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Thesis

**Background knowledge and reading comprehension in first grade students
at Andrés Avelino Caceres High School, Collique, Comas, 2013.**

Submitted by

Rosaura CAMONES ESTELA

Adviser:

Dr. Rogil SANCHEZ QUINTANA

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English as a Foreign Language**

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Declaration of Academic Ethics

I hereby declare that the thesis I am submitting for assessment is my own and does not contain any unacknowledged work from any other sources. Were any of its contents proved the result of cheating or plagiarism on my part, I assume the corresponding penalties established by the postgraduate school.

Lima, December 2013

Signature

Dedication

To my parents and professors who encouraged me the last two years of studies, especially during the development of this research.

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Background knowledge and reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High School, Collique, Comas, 2013.

Rosaura Camones Estela

Abstract

This work, had as the main goal to establish a relationship between background knowledge and reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High School, in Collique, Comas, 2013. The general hypothesis proposed that background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High School, Collique, Comas, 2013. It is a substantive research in its variety of descriptive research with a correlational design. Its population and sample was made up of 80 high school students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High School. The techniques used were the survey, documentary analysis, expert judgment, and application. Also we used as instruments a Likert scale questionnaire, score register of students' grades, and the expert opinion tab among others. After the hypothesis testing, the alternative hypothesis was found to be true, confirming that background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in students of the sample with a significance level of 0,05.

Keywords: Background knowledge, reading comprehension, conceptual, linguistic and meta-cognitive knowledge

List of Acronyms

All acronyms are defined as they first appear in the text. The most common acronyms are listed below.

EFL	English as a foreign language.
ELT	English Language Teaching.
OTP	Orientation for the pedagogical work.
MED	Ministry of Education.
DCN	National curricular Design.
EBR	Basic Regular Education.
ESL	English as a Second Language.
PREP	Pre reading Plan.
K-W-L	Assessing What I know, determining what I Want to find out and recalling what I learned.
L1	First Language or Mother Tongue.
L2	Second Language.
CAI	Computer-assisted instruction.
K-W-L charts	What I “Know”/what I “Want” to know/what I’ve “Learned”.
ELL	English Language Learners.
MT	Mother Tongue.
FL	Foreign Language.
ICT	Information and communication technology.

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Introduction

This research had as the main objective to establish the relationship between background knowledge and reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High School, Collique, Comas in the year 2013.

Background knowledge is important to be studied and considered due to the complexity of reading comprehension when students or reader interact as human being who analyze, imagine, critic, give opinions and point of view about different situations and levels of reading. In this direction, we analyzed the components of Background Knowledge in terms of conceptual, linguistic and meta-cognitive aspects.

As part of the methodology, this is a substantive research on the variety of descriptive and Correlational design. Its population was 80 students and the sample was 80 students that gave us the opportunity to apply a census. The techniques used were the survey, documentary analysis, expert judgment, and application. Also we used as instruments a Likert scale questionnaire, score register of students' grades, and the expert opinion tab among others.

Finally, after the analysis and interpretation of the results and the corresponding hypothesis testing we found out that Background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High School, Collique, Comas in the year 2013 with a significance level of 0,05.

FIRST PART

THEORETICAL ASPECTS

Chapter I: Theoretical framework

"Readers understand what they read because they are able to take the stimulus beyond its graphic representation and assign it membership to an appropriate group of concepts already stored in their memories..."

Clarke & Silberstein

"The reader brings information, knowledge, emotion, experience and culture."

Anderson, Eskey & Grabe

1. Background to the research

Here are some studies taken from literature review that indicate the relationship between students' background knowledge and reading comprehension.

1.1. International background

Fernandez (2005), has made a thesis entitled "Previous knowledge, schema of gender and Reading comprehension of English as Foreign language" where he investigated about the role that play some components of the previous knowledge (linguistic thematic, rhetoric and strategic) in the reading comprehension of English as a foreign Language. He concluded that the generic conventions of cultural nature come together to any kind of text for a full comprehension of these.

Lopez (2009), in his research work "The importance of previous knowledge for the learning of new contents" arrived at the conclusion that explaining the interest of the constructivism conception by the relative questions to initial state of the students that have influence in the process of teaching and learning; here it mentions to Ausubel, Novak and Hanesian, (1983) with this affirmation: the most important factor that influence in the learning process is what student already knew. This work concludes that to teach is necessary to activate the previous knowledge of the students, and invites them to reflect about their own ideas and confront these with others.

Carver (1992), in his research article entitled “Effect of Prediction Activities, Prior Knowledge, and Text Type upon Amount Comprehended: Using Rauding Theory to Critique Schema Theory Research” arrived at the following conclusions:

- (a) Prediction activities did not facilitate comprehension,
- (b) Prior knowledge had a relatively small unique effect upon the amount comprehended, and
- (c) text type was not important. These negative results were explained using the framework of Rauding Theory. Most of the above notions associated with schema theory seem to be relevant to studying relatively hard material; these theoretical ideas were not developed to be relevant to the rauding process which is ordinarily used by elementary and secondary students. Students probably have to be forced to shift out of their normal reading process, called rauding, into untypical reading processes involving learning and memorizing before these variables that are important in schema theory become salient.

Ríos (2009), in his research work “Influences of a text’s academic level and the born place of a reader in reading comprehension related with messages of communication in health” from Pontifical University of Salamanca-Spain, arrived at the conclusion that it is seen like born place of a reader in an academic level of a text that can have a meaningful statistic influence in the reading comprehension messages of communication in health respect to the Puerto Rican and Dominican people participants in the investigation residents in San Juan, Puerto Rico. These results reinforce our proposal about the importance that this has for the specialists of the social communication the development of the investigation related to language analysis and the reading comprehension in the field of the health, since an intercultural perspective. (Own translation)

Arnaiz (1999), in his psycho-didactic journal, “Characteristics of the text, previous knowledge and reading comprehension” It was made with a sample of 296 subjects, of ages between 10 and 17. It was taken into consideration their reading competence (high/low) and their prior knowledge (major/minor), about the subject matter of a text, from which were made eight versions that differed in the presence and number of text organizers; it was measured on the other hand different aspects of reading comprehension. The results show that the presence of organizers which make easy the

reading comprehension of the subjects with a higher reading competence (especially in reference to complementary information and number of deductions) and of the subjects with previous minor knowledge (above all in reference to the number of deductions). These results confirm in what it is substantial they obtained by previous investigation, but shadows them and set up new questions to investigate.

Magno (2007), in his thesis “The Schema Theory and Reading Process in adult students who have limit knowledge of the tongue”, arrived at the following conclusions:

- 1) Subjects who have previous knowledge about the content felt more secure for the reading which implies activation of previous knowledge over the contents generating schemes of meaningful information as a tool to reduce negative affections.
- 2) The result shows two sections: before reading and while reading had knowledge about the topic or reading liked to improve the global and detail comprehension. The absent of previous knowledge expressed by some participants gave as a result to establish general and necessary association to take up the reading proper of the activation of pre-mental model.
- 3) The little related with the topics are not an obstacle to understand the text. (Own translation)

Huang (2009), in his article entitled “Background Knowledge and Reading Teaching”, asserted that as a text is read, there is a large cognitive load on the reader as the reader is decoding the text and incorporating the textual information into his or her knowledge base. The key to incorporating the information into the reader’s knowledge base is partly dependent on the amount of background knowledge of the reader. Having background knowledge will imply that the reader has a certain amount of knowledge of the subject of the text or related knowledge due to personal experiences and cultural background. A reader’s background knowledge permits the information to be incorporated into pre-existing knowledge structures. Therefore readers who do not have an adequate amount of background knowledge on the subject of a text will have lower comprehension of the text. In conclusion, background knowledge plays so important a role in reading comprehension that any teacher cannot teach reading well without watching out for the background knowledge. In this thesis some teaching methods are suggested, but they are far from enough. The author intends he readers of this thesis to create more and better methods to employ background knowledge in reading teaching.

1.2. National background

Delgado (2007), in his research work “Memory and reading comprehension in fourth grade students of primary level at Republica de Venezuela School, Callao, Lima”; concludes that memory does not have a statistical relationship with reading comprehension in primary students of fourth grade.

Flores (2008), in his research work, “Semantic process and Reading Comprehension in third grade students of primary level at Nuestra Señora de las Mercedes High School from Callao-Lima”, shows that 20 students of third grade with the technique of non-probabilistic intentional selection, concluding as a result that students have a low or deficient grade of Reading Comprehension.

Silva & Amache (2010), in their research work” Pedagogic alternative activities to improve the meta-comprehension strategies of written texts”. The results came to the conclusion that the application of pedagogic alternative activities have improved the strategies of meta-comprehension of written texts in sixth grade students of primary level at 50696 school ”Acpitan” from Ccoyllurqui Cotabamabas- Apurimac, after planning , designing and applying programs to finally get a score of 15,28 for its goal.

Caycho (2011), in his research article entitled “Phonological awareness as a predictor of reading at the beginning of schooling in contexts of poverty”-Trujillo, arrived at the conclusion that the results indicate that syllabic segmentation, identification of heaps and the recognition of first phoneme of words predict significantly the performance of reading on having finished the first grade of primary level.

Segura, Girón & Rivera (2011) in their research work “The background knowledge and its relationship with reading comprehension in the Area of English in students of fourth grade at Heroes del Cenepa High School, San Juan de Lurigancho, Lima, 2011”, arrived at the following conclusions:

1. Background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in fourth grade students of the area of English at Heroes del Cenepa High School, San Juan de Lurigancho.

2. Target language knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in fourth grade students of the area of English at Heroes del Cenepa High School, San Juan de Lurigancho.
3. Thematic knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in fourth grade students of the area of English at Heroes del Cenepa High School, San Juan de Lurigancho.
4. Strategic knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in fourth grade students of the area of English at Heroes del Cenepa High School, San Juan de Lurigancho.
5. Prior knowledge of the mother tongue is significantly related to reading comprehension in fourth grade students of the area of English at Heroes del Cenepa High School, San Juan de Lurigancho.(Own translation).

2. Theoretical bases

This part of the thesis presents information concerning background knowledge and its relationship with different factors that have to do with reading comprehension.

Subchapter I: Background Knowledge

Learning a language is closely related to the background knowledge towards reading comprehension. Clarke & Silberstein (1977) aver that “Skill in reading depends on the efficient interaction between linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world” (pp. 136-137). As such personal background knowledge may play a very crucial role in language learning when readers make and understand in an efficient way the reading.

1.1. Conceptualization and definitions of Background Knowledge

Marzano (2004) defines the process of acquiring background knowledge as:

It is tied to a student’s ability to process and store content knowledge and to the “number and frequency” of the academic experiences the student has. A student’s capacity to store knowledge, or “fluid intelligence,” ranges from high to low. Students who have high fluid intelligence are prepared to utilize their academic

experiences. Unfortunately, experiences for students with low fluid intelligence are not as successful in building background knowledge. While socio-economic status affects innate fluid intelligence, “learned intelligences the stronger correlate of success in school” (p. 73)

Lee (1986) states that “English language speakers were presented with three experimental treatments in order to examine three components of background knowledge. The components studied were: 1) context or no context 2) the transparency and 3) the familiarity” (p. 45).

Lopez (2009) gives a definition for the purpose of this research “Background knowledge or previous knowledge is defined as personal constructions of people in interaction with the daily world, with the objects and different social and educational experiences” (p. 34) (Own translation).

The concept began to be used in the second middle of the twentieth century by the cognitive psychology, interested in the way of human brain processes and stores the information for making learning. This point of view came from the existence of previous knowledge.

Ausubel (1968) develops the theory of meaningful learning, understanding learning as:

A space when the learner makes a connection between the new information with the information that he/she had, producing a process of rebuilding or readjust of both. On the other hand, the existence of previous knowledge let to develop the notion of world’s knowledge conceived like the stored information by the person in his /her memory; departing from experiences (p. 69).

We can say that students learn best when new contents are linked with past learning and experiences.

Davis & Winek (1989); Squire (1983); Weisberg (1988), state that to master reading skill, students must become adept at activating prior knowledge, integrating it with new information, and constructing new understandings. Students who lack sufficient background knowledge or are unable to activate it may struggle to access, participate, and progress throughout the general curriculum.

McKeown (1992) states that “by building students’ background knowledge teachers might also help to counteract the detrimental effects that incoherent or poorly organized texts have about comprehension” (p. 76).

Dochy, Segers & Buehl (1999) state that “prior knowledge has a large influence on student performance explaining up to 81% of the variance in post-test scores” (p. 32).

Ehren & Gildrow (1996) from University of Kansas from the Center for Research on Learning, state that:

One type of knowledge is meta-cognitive knowledge. It is the knowledge base you must have to operate strategically. It includes knowledge of self as a learner, knowledge of task demands, specific strategies, and general knowledge about strategies. Another type of knowledge is meta-linguistic knowledge. It involves knowledge about the structure and use of language. For example, knowing that a word is made up of specific sounds or phonemes is meta-linguistic knowledge. Another category of knowledge is world knowledge. It includes those labels, concepts, ideas, and facts about the world in general, organized in a meaningful way to form schemata (p. 43).

Farrell (1992, p. 58) explains and states that:

The role of prior knowledge in learning and pervasive misconceptions that students should not be exposed to new concepts unless they have some prior knowledge of the topic. Read First is an instruction method through which the students read silently and independently before others, including their teachers, control their thinking processes. Farrell describes how Read First is aligned to California Reading standards for middle school age students.

Yule (1996) defines that:

Background knowledge is our ability to arrive automatically at interpretations of the unwritten and the unsaid must be based on pre-existing knowledge structures. These structures function like familiar patterns from previous experience that we use to interpret new experiences. The most general term for a pattern of this type is a schema. That is a pre-existing knowledge structure in memory. (p. 85).

Carrell (1983) states that:

To understand the role of background knowledge in reading comprehension, it is often to draw a distinction between formal schemata (background knowledge of the formal, rhetorical organizational structures of different types of texts) and content schemata (background knowledge of the content area of a text). (p. 71).

Ausubel (1963) subsumes “new information into existing structures and memory systems, and the resulting associate links create stronger retention” (p. 34).

Pearson (1992) concluded after many researches about previous knowledge made in adults, children, competent readers and initial readers “The new information is learned and it is remembered well when it is integrated with the previous relevant knowledge acquired or with the existent schemes” (Own translation).

Richards (1997) defines background knowledge, as “the process of making meaningful associations between existing knowledge, experience and new material will lead toward better long-term retention than rote learning of material in isolated pieces” (p. 45).

Schmitt (1988) defines the use of previous knowledge “to activate and to incorporate information of previous knowledge which contributes to reading comprehension helping the reader to infer and to generate predictions” (p. 33) (Own translation).

Diaz & Hernandez (1999) define previous knowledge like “the stored information in the student’s cognitive scheme. Without previous knowledge, it will be impossible to find any kind of meaning to texts; to have elements for the appropriate interpretation or to build any kind of representation” (p. 121) (Own translation).

Catts & Kamhi (1999) describe content schema as “a super ordinate organization of a mass of possible content facts” (p. 89).

Another important literature to consider about background Knowledge, in our Educational System is through the Ministry of Education in its whole proposal of education plan “National Curriculum Design” (An important document based on international theories, and approaches like Humanism and communicative Approaches, and which takes into account the proposal of Walter Peñaloza); the other important national document is the “Orientation for teacher work” (Known as OTP, made by experts of the Ministry of Education in Peru).

“The role of the students’ background knowledge is to relate the meaningful learning that means; the new knowledge and the previous knowledge that they have and apply this in a context or real life” (DCN, 2010, p.18) (Own translation).

“The role of the students’ background is transferring some elements of their linguistic experiences and cultural baggage to a new context” (OTP, 2010, p. 17) (Own translation).

“The role of the students’ background knowledge is to transfer what they learned to a new situation and to connect what they have already known” (OTP, 2010, p. 53) (Own translation).

1.2. Kinds of Background Knowledge

There is an extensive terminology to describe different kinds of background knowledge. Consistency in the use of these terms is a recognized problem; subtle and dramatic differences exist between different people’s definitions of the same term (Alexander, Schallert, & Hare, 1991; Dochy & Alexander, 1995). The terms background

knowledge and prior knowledge are generally used interchangeably. For example, Stevens (1980) defines background knowledge quite simply as “[...] what one already knows about a subject” (p. 110).

On the other hand, Biemans & Simons (1996) definition of background knowledge is slightly more complex, “[...] (background knowledge is) all knowledge learners have when entering a learning environment that is potentially relevant for acquiring new knowledge” (p.6).

Dochy & Alexander (1995) provide a more elaborate definition, describing prior knowledge as the whole of a person’s knowledge, including explicit and tacit knowledge, meta-cognitive and conceptual knowledge.

In the same line of thought, this definition is quite similar to Schaller’s (1982) definition. Thus, while scholars definitions of these two terms are often worded differently, they typically describe the same basic concept.

Prior knowledge and background knowledge are themselves parenting terms for many more specific knowledge dimensions such as conceptual knowledge and meta-cognitive knowledge. Subject matter knowledge, strategy knowledge, personal knowledge, and self-knowledge are all specialized forms of prior knowledge/background knowledge. The research studies selected and reviewed for this article targeted the parent concepts prior knowledge/background knowledge for study, and in discussing these studies and throughout the remainder of this article, these two terms are used interchangeably.

For the purpose of this research, background knowledge should be known as a joint of conceptual or world knowledge, linguistic knowledge and meta-cognitive knowledge.

1.2.1. World and Conceptual knowledge

Knowledge is a familiarity, awareness or understanding of someone or something, such as facts, information, descriptions, or skills, which is acquired through experience or education by perceiving, discovering, or learning. Knowledge can refer to a theoretical or practical understanding of a subject. It can be implicit (as with practical

skill or expertise) or explicit (as with the theoretical understanding of a subject); it can be more or less formal or systematic.

1.2.1.1. World knowledge (acquired)

Ehren & Gildrow (1996) states that:

This includes those labels, concepts, ideas, and facts about the world in general, organized in a meaningful way to form schemata. It includes the general information shared by people in a given culture, such as wedding traditions, as well as information in specific content domains like biology, literature, and geography. The world knowledge schemata in background knowledge provide a frame of reference for interpreting the experiences we may have or read about. (p. 78)

“Via our mother tongue, so too are we unable to switch off our knowledge of the world” (Hammerly, 1989, p. 51).

Willingham (2006) states that:

Knowledge is not only cumulative, it grows exponentially. Those with a rich base of factual knowledge find it easier to learn more — the rich get richer. In addition, factual knowledge enhances cognitive processes like problem solving and reasoning. The richer the knowledge base, the more smoothly and effectively these cognitive processes — the very ones that teachers target — operate. So, the more knowledge students accumulate the smarter they become. We will begin by exploring how knowledge brings more knowledge and then turn to how knowledge improves the quality and speed of thinking. (p. 69).

The first stage in which factual knowledge gives you a cognitive edge is when you are taking in new information, whether by listening or reading. There is much more to comprehending oral or written language than knowing vocabulary and syntax. Comprehension demands background knowledge because language is full of semantic

breaks in which knowledge is assumed and, therefore, comprehension depends on making correct inferences.

To provide some concrete examples and simplify the discussion, let us focus on reading — but keep in mind that the same points apply to listening. Suppose you read this brief text: "John's face fell as he looked down at his protruding belly. The invitation specified 'black tie' and he hadn't worn his tux since his own wedding, 20 years earlier." You will likely infer that John is concerned that his tuxedo will not fit, although the text says nothing directly about this potential problem. The writer could add the specifics ("John had gained weight since he last wore his tuxedo, and worried that it would not fit"), but they are not necessary and the added words would make the text dull. Your mind is well able to fill in the gaps because you know that people are often heavier 20 years after their wedding, and that gaining weight usually means that old clothing won't fit. This background knowledge about the world is readily available and so the writer need not specify it.

Researchers found that when reading unfamiliar texts, subjects more often reread parts of sentences and they more often looked back to previous sentences. That means the person with rich general knowledge rarely has to interrupt reading in order to consciously search for connections. (Retrieved from <http://www.readingrockets.org> › ... › *Brain and Learning*.)

“It is no surprise, then, that the ability to read a text and make sense of it is highly correlated with background knowledge. If you know more, you're a better reader” (Kosmoski, Gay, and Vockell, 1990, p. 67).

Hambrick (2003) in a study about world knowledge states that:

It is notable because it looked at real-world learning and did so over a longer period of time than is typical in such studies. First, Hambrick tested college students for their knowledge of basketball. This test took place in the middle of the college basketball season. Two and one-half months later (at the end of the season), subjects completed questionnaires about their exposure to basketball (e.g., game attendance, watching television, and reading magazines or

newspapers) and also took tests that measured their knowledge of specific men's basketball events from the prior two and one-half months. The results showed (not surprisingly) that subjects who reported an interest in the game also reported that they had greater exposure to basketball information. The more interesting finding was that, for a given level of exposure, greater prior basketball knowledge was associated with more new basketball knowledge.

Haraway, (1988) says that:

The knowledge prior to any experience means that there are certain "assumptions" that one takes for granted. For example, if you are being told about a chair it is clear to you that the chair is in space, that it is 3D. This knowledge is not knowledge that one can "forget", even someone suffering from amnesia experiences the world in 3D. Situational knowledge is often embedded in language, culture, or traditions. This integration of situational knowledge is an allusion to the community, and its attempts at collecting subjective perspectives into an embodiment "of views from somewhere (p. 90).

James (2007) suggests that:

Children begin to develop their background knowledge long before they enter school. Their interactions with parents and other caregivers help to establish what they think about the world and the things in it, including reading, school and studying. Children who are read to about a lot of different subjects, and who are engaged in conversation on a regular basis, about a lot of different topics, tend to have higher background knowledge (p. 58).

1.2.1.2. Conceptual Knowledge (learned)

There is widespread agreement that prior knowledge influences learning, and that learners construct concepts from prior knowledge (Resnick, 1983; Glaserfeld, 1984).

In Piaget's account (1958) of conceptual change, knowledge grows by reformulation. Piaget identifies a set of invariant change functions, which are innate,

universal, and age independent. These are assimilation, accommodation, and equilibration. Assimilation increases knowledge while preserving of structure, by integrating information into existing schemata. Accommodation increases knowledge by modifying structure to account for new experience.

Roschelle (1995), states that:

Success begins with cultivation of the ability to look, listen, and understand the learner's viewpoint, and to discover the seeds from which knowledge and identity can grow. Other institutions, especially schools, do a downright awful job of support conceptual change, as is well-documented throughout the literature. (p. 72)

Vygotsky (1986) specifically examined the role of prior knowledge which is science learning. He argued that children have spontaneous concepts and scientific concepts, and that these are not in conflict, but rather are part of a unitary process. In this process, Vygotsky sees spontaneous concepts growing upwards in generality, preparing the ground for more systematic reasoning. Simultaneously scientific concepts, which are introduced by instruction, grow downwards to organize and utilize the spontaneous concepts. Upon achieving a through and systematic intertwining, the learner gains both the power of the abstract (maximum substitutability) and of the concrete (maximum applicability).

The restructuring process that intertwines spontaneous and specialized concepts occurs in social interaction, and is mediated by sign systems, such as language and drawing.

Vigostsky turns our attention to the "Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)" when he states that:

The ZPD is formed by the difference between what a child can do without help and the capabilities of the child in interaction with others. In this construction zone, the child can participate in cultural practices slightly above his or her own individual capability. Successful participation can lead to internalization. In

Vygotsky's account, the primary resources for restructuring prior knowledge come from culture. Moreover, the restructuring process itself occurs externally, in social discourse. Children share, negotiate and try out meanings in social experience, and adults can shape those meanings by bringing them into the framework of cultural practice (Newman, Griffith & Cole, 1989).

So, as teachers we may ask, “How do I build my student’s background knowledge?” Well, that can be done in several ways. One way is to build the knowledge before student needs it, by exposing him to different things and experiences, talking to him about new ideas and reading lots of different material either with him or to him on a regular basis.

In other words, world knowledge comprises of all the information, attitudes, feeling, values, culture, history, geography, behaviors, language, which students bring with them to class, grouping them in schemes, because they do not live in an isolated world. Teachers must assume that they already bring knowledge to class and the most important thing is to recognize these in each communicative situation in relation to the real context and not only verbalize grammatical rules. Activating background knowledge can facilitate, in a huge manner, reading comprehension. Understanding a text not only refers to texts, but also includes understanding pictures, realia, symbols, news, icons, or any kind of situations, further more than a written text.

1.2.2. Linguistic Knowledge

This involves knowledge about the structure and use of language. For example, knowing how a word is made up for specific sounds and phonemes.

The human being has developed their thinking through the possession of a fundamental instrument: language. Language is constituted by signs, for building an image of the world with the capacity to serve as a guide to develop actions and, at the same time, shares experiences and representations of the reality with other people. Can we affirm that we think linguistically?

Rojas (2002), states that “thinking emerges from perception and abstraction of the reality through language. This capacity is conceived like an integral part of a human development: The cognitive faculty” (p. 73).

Language is divided into three conceptions: Cognitive conception, linguistic conception and social conception.

a. Cognitive conception

According to Sapir (1962), language is conceived in two senses:

1. Wide sense.- Language is the capacity of the human being for the symbolic representation and the use of signs and codes (including tongues) for its development and communication.
2. Narrow sense.- Language is the method, exclusively human, not instinctive, to communicate ideas, emotions and desires through a symbolic system produced in an intentional manner. This symbolic system is first hearing, and the phonation organs produce them.

b. Linguistic Conception

Language is conceived as a symbolic system. In other words, conformed by units' resulting from the integration of a signifier or phonetic form, and a signified (idea about reality); both keep an arbitrary relationship with the representation or indication.

Language has been object of reflection by various thinkers throughout history. In the eve of 20th century, with Saussure, born a new tradition to study language from its internal elements to its manifestation fields: language and speech.

c. Social conception

Language is an addition of abilities which are learned in practice, in social interaction. Speakers pick or choose the rules of functioning of the system, and apply them, improving its use in contact with other speakers.

Language is an instrument which human beings use to build their personality in function of their behavior in society. In this sense, language must be thought from a social perspective to establish an interpersonal and social cohesion.

Anderson (2000), explains the importance of the role of language to build the identity or cultural aspect of a nation:

The identity of a nation has like a fundamental attribute the language, specially the first language or mother tongue; which is learned at home during the first years of life. To change the customs, the dressing, the nourishment, or ideas are possible; but the use of mother tongue keeps and emerges like a “linguistic substrate” when the people learn a new language”. The linguistic identity propitiates the solidarity in the speakers and the possibility to share and imagine a culture. (p. 70)

The Identity of a nation is defined between other aspects, by its mother tongue. It defines the men; it helps them to be part of a community and building its identity. It is defined by the System of United Nations ensuring its preservation in the cultural pluralism; however many nations are in disadvantages situation by rejecting to its mother in the formal use of the political, social, juridical life.

The educational policy should take into consideration the intercultural context, and give to the culture and its mother tongue, the opportunities to develop and to be respected. This policy does not only give a political decision to impose the language. It is a cognitive, affective and social process given in the context of a nation. The concept that language and culture are inseparable is valid only for countries where English is being taught as a mother tongue or second language in terms of pedagogical and contextual education. For linguistic purposes, it is necessary to separate them. The student is a living sample of their culture including their mother tongue. English is being taught in our educational system as a political decision, not as a need. Here is necessarily to remember that language promotion occurs in conjunction with forces like modernization of education, religion and economical and political national interests recognized like characteristics of empires along the history they have an evidence of conquest and occupation followed by the adoption of the invader’s language.

1.2.3. Knowledge of the mother tongue

1.2.3.1. Knowledge of word structure (meaning and vocabulary)

Crystal (2007) explains the structure of language, in a variety of ways, such as:

- classes of words (parts of speech),
- meanings of words (semantics), with or without considering changes of meaning,
- how words are organized in relation to each other (syntax),
- how words are formed (morphology),
- the sounds of words (phonology) and
- how written forms represent these (lexicography).

There is no universally accepted model for doing this, but some models use the notion of a hierarchy, and this may prove fruitful for you.

The most basic units of meaning are simple words (e.g.: dog, yes and swim) or the elements of complex words (e.g.: *un-* *-happi-* and *-ness* in *unhappiness*). These basic elements are called morphemes, and the study of how they are combined in words is morphology.

The study of how words are organized into phrases, clauses and sentences is usually referred to as syntax.

A longer stretch of language is known as discourse, the study of its structure as discourse analysis (Retrieved from www.universalteacher.org.uk/lang/engstruct.htm).

Lado (1957, as cited in Banathy, Trager & Waddle, 1966) explains the role of first language in second language acquisition in this way:

The role of the first language in second language acquisition is related to the first language interference that has had as an unusual history in second language acquisition research and practice. For many years, it had been presumed that the only major source of syntax errors in adult second language performance was the

performer's first language, and a great deal of materials preparation was done with this assumption in mind. (p. 78).

Subsequent empirical studies of errors made by second language students led to discovery, however, that many errors are not traceable to the structure of the first language, but are common to second language performers of different linguistic backgrounds (Richards, 1971; Buteau, 1970). It is thought that first language is one of the several sources of errors, and other sources need to be considered.

These are the research findings:

First language influence appears to be strongest in complex word order and in word-for-word translations of phrases.

The evidence for this generalization comes from several sources. (Duskova, 1969), for example, studied written errors in the composition of Czech" post-graduate students" and concluded that "interference from the mother tongue [...] was plainly obvious in errors of word order and sentence construction".

LoCoco (1975), in a study of American college students learning Spanish and German in the US, a foreign language situation, reported that the high incidence of inter-lingual (L1 interference) errors in German was due to word order errors..."

First language based errors in Spanish were less numerous and "pertained primarily to adjective position".

First language influence is weaker in bound morphology.

First language influence seems to be strongest in "acquisition – poor" environments, especially in the domain of word order (Selinker, Swain, & Dumas, 1985).

Hakuta (1974); Huang & Hatch (1978), explain the process of silent period in this way the "silent period "observed in natural child second language acquisition, corresponds to the period in which the first language is heavily used in "unnatural" adult second language performance. The children may be building up acquired competence via

input, and several recent studies performance may be profitable for children and adults studying second languages in formal settings.

An evolution and global tendency in reading more advances, based on the semantic meaning for different models for the reading in general like Van Dijk & Kintsch (1983) model in this way:

Their 'model is general and flexible enough' to be 'later specified', or 'embedded' 'into a broader model of strategic verbal interaction in the social context'. This prospect befits the precept that a 'social model should' 'have a cognitive basis' and expound 'strategies' for 'understanding, planning', and 'participating in interaction'. We might thus bridge the 'gap between linguistic theory' and 'theory of social interaction'. 'Translating abstract textual structures into more concrete on-line cognitive processes' can suggest how to do the same with 'abstract structures of interaction and social situations'. (Retrieved from <http://www.beaugrande.com/LINGTHERvan%20Dijk%20and%20Kintsch.htm>).

1.2.3.2. Knowledge of sentence structure

A student can guide by the knowledge of his/her thematic and of his /her maternal code, but it is also essential a good linguistic knowledge of the foreign language; in order to produce a good reading comprehension.

Eskey & Grabe (1988) analyze the role of the grammar (control some recurrent structures on any kind of texts) and vocabulary (especially the lexical aspect, distinguishing to the efficient readers from the inefficient readers) in the reading comprehension of foreign languages. The author does not share the ideas about interference to all the linguistic levels during the processing of the foreign language.

Butzkamm (2003) states that every new language is confronted by an already-existing mother tongue. All languages are competitors in the sense that if they are not used, they may be lost, and there is only a limited amount of time that can be shared between them.

Using the mother tongue, we have (1) learnt to think, (2) learnt to communicate and (3) acquired an intuitive understanding of grammar. The mother tongue opens the door, not only to its own grammar, but to all grammars, inasmuch as it awakens the potential for universal grammar that lies within all of us. This foreknowledge is the result of interactions between a first language and our fundamental linguistic endowment, and is the foundation on which we build our Selves. It is the greatest asset people bring to the task of foreign language learning. For this reason, the mother tongue is the master key to foreign languages, the tool which gives us the fastest, surest, most precise, and most complete means of accessing a foreign language.

Butzkamm (2003) shows the alternative of mother tongue as a base of reference into these statements:

- The FL learner must build upon existing skills and knowledge acquired in and through the MT.
- MT aids make it easier to conduct whole lessons in the foreign language. Pupils gain confidence and, paradoxically, become less dependent on their MT.
- MT aids can promote more authentic, message-oriented communication than might be found in lessons where they are avoided.
- Bilingual techniques allow teachers to bypass the grammatical progression of textbooks.
- We need to associate the new with the old. To exclude MT links would deprive us of the richest source for building cross-linguistic networks.
- It is not possible to avoid interference, but it can be greatly reduced.
- Paradoxically, the counter-productive, haphazard use of the mother tongue may be an unwanted side-effect of the doctrine of monolingualism.
- All newly acquired FL items have to sink roots in our minds, which are eventually deep enough for the items to function independently of the MT.

It is not enough to be able to speak or to read, write, and understand basic language. One must be able to use language to get things done. Communicative competence is defined as the ability to use language appropriately in a variety of contexts. (Hymes, 1971).

Language skills develop interpedently. Authentic Language use often requires the simultaneous use of several language domains. (Walqui-Van lier, 1993; Canale, 1983).

“Language skills emphasized the oral communication through interpersonal and group interaction in the classroom” (DCN, p. 359) (Own translation).

Taking into account the mother tongue of our students is important but is important too, to teaching grammar with language in context according to the needs and interest of our students. Giving them examples not rules in an inductive way; engage the learners, teaching through pictures and physical objects, realia, teaching through texts, teaching through role play.

1.2.3.3. Language functions

The functions of language vary, depending on the purposes or intentions of what we want to communicate. Bernandez (1999) refers to the main function of language “linguistic”, through which we can communicate something to somebody. Jacobson (1984) refers to various functions of language which conform the communicative process. These are: Emotive, referential, appellative, of contact, meta-linguistic and poetic or esthetic functions.

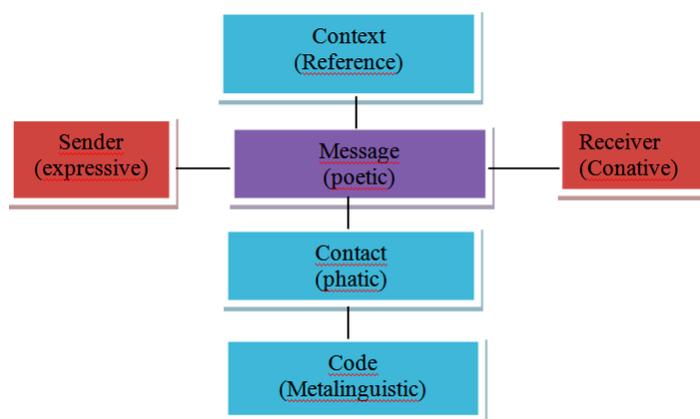


Figure 1. Functions of communication. Adapted from “Studying Popular Music” by Middleton, R. (1990/2002), p. 241. Philadelphia: Open University Press.

- **Referential Function**

This function corresponds to message's factor and describes a situation, object or mental state. The descriptive statements of the referential function can consist of both definite descriptions and **deictic** words,

e.g. "The autumn leaves have all fallen now."

"What *we've* got *here* is a failure to communicate."

(Paul Newman as Luke in *Cool Hand Luke*, 1967).

"Don't *you* sometimes wonder if it's worth all *this*? I mean what *you're* fighting for."

(Humphrey Bogart as Rick Blaine in *Casablanca*, 1942)

"God has not forsaken *this place*, Mr. Allnut, as my brother's presence *here* bears witness."

(Katharine Hepburn as Rose Sayer in *The African Queen*, 1951)

It is the function of language related to the referent or context, to communicative act. This function is present in all the communicative situations. It is given when all the communicative acts can be confirmed because in this we recognized the relationship established between the message and the object (referent). The main linguistic resources are the deictics. They use the denotative language (the primary meaning of the words).

Here prevail nouns and verbs; which is the most common among the informative, scientific and journalistic texts. This function is called too, representative, informative, denotative or cognitive. It brings objective knowledge, concepts and information. The purpose of this function is alluded to extra-linguistic resources (all related to the context.) e.g. "This book is here", "The man is being rational", "Today is Friday".

e.g. "Track crash in the route" (Own translation)

- **Expressive ("emotive" or "affective") Function**

It relates to sender and is best exemplified by "interjections" and other changes on the sound that do not alter the denotative meaning of an utterance but

do add information about the Addresser's (speaker's) internal state, e.g. "Wow, what a view!".

It is found in first person and its effect is from identification. This function permits the sender the exteriorization of attitudes, feelings, desires, level of interest or stages of emotions, to set a communicative situation.

This function is given when the message is center in the sender:

e.g. Loneliness: "I'm so lonely , love, that only goes up to my room , rung by rung, the old staircase trachea"(Juan Manuel Roca).

This function is not far from the representative function; it is the function of the language to let a projection of enunciation's subject based on representativeness. If we analyze simple expressions like "that woman fascinates me!" or what a beautiful day!" Prevail the expressive function but with a base in a symbolic representation, given by an allusion to referents. Finally, this function is given by affective and connotative meanings established on base to denotative meanings: when we talk, we express our stage of emotions, attitudes or our pertinence to a social group giving to others about us. (Own translation).

- **Conative Function**

This function engages the addresser (receiver) directly and is best illustrated by vocatives and imperatives, e.g. "Tom! Come inside and eat!"

It is named conative too; because it came from the Latin Word "conatus" (beginning), here the sender waits the beginning of the reaction of the receiver. It focuses in the receiver. It is the function of command and question. The sender tries to influence on the behavior of the receiver. It uses a big number of linguistic resources like: vocatives, imperatives, interrogative sentences, affective elements, adjective valuative, connotative terms, and all kind of rhetoric resources. It is given in the colloquial language: political and ideological advertisements.

e.g. « look!» or «Open the door, please.» (These messages invite to receive or to make something). (Own translation).

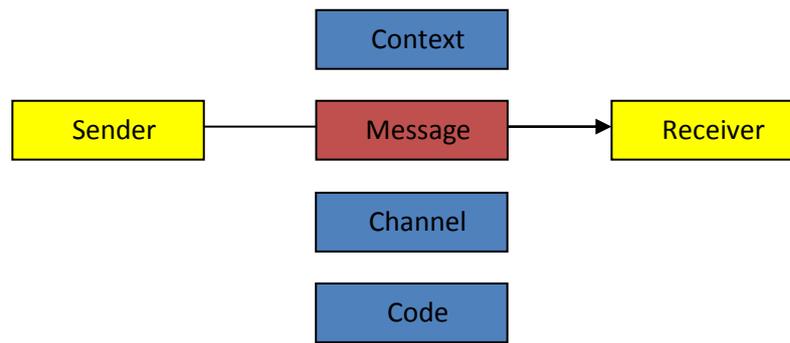


Figure 2. Elements of communication. Fuente: Middleton, R. (1990/2002), p. 241. Philadelphia: Open University Press.

- **Poetic or esthetic Function**

It focuses on "the message for its own sake" (the code itself, and how it is used) and is the operative function in poetry as well as slogans.

This function is oriented to message. It appears always that the expression attracts the attention on its form, in any kind of manifestation when the language is used with esthetic purpose. Its resources are varied like: stylistic figures and the game of words, especially in literary texts but not exclusively. If the appropriate word is used correctly to write the thinking and feeling of people; it produces emotion and beauty like in some gratifies, jokes, songs, poems, novels, films' arguments, etc.

e.g. "The soul can talk with the eyes and kiss with a look".

e. g. "I am very happy".

e.g. Tonight I Can Write the saddest lines: "Night is starry and shiver , blue stars , far away."(Pablo Neruda).

- **Contact or phatic Function**

It is language for the sake (purpose or benefit) of interaction and is therefore associated with the contact factor. The phatic function can be observed in greetings and casual discussions of the weather, particularly with strangers. It

also provides the keys to open, maintain, verify or close the communication channel: "Hello?", "Ok?", "Hummm", "Bye"...

This function is oriented to the channel of communication between the sender and the receiver. Its purpose is starting, continuing, interrupting and ending a conversation or simply to prove if there is any kind of contact. Its informative content is nule or limited and it is used like a way of greeting. It facilitates the social contact to transmit and optimize future messages of major content.

e.g." ok", "I agree", "Of course", "Naturally", "I understand", "sure", "perfect".

It guaranties that the channel works correctly and that the message arrives without interruption. (Own translation).

- **Meta-lingual ("meta-linguistic" or "reflexive") Function**

It is the use of language (what Jacobson calls "Code") to discuss or describe itself. (This is an example of meta-linguistic Function).

It is focused on the proper code of the language and clarifies the message. It is expressed in declarations and definitions.

e. g. "The word *peter* has five letters" (Own translation).

Another important literature to consider about functions of language is from the book "Language as social semiotics" (Halliday, 1979). He stated a new perspective of language studies which integrate the socio-cultural component as a key in the comprehension contrary to structuralism and generativism of Saussure and Chomsky (who did not let the studies of combination of language / speech). Halliday situated the context as an intrinsic part of language only in the use and not separate from the same (Inter and intra organism).

1.2.3.4. Sociolinguistic interaction

Readers develop capacities for reading making easier their comprehension throughout their student lives. Many researchers have taken as goal of study if these reading skills developed in the mother tongue can be transferred in the comprehension of texts in a foreign language.

In the transferring aspect, Koda (1994) distinguishes two perspectives: The universality of reading process and the particularity of reading process in each language. There are not many studies dedicated to the first perspective. He mentions that the skills of cognitive kind are universal and the other one of linguistic character is specific for each language.

Inside the researches of universality of the reading process, ones highlight some factors related to the reader: linguistic knowledge of the foreign language, reading competence in the mother tongue, age, motivation, etc. or other factors related to the context: teaching method of the foreign language, pedagogic goals, contexts of learning, etc.

Eisterhold (1990), about transference of skills of reading and writing in Japanese and Chinese people refers to English as a foreign language presenting the following aspects:

1. Reading abilities transfer easier than the writing abilities.
2. Transference varies according to the origin of the speakers.
3. Linguistic level, educational level and cultural experience are factors which affect the developing of reading–writing process in the foreign language, or on illiterate adult in their mother tongue.

Carson (1990) describes three models of transference of skills and finds three positions:

1. Common linguistic skill with high level which make possible the transference.
2. Basic common linguistic skill with high domain and a cognitive restructuration, which let the transference of skills.
3. Separated linguistic system with cognitive separation of skills and similar structures joined.

He concludes that studies about some factors like the kind of homework or previous knowledge of the topic can hinder the level of necessary competence for an effective comprehension.

The DCN (2008) considers that:

The use of native language or mother tongue of the students plays an important role, when they learn a new language; especially when they have some problems of communication or understanding of some expressions ignored or that need more explanation. (p. 56).

The first reason is that language is developed in a real situation and context, not only inside the classroom, school or institute; but also in an interactive and a fluent communication outside.

In our Peruvian context, it is important to clarify that English is learned as a foreign language and students do not have the opportunity to practice it outside of the classroom.

The second reason is that many students with low level of training in English feel frustrated when they interact. They do not feel confident to use the language when they communicate or speak everything in English.

The third reason is that students tend to alienate to a new language (English) and reject their mother tongue and their culture; forgetting that their country has a pluricultural context.

These main reasons do not mean that we need to use full English all of the time in the class. We can also consider the use of the mother tongue for a better understanding of some concepts, expressions or ideas. Teachers need to find strategies to solve some problems of communication that the students bring to class.

Here are some points about native language or mother tongue in our context “to preserve the mother tongue and promote its development and practice” (DCN, p. 21) (Own translation).

“Students reinforce the use of the mother tongue in their communication” (DCN, p. 22) (Own translation).

“The class must be performed to 100% in English, in this way we contribute to the development of capacities” (OTP, p. 53) (Own translation).

Analyzing these two documents, we can notice that they have contradictory positions; On the one hand, we need to practice and preserve the mother tongue. On the other hand, it is not usual to use full English in class. The question here is what happens with our pluricultural and multilingual Peruvian context. Fortunately, we have the opportunity to diversify the DCN according to the context and needs of our students.

It is important to know some ELT references like the following in order to clarify the concepts of mother tongue and meaningful learning.

Swan (1985), states that:

A learner that enters to the classroom is not a “tabula rasa”. Besides that, he deals in detail with some aspects of the communicative abilities and knowledge of the world, which all learners possess, through that he makes only a relatively brief mention of the actual corpus of language (their mother tongue) which all learners bring into the classroom. (p. 94).

Larsen-Freeman (2001), states that:

The students’ native language has no particular role in the communicative Approach. The target language should be used not only during communicative activities, but also, for example, in explaining the activities to the students or in assigning homework. The students learn from these classroom management exchanges, too, and realize that the target language is a vehicle for communication, not just an object to be studied. (p. 57)

Richards & Rodgers (1997), mention that “judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible” (p. 54)

Ausubel (1963) states that “meaningful learning of learners ‘subsumes’ new information into existing structures and memory systems, and the resulting associate links create stronger retention” (p. 80).

Richards (1997), states that “the process of making meaningful associations between existing knowledge, experience and new material will lead toward better long-term retention than rote learning of material in isolated pieces”.

The result of new and previous knowledge in real life is meaningful and overall useful.

In the case of our students they know more about the world around them, many of them can have difficulties for expressing themselves in a formal way, maybe more than us about their contexts. That is why it is necessary that teachers make real descriptions or introduce the context or schemas that they know in an easy way, trying to respect students’ contexts, opinions and if they are wrong, correct them without making any harm to their feeling or humiliating them.

1.2.4. Knowledge of the foreign language

Bernard (1991), states that “Researches about knowledge of linguistic system of the foreign language are centered in concrete levels. Thus, there is a few researches about the impact of the syntactic knowledge in the skill of comprehension texts” (p. 75).

In the case of Spanish and English, two relatively close languages; there is a contrastive approach by instruction: To promote the acquisition of first language in the early stages and to make an especial emphasis on the second language.

1.2.4.1. Knowledge of foreign language rules

Here is important to stand out the four typical linguistic abilities: understanding, speaking, reading and writing; since a perspective integrative proposed by communicative approach, for example a sequencing of materials and tasks of learning like a permanent process, putting mayor emphasis in the socio-linguistic aspects of the language.

Oré (2013) states some important aspects in relation to knowledge of foreign language:

To difference of other approaches and contributions to teaching English, remarks the communicative competence over the linguistic competence. It states that learning a language is a task eminently cognitive and suggests a necessary attention to affective factors like attitude and motivation. (p. 94) (Own translation).

Taking into account this notion, we notice that our students should have developed the four basic abilities at least in their first language but contrary we find many deficiencies in literacy of the mother tongue. In the case of English that students in many cases bring to class, they come with more basic notions result of interaction with the technology around them. However, what happens with other minority of students that come to English class with minimal notions of this new language. In these cases is a need to put in practice the humanistic and communicative approach in order to having a good result in the two pedagogical hours a week that give us the MED. It clears for us that learning a language is a cognitive, socio-affective and communicative process.

Referring to foreign language knowledge, Brown (2007), states that:

Despite our history of treating the four skills in separate segments of a curriculum, there is a recent trend toward skill integration. That is, rather than designing a curriculum to teach the many aspects of one skill. Curriculum designers are talking more of a whole language approach; here reading is treated as interrelated skills. A lesson in a so-called reading class, under this new paradigm, might include:

- A pre-reading discussion of the topic to activate schemata;
- listening to a teacher monologue or a series of informative statements about the topic of a passage to be read;
- a focus on a certain reading strategy, say, scanning;
- writing a response to or paraphrase of a reading passage, including the real - life integration of language skills, gets them to perceive the relationship among several skills, and provides flexibility in creating interesting, motivating lessons. (p. 107).

According to the OTP (2010), students should develop the following skills:

Listening and Speaking

- Dialogue with peers about himself and his immediate environment with proper intonation and showing respect for the others ideas.
- Understand and follow simple and everyday classroom instructions.

Reading

- Predict text content taking into account the graphics elements.
- Identify the global or specific information from simple texts and instructional, postcards, business cards, advertisements, among others, using the methods of understanding as skimming and scanning.
- infer the meaning of words from context.
- Evaluate voice control, body and look to understand the message.

Writing

- Plan the production of the text, identifying the communicative situation.
- write simple texts about personal issues and situations, such as postcards and short messages.
- Evaluate the content of the text. (p. 35) (Own translation).

To command grammar and vocabulary in almost all the languages are two important points. The structure and the meaning of that structure is a task that we are going to develop as follows:

Grammar

Brown (2007), states that about grammar:

Making use of logical structure is another important rule for effective studying of language, which is to capitalize on any inherent structure in the text. If the material is essentially meaningless to the student, he will have a great deal of difficulty retaining it. If the student can detect the logical structure of the

material, he will be better able to learn from it. Children have some difficulty detecting even gross violations of logical structure. (p. 70).

Halliday (1994) explains the functional systemic grammar in three senses:

First; a functional grammar is essentially a 'natural' grammar, in the sense that everything in it can be explained, ultimately, by reference to how language is used." Second, the manifestations in the linguistic system of the two very general purposes, which underlie all uses of language: (i) to understand the environment (ideational), and (ii) to act on the others in it (interpersonal). Combined with these is a third meta-functional component, the 'textual', which breathes relevance into the other two. Ideational meaning is the representation of experience: our experience of the world that lies about us, and inside us, the world of our imagination. It is meaning in the sense of 'content'. The ideational function of the clause is that of representing what in the broadest sense we can call 'processes': actions, events, processes of consciousness, and relations. Interpersonal meaning is meaning as a form of action: the speaker or writer doing something to the listener or reader by means of language. The interpersonal function of the clause is that of exchanging roles in rhetorical interaction: statements, questions, offers and commands, together with accompanying modalities. Textual meaning is relevance to the context: both the preceding (and following) text, and the context of situation. The textual function of the clause is that of constructing a message. (p. 54).

In the grammar learning process, there are two major processes that might happen, namely explicit and implicit grammatical knowledge.

Purpura (2004) states this point in relations with explicit grammar:

Explicit grammar "refers to a conscious knowledge of grammatical forms and their meaning". This knowledge helps the intake and the development of implicit language, and is used to monitor language output. Explicit knowledge is commonly accessed slowly through controlled processing although at some extent it can be automatized. (p. 67).

DeKeyser (1995) indicates this point:

That this 'explicit' grammatical instruction involves the explanation of rule or request to focus on grammatical feature. The instructions can happen both deductively, where the learners are taught rules and asked to apply them in practice; or inductively, where the learners are presented examples first then to generate rules and make generalizations.

On the other hand, implicit grammatical knowledge refers to "the knowledge of a language that is typically manifest in some form of naturally occurring language behavior such as conversation (Ellis, 2001).

In line with this, Brown (2007) states that "implicit knowledge is involves conscious awareness and intention" (p. 67). This process is commonly unconscious and accesses quickly.

DeKeyser (1995) posits that implicit grammatical instruction does not involve any explanation of rule presentation or a request to focus on form in the input. It occurs without intention to learn and without awareness of what has been learned.

Thornbury (2002) states that about inductive grammar:

An inductive approach starts with some examples from which a rule is inferred. In grammar teaching, teachers present the examples at the beginning then generalizing rules from the given samples. Inductive grammar learning is commonly happen for native speakers of English, where they can produce a grammatically correct utterance but they do not know the rules underlie it. Inductive approach is often correlated with Direct Method and Natural Approach in English teaching. In both methods, grammar is presented in such way the learners experience it. (p. 69).

Gombert (1992), states that:

Grammar generally refers to the structural properties of sounds, words, sentences, and structural coordination across sentences. Sociolinguistics analyzes the ways in which language varies as a function of the setting (e.g., lab work, pair-share, and choral reading) as well as the social position of the person, (e.g., teacher v. student). (p. 79).

Vocabulary

Campbell (2008) states that:

Vocabulary plays a fundamental role in student's knowledge base. In fact, some researchers suggest that teaching vocabulary is synonymous with building background knowledge. Understanding key words is critical before learning can progress academically. For example the average number for new words expected to be learned by a middle schooler is around 600 annually for the high schooler it is 800. It is easy to see how students can fall if they do not learn vocabulary. Fortunately all teacher at all grade levels, in all subjects areas can teach essential words for their disciplines. Learners of all age need to be taught key organizers ideas or generalizations of the topic or discipline. Researches maintained that a significant purpose of education is correct students' erroneous notions (p. 83).

Brown (2007), states some principles for teaching vocabulary:

Allocate specific class time to vocabulary learning.

Help students to learn vocabulary in context.

Play down the role of bilingual dictionaries.

Encourage students to develop strategies to develop meaning of the words.

Engage in "unplanned" vocabulary teaching. (p. 107).

Integrating language skills

The importance of integrating skills gives students greater motivation that converts to better retention of principles of effective speaking, listening, reading and writing. Rather than being forced to plot along through a course than limits itself to one mode of performance, students are given a chance to diversify their efforts in more meaningful tasks.

Bransford, Stein, Shelton & Owings (1980) state that “less able students have little awareness of the text and ask characteristics that should be taken into account when studying, even though their memory is affected by the structure of the text” (p. 142).

1.2.4.2. Knowledge of foreign language use (context)

Nayar (1997) states that:

Foreign language contexts are those in which students do not have ready-made contexts for communication beyond their classroom. They may be obtainable through language clubs, special media, opportunities, books or an occasional tourist, but efforts must be made to create such opportunities. The seemingly clear dichotomy between ESL and EFL has been considerably muddled in recent years with the increasing use of English worldwide for a variety of purposes. (p. 84).

Brown (2007) states that:

ESL contexts vary from an American or British context, where monolingual native speakers abound, to countries such as India or Singapore, where English is a widely used second language for education, government and commerce, to Scandinavian countries, where English has no official status but is commonly spoken by virtually every educated person. Likewise, in countries where languages might be quickly judged as foreign (for instance, Spanish or Chinese in the United States, English in Japan), learners may find readily available potential for authentic use of the language in such venues as indigenous language communities and the media (internet, TV, film). (p. 92).

With that fair warning, it is still useful to consider the pedagogical implications for a continuum of contexts ranging from high-visibility, ready access to the target language outside classroom to no access beyond the classroom door.

Brown (2007) states that:

Communicative language teaching categorize as an EFL context is clearly a greater challenge for students may have difficulty in seeing the relevance of learning English. Their immediate use of the language may seem far removed from their own circumstances, and classrooms hours may be the only part of the day when they are exposed to English. Here are some guidelines to help you compensate for the lack of ready communicative situations outside the classrooms.

- Use class time for optimal authentic language input and interaction.
- Do not waste class on work that can be done as homework.
- Provide regular motivations –stimulating activities.
- Help students to see genuine uses for English on their own lives.
- Play down the role of test.
- Provide plenty of extra-class learning opportunities, such as assigning an English speaking movie, having them listen to an English speaking TV or radio program, doing outside reading.
- Encourage the use of learning strategies outside the class.
- Form a language club and schedule regular activities. (p. 41).

According to DCN (2008) “English Area adopts the Communicative Approach which implies learning English in a functional view; simulating communicative situations understanding the interests and needs of students” (p. 359) (Own translation).

“Students, for learning, use logical structures that depend on variables like the previous knowledge acquired and the socio-cultural geographic, linguistic and economic –productive context” (DCN, p. 18) (Own translation).

“Language is a tool for communication; it implies to use the language and learn the language in the real contexts, using communicative situations.”(DCN, p. 359) (Own translation).

“This document considers the socio-cultural elements and the local culture through the diversification of knowledge that means contextualize according to the reality of the students” (OTP, 2010, p. 26) (Own translation).

According to this literature, in our real context at National schools, we have only 90 minutes a week to teaching English as a foreign language, which represents a little more than 1 percent of their walking hours, we need to think of what students need to accomplish. This time exposition and others reasons like our pluricultural contexts, teachers with low training on English and the long traditions of our curricula teaching foreign languages without good results are insufficient to learn a language in a good way. By other side DCN give us the opportunity to diversify the contents according to the situational contexts of our students.

1.2.5. Meta-cognitive knowledge

Reheim (1993), states that:

Meta-cognitive knowledge involves, among other things, knowledge about self-regulation of one’s own learning.

It is the knowledge base you must have to operate strategically. It includes knowledge of self as a learner, knowledge of task demands, specific strategies, and general knowledge about strategies. (p. 89).

Bransford, Brown & Cocking (1999) explain more about meta-cognitive knowledge in this way:

Meta-cognitive knowledge involves knowledge about cognition in general as well as awareness of and knowledge about one’s own cognition. One of the hallmarks of physiological and educational theories and research on learning from the original taxonomy was published is the emphasis on helping students become

more knowledgeable of a responsible for their own cognition and thinking. This change cuts across all the different theoretical approaches to learning and development from neo-Piagetian models, to cognitive science and information processing models, to Vygotskian and cultural, situated learning model. Regardless of their theoretical perspective, researches, agree that with development students become more aware of their own thinking as well as more knowledgeable about cognition in general. Furthermore, as they act on this awareness they tend to learn better. (p. 71)

There are many definitions and models of meta-cognition; an important distinction is one between (a) knowledge of cognition and (b) the process involving the monitoring, control and regulation of cognition (e.g. Brown, A., Bransford, J., Ferrara, R., & Campione, 1983; Flavell, 1979; Paris & Winograd, 1990-1993).

One of the most influential trends in developmental cognitive psychology has been a growing interest in the child's meta-cognitive status, i.e. the knowledge and control he has over his own thinking and learning activities, including reading.

Flavell (1978) defined meta-cognition as "knowledge that takes as its object or regulates any aspect of any cognitive endeavor" (p. 56) two clusters of activities are included in that statement: knowledge about cognition and regulation of cognition.

Brown (1978), explains the meta-cognitive process in this way:

The first cluster is concerned with a person is concerned with a person knowledge about his own cognitive resources and the compatibility between himself as a learner and the learning situation.

The ability to reflect on one's own cognitive processes, to be aware of one's own activities while reading, solving problems, etc. is a late developing skill with important implications for the child's perform effectiveness as an active, planful learner. If the child is aware of what is needed to perform effectively, then it is possible for him to take steps to meet the demands of a learner situation more adequately. If, however, the child is not aware of his own limitations as a learner

or the complexity of the task at hand, then he can hardly be expected to take preventive actions in order to anticipate or recover from problems.

The second cluster of activities studied consists of the self-regulatory mechanisms used by an active learner during an ongoing attempt to solve problems. These indices of meta-cognition include: checking the outcome of any attempt to solve the problem, planning one's next move, monitoring the effectiveness of any attempted action, testing, revising, and evaluating one's strategies for learning.

A third concern of psychologists interested in meta-cognition is the development and use of compensatory strategies. Given that a learner has some awareness of his own cognitive process, and is monitoring his process sufficiently well to detect a problem, what type of remedial activity will he introduce to overcome that problem? (p. 71).

Gombert (1992, p. 13). Explain the differences between Meta-linguistic processes and Meta-cognitive processes in this way:

Meta-linguistic processes: The systematic series of mental actions directed at thinking about the use of language. Specifically, these include: 1) reflecting on language and its use, and 2) intentionally monitoring and planning methods of language comprehension and production.

Meta-cognitive processes: The systematic series of mental actions directed at thinking about learning and the reasoning of information, concepts, and ideas. Specifically, these include: 1) individuals' introspective, conscious knowledge of their own cognitive processes; and 2) the ability to intentionally monitor and plan their own cognitive processes to realize a goal or objective. Linguistic analysis divides the complexity of language into several dimensions. Pragmatics refers to the analysis of how structures are used in order to attain communicative goals (e.g., asking someone to perform an action). Textual competence refers to the (usually) print version of language with its distinct formal conventions. (p. 83).

1.2.5.1. Use strategies of self-learning

OTP (2008) states that “it is essential that students learn learning strategies for learning to learn and learn to think conducting an awareness (meta-cognition) of the process that made and to be autonomous in his learning” (p. 74).

Pinzás (2001) states that:

Reading is not a light, informal, superficial, or opportunist activity. It is a difficult and a serious activity; which require commitment, dedication, and effort. This can be defined as an interaction between reader and reading. It lets its comprehension because task reader is using the level of previous information (NO VISUAL) and its skills for interpreting, completing, determining, or giving the meaning of text. Here is necessary to clarify that text is a source of information which training the reader to use the previous knowledge and the previous experience and determine the meaning. These are some strategies of self-learning:

- Know for what to read and what information they are looking for
- Do not read word for word, but whole sentences of extracting meaning.
- When you do not know something but not locked guess, develop hypotheses and run ‘risks’.
- Use all information at your fingertips, title, drawings, diagrams, prior knowledge, etc.
- Identify key concepts and relate with each other and with their prior knowledge.
- Be flexible, use different reading strategies according to the text, the complexity of the subject, prior knowledge, etc. (Own translation).

Lin (2012) states that:

In order to bridge the comprehension gap between words on a page and the human mind, readers can digest textual information through strategies developed from practice and active learning. To develop understanding of a text, active reading strategies, such as visualizing the text, highlighting main points and using

contextual information, are ways of attacking the sea of words. These are some strategies of self-learning: Draw Inferences, mental Images, determine Importance.

Draw Inferences: Use prior knowledge of a topic or subject from within the text to predict what will happen next. You can also use background knowledge from other sources to predict what will occur later in the reading. You can practice this by reading a paragraph and stopping to predict what will happen next. If you predict correctly, your comprehension of the content will be reinforced. If you predicted incorrectly, your brain will attempt to make the connection between what was predicted and what really happened in the reading. Therefore, even if you inferred incorrectly, stimulation in the brain will heighten your awareness of the text and increase comprehension.

Mental Images: Readers with difficulty comprehending the text can attempt to create a mental visualization of what they are reading. Teachers use pictures in storybooks to help students, at an early age, bridge the gap between words and a mental image. Visualizing how characters look and act, the actions taking place in the story, and developing themes can help the reader bring the text to life.

Determine Importance: While the sea of text and words can seem endless, it is a key for readers to sort out what is important and what is excess information. It takes practice to be able to detect descriptive words and phrases that distract the reader from the central idea of the excerpt. Analyze the headers and titles of nonfiction text, which generally gives an indication what the following passage will be about. Strong action verbs used in stories can help you detect important actions and information that will soon follow. Use a highlighter to mark an important concept such as relevant quotes and reoccurring ideas for future references (Retrieved from <http://www.ehow.com/list 7771500 .reading- comprehension- strategies.html>).

1.2.5.2. Use of the Information and communication technology (ICT)

English language learners' experience with technology can vary greatly from one student to the next. Some kids may have never used a computer. Others may be doing all of the troubleshooting!

Ybarra (2003) states that:

Students learning a new language need as much language support as possible. Those who have taught students learning English as their second language know that any language support is helpful for their language acquisition. English language learner (ELL) students need a variety of language experiences. They need to hear language, write language, speak language and read language.

We believe that computers can play an integral part in providing ELL students with valuable language experiences as they learn a new language. This article focuses on how computer-assisted instruction (CAI) can be a supplemental teaching tool for teaching English language learners. Additionally, a discussion of the benefits that have been found in using CAI with ELL is also provided. (p. 68).

Liaw (1997), in a study conducted by him explains that the use of this tool increases the verbal interaction, the vocabulary development, reading and writing.

The computer can act as a tool to increase verbal exchange. Computer books were used to investigate whether computers increase verbal interaction between students. These computer books are interactive stories that appear on the computer screen as an actual book with text and illustrations. There are also a variety of interactive choices students can use to read the story, including: real voices that read aloud, music, and sound effects. The story is also highlighted so readers can follow along with the text. The use of the computer can be a useful supplement to the traditional curriculum of the ELL classroom by promoting verbal communication and the acquisition of English.

One way to use computers for English Language Learners is to teach vocabulary.

Kang and Dennis (1995) write more about this point:

Any attempt to treat vocabulary learning as learning of isolated facts certainly will not promote real vocabulary knowledge". Students need to learn vocabulary in context and with visual clues to help them understand. Computers can provide this rich, contextual environment. The computer also allows students to become

active learners in a one-on-one environment. Computers can incorporate various learning strategies as well as accommodate a variety of learning styles. (p. 85).

There are several ways in which technology can be used to improve reading ability. Most simple reading texts are also very primary in content. Older children may consider themselves too old to be reading such primary content books. Computers, however can increase the interest level for older students while keeping the text simple and easy to read. Another benefit of using computers for reading instruction is that the computer offers immediate feedback on performance. They also can provide added practice when necessary.

Case & Truscott (1999) in relation with this point state that:

Students have been able to improve their sight word vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. Computer based reading instruction also allows for "increased interaction with texts, attention to individual needs, and increased independence through an ability to read texts they would not otherwise be able to read. (p. 67).

Landerholm, Karr & Munshi (2000) state that "technology can also be used to improve parent involvement in their children's education while improving the parents' literacy as well. Enjoying reading and writing alone and with their children, understand science and computer technology, and improve their own literacy" (p. 43).

Schwartz, Sears, & Chang (2007). In relations to technology and previous knowledge, they state that:

Technology can also assist in this diagnostic process. It is not uncommon in courses using Learning Management Systems like WATTLE to ask students to do a pre-instruction on-line quiz to determine a personal (and collective overview) of prior knowledge. Furthermore the outcome of these quizzes can be linked to instructional materials should students demonstrate a lack of requisite "early knowledge" i.e. the knowledge necessary to be able to learn the desired new knowledge. (p. 59).

DCN (2008) states that the domain of ICT as one of the purposes of Basic Regular Education to 2021:

It finds to develop capacities and attitudes in students, letting to use and take advantage of the ICT properly within an ethical framework, enhancing the autonomous learning throughout life. It requires training them in the domain of information technologies and communication digital (internet) with ability to perform competently in the use of various programs for the collection, analysis, interpretation and use of relevant information for trouble shooting and decision making effectively. School offers training that develops critical judgment and strategic thinking and reflective students to choose to know the sources of information and relevant tools of supporting to projects undertaken; as well as identify new opportunities for inclusion through virtual communities. Similarly, the school seeks to adapt to the effects this has on the digital language learning ways and communicating of the students. (p. 79) (Own translations).

Cummins (2000) states that:

By using multimedia technology to incorporate pictures or video into the lesson, the teacher can provide students with the necessary contextual cues to understand new concepts. Introducing or reviewing a concept while using manipulative and props helps students gain a deeper understanding. The English language learner is able to see what is being addressed as well as listen to the information. Discussion boards can create a platform for students to be actively engaged in academic and social English while outside of the classroom environment. (p. 90).

1.2.5.3. Use strategies of reading

Knowledge about meta-cognitive strategies refers to the reader's knowledge about the executive processes he or she employs before, during, and after reading. Such executive strategies are considered by many educators as crucial for reading comprehension. It is not enough to be aware of one's understanding or failure to understand—a learner must be able to self-regulate his or her reading process in order to

read for comprehension. The reader needs knowledge about meta-cognitive strategies. (Collins, 1994; Maitland, 2000; Urquhart & Weir, 1998).

Nist & Simpson (1994, as cited in Craig and Yore, 1996) state that:

Among the numerous meta-cognitive strategies, there are three main strategies that receive primary emphasis in the area of reading: (1) planning, (2) self-monitoring, and (3) self-assessment. These three strategies are discussed next. Planning for reading refers to making a comprehensive plan for dealing with the text at hand. This strategy stimulates students' interest, arouses their expectations, and fosters their motivation to discover what will occur in the text. It also has the potential to clarify the purposes for reading and to activate different kinds of schemata. As the student prepares to read, he or she needs to think about his or her purpose(s) for reading. Is s/he reading to entertain? To understand? To gather information? Unless he or she knows his or her purpose quite well, reading will be nothing more than allowing the eyes to scan the print. As the student plans for reading, he or she judges the relevance or irrelevance of the text to a particular topic, anticipates the content, recognizes the difficulty level of the text, proposes strategies for handling the task, connects prior knowledge to the passage topic, and determines the standard she or she will use to evaluate his or her own comprehension. (p. 58).

Self-monitoring –or comprehension monitoring as it is often called– refers to the reader's regulation of his or her own comprehension during reading. This meta-cognitive strategy helps students to restore lost comprehension and to adapt reading strategies to handle failure when comprehension breaks down.

Schunk (1997) y Zimmerman (1995) adds that self-monitoring enhances reading because:

It: (a) increases selective attention, (b) helps students determine how effective a performance was, (c) helps students know how effective a learning strategy was, and (d) provides an opportunity for students to find a better strategy when the goal is not met.

Self-assessment is considered by many educators as an important meta-cognitive strategy.

Self-assessment has its foundations in meta-cognition and self-regulated learning and is seen as having the potential to provide teachers and students with opportunities to understand and enhance the ways students monitor and adjust strategic thinking in literacy learning. (p. 108).

Flavell (1979); Printrichet, et al., (2000); Schneider & Pressley, (1979) point out that meta-cognitive knowledge includes knowledge of general strategies that might be used for different tasks, knowledge of the conditions under which these strategies might be used, knowledge of the extent to which the strategies are effective, and knowledge of self. For example, learners know about different strategies for reading a textbook as well as monitor and check the comprehension as they read. Learners also activate relevant knowledge about their own strengths and weakness pertaining to the task as well as their motivation for completing the task.

Brown (1978) states that:

Strategies vary depending on the goal of the activity; for example, reading for meaning demands different skills than reading for remembering (studying).Some of the meta-cognitive skills involved in reading are:

- a) Clarifying the purpose of reading, which is, understanding the both the implicit and explicit task demands.
- b) Identifying the important aspect of the message;
- c) Focusing attention on the major content rather than trivia;
- d) Monitoring ongoing activities to determine whether comprehension is occurring;
- e) Engaging in self- questioning to determine whether goals are being achieved; and
- f) Taking corrective action when failures in comprehension are detected. (p. 78).

According to Grellet (1999), reading involves a variety of skills. The main ones are listed below (Munby, 1978):

- Recognizing the script of a language.
- Deducing the meaning and use of unfamiliar lexical items.
- Understanding explicitly stated information.
- Understanding information when not explicitly stated.
- Understanding conceptual meaning.
- Understanding the communicative value. (Function) of sentences and utterances.
- Understanding relations within the sentences.
- Understanding relations between the parts of a text through lexical cohesion devices.
- Understanding cohesion between parts of a text through grammatical cohesion devices.
- Interpreting text by going outside.
- Recognizing indicators in discourse.
- Identifying the main point or important information in a piece of discourse.
- Distinguishing the main idea from supporting details.
- Extracting salient point to summarize (the text, an idea, etc.)
- Selective extraction of relevant points from a text.
- Basic reference skills.
- Skimming.
- Scanning to locate specifically required information.
- Transcoding information to diagrammatic display.

1.2.5.4. Make self-evaluation about learning

Alderson (2000); Kohonen et al. (2001) state that: “Knowledge about self refers to the reader’s perception of his or her reading abilities as well as his or her background knowledge about the topic he or she is going to read” (p. 54).

Alderman (1999), explains more about this point:

With regard to self-perception, it is argued that students’ judgments of their own capabilities to accomplish a specific task are closely related to their success on

this task. More specifically, when students believe they can succeed in a task, they are more likely to undertake this task. (p. 54).

Moreover, Pajares & Miller (1994), assert that “students with strong self-efficacy are less likely to give up than those who are paralyzed with doubts about their capabilities” (p. 36).

Consistent with this view, McCabe and Margolis (2001) claim that:

Student whose self-efficacy for reading is low often resist reading or apathetically go through the motions of learning to read. In contrast, the same student often exert considerable effort, tenacity, and discipline in activities they feel self-efficacious, such as athletics or drawing.

Nist & Simpson (1994) state the advantages about self-assessment or self-evaluation as:

The first of this advantages is that promotes student’s autonomy, the second, advantage is that the involvement of students in assessing their own learning improves their meta-cognition which can, in turn, lead to better thinking and better learning, the third, advantages is that it enhances students' motivation which can, in turn, increase their involvement in learning and thinking. The fourth advantage of self-assessment is that it fosters students' self-esteem and self-confidence, which can, in turn, encourage them to see the gaps in their own performance and to quickly begin filling these gaps. The fifth and final advantage of self-assessment is that it alleviates the teacher’s assessment burden. (p. 45).

Anderson (2001); Shoemaker (1998), suggest that teachers can help students evaluate their strategy use by asking them to respond thoughtfully to the following questions:(a) What are you trying to accomplish?(b) What strategies are you using?(c) How well are you using them? And (d) What else could you do?

Gold (1997), states more about that:

In addition to teacher-provided questions and self-questioning, a number of instruments have been developed for encouraging students to engage in assessing their own meta-cognitive knowledge. These instruments include the K-W-L charts, (what I “Know”/what I “Want” to know/what I’ve “Learned”), reading logs, and self-assessment check lists. (p. 56).

1.3. How we acquire background knowledge

Ehren & Gilroy (1996) state that:

Readers need to activate background, or prior, knowledge in order to construct meaning from text. We also know that students with reading disabilities often have deficits in this area. In order to understand the nature of the problem it is helpful to understand what is involved in background knowledge. This reading explores three areas related to knowledge: types of knowledge, constructs of knowledge, with a focus on schemata, and categories of knowledge. The following map is a visual depiction of background knowledge. (p. 43).

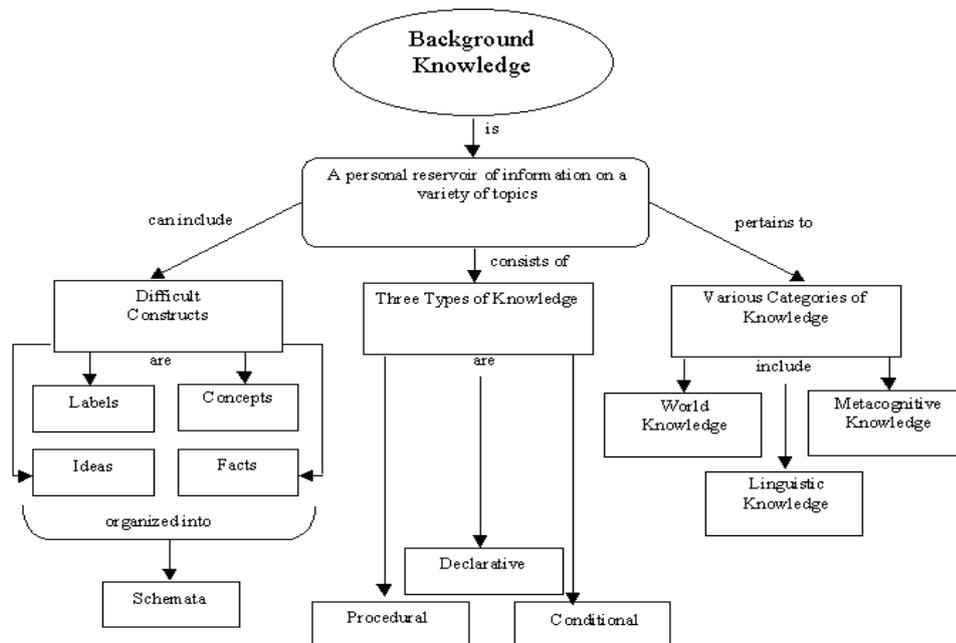


Figure 3. Background Knowledge. Retrieved from <http://scholarworks.aub.lb/handle/10938/5076?show=full>

Background knowledge is acquired through the interaction of two factors:

- (1) Our ability to process and store information, and
- (2) The number and frequency of our academically oriented experiences.

The first factor; the ability to process and store information. It is a component of what cognitive psychologists refer to as fluid intelligence. As described by Cattell (1987), fluid intelligence is innate. One of its defining features is the ability to process information and store it in permanent memory. High fluid intelligence is associated with enhanced ability to process and store information. Low fluid intelligence is associated with diminished ability to process and store information.

Our ability to process and store information dictates whether our experiences parlay into background knowledge. To illustrate this, I considered two students who visit a museum and see exactly the same exhibits. One student has an enhanced capacity to process and store information, or high fluid intelligence; the other has a diminished capacity to process and store information, or low fluid intelligence. The student with high fluid intelligence will retain most of the museum experience as new knowledge in permanent memory. The student with low fluid intelligence will not. In effect, the student with the enhanced information-processing capacity has translated the museum experience into academic background knowledge; the other has not. As Sternberg (1985) explains “what seems to be critical is not sheer amount of experience but rather what one has been able to learn from and do with experience” (p. 307).

The second factor; that influences the development of academic background knowledge is our academically oriented experiential base—the number of experiences that will directly add to our knowledge of content we encounter in school. The more academically oriented experiences we have, the more opportunities we have to store those experiences as academic background knowledge. Again, consider our two students at the museum. Assume that one student has an experience like visiting a museum once a week and the other student has experiences like this once a month. The second student might have an equal number of other types of experiences, but they are nonacademic and provide little opportunity to enhance academic background knowledge.

In effect, the first student has four times the opportunities to generate academic background knowledge as the second, at least from “museum-type” experiences.

It is the interaction of students' information-processing abilities and their access to academically oriented experiences, then, which produces their academic background knowledge. Differences in these factors create differences in their academic background knowledge and, consequently, differences in their academic achievement.

Then we can consider that our intelligence develops more all its capacities when our experiences are more meaningful. In the case of our students to exposing them to enriching, meaningful and useful experiences that transcend their personal, social and academic lives

It will give them more confidence, in their capacity to perform better in different and real situations.

1.4. How we activate background knowledge

Background knowledge has a large influence on student performance, explaining up to 81% of the variance in posttest scores (Dochy, Segers & Buehl, 1999).

Langer (1984); Long (1999); Winograd & Bridget (1989); Stevens (1980), explain more in relations with this point in this way there is a well-established correlation between prior knowledge and reading comprehension. Irrespective of students' reading ability, high prior knowledge of a subject area or key vocabulary for a text often means higher scores on reading comprehension measures. In addition, high correlations have been found between prior knowledge and speed and accuracy of study behavior as well as student interest in a topic (Tobias, 1994). Thus, prior knowledge is associated with beneficial academic behaviors and higher academic performance.

Background knowledge promotes better learning and higher performance, but different research methods are needed to establish such a causal relationship.

Table 1

Approaches to help Students Build Background Knowledge

Approach	Author(s)
Direct Instruction	Dole et al. (1991); Graves & Cooke (1980); Graves et al. (1983); McKeown et al. (1992); Stevens (1982)
Previewing	Graves et al. (1983)
Field Experiences	Koldewyn (1988)

Note: [http://www teachervision.fe.com/teaching methods3759.html](http://www.teachervision.fe.com/teaching_methods3759.html)“Building background Knowledge”.

Direct instruction on background knowledge can be embedded into an approach such as previewing, where students are presented with introductory material before they read specific texts. Such introductory material may include important background information such as definitions of difficult vocabulary, translations of foreign phrases, and explanations of difficult concepts. For example, in a study by Graves et al. (1983), students were given previews of narrative texts that included a plot synopsis, descriptive list of characters, and definitions of difficult words in the story. Thus, students were given both a framework for understanding the stories and important background information. Students not only liked the previews but made significant improvements in both story comprehension and recall. Results of an earlier study by Graves demonstrated a similarly beneficial impact of previews incorporating historical background for the text.

As an alternative to a direct instruction approach, teachers might consider one more indirect, such as immersing students in field experiences through which they can absorb background knowledge more independently.

Pressley; Johnson; Symons; McGoldrick & Kurita (1989), state that:

There is a good amount of research investigating the effectiveness of instructional strategies for activating prior knowledge as a means to support students' reading comprehension. As a whole, the research base provides good evidence to support the use of prior knowledge activation strategies; prior knowledge activation is regarded as a research-validated approach for improving children's memory and comprehension of text. (p. 42).

There are a variety of strategies for helping students to activate prior knowledge. (Figure 6).

Strangman, Hall & Meyer (2004) from National Center on Accessing the General Curriculum have divided this review into six sections, each addressing a different approach.

Table 2

Approaches for Activating Background Knowledge

Approach	Supporting Research Studies
Reflection and recording	Carr & Thompson, (1996); Peeck, van den Bosch, & Kreupling, (1982); Smith, Readence, & Alvermann, (1983); Spires & Donley, (1998); Walraven & Reitsma, (1993)
Interactive discussion	Dole et al. (1991); Schmidt & Patel, (1987)
Answering questions	King, (1994); Hansen & Pearson, (1983); Pflaum, Pascarella, Auer, Augustyn & Boswick, (1982); Pressley, Wood, Woloshyn, Martin, King & Menke, (1992); (reviews multiple studies)
K-W-L	Ogle, (1986)
CONTACT-2	Biemans & Simons, (1996); Biemans, Deel & Simons, (2001)
Interpretation of topic-related pictures	Croll, Idol-Maestas, Heal & Pearson, (1986)

Note: http://www.teachervision.fen.com/teaching_methods3759.html “Building background Knowledge”

1.4.1. Different types of activating background knowledge

1.4.1.1. Background knowledge activation through reflection and recording

One of the simplest methods for helping students activate background knowledge is to prompt them to bring to mind and state, write down, or otherwise record what they know. Asking students to answer a simple question such as “*What do I already know about this topic*” orally or on paper is a straightforward way to do this. The reported effectiveness of this simple strategy is quite good, with five studies (Carr et al., 1996;

Peeck et al., 1982; Smith et al., 1983; Spires et al., 1998; Walraven et al., 1993) in our review reporting some beneficial impact relative to control treatments, and just one study (Alvermann, Smith & Readence, 1985) reporting only no benefit or a negative impact. Reading comprehension was the most frequently measured outcome in these studies, but some studies also report beneficial effects on text recall.

Activating relevant prior knowledge by expressing in some form what one already knows about a topic has been demonstrated to be more effective than activating irrelevant background knowledge (Peeck et al., 1982) or not activating any background knowledge (Carr et al., 1996; Smith et al., 1983; Spires et al., 1998) at improving text recall and/or comprehension. Spire found that activating background knowledge through reflection and oral elaboration during text reading was a more effective strategy than taking notes on main ideas and their corresponding details.

Walraven, also found good effectiveness when embedding instruction in prior knowledge activation within a Reciprocal Teaching Approach. Strategy instruction that incorporated direct instruction in prior knowledge activation promoted student reading comprehension more effectively than the regular program of instruction. However, Reciprocal Teaching without instruction in prior knowledge activation was no less effective.

Teachers may be able to improve the effectiveness of a brainstorming approach to prior knowledge activation by helping students to organize their prior knowledge into a semantic map (Englert & Mariage, 1991). Englert, found that organizing prior knowledge in this way before reading led to significantly greater free written recall of the text than did brainstorming alone.

A weakness in this research base is the failure to characterize the duration of the learning effects, with most studies presenting only a minimal delay between instruction and testing. Only Spires and Walraven, looked for effects at delayed time points, but both found that reading comprehension gains were maintained for roughly four weeks after instruction, suggesting that restatement of prior knowledge can produce a lasting impact.

There are important subtleties to some of these findings indicating an influence by various factors on the effectiveness of this prior knowledge activation strategy. Some studies have shown, for example, that this strategy has a different impact on reading comprehension depending on the text features (Carr et al., 1996; Peeck et al., 1982); familiar vs. unfamiliar text, consistent vs. inconsistent with prior knowledge.

1.4.1.2. Background knowledge activation through interactive discussion

With the general approach discussed in the previous session, students, once prompted, record prior knowledge with little or no discussion or other stimulation from teacher or peers. An alternative to this is an interactive approach, where student reflection on prior knowledge is supplemented with interactive discussion. For example, Dole et al. (1991) designed an intervention where students reflected on and recorded their prior knowledge on a topic and then engaged in a group discussion of the topic, during which the teacher encouraged them to contribute knowledge to complete a semantic map. This approach was determined to be more effective at promoting reading comprehension than no pre-reading instruction. However, it was less effective than direct instruction on the information needed to understand the text. Thus, it is not clear that an interactive approach would have any advantage over direct instruction.

The robustness of interactive approaches is not always very impressive. For example, findings from Schmidt et al. (1987) suggest that topic area novices may significantly benefit from this kind of approach, whereas subject area experts may not. In this study, students activated background knowledge by gathering in small groups to analyze a problem and then proposing and discussing solutions.

Results of a study by Langer (1984) were inconsistent, showing no reliable advantage to participating in a pre-reading activity called the Pre Reading Plan (PREP), where students are trained to free associate on key vocabulary words, reflect on these associations, discuss their associations as a group, and then reformulate their knowledge based on the discussion. Students' performance on comprehension tests was not consistently better than that of peers who engaged in general discussion of the topic before reading or took part in no pre-reading activity.

1.4.1.3. Background knowledge activation through answering questions

Research by Rowe & Rayford (1987) suggests that:

Teachers can facilitate student activation of background knowledge by having them answer questions before and/or while they read new material. They analyzed student responses to a series of 3 pre-reading purpose setting questions. Students were shown 3 purpose questions from the Metropolitan Achievement Test and asked to make predictions about the passage and end-of-passage questions that might go with each question. Students were also asked to put themselves in the test-takers position and describe what they would try to find out while reading the passage. Analysis of the students' responses suggested that students were able to activate background knowledge under these conditions, an indication that purpose questions may be helpful cues for activating background knowledge.

Extending this work, studies have investigated whether activating background knowledge through question answering improves reading comprehension. It has been theorized that generating answers to questions facilitates deep processing and high level knowledge construction, which in turn facilitate learning (King, 1994; Pressley et al., 1992). Experimental findings support this theory. First, King found that a guided reciprocal peer questioning and answering approach, where students were trained to study new material by asking and answering each other's self-generated questions, promoted significantly better lesson comprehension than untrained questioning. Interestingly, King's data show that questioning focused on linking prior knowledge with lesson material led to more maintained high performance than did questioning focused on making connections within the lesson material. Thus, instruction in peer questioning and explaining through connecting text to prior knowledge may be a particularly effective question answering strategy for improving comprehension. (p. 41).

1.4.1.4. The K-W-L strategy for activating background knowledge

Ogle (1986) developed a strategy for helping students access important background information before reading nonfiction. The K-W-L strategy (accessing what

I Know, determining what I Want to find out, and recalling what did I Learn) combines several elements of approaches discussed above.

For the first two steps of K-W-L, students and the teacher engage in oral discussion. They begin by reflecting on their knowledge about a topic, brainstorming a group list of ideas about the topic, and identifying categories of information. Next, the teacher helps highlight gaps and inconsistencies in students' knowledge and students create individual lists of things that they want to learn about the topic or questions that they want answered about the topic. In the last step of the strategy, students read new material and share what they have learned. Informal evaluations indicate that the K-W-L strategy increases the retention of read material and improves students' ability to make connections among different categories of information as well as their enthusiasm for reading nonfiction.

1.4.1.5. CONTACT-2, computer-assisted activation of prior knowledge

The approaches discussed so far involved traditional materials such as paper and pencil and face-to-face discussion.

Biemans & Simons (1996) investigated a computer-assisted approach for activating conceptions during reading, called CONTACT-2. CONTACT-2 assists students in searching for preconceptions, comparing and contrasting these preconceptions with new information, and formulating, applying, and evaluating new conceptions. Students working with CONTACT-2 developed higher quality conceptions than students in a no activation group, and this advantage was still apparent at a 2-month follow-up. More recent research suggests that the key component of CONTACT-2 is comparing and contrasting new and existing knowledge, which most accounts for students' successful performance on lesson tests. These findings reinforce the idea that integrating new information with prior knowledge is a valuable learning strategy and suggests that a computer-assisted approach can be as successful as a teacher-directed one.

1.4.1.6. Background knowledge activation through interpretation of topic-related pictures

Croll, et al., (1986) describe a unique approach that combines building and activating prior knowledge. The approach entails training students to interpret topic-related pictures.

Two students trained in this strategy significantly improved reading comprehension for both pictures and text. The author suggests this to be an effective approach, but the limited sample of two students and lack of a control group make any such claims tentative and preliminary at best. Moreover, there has been no subsequent research to help validate these findings.

1.5. Background knowledge and schema Theory

In the research studies of Kant appeared the first approximations to the concepts of schemas like the innate predispositions of the human mind that let to integrate and to order the dates of the outside world. After this in the line of Constructivism, Piaget used the concept of schema like a central element over the intellectual development, to organize perceptions and experiences. Then, the term schema continued developing in the field of Psychology with Goodman and Rumelhart. During the past decades, EFL/ESL reading theory has come under the influence of Psycholinguistics and Goodman's model (1967, 1971 & 1973).

The role of background knowledge in language comprehension has been formalized as "schema theory" (Bartlett, 1932; Rumelhart & Ortony, 1977), which has as one its fundamental tenets that text, any text, either spoken or written, does not by itself carry meaning. It is based on the assumption that the reader's prior knowledge directly impacts new learning situations. The main ideas and implications of this theory are the following:

- Comprehending a text is an interactive process between the reader's background knowledge and the text.
- Efficient comprehension requires the ability to relate the textual material to one's own knowledge.

“Every act of comprehension involves knowledge of the world as well”.
(Anderson, 1977).

Schema must be compatible with the input information: “Bottom-up and top-down” processing.

Bottom-up processing is, therefore, called “data driven”; and “top –down”, therefore, called “conceptually driven”; both occurring at all levels simultaneously.

It is based on the notion that past experiences lead to the creations of mental frameworks that help readers make sense of new experiences. (Smith, 1977) calls “schemes”, the extensive representations of more general patterns that occur in our experience.

Schemata are hierarchically organized, from most general at the top to most specific at the bottom.

Comprehension is the process of “activating or constructing a schema that provides a coherent explanation of objects and events mentioned in a discourse”.
(Anderson, 1994, p. 43).

The content schemata and formal schemata have a big difference:

- Formal schemata-----Knowledge about structure of a text.

Formal schema refers to reader’s knowledge towards the language, conventions, and rhetorical structures of different types of text. Formal schema involves orthography, syntax, cohesion, and text structure.

- Content schemata-----knowledge about the subject matter of a text.

Content schemata, which is related to the content area and cultural knowledge. Some experts have argued whether the existence of background knowledge affects reading comprehension or hinders comprehension. Reynolds et al. (1977) proved that cultural schema as well as personal knowledge influence reading comprehension.

Cultural knowledge as part of background knowledge shows significantly affects comprehension. Hudson (2007) sums it up that background knowledge facilitates the reading process.

According to Carrel (1987), states that “content of the text was a stronger predictor of performance than was the familiar or unfamiliar organization of the text. In other words, topic familiarity is of more importance than familiarity with text structure” (p. 39)

Why is Schema theory important in ESL reading?

Shuying An (2013), explains that “the theory of Schema can be used to help guide students to comprehend a text from the global point of view. Therefore, the roles of Schema theory in comprehension cannot be ignored” (p. 72).

Brown (2001), states that “when reading a text, it alone does not carry the meaning a reader attributes to it. The meaning is formed by the information and cultural and emotional context the reader brings through his schemata more than by the text itself” (p. 54).

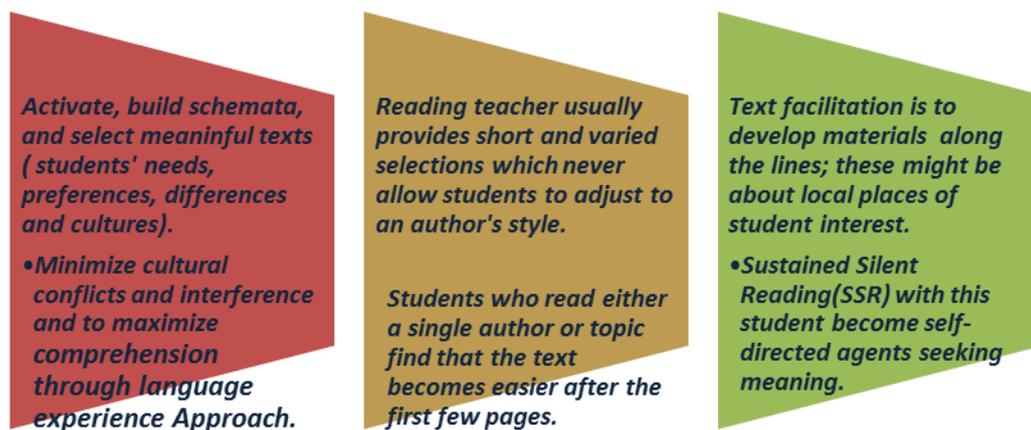


Figure 4. Importance of applying schema theory. Retrieved from own work.

Accordingly, some pedagogical implications are presented. Making predictions based on the title is the most effective pre-reading activity, which can help school students with a moderate reading proficiency to activate their existing background knowledge and construct their new background knowledge.

Applying schema theory to pre-reading activities have obvious good effects on EFL fast reading comprehension of school students with a lower reading proficiency; meanwhile answering questions, as a pre-reading activity based on schema theory, can help to activate existing background knowledge of school students with a lower reading proficiency and construct their new background knowledge.

Subchapter II: Reading Comprehension

2.1. Conceptualization of reading comprehension

Reading is the most critical skill students will learn and one of the best predictors of overall success in school, according to Stanovich, (1986), and in society, Lyon, (1997).

Snow, Burns & Griffin (1998), state that “students who struggle in reading have a higher rate of dropping out of school and hold lower paying jobs” (p. 60).

Adams (1990) adds, “additionally, illiterate adults account for 75% of the unemployed, 33% of mothers receiving aid, 85% of juveniles appearing in court, 60% of prison inmates, and 40% of minority youth” (p. 39).

Snow et al. (1998), states that:

Moreover, 2.8 million students ages 6 to 21 are identified as having a learning disability (U.S. Department of Education, 2000), representing the majority of students receiving special education services (51.0%) (U.S. Department of Education, 2000) among those students identified as LD, 80% have serious problems in reading. (p. 37).

Adams, (1990); Shankweiler & Liberman, (1972); Stanovich, (1980); (1986): state that the ability to read words (i.e., to decode) is often used to make the distinction between individuals who are proficient in reading from individuals who struggle or have a reading disability. Therefore, in his research in reading disabilities has primarily focused on the remediation of word-reading problems.

Jenkins, Fuchs, Espin, Broek & Deno (2000) explain in addition “word-reading skills are highly correlated with reading comprehension. Two indices commonly used to measure word-reading skills are fluency and accuracy” (p. 69).

According to Platt & Platt (1992), in their Linguistic Dictionary; explain that reading is a cognitive process and the personal development follows this way:

It is considered like a progressive group of knowledge, abilities and strategies that the people develop along their life in different contexts and interactions with the text. Reading is a complex process of decoding a set of written symbols that have been assigned linguistic meaning, for the purposes of communicating ideas. It perceives a writing text in order to understand its contents. (p. 45).

According to Olson (1996) “Learning to read is simultaneous with the discovery of organized linguistic structures: alphabetic languages, graphemes, phonemes, words, and phonemic awareness” (p. 65).

Reading can be done:

- Silently \longrightarrow silent reading.
- Saying a written text aloud \longrightarrow oral reading.

Richard & Rodgers (1997), state that “reading is an active process because students work intensively, interacting with the text, interacting with the text in order to create meaningful discourse. Although reading, has sometimes been characterized as “passive” or “receptive”, as early as 1917” (p. 47).

2.2. Levels of reading comprehension

The reading comprehension is a process of elaboration of meaning simultaneously of three factors: The information giving by the text, the previous knowledge, and the activities that reader does.

There are several proposals to describe the levels of reading comprehension. The most known is the Barret Taxonomy. Departing from these ideas, other researchers have

contributed on this and actually, the proposal more spread out present three levels of comprehension.

According to Cortez & Garcia (2010), reading comprehension must be developed in three levels: Literal, inferential and critical (valuative).

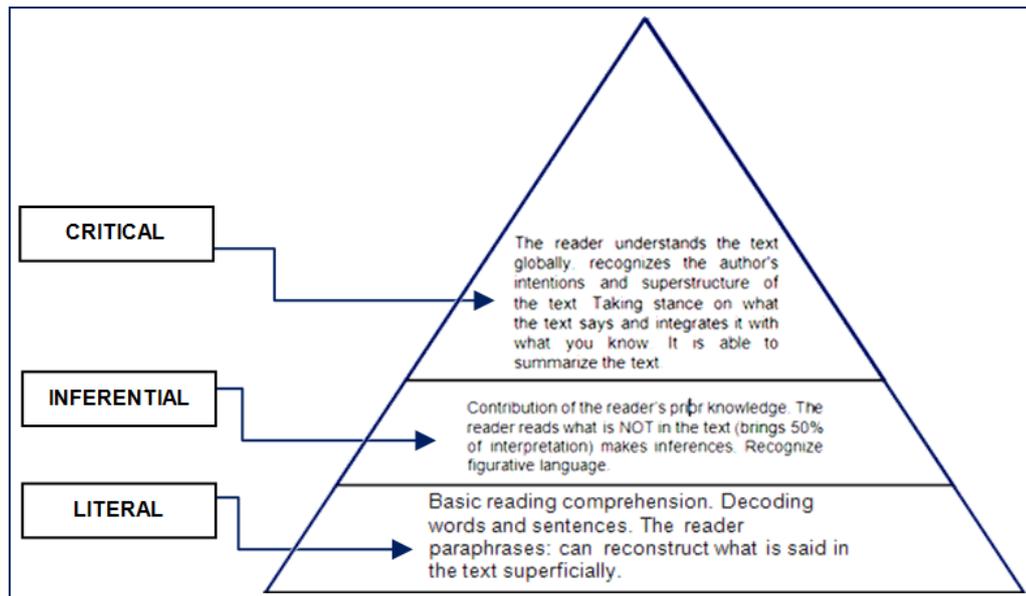


Figure 5. Pyramid of reading comprehension. Retrieved from Taken fro.

The challenge of reading comprehension teaching. (Sanchez & Alfonso, pp.15-18). (Own translation).

Different types of reading comprehension are distinguished according to reader's purposes or type of reading used in levels:

2.2.1. Literal comprehension

Literal comprehension is also known as "comprehension centered in the text". It refers to understand well everything about what the text says and remember the information with correction and precision (In order to understand, to remember, or to recall information). It decodes words, sentences, and paragraph.

Inside the text, the reader understands the information and can rebuilt the explicit information from the text. In other words, everything that appears written in the text. The teacher must teach how to identify the main idea, to distinguish the secondary ideas, to make relations of cause and effect, to make comparison, to recognize the sequences, and to have a domain of vocabulary according to the age and grade. It also refers to the reconstruction of text information. It is limited to extract the information of the text without giving it any value and for this uses strategies like synthesis, summaries, comparisons, etc.

Perez (1999) explains in general terms:

There is a possibility to explore or develop a superficial reading of text, understanding this like the realization of local understanding of its components: the meaning of some much localized expressions, some selected paragraphs, the meaning of concrete sentences or signs, and the identification of subjects, events or objects mentioned inside the text. (p. 67).

The literal function of language is privileged here and it lets to assign to different text's terms and enunciates its "meaning of dictionary". In other word it has "denotative meaning". The main evaluation here is the semantical, grammatical and morphological competence.

In this level, there are three basic processes: the recognition of subjects, events or objects mentioned in the text, or the literal meaning of a word, phrase, sign, etc.

This kind of comprehension is the best step toward the inferential and critical comprehension. It also constitutes the recognition and the review of the explicit text information, like these:

- Names and personal information of characters, places, time and other information according to the text.
- Sequences of actions presented in the text.
- Main ideas; when I they appear like explicit sentence in the text.
- Cause and effect relations.
- Characteristics of the characters, objects or others elements of the text.
- To understand the meaning of a paragraph or a sentence.

- To identify the subjects, events, sceneries, and dates mentioned in the text.
- To manage efficiently the language of pictures, signs, images.
- To recognize the signs of punctuation (interrogation sign, quotation sign, etc.)
- To identify the relation between the components of a sentence or paragraph.
- To use synonyms to translate some words for the best comprehension.
- To identify the main and secondary characters in the text.
- To discriminate to the explicit causes of a situation.
- To relate the whole part with every part.

According to Cortez and Garcia (2010), there are two sublevels:

A. Primary literal comprehension

It consists of the location and recognizing of details, names, characters, incidents, time and places, main ideas, sequences, cause and effect (relation between antecedent and consequent), meaning of lexical words (contextual and verbal).

The elemental reading here is important to follow the text step by step; to situate it in a determinate time, and place; identifying the kinds of text, the main and secondary characters; recognizing the vocabulary, and the metaphoric expressions.

B. Depth literal comprehension

It consists of going deep into the comprehension, hierarchizing the sequence of ideas like:

- Summaries,
- Comparisons,
- Classifications,
- Categorizations and
- Analysis.

In this level, the literal comprehension corresponds to the “explicit comprehension of text”. For evaluating if the student has literally understood the text,

these questions are used: Who? When? Where? What happened? With who? What did it begin? What happened after that? What was the final?

In the case of a literary and non-literary text, there are some differences by the language that they use. For instance; the comprehension of a narrative text is different from an expository text which has the function to inform.

In a literary text the questions can be focused on the main and secondary characters; related to time, place, event or a final situation.

When the text is not literary (informative or expository) the questions of literal comprehension are focused on a specific goal or content. For instance; what is the animal that the text talks about? What is the habitat? etc. The answers to these questions are in function to text's contents and in base of previous knowledge, beliefs and experiences. Inside of this framework students have the capacity:

- To distinguish the relevant information.
- To distinguish the main and secondary ideas.
- To identify the independent and dependent variables (Cause-effect).
- To identify the elements of an action and comparison.
- To find the sense of meaning of words (one or more meaning in different cases).
- To recognize and to give the relevance of useful prefixes and suffixes.
- To identify synonyms, antonyms and homonyms.
- To get a good literal comprehension, it is very important to have the capacity to locate quickly the information searched, to know where it is found, using the index, to anticipate if it is from the beginning, central or final information of the reading.

When the text is big on information, many students frequently need to use a fast reading paragraph by paragraph because the most important is to locate the information of the questions. The global comprehension is given like the result of the answers to specific questions.

2.2.2. Inferential comprehension

It is a process that presents the contribution of previous knowledge of a reader. In order to get information; this is not explicitly stated in a passage, using the reader experience, intuition or by inferring. The previous knowledge of the reader plays an

important role in this process. The reading goes directed to the interpretation, identifying the figurative language; and the possibility to understand the kind of text (narrative, expositive, descriptive, etc.). This process is the essence of the reading comprehension. There is more interaction between reader and text, the information is manipulated, mixing the information known to make conclusions. In other words, it contributes to the interpretation; it recognizes and identifies the figurative language and the kind of text (narrative, argumentative, expositive).

Vega & Alva (2008) explain the following:

It is a process when the readers active their previous knowledge and formulate hypothesis to content of text, departing from the signs or clues provided by the reading. These suppositions are verified or formulated while the reader is reading. This level is the true essence of comprehension; because it is a permanent and direct interaction between the reader and the text. Here the readers put all their meta-comprehensive capacity; proving the truth or falsehood which let to manipulate information from the text, to pick up new ideas and to establish conclusions.

Departing from this way, we can get a global and abstract representation “more than literal information”. This refers to a comprehension when it is possible to establish relationships among the parts of the text to infer relations, information, conclusions and aspects that are not in the text. This kind of comprehension is not possible if the literal comprehension is poor. How can we think of inferring, getting conclusions and establishing causes and effects if we do not remember some information from the text?

If literal comprehension is poor, inferential comprehension is poor, too. Here, student needs to make a good reading and develop a good memory to short time. This is the truly essence of reading comprehension in order to establish relationships far from textual contents between reader’s constant interaction and the text. This does not only mean to manipulate information from the text; it means to add previous knowledge and to get conclusions. (p. 56)

According to Vega & Alva (2008), this level needs the interpretation or deduction of implicit information. The inferences are given in two ways:

- **Inferential deductive comprehension**

It develops departing from general proposition or idea towards particular proposition.

- To interrelate different parts of the text each other.
- To relate the contents of the text with the previous knowledge.
- The readers complete the text with the exercise of their thinking, adding information through induction and deduction.
- This level generates that readers rebuild the meaning of reading; relating this with their personal experiences and previous knowledge that they know about the topic of the reading. Our activities like readers let us make inferences.
- The goal of this level of comprehension is getting a new judgement nominate conclusion.

- **Inferential inductive proposition**

It develops departing from particular propositions to more general idea. This level has its own characteristics:

- To infer explicitly main absent ideas and the vision of the writer.
- To complement absent details on the text.
- To formulate hypothesis about antecedents and its relations.
- To propose coherent titles with the topic of the text.
- To formulate conclusions.
- To predict situations, intentionality and proposals.
- To interpret the figurative or symbolic language.

Students need to have clearly the ideas of the text:

The main idea; it is the basic idea of the text.
The secondary ideas; they are the complementary ideas.

- To infer the meaning of unknown words.
- To predict results.

- To infer possible effects towards determinate ideas.
- To see the cause of determinate ideas and effects.
- To infer logical sequences of ideas.
- To infer meaning of phrases according to the context.
- To interpret the symbolic language.
- To rebuild the text varying some situations or characters.

2.2.3. Critical comprehension

It is a process on giving a judge about the text departing from criteria, parameters and pre-established questions in order to discover the intentions, to analyze arguments, to understand the organizations and the structure of the text. In other words, a good reader can get deductions, to express opinions, and give proper judges in form of a behavior, to distinguish a situation of an opinion. Furthermore, it gives the opportunity to analyze the ideas of an author, to elaborate and form a meta-reflection or own point of view.

In this third level, the reader interprets the content of the text, giving valuation judges about the topic of the text. It puts in function the cognitive process of analysis, summary, indicting, valuation and creativity. In this way, this level establishes analogical relations and overall to formulate ideas about different mentalities, feelings and experiences (Cortez & Garcia, 2010, p. 86).

Inside this view, it is important to judge the content of the text from a personal view, showing the capacity of explaining the situation and planning from different points of view. It makes questions to text to build the meaning and events, too.

It analyzes and identifies the intention of the author. In consequence, the critical reading must have an intellectual activity that let the manipulations of concepts for the appreciation and acquisition of a knowledge with a personal value for each reader.

It implies information of proper judges, with a subjective answer, an identification of characters with the author's language, a personal interpretation based on the literary images. In this way, a good reader can deduce, to express opinions and to give judges.

Inside of this frame, teachers will teach the next steps to readers:

- To judge the content of a text under the personal point of view.
- To distinguish a situation of behavior.
- To express the reactions in front of a determinate text.
- To analyze the intentions of the author.
- To express the opinions with the others, respecting the diversity.
- The abilities of critical-evaluative comprehension implies to be an active reader, with capacities to examine evidences in ideas or concepts from the own point of view.

Nowadays, it becomes imperative to shape critical readers who distinguish ideas and concepts in their reading for accepting like a new and valuable knowledge; or to criticize these for expressing not solid proposals, promoting the disinformation.

For this, it is necessary to formulate judgments, to reflect and to evaluate the text with questions for expressing our opinions and to be communicative human beings. A person without criteria can accept any thinking, ideas, and opinions from others without formulating questions and decide by himself or herself.

This level let us translate the relationships picked up from the text, from one situation to another. Here is necessary to interpret the topic of text to establish analogy's relations and to give value judgments about the reading text.

This level tells us to assume a position from the text that we read. And for this, it is important to put in action our world knowledge, the values that we have, our experiences, and our linguistic knowledge, among others. The cognitive processes presented in this critical level are of mayor complexity than previous levels; and the reader has to activate the synthesis, analysis and valuation process.

For arriving at this level of comprehension, it is necessary to take into account these aspects:

- To identify the intentions of the text, author, or writer presents in these.
- To recognize the characters of the context which are implicit in the contents.
- To find the possibility to establish the relations between text and others text.

For all of these aspects, here is necessary to evaluate the pragmatic, textual, and semantic competences.

The application of these three levels of information processing during the reading promotes the progressive developing of cognitive abilities required in each level. Students and readers in general get this through semantic and deliberate practice, and the take of consciousness or meta-cognitive reflection of the strategies used on it.

We can find on this level two kinds of critical-evaluative comprehension:

A. Critical- evaluative comprehension of contents

This level implies to make an analytical and reflexive reading to state judgments and to assume a position in facing the information presented.

The reader can accept, to reject and to stay out from the ideas proposed by the author, the actions of characters, the impact of information, the intention of author, and others. In all of these and other cases the position assumed must be based on good reasons, arguments and justifications (Knowledge, values and particular vision of the world).

B. Critical – evaluative comprehension

This level requires to state judgments and to assume a personal position facing formal and esthetic resources used in the text. The reader has the capacity to make an analysis and reflection in relation to the linguistic competence used by the author of text like graphic signs, literary techniques, textual structures, and the level of language, the titles, subtitles, and highlight ideas, between others.

For giving opinion about the pertinence and adequacy of resources used in the text, we need to contrast these with our linguistics knowledge (level of education, reading frequency, quality of text, etc.) and the conventions of language (factors).

For understanding better this level, it is necessary to take into account the following information: The judgments or answers that readers state in this level, differ from one person to another. They are not correct or incorrect on themselves; they depend on arguments which sustain them. For this, generally, the questions in this level state for being developed and minor frequency with alternative for marking. One more time, their corrections are given in function of coherences and sustained logical foundations.

2.3. Theories of reading

There are many theories of reading because reading is of great social importance; it pertains to the issues of literacy and intelligence. There are three main theories which explain the nature of learning to read.

2.3.1. The traditional bottom- up view

This approach was influenced by behaviorist psychology of the 1950s, which was based upon “habit formation, brought about by the repeated association of stimulus with a response” (The audio-lingual method).

According to Gray & Rogers (1956), “this view reading is a linear process by which reader decode a text word by word, linking the word into phrases and then into sentences” (p. 62).

McCarthy (1999) has called this view “Outside-in”. These are the principal characteristics:

- Novice readers acquire a set of hierarchically ordered sub-skills that sequentially build toward comprehension ability.
- Readers are passive recipients of information in the text.
- Basically, decoding a series of written symbols into their equivalents in the quest for making sense of a text (bottom up).

This model of reading has almost always been under attack as being insufficient and defective for the main reason that it relies on the formal features of the language, mainly words and structures.

2.3.2. The cognitive view. (Top –down processing).

In the 1960s a paradigm shift occurs in the cognitive science. Behaviorism became discredited by the new cognitive theory (innate capacity of learning), and the theory of Ausubel “meaningful learning and role of learning” these two approaches

revolutionized the psycholinguistic conception of the way of readers learn to read. These are the main characters:

- Reading is a dialogue between reader and the text. (Active cognitive process).
- The reader's background plays a key role in the creation of meaning.
- Meaning depends on the prior knowledge and expectations of the reader.
- Reading is a guessing game, in which reader sample the text, make hypotheses, confirm or reject them, make new hypotheses, and so forth.
- In the 1960s and 1970s, teaching methods and activities strongly considered the experiences and knowledge of the learners.

Other theories closely to the top down process that also had major impact on reading instruction were:" schema theory, Goodman theory and "Rumelhart theory".

2.3.3. The meta-cognitive view

According to Block (1992), there is now no more debate on:

Whether reading is a bottom-up, language based process or a top down, knowledge based process". It is not more problematic to accept the influence of background knowledge on both L1 and L2 readers. Research has gone even further to define the control readers execute on their ability to understand a text. (p. 68).

This control referred to as meta-cognition and it involves strategic reader while reading:

- Identifying the purposes of the reading before reading.
- Identify the type of text before reading.
- Thinking about the general character and features of the type of text.
- Locate the topic sentence and follow supporting details toward a conclusion.
- Projecting the author's purpose for writing the text.
- Choosing, scanning, or reading in detail.
- Making continuous predictions about what will occur next, based on information obtained earlier, prior knowledge, and conclusions obtained within the previous stages.

- The reader to be able to classify ,sequence, establish whole- part relationships, compare, contrast, determine cause –effect, summarize and predict, infer or conclude.

2.4. Theories of Reading that Support the Relation between Word Reading and Comprehension

The following theories of reading are proposed by research:

2.4.1. LaBerge & Samuels Theory of automaticity

This theory provides support that reading words fluently must occur before comprehension is possible. It is based on the following premise:

LaBerge & Samuels (1974) explain that “It is assumed that we can only attend to one thing at a time, but we may be able to process many things at a time so long as no more than one requires attention” (p. 48).

They proposed that reading involves the coordination of several component processes that occur simultaneously.

According to Samuels (1987), this theory is based on four key elements: attention, visual memory, phonological memory and semantic memory. He defined attention as the “effort or energy required to perform cognitive tasks”.

Five different types of attention are discussed related to this theory:

The first type of attention is overt, which is observable and makes it possible to predict if a person is paying attention or not. Second is covert, which equates to the level of arousal (i.e., alertness) a person is in when learning. The third type of attention is vigilance, meaning being able to focus on the task at hand for long periods of time. Fourth, selective attention refers to the ability to block out unwanted distracters so as not to disrupt attention away from the task at hand.

Last is capacity, which, unlike the first four that refer to types of attention, refers to the fixed amount of attention that is available. (Samuels, 1987, p. 49).

The second key element to LaBerge and Samuels' theory is visual memory. This relates to the ability to extract the printed letters from the page to form words. Individual letters are the smallest unit; letter combinations are the next smallest unit, and whole words are the largest unit. A novice reader may focus on the individual letters to form words while the more experienced reader may focus on the entire word.

Related to this is the third key element of LaBerge and Samuels' theory, phonological memory. Phonological memory refers to the sound units (i.e., phonemes or morphemes) that map onto the letters of words. Not only must individuals be able to see the letters or words but, they must also know what sounds go with what letters and words. Last, semantic memory refers to the declarative and procedural knowledge that is stored in relation to words and their meanings.

LaBerge and Samuels (1974) theory is based on two notions. First, an individual has only so much accessible attention and attention cannot be divided among tasks. Second, practicing a skill allows it to become automatic and therefore require little to no attention.

When skills become automatic, this allows for the ability to perform multiple tasks simultaneously (Samuels & Flor, 1997).

2.4.2. Posner & Snyder's two-process theory of contextual expectancy

This theory of reading expands on the one proposed by LaBerge and Samuels (1974) by using two contextual mechanisms. The first is the automatic activation of specific pathways in the nervous system, indicating that items sharing the same pathways are processed more quickly. In addition, pathways that are confined to the memory system will not inhibit the processing of items whose pathways are not activated (Posner & Snyder, 1975a, 1975b). For example, when the word PIG is activated in the memory system it has no effect on the activation of the word HOT. While activating the word PIG assists the processing of signals related to it, there is no inhibitory effect of the activation. Although this first type of contextual mechanism requires time, it does not require

conscious attention. This is the difference between the first and the second type of contextual mechanism use in their two-process theory.

The second contextual mechanism occurs when conscious attention is given to the information (i.e., word). This increases the benefit from the pathway that is activated; however it inhibits other signals from being activated. Because attention is being used to understand the information, this interferes with other signals that may be related and could have been automatically activated. These two types of contextual mechanisms provide support that context can be used to help aid word reading although the more context is used, the less conscious attention is available for comprehending what is read.

While LaBerge & Samuels (1974); Posner & Snyder (1975, 1975) both claim that efficient low-level word-reading skills free up cognitive processes that can be used for comprehending text. It is Stanovich (1980) who further explains which type of reader (i.e., poor or good) relies on context to help aid word reading.

2.4.3. Stanovich's interactive-compensatory model

Stanovich (1980) proposed a theory of reading, building on Posner and Snyder's two-process theory of contextual expectancy, by expanding on the individual differences in context reading fluency. According to his model, context is used to facilitate word recognition for both good and poor readers, although for different reasons. Whereas the top down model suggests only good readers use context to help read words, Stanovich (1980) proposed that poor readers may actually use context more to aid word reading. This occurs because they do not have good decoding skills; therefore, they rely on the context to help them decipher unfamiliar words.

On the other hand, good readers may also use context, but they may do so to monitor comprehension rather than reading words. For example, good readers have the ability to process printed words rapidly and efficiently so they do not have to rely on context, but instead can use their mental energy to comprehend what they read. The only time they would rely on context is to read a word that is unfamiliar to them.

2.5. Five domains of reading instruction: “The Big 5”

Five domains of reading identified by The National Reading Panel (2000) essential to instruction and assessments of early reading are: Phonological Awareness, Phonics, Fluency, Comprehension of Text, and Vocabulary.

Phonological Awareness (which includes Phonemic Awareness).

Phonemic awareness is not phonics. Phonemic awareness is the understanding that the sounds of spoken language work together to make words. Phonemic awareness is a subcategory of phonological awareness and has a more narrow focus – identifying and manipulating the individual sounds in words. Phonological awareness includes identifying and manipulating larger parts of spoken language, such as base words and syllables (Armbruster & Osborn, pp. 2-4).

Phonics

Phonics is the understanding that there is a predictable relationship between phonemes (sounds) and graphemes (letters that represent sounds in written language). A wide variety of methods can be used to teach phonics – intensive, explicit, synthetic, analytic, and embedded instruction.

All instructional methods focus the learner’s attention to the relationship between sounds and symbols as a strategy for word recognition. There continues to be insufficient evidence that one form of phonics instruction is strongly superior to another (Cunningham & Allington, 2003; Stahl, McKenna & Pagnucco, 1994)

Fluency

When fluent readers read silently, they recognize words automatically, quickly group words to gain meaning, and read with expression when reading orally. Repeated and monitored oral reading improves fluency and overall reading achievement. Readers who have not yet attained fluency will not likely make effective use of silent/independent reading time.

Text understanding

True reading comprehension and subsequent reading engagement requires more than cognition; it means entering textual worlds, maintaining a balance between engrossment and critical distance, and formulating one's own response to various dilemmas in text (DiPardo & Schnack, 2004).

Vocabulary

Research on literacy learning clearly shows that processes of reading, writing, speaking, listening, viewing, and thinking develop simultaneously as learners become literate (Cooper, 2000).

Echevarria & Short (2004), state that:

Language arts methods recommended today capitalize on the fact that all of these aspects develop together, yet need to address children with varied schemas. As teachers encounter more and more students with diverse backgrounds, languages, and educational experiences. They need to employ logical instructional approaches that build common backgrounds or schema about a topic and broaden students' vocabulary.

Although a great deal of vocabulary is learned indirectly, direct instruction in vocabulary will help students learn the meaning of specific words and more importantly, to develop word learning strategies, such as meanings of word parts (affixes, base words), and use of context clues and dictionaries to unlock meaning of unknown words. (p. 30).

2.6. Role of the reading teacher

It becomes the responsibility of the teacher to train students to determine their own goals and strategies for a particular reading. Here the goal is to create an environment of independent, solving problem readers who choose what to read and who practice strategies for efficient readers.

2.6.1. Stages of a reading lesson

We can consider a reading skills lesson in three stages that reflect what we do in real life. Each stage has its own characteristics and they are related to one another.

The following stages are according to Richards & Rodgers considerations (1997).

A. Pre-reading stage

These are the purposes:

- To help students to think about the activity and to motivate to read the text.
- To help the students to predict what kind of language they will see or read and to predict the content. According to Goodman (1990) predictions are important because the brain is always anticipating and predicting. According to Smith (1991) prediction brings potential meaning to text. Carrell, Pharis & Liberto (1989) consider “semantic mapping” a useful pre-reading activity.
- To find a reason to read.

Table 3

Reading strategies (Pre-reading stage).

Reading strategies	
1. Identify the topic.	2. Predict and guess.
3. Preview the material to get an overview.	4. Establish a purpose for reading.
5. Raise questions.	6. Introduce key words.
7. Activate background knowledge.	8. Elicitation.
9. Background knowledge activation.	10. Ice –breaking.
11. Dynamics.	12. Games.

Note: Author’s own work

B. While reading stages:

Teacher gives the students a task to do while they are reading. These are the purposes:

- To find out the general idea or topic.

- To find out specific information.
- When teacher gives a tasks have a real reason to read.
- To solve comprehension exercises, either for main ideas or for specific information.

Table 4

Reading strategies (While reading stage).

Reading strategies	
• Keep, making and check predictions.	• Identify important information.
• Monitor your comprehension (meta-cognition).	• Raise questions.
• Make connections.	• Multiple choice exercises.
• True/false exercises.	• Matching ideas and completing sentences.

Note: Author's own work

C. Post reading stage

In this stage student's focus on a detailed analysis of the text. These are purposes:

- To use the information they have got.
- To practice productive skills (speaking or writing).
- To share what they have found out with someone else.

Table 5

Reading strategies (Post reading stage).

Reading strategies	
• Check comprehension.	• Organize information.
• Try to clarify ambiguous ideas.	• Do something with the information.
• Reflect on the use of strategies.	• Interpret the text and make value judgments.
• Talk about the message of the text.	• Write a paragraph related to the text.
• Take an action related to the text.	• Make decisions in general.

Source: Author's own work.

2.6.2. Skimming and scanning

Skimming is used to quickly identify the general ideas of a text (Hughes, 1983).

- It is done to at a speed three to four times faster than a normal reading.
- People often skim when they have to read a lot of material in a limited amount of time.
- Use skimming when you want to see if an article may be of interest in your research.

Here are some strategies:

- Read the first and last paragraphs using headings.
- Summarizes and other organizers as they move down the page or screen.
- Read the title, subtitles, subheading, and illustrations.
- Consider reading the first sentence of each paragraph.



Figure 6. Skimming and scanning. Retrieved from <http://itesslj.org/articles/scott-schema.ht>. “Helping ESL students become better reader”

Scanning is a fast reading technique. It is a way of reading to look for specific information in a text. Here are some uses:

- Scanning can be used to look up the phone number.

- Read through the small ads in a newspaper, timetables, TV schedules, list, catalogues, or web pages.
- You do not need to read or understand every word.

2.6.3. Graphic Organizer

Graphic Organizers provide visual, holistic representations of facts and concepts and their relationships within organizer framework; it is useful because:

- Represent abstract or implicit information in more concrete form.
- Aid in organizing and elaborating ideas.
- Relate new information to prior knowledge.
- Effectively store and retrieve information.
- Depict the relationships among facts and concepts.

Table 6

Types of graphic organizers

Types of graphic organizers	
• A mind map.	• T chart.
• A fishbone map.	• Character chart.
• A Venn diagram.	• Star Diagram.
• Y-chart.	• Windmills.
• Tree diagram.	• K W L
• Sequence chain.	• Others.

Note: Author's own work

3. Definition of keys terms

Communicative Approach:

The Communicative Approach has been developed particularly by British applied linguists as a reaction away from grammar-based approaches such as the aural-oral approach (audio-lingual method). The materials used with Communicative Approach often express different kinds of functions, such as requesting, describing, expressing

likes and dislikes, etc. And emphasize process of communication in different types of situations (solve puzzles, to get information, etc.).

Concept:

The term refers to the general idea or meaning which is associated with the word or symbol in a person's mind. Concepts are the abstract meaning which words and other linguistic items represent. Linguists believe all languages can express the same concepts, although some languages may have fewer names for some concepts than are found in other languages, or may distinguish between concepts differently.

Experiences:

The term refers to an observation of or practical acquaintance with facts or events. It means knowledge or skill resulting from this.

English Area:

It is the curricular area that belongs to secondary education from the modality of basic regular education with the objective of getting a communicative competence in foreign language.

Deictic:

A word or phrase (such as this, that, these, those, now, then) that points to the time, place, or situation in which the speaker is speaking. Also known as deixis. Deixis is expressed in English by way of personal pronouns, demonstratives, and tense.

Fact:

This term defines a thing that is known to exist or to be true. Item of verified information or thing assumed as the basis for argument.

Foreign language:

It is a language which is not native language in a country. A foreign language is usually studied either for communication with foreigners who speak the language, or for reading printed materials in the language.

Knowledge of self as a learner:

The learner is consciousness of his/her proper learning, attitudes and behaviors through the self-evaluation. Behind of this there are mental and psychological processes.

Ideas:

The term refers as a mental impression or concept. It means a vague belief or fancy, intention or purpose, archetype or pattern.

Meaningful way:

This term is related with learning in which learned items become part of a person mental system of concepts and thought processes.

Label:

This term refers to a short classifying phrase applied to a person to give information about it. It means identification, description, qualifications.

Learning strategies:

A way in which a learner attempts to work out the meaning and uses of words, grammatical rules and other aspects of a language, for example by the use of Generalization and Inference.

Linguistic knowledge:

It is the knowledge that has about the particular language or tongue.

Linguistic Substrate:

This term refers, in the case of conquered towns by others of different language, to the lexical, phonetic and grammatical influences of the original language spoken in the territory over the language that substitute it. When the phenomenon occurs contrarily, it is named super-substrate.

Mother tongue:

It is the first language which is acquired at home by the people.

Rauding Theory:

Prediction activities, prior knowledge, and text type are three variables involved in schema theory that purportedly have a substantial effect upon the amount of comprehension during reading...Most of the above notions associated with schema theory seem to be relevant to studying relatively hard material; these theoretical ideas were not developed to be relevant to the rauding process which is ordinarily used by elementary and secondary students. Students probably have to be forced to shift out of their normal reading process, called rauding, into untypical reading processes involving learning and memorizing before these variables that are important in schema theory become salient.

Schemata:

The term “schemes” or “schemata” are the plural of the term “schema”. It refers to the underlying structure which accounts for the organization of a text or discourse (e.g. stories, descriptions, letters, reports, poems) are distinguished by the ways in which the topic, prepositions, and other information are linked together to form a unit.

Specific strategies:

Particular procedures used in learning, thinking, etc. which serve as a way of reaching a goal. In language learning, learning strategies and communication strategies are those conscious or unconscious processes which language learners make use of in learning and using a language.

Structure of language:

The term is related with the importance of language as a system and which investigates the place that linguistic units such as sounds, words, sentences have within this system. Structural linguists studied the distribution of sounds within the words of a language; that is, whether certain sounds appear only at the beginning of words or also in the middle or at the end. They defined some sounds in a language as distinctive and used in the identification of words like phoneme.

Task demands:

This term refers (in teaching) to an activity which is designed to help achieve a particular learning goal. A number of dimensions of task influence their use in language

teaching. These include goals, procedures, order, pacing or time, product, learning strategy, assessment, participation, resources and language.

Use of Language:

The use of language is related with the term language proficiency; which is a person's skill in using a language for a specific purpose. Whereas language achievement describes language ability as a result of learning; proficiency refers to the degree of skill with which a person can use a language, such as how well a person can read, write, speak, or understand language.

Chapter II: Research Problem

2.1. Determination of the problem

Nowadays, the reading comprehension is beyond doubt a complex problem and whose responsibility concern to the educators of different levels of Educational System; including other actors of the educational community like parents, publics and privates Institutions, local and national authorities and the different kinds of information on TV or Media. Eventhough; reading not always has been approached in its real dimension.

The reader confronts the new information with his or her conceptual schemes, developing of automatic manner the process of building, contrasting and rebuilding. According to many researches this process is possible only when the reader activate their previous knowledge. Many researchers coincide that this is the major problem in the process of reading comprehension (literal, inferential, critical).

In the international contexts, by the 1970s, research on reading one's first language had been flourishing for a couple of decades as solutions were being sought to why some children could not read. But research on reading in a second language was almost nonexistent. Then, with Kenneth Goodman's (1970) seminal article, "Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game", and other subsequent work, second language specialists began to tackle the unique issues and questions facing second language reading pedagogy.

Eskey (1970) explains that:

For many students, reading is by far the most important of the four skills in a second language, particularly in English as a second or foreign language. Certainly, if we consider the study of English as a foreign language around the world – The situation in which most English learners find themselves- reading is the main reason why students learn the language. (p. 39).

Consistency in the use of these terms: prior knowledge and background knowledge there is a recognized problem; subtle and dramatic differences exist

between different people's definitions of the same term (Schallert & Hare, 1991; Dochy & Alexander, 1995). The terms background knowledge and prior knowledge are generally used interchangeably.

For example, Stevens (1980) defines background knowledge quite simply as "...what one already knows about a subject..." (p. 29).

Biemans & Simons' (1996) definition of background knowledge is "slightly more complex" (p. 37).

In Latin-American countries like Colombia, Chile and Mexico in terms of politic lines have initiated aggressive actions of preparation of their teachers in foreign languages, and getting in near future good English students speakers in associations with reading, writing, listening and speaking skills.

This is the case of Chile, which has modified the curriculum to meet specific needs. For example, the ex-president Michelle Bachelet has declared that learning English in a superficial way is useful for nothing; for this reason she proposed that her country must have with its first generation of autonomous students in the use of English developing all the skills to 2018. In Colombia there is a large tradition of including foreign languages in its curriculum system with the goal to get a pluralistic view of the world, therefore; it satisfies the pressure of the universities towards higher studies, and the job, technologic and scientific and cultural exigencies through a meaningful tradition in the training of teacher in the foreign languages. Mexico follows a strategy similar to the Chilean system, sending teachers to American universities for training teachers through a cooperation agreement.

According to the MED (2008), in the Peruvian Education system the use of English is seen as an important tool too, for being connected to the world and for having access updated information in the academic, technological and scientific field, but it is a political decision because not many people use English because our reality which is different culturally and linguistically.

Background knowledge of our students are supporting in our national Curriculum Design like previous knowledge; which involve identities, beliefs, cultural beliefs, linguistics beliefs, mother tongue, opinions, ideas, values, feelings, habits, contexts, etc. that is an important aspect related to reading comprehension, which

involves three aspects like literal, inferential and Critical -evaluative. Many schools and teachers ignore these important aspects when we make our lesson plan, and classes developing a bored and not meaningful and useful class for our students; if we make this as the teachers we simply ignore our students, and they are the central part of learning process according to new approaches (Communicative Approach) in Education.

We cannot say that students bring to class a tabula rasa and they begin to learn a new language or the structure of this in our classes because they have a big potential and that is their previous knowledge. For example according to Olson (1978) “students know grammar and vocabulary, the problem is that they do not verbalize it” (p. 48). Here is necessary to activate the previous knowledge of our students through different strategies. Students learn best when they can connect new information to previous concepts, vocabulary, strategies and activities from earlier learning experiences. The last evaluations to national level have had disaster results in communication, especially in text comprehension.

At “Andrés Avelino Caceres” school, the students of first grade feel ignored and frustrated when their teachers do not take in account their previous knowledge and do not activate it in the reading comprehension. This research tries to relate the background knowledge that our students have with reading comprehension.

2.2. Formulation of the problem

2.2.1. General problem

How is background knowledge related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High School, Collique, Comas, 2013?

2.2.2. Specific problem

How is the conceptual or world background knowledge related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andres Avelino Caceres High School in Collique, Comas, 2013?

How is the linguistic background knowledge related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andres Avelino Caceres High School in Collique, Comas, 2013?

How is the meta-cognitive background knowledge related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andres Avelino Caceres High School in Collique, Comas, 2013?

2.3. Objectives

2.3.1. General objectives

To establish a relationship between background knowledge and reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High School, in Collique, Comas, 2013.

2.3.2. Specific objectives

To establish the relationship between the conceptual or world background knowledge and reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High School, in Collique, Comas, 2013.

To establish the relationship between the linguistic background knowledge and reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High School, in Collique, Comas, 2013.

To establish the relationship between the meta-cognitive background knowledge and reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High School, in Collique, Comas, 2013.

2.4. Relevance and scope of the problem

2.4.1. Theoretical relevance

The theoretical contribution of this research results from the hypothesis testing that proved the alternative hypothesis, this way the running of this research helped us to develop the theory of background knowledge and reading comprehension in our local context of teaching English as a foreign language.

2.4.2. Practical relevance

The results of this research can be applied to practical classroom situations to the population that participated in this work in order to relate background knowledge and reading comprehension to help solve the problems of language teaching.

2.4.3. Methodological relevance

During the development of the research process we built a new instrument in order to gather information from the informers. The instrument was validated and can be used for future research.

2.5. Limitations of the research

2.5.1. Geographical limitations

This research was applied in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres School of Collique in the district of comas, Province and Department of Lima, Peru.

2.5.2. Time limitations

This research took place between May and December 2013.

2.5.3. Resources limitations

The project was financed by the author's own expenses. There was not any type of finance from any public or private institution to foster this research.

Chapter III: Research Methodology

3.1. System of hypothesis and variables

3.1.1. Hypothesis

General hypothesis

Background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High School, Collique, Comas, 2013.

Specific hypothesis

SH01: The conceptual or world background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High school in Collique, Comas, 2013.

SH02: The linguistic background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High school in Collique, Comas, 2013.

SH03: The meta-cognitive background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High school in Collique, Comas, 2013.

3.1.2. Variables system

Variable I: Background Knowledge

The background Knowledge that speakers of different languages or language have when they read in other languages or to own language may reflect impressions of linguistic difficulty or simplicity, quality of reader in

comprehension. This first variable presents three dimensions of background knowledge:

- Conceptual Background Knowledge.
- Linguistic Background Knowledge.
- Meta-cognitive Background Knowledge.

Variable II: Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension refers to how students and readers in general analyze, give points of view critically and understand the message inside the text and of the author. I consider three dimensions of reading comprehension:

- Literal comprehension.
- Inferential comprehension.
- Critical – evaluative comprehension.

3.1.3. Operationalization of variables

Table 7

Operationalization of variables

VARIABLE I	DIMENSIONS	INDICATORS	ITEMS
BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE	Conceptual or world knowledge	- Share ideas and experiences.	1 2
		- Make conceptual schemes in base to previous knowledge.	3 4
		- Express opinions and concepts.	
		- Show interest in texts.	
		Knowledge of mother tongue.	
		- Use wide range of vocabulary.	5 5
		- Understand meaning.	6
		- Make coherent sentences.	7
	Linguistic knowledge	- Express needs emotions, thoughts and feelings.	8 9
		- Interact with their partners.	
		Knowledge of foreign language.	10 11
	- Know the basic uses of the language.		

VARIABLE II	DIMENSIONS	INDICATORS	ITEMS
		- Be Communicative.	
	Meta-cognitive Knowledge	- Use strategies of self-learning. - Use the ICT. - Use strategies of reading. - Make self-evaluation about learning.	12 13 14 15
READING COMPREHENSION	Literal Reading comprehension	- Read and understand the vocabulary used in the text.	1 2 3
		- Recognize the parts of the text	4 5
		- Identify the context or communicative situation.	6 7
		- Detail the information from the text.	
		- Recognize characters.	
		- Identify the main ideas.	
		- Make a summary.	
	Inferential Reading comprehension	- Recognize the kind of text.	8
		- Infer the meaning.	9
		- Analyze texts.	10
		- Predict situations.	11
	Critical Reading comprehension	- Judge the contents.	12
		- Criticize the character's behaviors.	13 14
		- Analyze the intentions of the author.	

3.2. Type and research method

3.2.1. Type of research

This research is descriptive and quantitative. Descriptive research concentrates on finding facts to ascertain the nature of something as it exists. In contrast analytical research is concerned with determining validity of hypothesis based on analysis of facts collected. Quantitative research studies such aspects of the research subject which are not quantifiable, and hence not subject to measurement and quantitative analysis. In contrast quantitative research makes substantial use of measurements and quantitative analysis techniques.

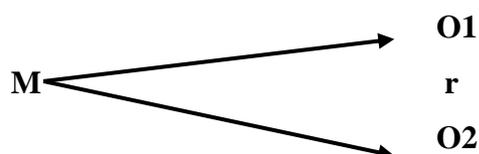
3.2.2. Research method

Descriptive research method is concerned with the description of data and characteristics about a population. It develops knowledge by describing observed situations, events and objects. The goal is the acquisition of factual, accurate and systematic data that can be used in averages, frequencies and similar statistical calculations.

3.3. Research design

This study has used the Correlational design. It examines the co-variation of two or more variables. A Correlational research can be accomplished by a variety of techniques which include the collection of empirical data. This research study is also a mixed model research design, which combines a descriptive research design with a case study. The answer to the main research question “How is background knowledge related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High School, Collique –Comas, 2013?” should describe how these students feel about learning English in and out of the School.

The diagram is as follows:



Where:

M : sample

O1 : observation of variable, Background knowledge

O2 : observation of variable, Reading comprehension

r : relationship of both variables

3.4. Research instruments

Questionnaire

Quantitative data was obtained through a questionnaire with close-ended questions. The questionnaire was divided into sections. First, students were asked about some background information, such as gender, age, native language. In the consequent sections, students were asked to answer multiple-choice and free-response questions about their background knowledge related to reading comprehension on English language learning.

Test

A test was applied to students in order to gather information about background knowledge in terms of reading comprehension, giving their names, grade and section.

3.5. Data collection techniques

Survey

In order to answer the research questions, quantitative data was collected. We mixed techniques of data collection, by relying on questionnaires with all participants and tests with selected students.

Documentary analysis

Document Analysis (test) is a technique used to gather requirements during the requirements elicitation phase of a project. It describes the act of reviewing the existing documentation of comparable processes or systems in order to extract pieces of information that are relevant to the current project, and therefore should be consider projects requirements.

This technique was used for the building of the theoretical framework and the analysis of scores of the participants of first grade students at Andres Avelino Caceres High School, Collique, Comas in order to obtain data about reading comprehension.

3.6. Population and sample

The participants of this study are 80 high school students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High School. Their ages range between 11 and 14 years old and the distribution of female and male students is about equal. All of the students' native language is Spanish and the remainders of the students' native language are very diverse and represent many cultural backgrounds.

Regarding the sample, with a number of 80 students considered in the population. Taking into consideration that a census is “the collection of data from all members, instead of a sample, of the target population”, this study used a survey.

SECOND PART

FIELD WORK

Chapter IV: Research Instruments and Results

4.1. Validation and reliability of instruments

4.1.1. Validation of instruments

According to Kothari (2004) “Validity is the most critical criterion and indicates the degree to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure” (p. 48). Content validity pertains to the degree to which the instrument fully assesses or measures the construct of interest. For example, say we are interested in evaluating employees’ attitudes toward a training program within an organization. We would want to ensure that our questions fully represent the domain of attitudes toward the training program. The development of a content valid instrument is typically achieved by a rational analysis of the instrument by raters (ideally 3 to 5) familiar with the construct of interest. Specifically, raters will review all of the items for readability, clarity and comprehensiveness and come to some level of agreement as to which items should be included in the final instrument.

All in all, validity is most often defined as the extent to which an instrument measures what it was intended to measure. However, it is important to note that instruments may fail validity criteria for one purpose but they are valid measures of a different construct or may be valid indicators of constructs in addition to the one for which they were originally intended. In addition, instruments that may be valid in one context (i.e., population, culture, historical period, administration format), may not be valid in another context; validity is always context specific. Because validity is context specific, validating a measure must be viewed as a process of accumulating evidence that supports the meaningfulness of the measure rather than a discrete endpoint at which validity is proven.

Any research tool should follow the process of validation and reliability in order to prove its consistency. And that is what we had to do before the application of the questionnaire, the research tool used in this study. The validation process was made by means of expert judgment. The results of experts’ opinions are shown in the following table:

Table 8

Experts' opinions

	Experts in research	From	Score
01	Dra. Rafaela Huerta Camones.	National University of Education Enrique Guzman y Valle, Peru	93
02	Dr. Richard Quivio Cuno.	National University of Education Enrique Guzman y Valle, Peru	87
03	Mg. Jeovanna Benito Condori	National University of Education Enrique Guzman y Valle, Peru	91
Total score			90

In a study concerning similar features to this research, Cabanillas (2004, qtd in Lavado, 2010) proposed a chart for validating instruments as follows:

Table 9

Validity criteria

N°	Criteria of validity	Score
01	Excellent	91-100
02	Very good	81-90
03	Good	71-80
04	Fair	61-70
05	Fail	51-60

Source: Lavado (2010)

As the result of the process of validation by experts' opinions is 90, we can conclude that our instrument of research has a very good validity. After this process it was applied to a pilot study before the real application of the research tool.

4.1.2. Reliability of instruments

Reliability

The criterion of instrument reliability, is determined in the present investigation by the Cronbach alpha coefficient, developed by J. L. Cronbach,

requires a single administration of the instrument to produce values between one and zero. It is applicable to various scales of possible values, which can be used to determine the scales reliability in response whose items have more than two alternatives. The formula determines the degree of consistency and accuracy, the scale of values that determines the reliability is given by the following values:

Reliability criterion values

Table 10

Reliability criteria

	Reliability criteria	Values
1	Not reliable	-1 to 0.
2	Low reliability	0.01 to 0.49.
3	Moderate reliability	0.5 to 0.75.
4	Strong reliability	0.76 to 0.89.
5	High reliability	From 0.9 to 1.

Table 11

Reliability Statistics of background knowledge and reading comprehension

Reliability Statistics		
Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Background knowledge	,755	15
Reading Comprehension	,840	20

The instrument that measures Background knowledge has strong reliability with a 0,755 statistic value and this instrument consisting of 15 questions.

The instrument that measures Reading comprehension has strong reliability with a 0,840 statistic value and this instrument consisting of 20 questions.

The instruments have adequate level of reliability in its version of 15 items and 20 items; therefore we can establish that the instrument is applicable.

4.2. Statistical treatment and interpretation of data (tables, graphs, drawings, figures)

1. Qualitative analysis of dimensions and variables

Variable I: Background Knowledge.

DIMENSION: Conceptual or world knowledge

Table 12

Dimension 1 - Conceptual or world knowledge

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Never	1	1,3	1,3
Sometimes	61	76,3	77,5
Always	18	22,5	100,0
Total	80	100,0	

Note: Author's own work.

Regarding the conceptual or world knowledge dimension, the 1,3% of surveyed. It means 10 students affirm that they never use this dimension, the 76,3% of surveyed which means 61 students say that they use it sometimes and the 22,5% students surveyed affirm that they always use the conceptual or world knowledge.

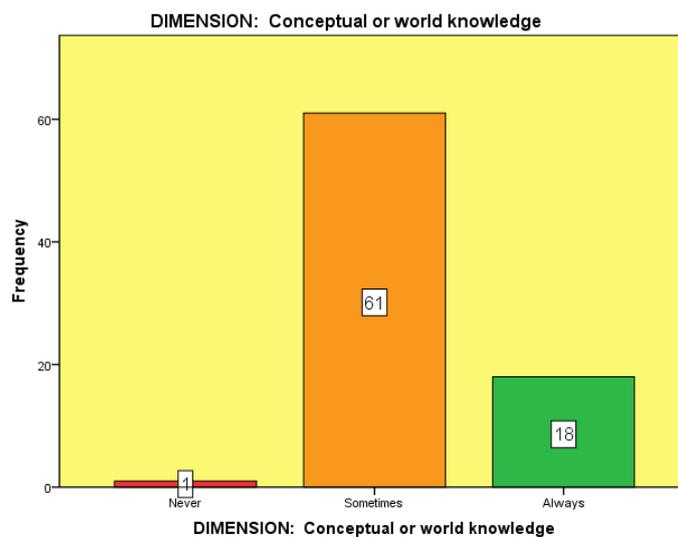


Figure 7. Conceptual or world knowledge. Source: Author's own work.

DIMENSION: Linguistic knowledge

Table 13

Dimension 2 - Linguistic knowledge

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Never	1	1,3	1,3
Sometimes	57	71,3	72,5
Always	22	27,5	100,0
Total	80	100,0	

Note: Author's own work.

Regarding the linguistic knowledge dimension, the 1,3% of surveyed which means 10 students affirm that they never use this dimension. The 71,3% of surveyed which means 57 students say that they use it sometimes and the 27,5% students surveyed affirm that they always use the linguistic knowledge.

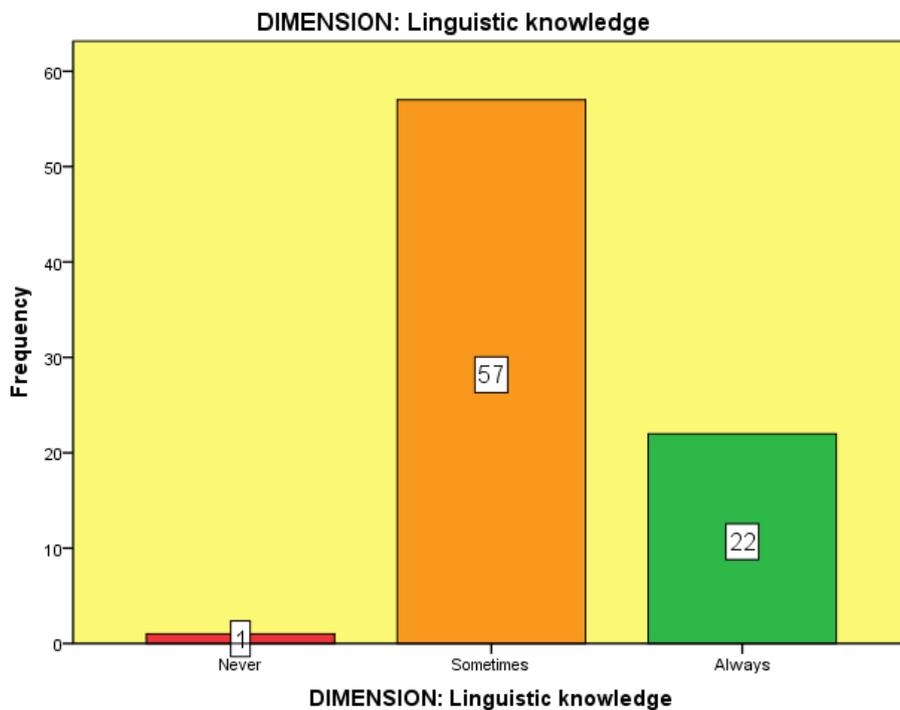


Figure 8. Linguistic Knowledge. Source: Author's own work.

DIMENSION: Meta-cognitive Knowledge

Table 14

Dimension 3- Meta-cognitive Knowledge

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Never	3	3,8	3,8
Sometimes	61	76,3	80,0
Always	16	20,0	100,0
Total	80	100,0	

Note: Author's own work.

Regarding the meta - cognitive knowledge dimension, the 3,8% of surveyed which means 3 students affirm that they never use this dimension. The 76,3% of surveyed which means 61 students say that they use it sometimes and the 20,0% students surveyed affirm that they always use the meta - cognitive knowledge.

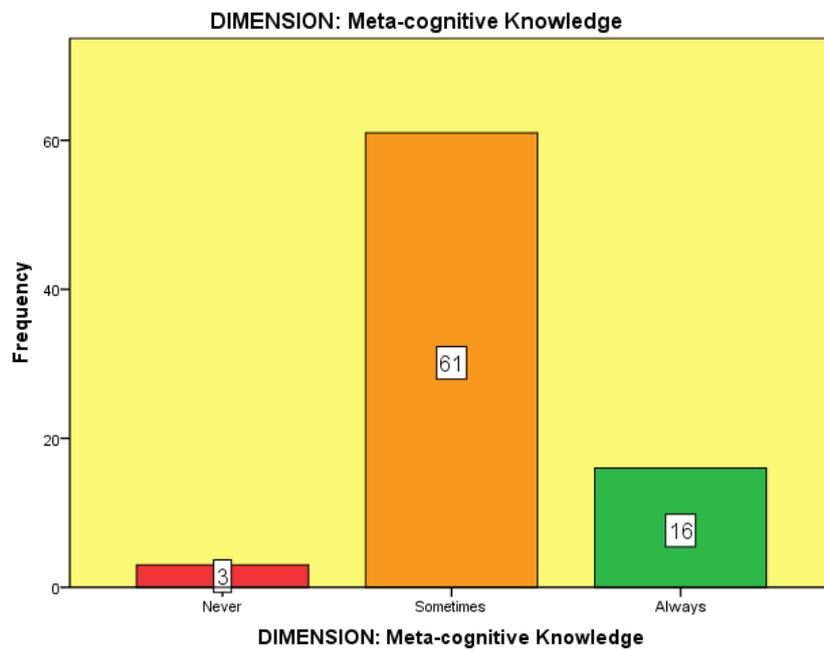


Figure 9. Meta-cognitive Knowledge. Source: Author's own work.

Variable I: Background knowledge

Table 15

Background knowledge

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Sometimes	68	85,0	85,0
Always	12	15,0	100,0
Total	80	100,0	

Note: Author's own work.

Regarding the background knowledge variable, the 85% of surveyed which means 68 students affirm that they sometimes use this variable and the 15.0% students surveyed affirm that they always use the background knowledge variable.

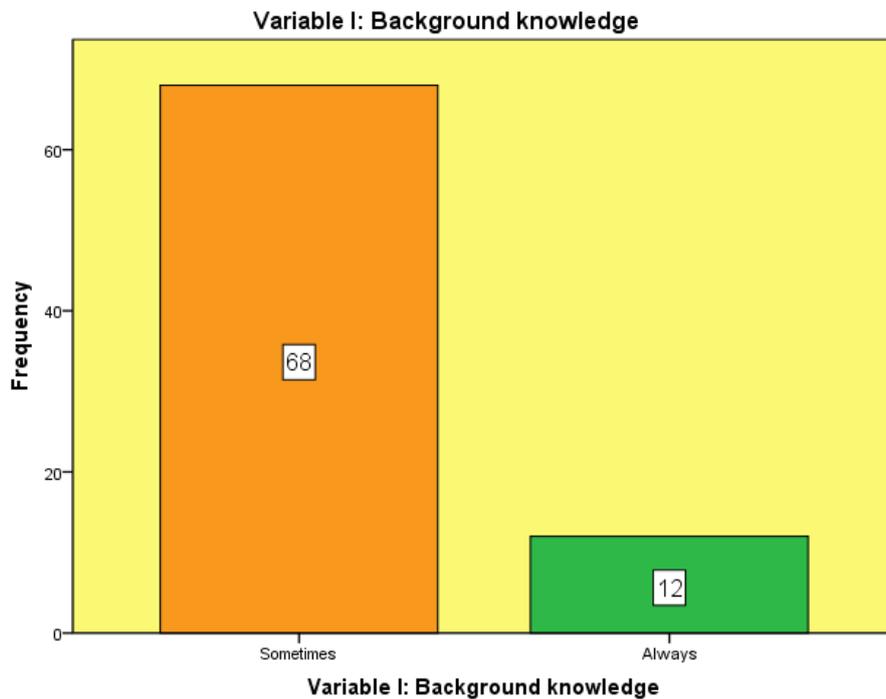


Figure 10. Variable I –Background knowledge. Source: Author's own work.

Variable II: Reading Comprehension

Table 16

Reading Comprehension

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Starting learning	10	12,5	12,5
Improving learning	10	12,5	25,0
Expected learning	37	46,3	71,3
Outstanding learning	23	28,8	100,0
Total	80	100,0	

Note: Author's own work.

Regarding the reading comprehension variable, the 12,5% of students have a starting learning level of reading comprehension, the 12,5% have an improving level which means that the 25% have not got a good level of reading comprehension. However, the 46,3% have got the expected learning level and the 28,8% have got the outstanding learning level of reading comprehension.

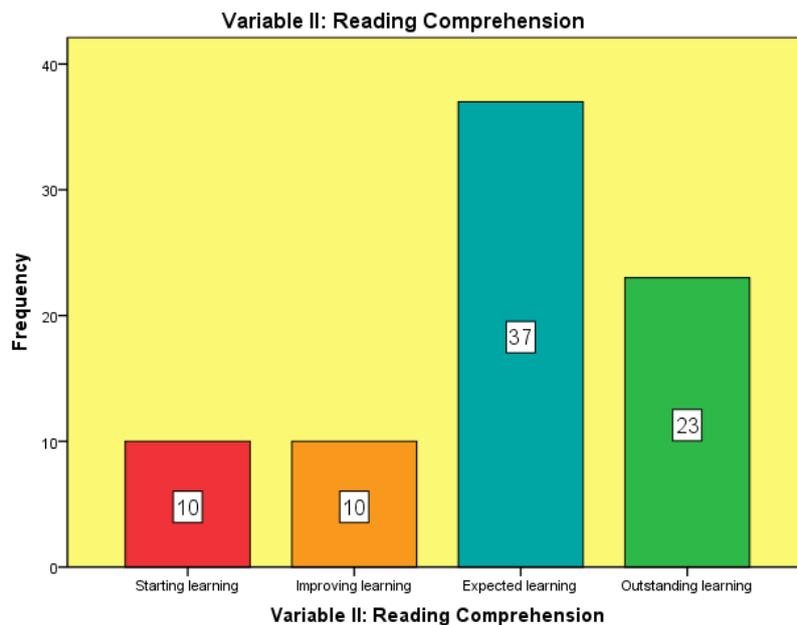


Figure 11. Variable II- Reading Comprehension. Source: Author's own work.

2. Quantitative analysis of variables

2.1. Variable I: Background knowledge

Table 17

Descriptive analysis Background Knowledge

Variable I: Background knowledge		Statistic
Mean		32,42
95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	31,46
	Upper Bound	33,39
Median		33,00
Variance		18,779
Std. Deviation		4,333
Minimum		22
Maximum		41
Range		19
Interquartile Range		5

Note: Author's own work.

The maximum score on the background knowledge variable is 45 points, the average achieved by the sample is 32,42 points, meaning that students have strongly agreed that sometimes they use the background knowledge, and the 95% confidence interval for mean lower limits is 31,46 points and 33,39 points higher limits which means that in the population 95 students out of 100 have strongly agreed with they use sometimes the background knowledge.

The median amounts to 33,00 points above the average, therefore, more than 50% have scores above average.

The minimum score is 22 points and the maximum score reached 41 points, leave us a 19 points range and an interquartile range of 5 points.

The box plot shows the minimum and maximum data distribution scores, the first quartile 39 points, meaning that 25% of surveyed presented scores below 39 points, the second quartile or median to 33 points, the third quartile from 33 points to

35 points, meaning that 75% of students have scores below 35 points and the 25% have scores between 35 points and 41 points.

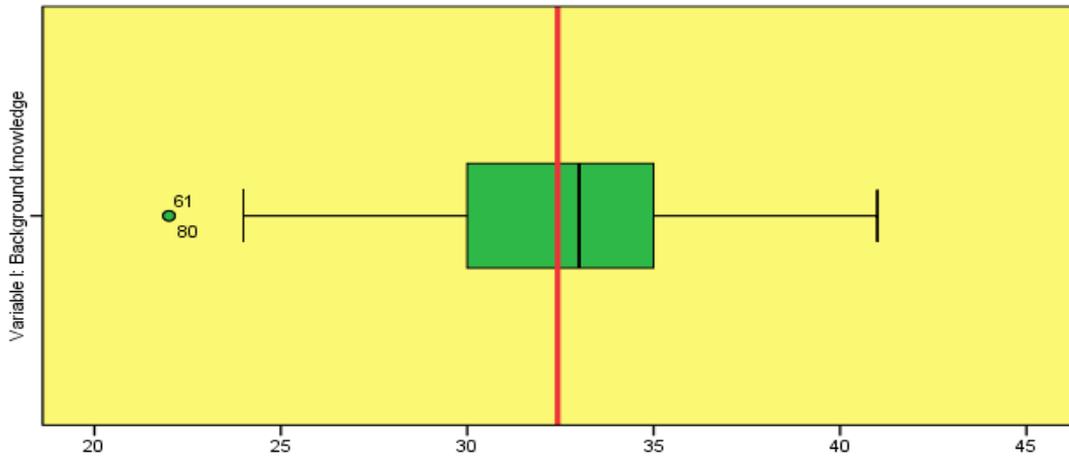


Figure 12. Quantitative Analysis of Variable I- Background knowledge. Source: Author’s own work.

2.2. Variable II: Reading Comprehension

Table 18

Descriptive Analysis of Reading Comprehension

Variable II: Reading Comprehension		Statistic
Mean		14,29
95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	13,53
	Upper Bound	15,05
Median		15,00
Variance		11,701
Std. Deviation		3,421
Minimum		3
Maximum		19
Range		16
Interquartile Range		5

Note: Author’s own work.

The maximum score on the background knowledge variable is 20 points; the average achieved by the sample is 14, 29 points, meaning that students have gotten an expected learning level in reading comprehension, and the 95% confidence interval for mean lower limits is 13, 53 points and 15, 05 points higher limits, its mean that in the population 95 students out of 100 have gotten an expected learning level in reading comprehension.

The median amounts to 15, 00 points above the average, therefore, more than 50% have scores above average.

The minimum score is 3 points and the maximum score reached 19 points, leave us a 16 points range and an interquartile range of 5 points.

The box plot shows minimum and maximum data distribution scores, the first quartile 12 points, meaning that 25% of surveyed presented scores below 12 points, the second quartile or median to 15 points, the third quartile from 15 points to 17 points, meaning that 75% of students have scores below 17 points and the 25% have scores between 17 points and 19 points.

Variable II: Reading Comprehension

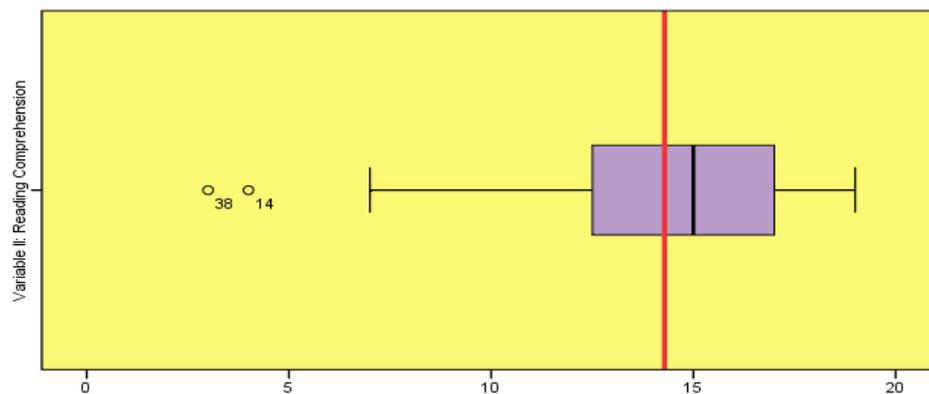


Figure 13. Reading comprehension of the students from the First Grade of Secondary level. Source: Author's own work.

3. Test of Normality

Before hypothesis testing, we determined the type of instrument to use for the contrast, we used the normality test of Kolmogorov - Smirnov to establish whether

normal or non-normal data distributions are in order to decide to use statistical parametric or nonparametric.

Table 19

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Variable I: Background knowledge	,106	80	,015
Variable II: Reading Comprehension	,142	80	,000

Note: Author's own work.

Regarding the background knowledge variable, the statistical value related to the test indicates a 0,106 value with 80 degrees of freedom, furthermore, the significance value is equal to 0,015, this value is less than 0,05, and therefore, there is a sufficient reason to affirm that the variable has skewed distribution.

About reading comprehension variable, the statistical value related to the test indicates a 0,142 value with 80 degrees of freedom, furthermore, the significance value is equal to 0,000, this value is less than 0,05, therefore, there is sufficient reason to affirm that the variable has skewed distribution.

Normality test conclusion

Both variables show skewed distributions, therefore, to develop hypothesis testing to correlation statistician reach; we used Spearman correlation between variables.

4. General hypothesis test

Working Hypothesis: Background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres School, Collique, Comas, 2013

Null Hypothesis: Background knowledge is not significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres School, Collique, Comas, 2013.

A. Statistical Hypothesis

$$H_p : \rho_{xy} > 0.226$$

$$H_o : \rho_{xy} \leq 0.226$$

$$\alpha = 0.05$$

B. Instruments:

The normality test showed that we have to use the Spearman correlation coefficient to determine the relationship degree between variables in order to testing the hypotheses.

C. Statistical Test.

$$\rho = 1 - \frac{6 \sum D^2}{N(N^2 - 1)}$$

Rejection area for Null Hypothesis

95% Confidence Interval

Significance value: $\alpha = 0.05$

$n=80$, $df=n-2=78$, therefore $p_{xy}>0.226$

Rejection area for Null Hypothesis: $\rho_{xy} > 0.226$, $\alpha = 0.05$

D. Nonparametric Correlations

Table 20

Correlations between V1 and V2

Correlation Coefficient Spearman's rho	Variable II: Reading Comprehension
Variable I: Background knowledge	,877**
Sig. (2-tailed)	,000
N	80

Note: Author's own work

The correlation degree between variables is strong, positive and direct, 0,877 for background knowledge and the reading comprehension; furthermore the significance value is less than 0, 05 with a 95% confidence interval. As the critical

level is less than the significance level, set sufficient reason to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is significant linear relationship between the variables and the relationship is strong.

Conclusión: There are sufficient reasons to reject the Null Hypothesis therefore: “Background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres School, Collique, Comas, 2013”

5. Specific hypothesis

5.1. Specific hypothesis N°1

Working Hypothesis: The conceptual or world background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres high School in Collique, Comas, 2013

Null Hypothesis: The conceptual or world background knowledge is not significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres high School in Collique, Comas, 2013.

A. Statistical Hypothesis

$$H_p: \rho_{xy} > 0.226$$

$$H_o: \rho_{xy} \leq 0.226$$

$$\alpha = 0.05$$

B. Instruments

The normality test showed that we have to use the Spearman correlation coefficient to determine the relationship degree between variables in order to testing the hypotheses.

C. Statistical Test

$$\rho = 1 - \frac{6 \sum D^2}{N(N^2 - 1)}$$

Rejection area for Null Hypothesis

95% Confidence Interval

Significance value: $\alpha = 0.05$

$n=80$, $df=n-2=78$, therefore $p_{xy}>0.226$

Rejection area for Null Hypothesis: $\rho_{xy} > 0.226$, $\alpha = 0.05$

D. Nonparametric Correlations

Table 21

Correlations between Reading Comprehension and Conceptual or world knowledge

Correlation Coefficient Spearman's rho	DIMENSION: Conceptual or world knowledge
Variable II: Reading Comprehension	,624**
Sig. (2-tailed)	,000
N	80

Note: Author's own work.

The correlation degree between conceptual or world knowledge and reading comprehension variable is moderate, positive and direct, 0,624, furthermore the significance value is less than 0,05 with a 95% confidence interval. As the critical level is less than the significance level, set sufficient reason to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is significant linear relationship between the variables and the relationship is moderate.

Conclusion: There are sufficient reasons to reject the Null Hypothesis therefore: "The conceptual or world background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres high School in Collique, Comas, 2013"

5.2. Specific hypothesis N°2

Working Hypothesis: The linguistic background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres high School in Collique, Comas, 2013.

Null Hypothesis: The linguistic background knowledge is not significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres high School in Collique, Comas, 2013.

A. Statistical Hypothesis

$$H_p : \rho_{xy} > 0.226$$

$$H_o : \rho_{xy} \leq 0.226$$

$$\alpha = 0.05$$

B. Instruments:

The normality test showed that we have to use the Spearman correlation coefficient to determine the relationship degree between variables in order to testing the hypotheses.

C. Statistical Test

$$\rho = 1 - \frac{6 \sum D^2}{N(N^2 - 1)}$$

Rejection area for Null Hypothesis

95% Confidence Interval

Significance value: $\alpha = 0.05$

$n=80$, $df=n-2=78$, therefore $p_{xy}>0.226$

Rejection area for Null Hypothesis: $\rho_{xy} > 0.226$, $\alpha = 0.05$

D. Nonparametric Correlations

Table 22

Correlations between Reading Comprehension and Linguistic knowledge

Correlation Coefficient Spearman's rho	DIMENSION: Linguistic knowledge
Variable II: Reading Comprehension	,726**
Sig. (2-tailed)	,000
N	80

Note: Author's own work.

The correlation degree between linguistic background knowledge and reading comprehension variable and is moderate, positive and direct, 0,726, furthermore the significance value is less than 0, 05 with a 95% confidence interval. As the critical level is less than the significance level, set sufficient reason to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is significant linear relationship between the variables and the relationship is moderate.

Conclusion: There are sufficient reasons to reject the Null Hypothesis therefore: “The linguistic background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres high School in Collique, Comas, 2013”.

5.3. Specific hypothesis N°3

Working Hypothesis: The Meta – cognitive background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres high School in Collique, Comas, 2013.

Null Hypothesis: The Meta – cognitive background knowledge is not significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres high School, in Collique, Comas, 2013.

A. Statistical Hypothesis

$$H_p : \rho_{xy} > 0.226$$

$$H_o : \rho_{xy} \leq 0.226$$

$$\alpha = 0.05$$

B. Instruments:

The normality test showed that we have to use the Spearman correlation coefficient to determine the relationship degree between variables in order to testing the hypotheses.

C. Statistical Test

$$\rho = 1 - \frac{6 \sum D^2}{N(N^2 - 1)}$$

Rejection area for Null Hypothesis

95% Confidence Interval

Significance value: $\alpha = 0.05$

$n=80$, $df=n-2=78$, therefore $p_{xy}>0.226$

Rejection area for Null Hypothesis: $\rho_{xy} > 0.226$, $\alpha = 0.05$

D. Non-parametric Correlations

Table 23

Correlations between Reading Comprehension and Meta-cognitive knowledge

Correlation Coefficient Spearman's rho	DIMENSION: Meta-cognitive Knowledge
Variable II: Reading Comprehension	,668**
Sig. (2-tailed)	,000
N	80

Note: Author's own work.

The correlation degree between Meta - cognitive background knowledge and reading comprehension variable and is moderate, positive and direct, 0.668, furthermore the significance value is less than 0.05 with a 95% confidence interval. As the critical level is less than the significance level, set sufficient reason to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is significant linear relationship between the variables and the relationship is moderate.

Conclusion: There are sufficient reasons to reject the Null Hypothesis therefore: “The meta - cognitive background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres high School in Collique, Comas, 2013”.

Discussion of results

1. From the results of the hypothesis testing we can infer that Background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres School, Collique, Comas, 2013”. This result has coincidence with the results obtained by Segura, Girón & Rivera (2011) in their thesis entitled “The background knowledge and its relationship with reading comprehension in fourth grade students of the English Area at “Heroes del Cenepa” High School , San Juan de Lurigancho,2011” who concluded that Background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in fourth grade students of the area of English at Heores del Cenepa High School, San Juan de Lurigancho as it is evidenced in their statistical conclusion. In addition, this result has coincidence with the results obtained by Flores (2008), in his research work, “Semantic process and Reading Comprehension in third grade students of primary level at Nuestra Señora de las Mercedes High School from Callao-Lima”, shows that 20 students of third grade with the technique of non-probabilistic intentional selection, concluding as a result that students have a low or deficient grade of Reading Comprehension.However, ”. This result does not have coincidence with the results obtained by Delgado (2007), in his research work “Memory and reading comprehension in fourth grade students of primary level at Republica de Venezuela School, Callao, Lima”; who concludes that memory does not have a statistical relationship with reading comprehension in primary students of fourth grade.
2. From the results of the hypothesis testing we can infer that the meta-cognitive background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres High School, Collique, Comas, 2013”. This result has coincidence with the results obtained by Silva & Amache (2010), in their research

work” Pedagogic alternative activities to improve the meta-comprehension strategies of written texts” the results came to the conclusion that the application of pedagogic alternative activities have improved the strategies of meta-comprehension of written texts in sixth grade students of primary level at 50696 school ”Acpitan” from Ccoyllurqui Cotabamabas- Apurimac.

3. Our study also has coincidence with a research run by Magno (2007) who made a study about “The schema theory and the reading process in adult students who have limited knowledge of the language”, concluding that there is a high relationship between previous knowledge and reading comprehension”. In the same line of thought, Lopez (2009) in her paper entitled “The importance of previous knowledge for the learning of new contents”, found out that to teach is necessary to activate the previous knowledge of the students, and invite them to reflect about their own ideas and confront these with others. Also, it has coincidence with the research run by Huang (2009),entitled “Background Knowledge and Reading Teaching” who arrived at the conclusion that “background knowledge plays so important a role in reading comprehension that any teacher cannot teach reading well without watching out for the background knowledge”.

Conclusions

After making the hypothesis testing in the field work, we have arrived at the following conclusions:

1. Background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres School, Collique, Comas, 2013, due to the fact that the correlation degree between variables is strong, positive and direct with 0,877 for background knowledge and reading comprehension. Furthermore the significance value is less than 0,05 with a 95% confidence interval.
2. Conceptual or world background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres high School, Collique, Comas, 2013, due to the fact that the correlation degree between conceptual or world knowledge and reading comprehension variable and is moderate, positive and direct with 0,624. Furthermore, the significance value is less than 0,05 with a 95% confidence interval.
3. Linguistic background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres high School, Collique, Comas, 2013, due to the fact that the correlation degree between linguistic background knowledge and reading comprehension variable and is moderate, positive and direct with 0,726. Furthermore, the significance value is less than 0,05 with a 95% confidence interval.
4. Meta - cognitive background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres high School, Collique, Comas, 2013, due to the fact that the correlation degree between meta - cognitive background knowledge and reading comprehension variable and is moderate, positive and direct with 0,668. Furthermore, the significance value is less than 0,05 with a 95% confidence interval.

Recommendations

1. English teachers and teachers in general of Andrés Avelino Caceres should work with texts reflecting the interests, and needs of students, especially taking into account the context, knowledge and realia that students already know and feel as part of their background knowledge.
2. Teachers of schools should take into account that background knowledge and the mastery of the mother tongue are essential for the learning of a foreign or second language. It is also necessary to highlight that the use of the mother tongue in the second language classroom facilitates communication.
3. Teachers of Andrés Avelino Caceres High School should take into account that to improve the retention of English they should run dynamic sessions, not only create good conditions or environments in class. Here, it is necessary to guide to this process of learning applying all the principles (affective filter, motivation, holistic way, cooperative, positive climate, self-esteem, interactive learning, previous knowledge), didactic approaches (humanistic and communicative) for generating an efficient comprehension of texts because language is communication and it implies pragmatics, semiotics and not only grammatical structures. Furthermore, it implies to make a self-evaluation about their own learning in order to organize, to change and to transform the new knowledge.
4. The Ministry of Education and/or the Regional Education Office should develop researches about the influence of background knowledge in their contexts, because they could use their cultural, linguistic, historical, humanistic, geographical and religious richness in benefit of the students who have gotten a set of progressive knowledge, abilities and strategies in their lives.

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Appendices

- **Operational matrix**
- **Consistency Matrix**
- **English version of the questionnaire**
- **Spanish version of the questionnaire**
- **Informers' scores of Basic English I**
- **Sheets of experts' validations**

OPERATIONALIZATION MATRIX OF VARIABLES

VARIABLES	DIMENSIONS	INDICATORS	ITEMS
VARIABLE I: BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE	Conceptual or world knowledge	-Share ideas and experiences.	1
		-Make conceptual schemes based on previous knowledge.	2
		-Express opinions and concepts.	3
		-Show interest in texts.	4
	Linguistic knowledge	1. Knowledge of mother tongue -Use wide range of vocabulary.	5
		-Understand meaning.	6
		-Make coherent sentences.	7
		-Express needs emotions, thoughts and feelings.	8
		-Interactwiththeirpartners.	9
		2. Knowledge of foreign language -Know the basic uses of the language.	10
		-Be Communicative.	11
	Meta-cognitive Knowledge	-Use strategies of self-learning.	12
		-Use the ICT.	13
		-Use strategies of reading	14
		-Make self-evaluation about learning.	15
VARIABLE II: READING COMPREHENSION	Literal comprehension	-Read and understand the vocabulary used in the text.	Activity I in the test.
		-Recognize the parts of the text. -Identify the context or communicative situation.	Activity II in the test.
		-Detail the information from the text. -Recognize characters. -Identify the main ideas.	Activity III in the test.
	Inferentialcompre hension	-Recognize the kind of text. -Infer the meaning of words. -Analyze of texts. - Predict situations from the text.	Activity IV in the test.
		- Make a summary.	Activity V in the test.
	Criteriaecomprehe nsion	-Judge the contents. -Criticize the character's behaviors. - Analyze the intentions of the author.	Activity VI in the test.

Table 19: CONSISTENCY MATRIX

Background Knowledge and reading comprehension in the first grade students at A.A. Caceres High School, Collique, Comas, 2013.

FORMULATION OF THE PROBLEM	STUDY OBJECTIVES	RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS	STUDY VARIABLES	RESEARCH DESIGN	POPULATION AND SAMPLE
<p>General problem</p> <p>How is background knowledge related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres School, Collique, Comas, 2013?</p>	<p>General Objective</p> <p>To establish a relationship between background knowledge and reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres School, in Collique, Comas, 2013.</p>	<p>General Hypothesis</p> <p>Background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres School, Collique, Comas, 2013?</p>	<p>Variable I Background Knowledge</p> <p>Variable II Reading Comprehension</p>	<p>Type of research: Descriptive-quantitative</p> <p>Research method: Descriptive research method.</p> <p>Research design: Correlational design</p> <p>Research instruments: Questionnaire</p> <p>Data collection techniques : Survey Documentary analysis</p>	<p>Population: 80 students of first grade from Andrés Avelino Caceres school of secondary level; belongs to the UGEL 04, Comas,2013</p> <p>Sample: 80 students of first grade from Andrés Avelino Caceres School of secondary level.</p>
<p>Specific Problems</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How is the conceptual or world background knowledge related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andres Avelino Caceres School in Collique, Comas, 2013? • How is the linguistic background knowledge related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andres Avelino Caceres School in Collique, Comas, 2013? • How is the meta-cognitive background knowledge related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andres Avelino Caceres School in Collique, Comas, 2013? 	<p>Specific Objectives</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To establish the relationship between the conceptual or world background knowledge and reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres high school, in Collique, Comas, 2013. • To establish the relationship between the linguistic background knowledge and reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres School, in Collique, Comas, 2013. • To establish the relationship between the meta-cognitive background knowledge and reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres School, in Collique, Comas, 2013. 	<p>Specific Hypothesis</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The conceptual or world background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres high School, in Collique, Comas, 2013. • The linguistic background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres School, in Collique, Comas, 2013. • The meta-cognitive background knowledge is significantly related to reading comprehension in first grade students at Andrés Avelino Caceres School, in Collique, Comas, 2013. 			

ENCUESTA

Estimado estudiante,

A continuación te presentamos diferentes enunciados, los mismos que debes contestar marcando con un aspa (X) la respuesta que consideres apropiada, para esto debes tener en cuenta los criterios señalados en la tabla de puntaje. Tus respuestas servirán para mejorar la enseñanza del área de inglés en tus clases.

1	2	3
Nunca	A veces	Siempre

N°	Variable 1 :Conocimientos previos	1	2	3
Dimensión: Conocimiento conceptual del mundo.				
1	Comparto mis ideas y experiencias personales en la clase de inglés.			
2	Tengo nociones claras sobre lo que estoy aprendiendo en base a lo que ya conozco en inglés.			
3	Expreso mis opiniones y nuevos conceptos con facilidad en inglés.			
4	Muestro interés por la lectura en inglés.			
Dimensión: Conocimiento de la lengua materna y lengua extranjera.				
5	Tengo un amplio vocabulario en castellano.			
6	Entiendo el significado de las palabras con facilidad en el castellano.			
7	Elaboro oraciones coherentes en base a mis experiencias previas en castellano.			
8	Expreso con facilidad mis necesidades, emociones y sentimientos en castellano.			
9	Aprendo más el inglés cuando interactué con mis compañeros en clase.			
10	Utilizo el inglés básico para elaborar oraciones sencillas en inglés. Organizó mi propio aprendizaje del inglés mediante el esfuerzo, la dedicación, la concentración, la responsabilidad, la puntualidad, etc.			
11	Intento comunicarme en Inglés con mis compañeros en clase.			
Dimensión: Conocimiento Meta-cognitivo.				
12	Organizo mi propio aprendizaje del inglés mediante el esfuerzo, la dedicación, la concentración ,la responsabilidad, la puntualidad, etc.			
13	Utilizo la tecnología (internet, aula virtual, radio-grabadora, y otros) para mejorar el proceso de la comprensión de textos en inglés.			
14	Uso estrategias de lectura como: lectura silenciosa, el subrayado, comparaciones, resúmenes, etc. para comprender un texto en inglés			
15	Elaboro una autoevaluación (evaluación personal) sobre mis aprendizajes.			

TEST

PART ONE

I. Read the text and underline the main ideas. (1 point)

My dog is domestic or wild?

What is the difference between domestic and wild animals? Domestic animals live and interact with human beings like pets: dogs, cats, parrots, turtles, etc., and others are for human beings feeding or the industry (chickens, ducks, fish, rabbits, guineapigs, cows, sheep, vicuñas, etc).
 Wild animals are not domesticated by humans because many of them are predators and can transmit many infections to humans (crocodiles, lions, giraffes, elephants, snakes, etc).
 In our country, we have many natural reserves (Manu, Huascarán, etc) and zoos (the Legends Park, Huachipa Ecological Center, etc) to visit and know more about them.
 We have a big responsibility on protecting domestic and wild animals from damage, hunting and predation. They are part of our ecology.

II. Circle “a”, “b”, or “c”.(3 points)

1. The difference between “domestic and wild animals” is the _____ with human beings.
 - a) Infections b) interaction c) ecology
2. The text starts with some _____ and ends with an _____.
 - a) Differences between domestic and wild animals/ invitation to protect animals.
 - b) Classifications of animals / visit to zoos.
 - c) Definitions of wild animals / natural reserves.
3. Animals are part of the _____ of our planet.
 - a) Ecology b) countries c) zoos

PART TWO

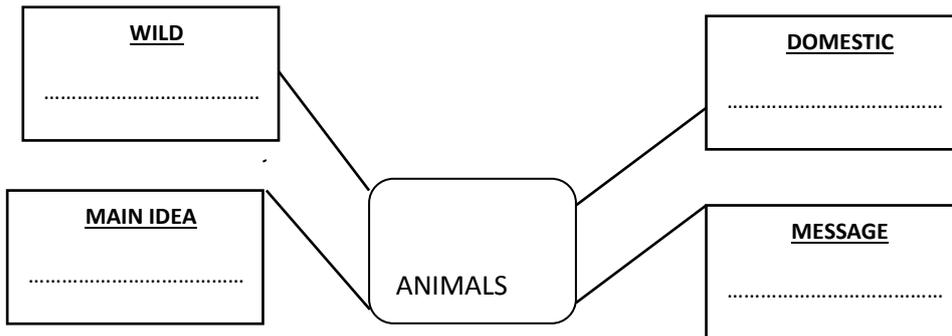
III. Match the pictures with the description as in the example. (4 points)

 <p>...3...</p>  <p>.....</p>  <p>.....</p>  <p>.....</p>  <p>.....</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. It is a very strong animal. It can carry heavy things. It is gray. It lives in Africa. It has fourlegs. 2. It is a lovely animal. It can jump. It has a small tail and long ears. It eats carrots. 3. It is a good swimmer. It cannot fly. It eats fish. It lives in cold countries. 4. It is small. It has feathers. It sings every morning and it is domestic. 5. It is small. It has short legs and small body. It is domestic. It eats every kind of vegetables and it is typically Peruvian.
--	--

IV. Circle the correct word in the sentences below.(5 points)

- a) The text is *narrative /descriptive*.
- b) “Guinea pig” means “*cerdo*”/”*cuy*”.
- c) The text is about *pets /animals*.
- d) The word “depredation” refers to “*extinguish*”/”*preserve*”.
- e) According to the text we can predict that men *and* animals can live in *harmony / disharmony*.

V. Organizethe information of the text in thediagram below.(4 points)



PART THREE

VI. Answer.(3 points)

What is “ecology” for you? Write in Spanish.

.....

Which **values** can you find in the text? Put one or more check () next to it.

Respect	Identity	Responsible	Tolerance	Love	Effort

Which are the **intentions** of the author? Write true (T) or false (F).

Live with animals	Protect animals	Value animal life	Be responsible with animals

SCORE=

Variable I: Backgroundknowledge

	DIMENSION Conceptual or world knowledge				DIMENSION Linguisticknowledge							DIMENSION Meta- cognitiveKnowledge				
Sujeto	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	Total
1	02	02	02	03	02	02	03	02	02	03	02	03	03	03	03	37
2	02	01	02	03	03	02	02	03	03	02	02	03	02	02	02	34
3	01	02	01	02	02	02	01	01	02	02	01	03	02	03	01	26
4	03	03	03	02	03	03	03	03	02	03	01	03	03	02	02	39
5	02	03	02	03	03	02	02	02	02	03	03	03	01	03	02	36
6	03	03	03	01	03	03	01	02	02	02	01	03	01	03	02	33
7	01	02	01	03	02	02	01	02	02	02	02	01	03	02	02	28
8	01	02	02	02	03	02	02	02	02	02	02	02	02	03	02	31
9	01	03	02	03	02	03	02	03	01	02	01	03	03	03	02	34
10	03	02	02	03	03	02	03	02	03	03	02	03	02	02	03	38
11	03	03	02	03	02	03	02	02	03	02	02	03	03	02	02	37
12	03	03	02	03	02	02	02	03	03	02	03	02	03	03	03	39
13	02	02	02	02	03	03	02	03	02	02	01	02	02	02	01	31
14	01	02	02	02	02	03	02	01	01	02	01	02	02	01	01	25
15	03	02	02	03	03	03	02	02	03	01	01	02	01	03	02	33
16	01	02	02	03	02	02	01	03	02	02	01	03	03	03	02	32
17	02	02	01	03	02	02	02	03	02	02	01	03	03	02	02	32
18	02	02	03	03	03	03	02	03	02	02	03	02	03	02	03	38
19	02	02	02	03	03	02	03	03	02	02	02	01	02	02	01	32
20	02	03	03	03	03	02	02	03	03	02	02	03	02	02	02	37
21	03	03	03	03	03	03	03	03	02	02	02	03	03	02	03	41
22	02	03	02	02	03	02	02	02	03	02	03	02	02	03	02	35
23	03	03	02	02	03	02	03	03	03	02	02	02	01	02	02	35
24	03	03	02	02	03	02	03	02	03	02	02	02	01	02	03	35
25	02	03	03	03	02	02	03	02	02	03	02	02	03	02	02	36
26	02	02	03	02	01	02	02	02	03	03	03	01	02	03	02	33
27	01	03	02	02	03	02	02	03	03	03	02	03	03	01	01	34
28	02	03	02	02	03	02	02	03	03	03	02	02	01	03	02	35
29	02	02	02	03	03	02	03	03	03	03	02	02	02	03	02	37
30	02	02	02	02	03	02	02	03	02	03	01	03	01	02	02	32
31	02	02	01	02	01	01	03	03	02	01	01	02	02	02	01	26
32	02	01	02	02	03	02	02	02	01	02	01	02	02	02	01	27
33	02	02	02	02	03	03	03	03	02	02	03	02	02	02	02	35
34	02	03	02	02	03	03	02	02	03	02	03	02	02	02	02	35
35	01	02	02	02	02	03	02	03	03	02	03	02	03	02	02	34
36	02	02	02	03	03	02	03	03	03	03	02	02	01	02	01	34
37	03	02	02	03	03	02	02	02	03	02	02	02	03	03	01	35
38	01	02	01	01	01	03	01	02	02	02	01	02	02	02	02	25

Variable II: RESULTADOS DEL TEST DE COMPRESIONLECTORA	
SUJETOS	PROMEDIOS
1	14
2	10
3	10
4	17
5	18
6	11
7	17
8	17
9	18
10	14
11	9
12	19
13	14
14	14
15	19
16	18
17	15
18	15
19	16
20	13
21	14
22	16
23	15
24	15
25	19
26	9
27	15
28	15
29	15
30	14
31	14
32	15
33	9
34	14
35	4
36	13
37	16
38	3
39	14

40	19
41	14
42	11
43	11
44	15
45	16
46	15
47	17
48	11
49	18
50	11
51	17
52	16
53	16
54	16
55	16
56	18
57	18
58	17
59	11
60	8
61	13
62	17
63	16
64	18
65	19
66	7
67	13
68	13
69	15
70	19
71	12
72	18
73	13
74	17
75	11
76	15
77	9
78	12
79	17
80	11

**UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE EDUCACIÓN
ENRIQUE GUZMÁN Y VALLE**
"Alma Mater del Magisterio Nacional"

INFORME DE VALIDACIÓN DE INSTRUMENTO POR JUICIO DE EXPERTO

I. DATOS GENERALES:

- a. Apellido y Nombre(s) del informante: QUINTO CUNO, RAQUEL D.S.
 b. Cargo e institución donde labora: DOCENTE FAC - I.P.G. UNAE
 c. Nombre del instrumento: Cuestionario
 d. Autora del instrumento: Rosaura CAMONES ESTELA
 e. Carrera: Maestría en Enseñanza del Inglés como Lengua Extranjera
 f. Tesis: BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE AND READING COMPREHENSION IN THE FIRST GRADE STUDENTS AT ANDRÉS AVELINO C'ACERES SCHOOL, COLLIQUE, COMAS, 2013

II. ASPECTOS DE VALIDACIÓN

INDICADORES DE EVALUACIÓN DEL INSTRUMENTO	CRITERIOS		Deficiente (01 - 20)	Regular (21 - 40)	Buena (41 -60)	Muy Buena (61 -80)	Excelente (81-100)
	Cualitativos	Cuantitativos					
1. CLARIDAD	Está formulado con lenguaje apropiado.						85
2. OBJETIVIDAD	Está expresado en conductas observables.						90
3. ACTUALIDAD	Adecuado al avance de la ciencia y la tecnología.						90
4. ORGANIZACIÓN	Existe una organización lógica variables e indicadores						85
5. SUFICIENCIA	Comprende los aspectos en cantidad y calidad.					80	
6. INTENCIONALIDAD	Adecuado para valorar aspectos fundamentales del tema.						90
7. CONSISTENCIA	Basado en aspectos teóricos científico y pedagógicos del área.						85
8. COHERENCIA	Entre las variables, dimensiones e indicadores.						85
9. METODOLOGÍA	La estrategia responde al propósito de la investigación.						90
10. PERTINENCIA	Adecuado para tratar el tema de investigación.						85
PROMEDIO DE LA VALORACIÓN CUANTITATIVA							87

III. OPINIÓN DE APLICABILIDAD: ES APLICABLE

IV. PROMEDIO DE VALORACIÓN: 87

Lugar y fecha: LA MOLANA 18/07/2013

DNI N° 09502071 Teléfono N° 991357195


Firma del experto informante

**UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE EDUCACIÓN
ENRIQUE GUZMÁN Y VALLE
"Alma Mater del Magisterio Nacional"**

INFORME DE VALIDACIÓN DE INSTRUMENTO POR JUICIO DE EXPERTO

I. DATOS GENERALES:

- a. Apellido y Nombre(s) del informante: Mg. Jeovana Benito Condori
 b. Cargo e institución donde labora: Docente UNE
 c. Nombre del instrumento: Cuestionario
 d. Autora del instrumento: Rosaura CAMONES ESTELA
 e. Carrera: Maestría en Enseñanza del Inglés como Lengua Extranjera
 f. Tesis: **BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE AND READING COMPREHENSION IN THE FIRST GRADE STUDENTS AT ANDRÉS AVELINO C'ACERES SCHOOL, COLLIQUE.COMAS, 2013**

II. ASPECTOS DE VALIDACIÓN

INDICADORES DE EVALUACIÓN DEL INSTRUMENTO	CRITERIOS		Deficiente (01 - 20)	Regular (21 - 40)	Buena (41 -60)	Muy Buena (61 -80)	Excelente (81-100)
	Cualitativos	Cuantitativos					
1. CLARIDAD	Está formulado con lenguaje apropiado.						85
2. OBJETIVIDAD	Está expresado en conductas observables.						90
3. ACTUALIDAD	Adecuado al avance de la ciencia y la tecnología.						95
4. ORGANIZACIÓN	Existe una organización lógica variables e indicadores						86
5. SUFICIENCIA	Comprende los aspectos en cantidad y calidad.						90
6. INTENCIONALIDAD	Adecuado para valorar aspectos fundamentales del tema.						86
7. CONSISTENCIA	Basado en aspectos teóricos científico y pedagógicos del área.						95
8. COHERENCIA	Entre las variables, dimensiones e indicadores.						95
9. METODOLOGÍA	La estrategia responde al propósito de la investigación.						90
10. PERTINENCIA	Adecuado para tratar el tema de investigación.						95
PROMEDIO DE LA VALORACIÓN CUANTITATIVA							91

III. OPINIÓN DE APLICABILIDAD: Es pertinente su aplicación

IV. PROMEDIO DE VALORACIÓN: 91

Lugar y fecha: La Molina, 18/07/13

DNI N° 70445733 Teléfono N° 992605684



Firma del experto informante

**UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE EDUCACIÓN
ENRIQUE GUZMÁN Y VALLE**
"Alma Mater del Magisterio Nacional"

INFORME DE VALIDACIÓN DE INSTRUMENTO POR JUICIO DE EXPERTO

I. DATOS GENERALES:

- a. Apellido y Nombre(s) del informante: HUERTA CAMONES RAFAELA (DRA)
 b. Cargo e institución donde labora: DOCENTE - U N E
 c. Nombre del instrumento: Cuestionario
 d. Autora del instrumento: Rosaura CAMONES ESTELA
 e. Carrera: Maestría en Enseñanza del Inglés como Lengua Extranjera
 f. Tesis: **BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE AND READING COMPREHENSION IN THE FIRST GRADE STUDENTS AT ANDRÉS AVELINO C'ACERES SCHOOL, COLLIQUE.COMAS, 2013**

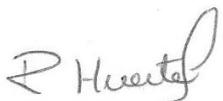
II. ASPECTOS DE VALIDACIÓN

INDICADORES DE EVALUACIÓN DEL INSTRUMENTO	CRITERIOS		Deficiente (01 - 20)	Regular (21 - 40)	Buena (41 -60)	Muy Buena (61 -80)	Excelente (81-100)
	Cualitativos	Cuantitativos					
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5. SUFICIENCIA	Comprende los aspectos en cantidad y calidad.						90
6. INTENCIONALIDAD	Adecuado para valorar aspectos fundamentales del tema.						95
7. CONSISTENCIA	Basado en aspectos teóricos científico y pedagógicos del área.						95
8. COHERENCIA	Entre las variables, dimensiones e indicadores.						95
9. METODOLOGÍA	La estrategia responde al propósito de la investigación.						95
10. PERTINENCIA	Adecuado para tratar el tema de investigación.						90
PROMEDIO DE LA VALORACIÓN CUANTITATIVA							93

III. OPINIÓN DE APLICABILIDAD: APLICABLE

IV. PROMEDIO DE VALORACIÓN: 93

Lugar y fecha:
 DNI N° 07650762 Teléfono N° 2253534 - 996246944



 Firma del experto informante