is essentially an individual experience, a dialog between reader and text. He made a case for reading aloud by a fluent reader as a model of phrase structure and intonation to help beginning readers overcome the habit of word-by-word decoding they so often develop. Participants were 140 randomly chosen first-year students at the University of Bahrain representing the five colleges at the university: Arts (n=21), Science (n=24), Business (n=26), Education (n=36), and Engineering (n=33). All had an intermediate level of English proficiency. Dhaif did not report on the male–female ratio. Six reading passages were selected for the study from various commercially produced course books to aid in studying for the Cambridge First Certificate in English (FCE) examinations. There were two passages for each of three types: (a) narrative passage with dialogue, (b) narrative passage without dialogue, and (c) expository passage with factual information. In the first of two testing sessions, participants were asked to read the first set of three passages and answer five multiple-choice questions about each one. In the second session, the participants were asked to answer five multiple choice questions for the remaining three passages after the researcher read them aloud as they read along silently. In order to maintain similar procedures between the two testing sessions, there was no discussion of text or explanation of vocabulary in the read-aloud session.

The improvement in comprehension scores of the second session over the first session was statistically significant in all cases, as was shown by applying a *t* test to the scores. The *t* values ranged from 2.87 to 6.47, $p < 0.005$.

Amer (1997)

Seven years later, Amer took a page from Dhaif's book, quoting him in stating the rationale for his study of the effects of read-aloud on the comprehension of Grade 6 EFL students in Egypt. Participants were 75 male 6th grade students in Cairo who had been studying EFL for 6 years. The experimental class consisted of 39 students; the control class consisted of 36. A short story with pictures was divided into four parts and the parts were taught every other day to both groups until the story was completed. Both teachers began each session by introducing key vocabulary. Then the control group read silently, and the experimental group followed along in their copy of the story while the teacher read it aloud meaningfully and with expression. A 15-question multiple-choice test and a story-frame test (similar to cloze but with deleted phrases instead of deleted words) based on the story were used as both pre-test and post-test for each group. The pre-tests were administered three days before the instruction began, multiple-choice first and then story-frame. There was no significant difference in the performance of the two groups on the pretests, confirming the essential equivalence of the experimental and control groups.

The post-tests were administered three days after completion of the story. Amer considered that the 14-day interval between pre-testing and post-testing was enough time to control for any short-term memory effects. The experimental group outperformed the control group on both tests: multiple-choice test, $t = 6.2$, $p < 0.01$; story-frame test, $t = 4.5$, $p < 0.01$.

Fisher, Flood, Lapp, and Frey (2004)

In an effort to determine the qualities of an effective read-aloud, Fisher et al. (2004) surveyed 25 “expert” public school teachers in San Diego County, California. These teachers were identified through a mailing introducing the research project to 65 urban school administrators in the county. The letter asked the administrators “to nominate one classroom teacher whom they believed was an ‘expert’ in conducting read-alouds and whose students consistently demonstrated significant reading achievement.” (p. 9) From the list of 45 teachers nominated, the researchers randomly selected 25 teachers, representing 25 different schools, to be observed. In order to establish interobserver reliability, all four researchers observed one of the selected teachers to reach consensus on their observations. After that, each of the remaining teachers was observed by two of the researchers to identify the procedures they used in conducting a read-aloud. In Phase II of the study, pairs of researchers observed 120 teachers who were consistently used as Grade 3–8 cooperating teachers for San Diego State University student teachers. The teaching experience of this group of teachers averaged 8.3 years, with a range of 3 to 32 years. Fifty-four (45%) had master’s degrees, and most (n=103) were female. The characteristics of these teachers’ read-alouds were then compared to the read-alouds from the expert group. Follow-up tape-recorded individual interviews were conducted with a random sample of 18 of the Phase II teachers in which the researchers revealed their observations and showed the teacher the components of a read-aloud observed in the Phase I teachers. Participants were encouraged to talk about discrepancies between their read-alouds and the model read-alouds from Phase I. Data from these interviews were used to explain and extend observational findings.

The researchers thus identified seven components of an effective interactive read-aloud. Teachers (a) selected books appropriate to students’ interests and developmental,

emotional, and social levels; (b) previewed and practiced selections; (c) established a clear purpose for the read-aloud; (d) modeled fluent oral reading; (e) were animated and used expression; (f) stopped periodically and thoughtfully questioned the students to focus them on specific aspects of the text; (g) made connections to independent reading and writing. After holding the Phase II results up to these seven components, the researchers determined that “classroom teachers are skilled at presenting many of the components of a read-aloud.” (p. 15). The greatest divergences occurred in previewing and practicing the selection and connecting the read-aloud to other classroom events. In addition, many failed to extend the text through appropriate independent literacy activities. Questions remain for further research: (a) Do children tend to select books that their teachers have read to them for independent or home reading? (b) Do children learn the vocabulary words in the read-aloud books more fully than other vocabulary they are taught? (c) Does children’s writing reflect the style of the authors of their read-aloud books? (d) Do children exhibit extensions to their learning that come directly from their read-aloud books? There is a need for research on these questions based on adult ESL learners.

RESEARCH ON STUDENT-GENERATED TEXTS

Like shared reading, the concept of student-generated texts, an outgrowth of the language experience approach, has engendered many articles in the past 30 years (e.g., Licht, 2004; Taylor, 1992; Vinogradov & Bigelow, 2010; Wrigley, 1993; Wurr, 2002) but few published research studies. Of the two qualitative studies described in this report, only one (Wales, 1994) focuses on adult ESL learners. The other (Moustafa, 1987) is a long-term case study of 4th, 5th, and 6th grade ESL students.

Moustafa (1987)

Moustafa's (1987) case history is a combination of comprehensible input (CI; Krashen, 1982) and LEA. She describes using LEA during two academic years with two classes of beginning-level 4th, 5th, and 6th grade ESL students. She had a total of 58 students representing eight different first languages in her content-based language arts class. Thirty-eight of these students were present from September to June during 1 of the years. Moustafa's CI + LEA instructional strategy consisted of five stages: (a) prediction, (b) early dictation, (c) expanded dictation, (d) silent reading, and (e) semi independent composing. The goal of the prediction stage, which lasted 2 to 3 months, was to increase each student's aural/oral English through the use of picture books, total physical response (TPR), Lotto games, and other language acquisition activities. The CI + LEA instruction began in the early dictation stage. The CI part of the lesson was based on Moustafa showing a picture of a familiar situation and asking questions about it until students had the basic vocabulary for talking about the picture. Then she reinforced the vocabulary in print with flash cards.

The next step was the LEA part of the process. The students dictated 6 to 8 sentences about the picture, which the researcher wrote on butcher paper at the front of the room, saying the words as she wrote them. This was followed by reading and re-reading, chorally as a whole class, in groups, in pairs. After the students were thoroughly familiar with the story, they were asked to identify basic sight words such as *the*, *is*, and *in*. In the third stage, the expanded dictation stage, the CI portion was accelerated, the dictations became longer, and the choral reading was gradually reduced as the students became more proficient with their new language. In the silent reading stage, the choral reading was dropped altogether, and the students read the paragraph silently as it was projected from a transparency, and then they were given printed copies for partner

reading. By the final stage of the process, students were ready for semi-independent composing. After the CI part of the lesson, they wrote their individual stories about the picture prompt, which they read aloud to their group.

All but 3 of the 58 students progressed through the process in a year's time. They demonstrated transfer of their abilities by reading stories created by other groups, and the fact that they could still read the stories without visual cues after several months attested to the retention of their reading ability.

Wales (1994)

Wales' 1994 study of adult immigrant railway workers in Australia demonstrates a very different approach to LEA. In addition to the fact that the workers had little education in their L1 (generally Eastern European languages) and little or no literacy in English, they faced negative attitudes from their co-workers about their receiving work time for the English classes, and many of the older immigrants had low self-esteem and little confidence about their ability to succeed in the English class. Most of the participants were male; Wales did not give the number and gender breakdown. They attended two courses, each one consisting of three 2-hour classes a week for a total of 100 hours of instruction. In addition, some students received permission to attend an additional 200–300 hours of instruction. The first 100 hours was focused on acclimatization to classroom routines and procedures and of building community with fellow students, as well as building basic literacy skills and learning to express their basic learning needs. By the beginning of the second 100-hour course, the students were ready for LEA. The text for the LEA activity for this group would usually come out of a class discussion about current events, a situation at work, or other matter of interest to the class. The teacher wrote the students' sentences on the board as they said them, but with

correct spelling. She then prompted for corrections of nonstandard forms and word order. If the group could not supply a needed adjustment to the text, the instructor provided it. The adjusted text was then used for a variety of reading and writing activities. The texts were read aloud many times and in many ways, including reading from the end of the text to the beginning for random word recognition. Writing tasks ranged from copying (which was a challenge for many of the students, to cloze and dictation exercises. Eventually they were given simple texts that they had not seen before, and after discussion of the new text, the LEA would proceed based on a summary or retelling of the text. They progressed to writing everyday messages, letters, and job-related forms.

The participants' English proficiency was measured at the beginning of the course and at the end of each 100 hours of instruction using the Australian Second Language Proficiency Rating (ASLPR) scale. At the end of the first 100 hours of instruction, all participants had risen at least one level on the proficiency scale. By the end of 200 hours of instruction, the majority of the students had reached a basic level of independence in their reading and writing.

Chapter 3: Pedagogical Implications

The research reviewed in the first part of this report supports the role of extensive reading, shared reading, and student-created texts in promoting L2 students' ownership of their new language. What is surprising is the lack of recent research on experiential techniques and strategies to promote L2 acquisition in the adult education classroom. David Ross (1992) concluded that adult education ESL is perhaps the fastest growing sector of education in the U.S. today, and it is also the most underfunded. Sadly, that is still a true statement almost 20 years later. It appears that adult education may also be one of the most under-researched sectors of education.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE ADULT ESL LEARNER

Adult ESL learners are a diverse population, not lending themselves easily to characterization or stereotype. Many resemble the Australian railway workers described by Wales (2004). Others are recent arrivals from refugee camps, survivors of unspeakable hardships and violence. Still others are recent immigrants who have completed high school or even higher education courses of study. It is not unusual to have a beginning level class with a mix of all of these types of students, from unschooled construction worker to university professor. Most of them have full-time jobs and family responsibilities, leaving little or no time to study outside of class.

The unschooled are taking on a double challenge: learning English as they develop literacy skills for the first time, but they don't arrive in class as empty vessels or blank slates. They have dreams, responsibilities, experiences — histories. It is important to build on learners' knowledge and experience (Burt et al., 2008; Vinogradov, 2008). "Building reading in emergent readers does NOT begin with the alphabet. It begins with

a conversation, serious questions that stretch students' thinking, and with a genuine interest in learners' responses" (Vinogradav, p. 8). They often lack confidence, whether because they are entering a schoolroom for the first time in their lives or because they have recently come from being a respected professional in their own country to being unemployable in the U.S.

Their lack of English also poses an economic hardship, impacting their employability. They are less likely to have continuous employment, and when they are employed, they earn less than their English-speaking co-workers (Burt et al., 2005). To paint this picture blacker, Wrigley (1993) writes about the "hidden curriculum" in the traditional skills-based format for literacy-level ESL classes. Theoretically, the skills-based curriculum is designed to ease the immigrants' entry into the workforce and the social fabric of American life. However, critics claim that such a curriculum merely trains the immigrant students to be subservient and obedient workers, keeping them at the lower end of the power spectrum. To counter this criticism, Wrigley proposes a focus on cognitive and academic skills, stressing process over content and encouraging the adult students to construct their own meaning, whether interacting with others or with text. The three approaches to reading addressed in this report provide such a focus.

THE BENEFITS OF EXTENSIVE READING

Among the strengths of an extensive reading program from a student's point of view is the free selection of text and genre, which may differ from typical academic choices. Some teachers also include magazines and newspapers in their extensive reading materials. Students can choose from materials provided in the classroom, or they can read texts that they bring from home or the library. In addition to reading, ideally they will

also have an opportunity to interact socially, discuss their reading with others, and perhaps to make a difference in their classmates' reading choices.

Two of the studies reviewed in this report (Greenberg et al., 2006; Mason & Krashen, 1999) examine the usefulness of extensive reading for "reluctant" readers, providing an affirmative answer to the question, "Is it possible to make a reader out of a nonreader?" The reluctant readers (students who had previously failed English) all had a positive response to extensive reading. Mason and Krashen note: "Perhaps the most important and impressive finding of this study is the clear improvement in attitude shown by the experimental students. Many of the once-reluctant students of EFL became eager readers" (p. 93). In addition, one of the results reported by Renandya et al. (1999) was that many participants who were initially resistant to the extensive reading component of their intensive English course became eager L2 readers by the time the course was finished.

The author's experience with extensive reading for literacy level adults has shown that even students who are astonished by the expectation that they will read books in English soon take to the reading readily. In her three-hour classroom routine, reading time is always right after the mid-class break. Many students come back early from break to start reading; many more are reluctant to put their books down when told that it is time to stop. Given a range of sufficiently comprehensible books from which to choose, even the most basic-level student can benefit from extensive reading and in the process develop confidence in her or his ability to learn.

Using adult ESL students with an elementary to high intermediate level of proficiency, Horst (2005) successfully quantified the long-standing claim for incidental vocabulary acquisition from extensive reading. Such findings lend further credence to the

“Matthew effect” (Stanovich, 1986) in providing evidence that the more one reads, the more one will be able to read.

Even though the kind of reading done by Marusic’s (2006) book club was not extensive reading in the sense that the term is generally used (participants all read the same book at the same time and were required to read only 10 pages a week), her experience has some interesting implications. In this study, participants did additional reading at home, and some reported satisfaction from sharing books with their young children. Others reported that their older children became motivated to read from seeing their parents reading at home. This is clearly a benefit that could be realized by any parent participating in an extensive reading program. The larger benefit exemplified by this study, however, can be described in terms of Oprah Winfrey, who reawakened an interest in books and reading across the country through her Oprah Book Club, popularizing the social dimension of sharing one’s reading with others (Trelease, 2006).

PLANNING THE EXTENSIVE READING CURRICULUM

The beginning of an extensive reading program should focus on fostering students’ success and confidence in their ability to read in the target language. Using a layers of necessity approach to curriculum design (Nation & Macalister, 2010), the curriculum is best begun on a basic level, with additional layers of complexity added as results of the program are evaluated and students’ needs and progress dictate. As students become more accustomed to the periods of silent reading, the silent reading time can be lengthened. The amount of time devoted to shared reading and student-constructed texts may be phased out as the course progresses, with more time devoted to student activities and presentations concerning their reading. The following sections provide general guidelines to consider when implementing extensive reading in the L2 classroom.

Keys to a Successful Extensive Reading Program

In 2002, Day and Bamford published their top ten principles for a successful ER program, which they adapted from a similar list published by Williams (1986). Day and Bamford's 2002 principles for extensive reading are the following:

1. The reading material is easy (no more than five difficult words per page).
2. A variety of reading material on a wide range of topics must be available. Day and Bamford quote Williams' pithy observation on this point: "In the absence of interesting texts, very little is possible" (p. 1).
3. Learners choose what they want to read. Reading self-selected texts may be the first step in experiencing foreign language reading as something personal.
4. Learners read as much as possible. This is what makes extensive reading extensive. Day and Bamford recommend a book a week in order to achieve the benefits of ER and to establish the habit of reading, although others (Marusic, 2006; Renandya et al., 1999) modify that requirement in consideration of the differences in page count among available books.
5. The purpose of reading is usually related to pleasure, information, and general understanding.
6. Reading is its own reward, so there are no comprehension checks and no tests.
7. Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower. Because the material is within the linguistic ability of the readers, and because it is self-selected and personally interesting, students tend to read faster in their ER texts than they do in academic texts. Dictionary use is discouraged in favor of guessing or ignoring unknown words to facilitate general overall understanding and tolerance for ambiguity.
8. Reading is individual and silent, as reading is a personal interaction with the text.

9. Teachers orient and guide their students. The teacher must explain the philosophy and benefits of the ER program in order to “sell” it to students who have difficulty understanding how reading for pleasure will help them learn English. Guidance and reinforcement is a recurring element of the ER program.
10. The teacher is a role model of a reader. The teacher reads while students read in class, modeling the reading experience. The teacher’s reading from the collection of books available to the students fosters a reading community in the classroom and provides the teacher with sufficient background to facilitate and monitor stimulating group discussions about students’ reading experiences.

Authentic vs. Simplified Texts

One of the most important elements of a successful reading program is to have a large quantity and variety of comprehensible books from which students can make their selections. This is a particular challenge for low-proficiency students, but Moustafa’s 1987 case study reveals a potential source of sufficiently comprehensible texts. These are books made from the stories generated by the students themselves and transcribed by the teacher. This practice of using student writing for classroom reading harks back to the work of Sylvia Ashton-Warner (1963), who bound her kindergarten students’ writing into a collection of Maori Traditional Readers, available for her students to read as they wished.

Perhaps the most frequently used books for low-literacy language learners are the leveled or graded readers that are currently available (see Appendix A). These cover a wide range of genres and interest levels, and their controlled vocabulary (e.g., 300 headwords at the lowest level) provides for repeated encounters with new vocabulary for enhanced retention. There is a surprising amount of opposition to using these simplified

texts for L2 readers (Bernhardt, 2011; Swaffar & Arens, 2005; Young, 1999), but Bamford and Day (1998) make their position clear with a chapter titled “The cult of authenticity and the myth of simplification” in which they delve deeply into the definitions and pros and cons of both types of text, coming out on the side of simplification for beginning-level L2 readers. In their 2002 article, they make the point that reading authentic texts is the goal of a reading program, and using leveled readers constitutes the scaffolding necessary to reach that goal. Insisting on authentic texts for extensive reading is “to confuse the means with the end” (p. 137).

Nation and Bonesteel (2010) make a distinction between authentic texts and authentic reading. They define authentic reading as a reading experience that “involves the second language learner in the same kinds of reading processes and reactions that we experience when reading in our first language.” If the reading piques interest or prompts a reaction or a memory, then it is authentic reading. For this reason, texts must retain their interest level through the simplification process. As with authentic texts, there is a variety of quality to be found in simplified, or graded readers. Nation and Wang Ming-tzu (1999) suggest having an annual award for the best graded reader of the year to promote quality in the production of simplified texts. The award would be similar in prestige to the Newbery or Caldecott medals and could be printed on the book cover with a gold seal.

Like Day and Bamford (2002), Nation and Bonesteel (2010) contend that authentic texts are the goal, but they say that it is necessary for L2 readers to have had frequent opportunities to experience authentic reading in the target language through simplified texts. Students typically work their way up the scaffold of reading levels to authentic texts on their own as they discover that more difficult texts have more detail and more interesting plot lines than the simplified graded readers.

The Case for Children's Literature

There are many who make a strong case for making children's literature available for adult students (Ho, 2000; Sharp, 1991; Smallwood, 1998). Many of these suggestions are tied to parenting and reading to one's children as a motivational factor. Sharp advocates picture books for parents of young children in their ability to "emphasize learners' roles as competent parents, rather than their roles as deficient readers" (p. 216). A great value of picture books for literacy-level L2 learners is their abundance of pictures to augment vocabulary development and comprehension (Smallwood).

However, it is important to choose books carefully, both for content adults can relate to and level of difficulty of vocabulary. Many children's books are written for the extensive oral vocabulary base of L1 speakers and may have a high content of low-frequency vocabulary. Smallwood (1998, p. 1) provides guidelines for evaluating the appropriateness of a children's book for adult learners. First, the book should relate to the curriculum objectives and have authentic cultural content. It should feature adult protagonists, address mature themes, or convey universal messages with illustrations that clearly support the text. The language should be slightly above the level of the learners with repeated, predictable language patterns. See Appendix B for a list of recommended children's books for adult learners.

Accountability and Activities

Krashen (2003) allows for a small amount of accountability for extensive reading in the form of a brief description of what was read, and he maintains his anti-assessment position to this day (Krashen, 2011). Day and Bamford (2002), in their sixth principle for an effective extensive reading program also recommend against comprehension tests, as the reading should be its own reward. Pilgreen (2000) lists "nonaccountability" as one of the eight factors contributing to the success of sustained silent reading. However,

activities to accompany and reinforce the reading are recommended (Bamford & Day, 2004; Day & Bamford, 2002; Pilgreen, 2000; Renandya, 2007). According to Pilgreen, follow-up activities are generally social in nature, such as small-group discussions about their reading, but she cautions against asking students “to do anything that seems evaluative in nature” (p. 17).

Despite having discouraged the use of tests in their 2002 article, Bamford and Day (2004) include a variety of reading assessments in their activities for supporting extensive reading. They also favor giving grades and otherwise holding students accountable for extensive reading (Day and Bamford, 1998). It is notable, however, that none of their suggestions includes multiple-choice comprehension tests. Their assessment activities extend the reading experience and generally take the form of the student’s reading record (see Appendix C), reading reports, writing or talking about a favorite character, student interviews, group discussions, and negotiated evaluations with the students.

SHARED READING: SUPPORT ON THE ROAD TO INDEPENDENCE

On a more practical level of logistics for extensive reading, even when books are available to teachers, they are bulky, heavy, and awkward to transport. Adult education instructors who are privileged to have their own classroom with adequate storage for a library of books for extensive reading are in the minority. In the absence of resources to implement and maintain an extensive reading program, systematic shared reading is a strong runner-up for building vocabulary, syntax, rhythm and intonation, and cultural background. Extensive reading and shared reading complement each other when used together (Drucker, 2003). Elley (2000) reports that shared reading ensures regular,

systematic interaction with the books that are read, with the end result that students gradually increase their knowledge of the language “with ease and enjoyment” (p. 237).

Reading is a complex process that requires lexical access, vocabulary knowledge, and syntactic knowledge (Pulido, 2009). Similarly, Burt, Peyton, and Schaetzel (2008) list alphabets (sound–symbol connections), fluency, vocabulary, and reading comprehension as elements adults must master for L2 literacy. Reading comprehension, in turn, “includes syntactical processing, the ability to understand grammar and usage conventions, and structural and organizational features of English texts” (p. 2). All of these elements can be called into play through shared reading.

A 2008 study by Pulido and Hambrick underscores the complexity of the reading process and the interrelatedness of language skills. Participants were 99 English-speaking university students of Spanish at three levels of proficiency: beginning, intermediate, and advanced. Using a complex four-phase process, the researchers gathered data on participants’ reading comprehension, vocabulary growth, and use of Spanish outside of class to answer the following questions: (a) Does L2 language processing experience positively contribute to L2 passage sight vocabulary knowledge? (b) Does L2 passage sight vocabulary knowledge positively contribute to comprehension of L2 passages containing such vocabulary? (c) Does L2 reading comprehension positively contribute to L2 vocabulary growth through reading?

Results suggest that there is a relationship among literacy skills, engagement in reading, and subsequent language learning. The researchers identified these connections as the “virtuous circle” of L2 reading, which they explain as follows: “with more L2 processing experience, learners become more efficient in the skills required for reading. They read more frequently and better, and are apt to experience more growth in

knowledge from engaging in literacy activities” (p. 165). Word recognition, active language experience, and reading all work together to strengthen each other.

Teacher Read-Alouds for Adults

Shared reading and teacher read-alouds have long been shown to be a viable medium for providing language processing experience for younger students in L1 classrooms (Amer, 1997; Elley, 2000; Elley & Mangubhai, 1981; Fisher et al., 2004; Lado, 2009; Ranker, 2007). In the realm of adult L2 reading, there is little research (Dhaif, 1990) but much support (Hicks & Wadlington, 1994; Khodabakshi & Lagos, 1993; Smallwood, 1992) for teacher read-alouds and associated activities.

L2 readers, particularly at the beginning level, have a tendency to read word-for-word, causing them to lose focus of the syntax and meaning of the text (Dhaif, 1990). They cannot see the forest for focusing on the trees. Teacher read-alouds are recommended to restore integrity to the text and “present larger semantic units which would lead to better understanding” (Dhaif, p. 458).

Drucker (2003) presents two arguments in favor of teacher read-alouds. First, they provide models of left-to-right directionality in reading and in sound–symbol correspondences, both of which are particularly useful with students whose first language is one not based on the Roman alphabet. Second, she praises the power of read-alouds for supporting vocabulary development based on pointing, gesturing, and paraphrasing to ensure comprehension. In a three-year study investigating the use of children’s literature with adult EFL students in China, Ho (2000) found that the stories she read with her class improved their pronunciation and linguistic skills as well as helped develop their cultural awareness from the context of the stories.

Back to the case for using children's literature in the adult L2 classroom, it lends itself nicely to teacher read-alouds because of the illustrations and large print. Smallwood's 1992 description of using children's literature to promote adult L2 literacy describes one of benefits as providing authentic and comprehensible input. Khodabakhshi and Lagos (1993) recommend reading children's literature to adults at the college level because it helps them "acquire valuable background knowledge, learn to make predictions, hear correct pronunciation, and acquire vocabulary" (p. 1).

Shared Reading: The Process

Shared reading and the activities associated it call into play the four skills of L2 acquisition: listening, speaking, reading, and writing as well as promoting critical thinking and literary analysis. Khodabakhshi and Lagos (1993) provide an example from reading Shel Silverstein's *The Giving Tree*, which brings up associations of parent-child relations, friendship, and maturity vs. immaturity, and environmental awareness.

Smallwood (1992) and Khodabakhshi and Lagos (1993) both divide shared reading into three stages: (a) prereading, (b) reading aloud, and (c) discussion and review. Prereading involves discussion of the book cover and prediction of the story contained in the book as well as background information about the author (Khodabakhshi & Lagos). Smallwood also recommends preteaching key vocabulary and giving students a specific listening task, such as identifying particular structures or themes.

The read-aloud should be animated and expressive with pauses for dramatic effect. There should also be regular pauses to check for comprehension. The teacher also answers additional questions about vocabulary, concepts, or structures during the read-aloud. The read-aloud phase is also a perfect opportunity for think-alouds to model comprehension strategies (Pani, 2004).

After-reading activities can include re-reading, choral or pair reading, or a quick oral comprehension check (Smallwood, 1998). Other activities could be a discussion based on questions from students, retelling without reference to the text, or dramatization of key scenes. The read-aloud could also be preparation for a student-created text based on a similar theme. Intermediate and advanced students could be given a writing assignment based on the story or discussion.

STUDENT-CREATED TEXTS

What a dangerous activity reading is; teaching is. All this plastering on of foreign stuff. Why plaster on at all when there's so much inside already?
(Ashton-Warner, 1963, p. 14)

Back to basics and returning full circle to extensive reading, we enter the discussion of student-created texts, often referred to as LEA. According to Vinogradov (2008), LEA is one of the best ways to tap into students' rich internal resources for creating student-generated texts. As Taylor (1992) put it, "Adult learners entering ESL programs may or may not have previous educational or literacy experiences; nonetheless, all come to class with a wealth of life experiences" (p. 1).

The prompt for the text can be a shared experience, a picture, or a story the whole class has read together, a song, or a video (Wrigley & Guth, 1992). The teacher prompts for input and transcribes it with correct spelling and punctuation, later prompting for elaboration and corrections to grammar and syntax. Prompts can be questions such as "Is there anything that is not quite clear? Where would you like to make changes?" (Wrigley & Guth, p. 30), or "What else could we add here?" "What more can we say about _____?"

When students copy the edited story, they then have a text to read to each other, to read chorally, to retell, or to use as a basis for creating their personal story on the same theme.

Other possible extensions include matching pictures with words or sentences, cloze tests from the story, review one or more grammar points that manifest in the story, do a dictation from selected sentences, cut the sentences into strips for students to arrange in order (Taylor, 1992).

In addition to all these uses derived from one text, the teacher also has a story or a collection of stories to be made into a book for the extensive reading collection. Student volunteers can be asked to illustrate the story and make the book, which will be comprehensible because it is the students' own words and will relate to the learners' experience (Taylor, 1992; Wurr, 2002).

EVALUATION OF EXTENSIVE READING

Reading improvement does not happen overnight, and extensive reading is not a quick fix, but positive effects are seen over time or over many books.

Results in Terms of Time

The Fiji study by Elley and Mangubhai (1981) was conducted over a period of one year. Horst conducted post-test of vocabulary knowledge on specific books after six weeks but regretted the inability to conduct a long-term follow-up study. The study by Renandya et al. (1999) was only for a 2-month intensive English class, but participants had a goal of reading 800 pages during the course. Of the ten possible variables associated with their gain in English proficiency, only the amount of extensive reading done during the course proved to be a reliable predictor. Greenberg et al. (2006) conducted their study for 13 weeks. Participants showed growth in only 2 of 6 areas tested (reading fluency and expressive vocabulary). The authors speculate that for this population (L1 adults, 3rd to 5th grade reading levels) it may be best to combine extensive reading with explicit instruction. Overall, there is a positive correlation

between reading improvement and length of study and amount of reading accomplished. Krashen (2004) provides convincing evidence in favor of maintaining an extensive reading program over an extended period of time, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Results of reading comprehension tests: In-school free reading compared to traditional approaches.

Duration	Positive	No Difference	Negative
Less than 7 months	8	14	3
7 months–1 year	9	10	0
Greater than 1 year	8	2	0

Source: Krashen (2004), p. 2

Evaluation in the Classroom

Even though students are not given comprehension tests on their extensive reading, the effectiveness of the extensive reading curriculum can and should be monitored and assessed in ways that do not interrupt the reading process. Even though adult education students are not given grades, they are expected to make progress in their L2 proficiency, and students, themselves, are interested in and motivated by evidence of their progress. In addition, some sort of assessment is necessary for evaluating the effectiveness of and making adjustments to the curriculum. First of all, assessment provides both teacher and learners with information about the learners' progress, and second it can be used to encourage student involvement and participation. It is also a way of cueing the teacher as to when adjustments should be made in the curriculum (Nation & Macalister, 2010).

There are many ways of assessing reading, but few ways to determine exactly what aspect of reading instruction is being assessed. Most teachers lack the resources to scan books and prepare a pre-test and individual post-tests as Horst did in her 2005 study. However, there are methods for teachers to determine whether their approaches to reading instruction are effective. Grabe (2009, p. 362) presents twenty-five informal assessment formats from which to choose. The following paragraphs describe other recommended methods of assessment.

Observation and Other Holistic Methods

Nation and Macalister (2010) cite observation of learning as one of the major types of monitoring and assessment that can occur during a course. During reading, the teacher should occasionally glance up to observe students' level of engagement with their reading. A student observed off-task is a signal that a change of book may be warranted. Perhaps the best way to evaluate progress in extensive reading is to interview the students about what they are reading and books they have read. These interviews can be conducted informally just before or just after the silent reading period. A variation on individual interviews is to sit in with students when they are doing a "book talk" discussion of their reading. Listen to how they talk about their reading and ask them questions for clarification.

Student comments on their reading log can also provide insight into their progress. Are they reading a sufficient number of books for progress to be a reasonable expectation? Are they moving to increasingly more challenging books or staying at a static level? Do their comments reflect understanding and connection with the text?

Rubric-Based Evaluations

A rubric can be developed for holistically scoring any of the following types of activities: (a) oral interpretation of a favorite scene; (b) creation and performance of a “commercial” or public-service announcement for a book; (c) poster or book cover and report on the book to the class.

Pre-Test and Post-Test

Teachers can use pre-tests and post-tests to assess progress over time using a standardized literacy test that may be available through program administrators, or they can administer a test of their own design.

Mason and Pendergast (1993) describe how to create a cloze test that can be used for both pre- and post-testing and that takes about one hour to administer. Designing the test is labor-intensive on the front end, but the test can be used with successive groups of students, so it’s a one-time investment of time and effort. It can be created for any level. Their system is to choose a text of about 1,500 words at a level of difficulty students will be expected to read at the end of the evaluation time (six weeks, semester, year). Beginning with the second paragraph, delete every tenth word, with the goal of replacing 100 words of the text with a blank. Because there will be more than one appropriate word for many of the blanks, ask several native speakers to take the test so you can compile a list of acceptable answers. When they are given the test as a pre-test, students are not told that they will have the same test again as a post-test. Given the choice of an appropriate text for the cloze, pre-test scores should average no more than 35 correct. If all goes well, the post-test scores will range much higher.

Makaafi (2004) contributed a similar cloze design to Bamford and Day’s collection of activities for extensive reading. Makaafi suggests a shorter passage (500–600 words) with no more than 50 blanks, reasoning that students have difficulty

concentrating on longer tests. She recommends one minute of test time for every two blanks. For example, if the test has 50 blanks, allow 25 minutes for students to complete the test. In this version, students receive 0.5 point credit for answers that are close matches but only partially correct due to a grammar or word form error, as in choosing the correct verb but the wrong form,

Chapter 4: Conclusion

The evidence clearly shows that extensive reading is worth the cost of the books and the time it takes from other pedagogical activities in the L2 classroom. Study after study demonstrates the benefits of extensive reading in improving reading ability. L2 learners tend to enjoy activities in which they feel they can perform competently. Thus, extensive reading encourages students to read more books, by which their reading skills improve, and as a result they read more books. Future research on extensive reading may be made more interesting by the effect of technology on reading practices and the generally accepted concept of the word “book.” It will be interesting to see whether upcoming research on extensive reading will include the use and efficacy of e-readers and access to books and magazines via smart phones.

Designing useful research on extensive reading is difficult because the benefits of extensive reading are realized over time (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). There is a need for lengthier longitudinal quantitative studies tracking pre- and post-study effects of extensive reading on attitudes toward reading in the L2 and amount of time spent reading for pleasure outside of class both in L1 and L2 before and after the study. The L1 component is significant because of suggestions made by Yamashita (2008) that benefits of extensive reading may be attributable to transferring of reading strategies that students have mastered in their L1. Do successful L1 readers have an advantage as they move to reading in L2? It would also be interesting to determine whether extensive reading in L2 promotes an increase in reading for pleasure in L1.

There is enough evidence of the positive benefits of shared reading (Amer, 1997; Dhaif, 1990; Elley, 2000; Elley & Mangubhai, 1981) to suggest a need for research on

the effects of integrating a shared reading component into an extensive reading program. Is extensive reading combined with shared reading more effective than extensive reading alone? Is shared reading alone as effective as extensive reading or extensive reading combined with shared reading?

Student-constructed texts provide a natural way to tap into the resources, values, and experiences that students bring to class with them and segue beginning-level readers from reading their own texts to texts written by others. Unfortunately, there is very little quantitative research on the effectiveness of this technique. There is a need for more studies similar to that of Wales (1994), evaluating the technique with different populations and in different contexts.

Perhaps the greatest value of a well-designed extensive reading program lies in its tendency to engender the reading habit in students. It turns nonreaders into readers who read at home, and who report that they will likely continue to read when they move on beyond the classroom (Greenberg et al, 2006; Mason & Krashen, 1977; Marusic, 2006; Renandya et al, 1999). It is in their reading after they leave the classroom that students will continue to refine and automate their skills. According to Purcell-Gates, Degener, Jacobson, and Soler (2002), “the literacy practices of adults can change—in nature or in frequency—in response to adult literacy instruction that is reflective of real-life literacy practices” (p. 90). And what is more “real-life” than reading for pleasure?

Appendix A: Major Commercial Publishers of Graded Readers

Cambridge English Readers — <http://www.cambridge.org/elt/readers>

Macmillan Readers — <http://www.macmillanreaders.com/>

Penguin Readers — <http://www.penguinreaders.com>

Thompson ELT — http://elt.thomson.com/thomson_graded_readers/index.htm

Appendix B: Recommended Children's Books for Adult Learners

- Carle, E. (1987). *The very hungry caterpillar*. New York: Philomel Books.
- Dr. Seuss. (1988). *Green eggs and ham*. New York: Random House.
- Say, A. (1993). *Grandfather's journey*. New York: Scholastic.
- Sendak, M. (1988). *Where the wild things are*. New York: Harper Collins.
- Silverstein, S. (1992) *The giving tree*. New York: Harper Collins.
- Tan, S. (2006). *The arrival*. New York: Arthur A. Levine Books.

From Khodabakhshi & Lagos (1993)

- Dahl, R. (1982). *Revolting rhymes*. New York: Puffin.
- Herriot, J. (1975). *Only one woof*. New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Lamorisse, A. (1956). *The red balloon*. New York: Doubleday.
- Numeroff, L. J. (1985). *If you give a mouse a cookie*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Paek, M. (1988). *Aekung dream*. San Francisco: Children's Book Press.
- Parish, P. *Amelia Bedelia* (series). New York: Avon Camelot.
- Ross, T. (1988). *Super dooper jezebel*. New York: Farrar Straus Giroux.
- Silverstein, S. (1963). *Lafcadio, the lion who shot back*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Silverstein, S. (1964). *The giving tree*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Silverstein, S. (1974). *Where the sidewalk ends*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Silverstein, S. (1976). *The missing piece*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Silverstein, S. (1981). *A light in the attic*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Silverstein, S. (1981). *The missing piece meets Bio O*. New York: Harper and Row.

From Smallwood (1992, 1998)

- Brand, O. (1974). *When I first came to this land*. New York: Putnam.
- Bunting, E. (1989). *The Wednesday surprise*. New York: Clarion.
- Hoban, T. (1983). *I read symbols*. New York: Greenwillow.
- Kraus, R. (1970). *Leo the late bloomer*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Linden, A. M. (1992). *One smiling grandma: A Carribbean counting book*. New York: Dial.

Low, W. (1997). *Chinatown*. New York: Henry Holt.

Miranda, A. (1997). *To market, to market*. New York: Harcourt Brace.

Morris, A. (1989). *Bread. bread, bread*. New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard.

Morris, A. (1992). *Houses and homes*. New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard.

Appendix C: Sample Reading Log

Reading Log		
Name _____		
Book Title/Author	Date	Did you like it? Why or Why Not?
Title _____ _____ Author _____ _____	Date Started _____ Date Finished _____	
Title _____ _____ Author _____ _____	Date Started _____ Date Finished _____	
Title _____ _____ Author _____ _____	Date Started _____ Date Finished _____	
Title _____ _____ Author _____ _____	Date Started _____ Date Finished _____	
Title _____ _____ Author _____ _____	Date Started _____ Date Finished _____	

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Vita

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This report was typed by the author.