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Enrique Guzmán y Valle

Alma Máter del Magisterio Nacional

FACULTAD DE CIENCIAS SOCIALES Y HUMANIDADES

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MONOGRAFÍA

Teaching and testing written communication in English

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Presentada por:

Canchasto Cárdenas, Mary Cruz

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Teaching and testing written communication in English

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To my family

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Introduction

When talking about teaching and testing written communication in English, we refer to those skills maybe known as the most heavy to overcome in the process of learning a foreign language. In the history of English Language Teaching, these skills have widely been studied and taught from the early years until nowadays.

At present, and as a result of the communicative boom for language teaching, reading is not only considered vital to provide students with general knowledge, but it is a starting point for achieving optimal performance when it comes to putting practice writing skills. The complementary reading on the topic to be developed in writing helps the student to be more profuse, since the reading used for this purpose becomes a platform through which he can expand his ideas, increase vocabulary, use more advanced grammatical structures. Ultimately, reading is a source of inspiration for the writing process. However, that has not always been the case. For Grabe (2003) the relationship between reading and writing has focused on writing, since it is common for learning achieved through reading texts to be reflected in writing. It is less common to assume that students, and according to Grabe, most people, write to read.

When it is proposed that the integration of reading and writing helps language students develop language skills, this means that both skills interact in a process whereby they acquire the knowledge necessary to read and write in the second language successfully. According to Brown (2001) the integration of these skills requires careful planning, which is why the instructor must design the activities and techniques according to the level of the students and their learning needs. Also, the instructor must have a clear idea of the scope of reading and writing, how they work and what are the mental processes involved when students interact with the text, read or write. Students should be motivated

to experiment with reading and writing as a means to improve their language skills and as a pleasant experience for second language learning and general knowledge.

The reading puts the writing student in a position to predict, as far as possible, what the reader would like to obtain from the text. Such prediction helps the instructor to find useful reading materials for the proper development of written text. By virtue of the foregoing, Humes (1983) indicate that the instructor must develop appropriate reading strategies in class, so that the reading process will have the necessary effectiveness to facilitate writing. Then, as an acquired skill, reading becomes a source of permanent linguistic information each time the student undertakes the writing process.

The whole work has been divided into four chapters. Chapter I has to do with the nature of human communication that comprises the definition of communication in terms of oral and written communication. Chapter II is about the teaching of reading and writing. In this part we have developed the theoretical and practical aspects of the teaching of both skills. Chapter III presents the most important aspects of testing reading and writing in the classroom, beginning by reading to then finish with writing. Chapter IV has to do with the practical application of the topic. In this section I present a lesson plan with the development of a lesson in reading putting into practice the theory present in the monograph.

Finally, I think I have done my best efforts to develop the whole monograph and prepare my lesson plan according to the topic that I studied throughout the time since the day I was given the topic to be defended.

Chapter I

The nature of human communication

1.1 Human communication

Human communication is established as an action and not as a thing. In a broad sense, an

action is a process, but every end excludes its action, therefore, action and end are

different. What it is, as its identity, is defined as a final action, not an action in progress.

The process is the path, but in itself, it is not the final action, it is still action in process.

The nature and identity of communication are the same: action of the subjects for the

common conformity of the meaning of things through the message; individual action for

the conformity of the social action in the unit.

Communication as a purpose is determined in the natural need to share something

between at least two subjects for the conformity of a unit, consequently, a common-unit.

The word communication -from Latin *communicatio-onis*- establishes its purpose in terms

of the action of having something in common - from the Greek *Koinos*- with the

implication of passing, from the own to the public, by means of a predetermined code for

understanding and understanding of a message among a community of people.

According to its nature, communication is the common agreement of the subjects

on the message - with identity of information established through the common interest to

form a good social action. Conformity is not presumed to be the subject's consensus on

positions and opinions. It is about the conformity of the understanding and the understanding of the message by them. Share the nature of the message, which is the truth itself, its essential. The conformation of social action is the mutual benefit, either to share knowledge of something or to execute a joint action.

To communicate is the act of being in communication. In turn, this is sized as the action of language that allows the search for the common good. Communication is established as the natural power of the subject that allows the individual to be the natural conformation of the social being.

This process reflects the evolution of society as a natural scenario of realization of people, where communication becomes the interrelation of the individual for the formation of society. Communication has structured the history of humanity, where social events have been the manifestation of human organization such as progress, development and perfection. Communication depends fundamentally on an act of intelligence and will. The truth and the good become the essence of social interrelations of communication, expressed as the exercise of freedom.

Society is established based on people and communities organized through communication. It is expressed according to Melé that it is prescribed that man and society have a similar nature and purpose. As regards the end: the end of society is the end of man. Unity of order then means that communication which is established seeks the end of man, namely the development of his own nature (Melé, 1995).

Aristotle in this sense would say that good is the end of all the actions of man and the supreme end of man is happiness (Aristotle, 1991). The path that accompanies the human act for its perfection is communication.

Communication is a finished action or a final action that implies a movement from the will and intelligence to have in common something that is understood by

understanding, and that passes to the level of knowledge of those who interact. That is, that information is passed to communication.

The nature of communication is determined by the individual power that subjects have to communicate with others, power of the soul as efficient causalities. In turn, it implies the social nature for their realization. That is, communication has two natures that make up its essence: individual nature and social nature. In this sense, his power allows him to communicate with another, not with himself. And that other can be part of himself - not everything - as a superior corporeal unit.

Communication between the subjects is one of the structural and reciprocal conditions of society, where the beginning and end of the dialogue between the subjects allow coexistence, understanding, respect, solidarity, progress, knowledge; and individually, the perfection of people. Perfection that is dimensioned from the exercise of communication as a common participation of good and truth, where the subject is perfected and contributes to the perfection of the other members of the community.

1.2   Types of human communication

1.2.1 Oral communication.

Oral communication is developed through dialogue that is the basis of social relationships. Dialogue is the way we exchange information with another person. This means that in an oral communication there is a sender and a receiver where the common language is used by both interlocutors.

Oral communication is the most complex expression of human relationships where there is an exchange of ideas, motivations, attitudes, representations and experiences among men, which constitutes an essential means of functioning and personality formation. It has the following features:

- Requires at least two partners, a sender and a receiver of the oral message.

- It is supported by complementary signs for a better understanding by the receiver.

- The issuer has more expressive freedom.

- Oral communication is ephemeral.

1.2.2 Written communication.

Written communication is permanent. It is printed in a sheet of paper or in any material that can also be evidenced in more detail and is more reflective or reasoned, therefore the written communication is composed of an author and a receiver (reader) accompanied in a literary and contextual way.

It is one in that, at the time of initiation, a sender and a receiver do not necessarily have to coincide in space and time. Since there is no occasion for immediate feedback, nor the possibility of having non-verbal communication, the issuer has to pay special attention when composing the message (the written document), so that the receiver (the reader) understands it in the sense that the issuer wanted to give him. In other words, it is the way in which words are expressed in the form of writing and that can be read by any receiver regardless of the moment. Some of the essential features are:

- Letters and punctuation marks are used to construct the message.

- It is reflexive, organized, elaborated and logical.

- It is built correctly and accurately.

- It is deferred and permanent.

- A unilateral relationship is established between the sender and the receiver.

- Any textual or extra textual reference is made with words.

1.3   Comparative chart between oral and written communication

The following table contains the differences of these two types of communication, considering the different areas of language:

Table 1

Comparative chart between oral and written communication

Oral communication	Written communication
The message is taken through the ear.	The message is captured by sight.
There is interaction between the sender and the receiver.	The message receiver cannot give immediate feedback.
Commonly, the content of the message refers to general topics.	In general, the message refers to specific topics.
It is momentary, lasts only the instant it is issued.	It is durable, it is kept in a format (book, magazine, message, etc.).
When it appears, it cannot be deleted.	It can be corrected as many times as necessary.
The language is informal.	The language of written communication is mostly formal.
It is a product of the context and the situation in which the communicative act takes place.	It is created independent ly from context.
Presence of nonverbal resources: voice intensity, rhythm, tone.	Verbal resources that are included comprise: typography, titles and subtitles, punctuation marks, organization of paragraphs.
Use of imprecise vocabulary.	Use of specific vocabulary.
It is redundant, that is, the message can be repetitive and superfluous.	The user tries to avoid redundancy.
The words used are repeated continuously (lexicon).	Lexical repetition is avoided, but not the content of the message.
There is not a well structured information and is not very rigorous.	There is a logical order when the message is given.
Simple and short sentences are mostly used.	Use of more complex and long sentences.
Vary the order of the elements of the sentence.	There is rigidity in the word order of the sentences.
There are omissions of unfinished words and phrases.	The phrases have to be complete and avoid omissions..
There is use of interjections, idioms, muffins, etc.	Reluctance to use idioms, muffins, etc.
It carries dialect marks (geographic, social).	Neutralize dialect marks.
Deliver emotional information from the issuer.	Deliver referential information from the issuer.
Develops listening and speaking skills	Reading and writing skills are developed.

Source: Own authorship.

Written communication can be developed by means of the development of reading and writing skills in the process of learning English as a foreign language.

Chapter II

Teaching written communication

Written communication comprises the development of reading and writing skills. In this direction when speaking about teaching written communication, we are referring to the teaching of reading and writing, so in the following lines we will develop the corresponding aspects of the afore mentioned skills.

2.1   Teaching reading

2.1.1 Definition of reading.

Reading consists of relating, criticizing or overcoming the ideas expressed. It does not imply, accepting tactically any proposition, but it demands from the one who is going to criticize or offer another alternative, a thorough understanding of what he is valuing or questioning (Anderson and Pearson, 1984).

The effectiveness of reading depends on these two aspects being sufficiently developed. This has consequences:

- The active reader is the one who processes and examines the text.
- Objectives that guide reading: escape, information, work, interpretation of what is read (the meaning of the text is constructed by the reader).

Reading comprehension, as currently conceived, is a process through which the reader elaborates a meaning in his interaction with the text (Anderson and Pearson, 1984).

The understanding that the reader reaches during reading is derived from his accumulated experiences that come into play as he decodes the words, phrases, paragraphs and ideas of the author.

2.1.2 Types of reading.

Reading has different classifications if it is based on the student / reader's reading objective or the didactic objective of the reading activity, so the following types of reading can be established:

Silent reading: It is the ideal medium for the acquisition of most knowledge, therefore, it allows the development and strengthening of cognitive and intellectual abilities

Reading aloud: This type of reading develops positive attitudes towards reading. As the taste for listening arises, we also invite you to read, not only what has been heard, but other texts. The attitude of the one who reads demonstrates the desire to deliver what I prepare and that spreads the desire to read.

Expressive reading: Allows the improvement of the diction and intonation of the student / reader.

Choral reading: Seeks students to achieve the right rhythm and a vocal harmony similar to that of sung choirs.

Dramatized reading: It contributes to the integral formation of the students, because through it the skills achieved in both oral and expressive reading are reflected. In this type of reading each of the readers through their voice represents the characters.

Creative reading: Helps students learn to write, through paraphrasing, the change of endings, characters, place or time. In this way, reading and writing converge as a creative and inspiring exercise by allowing students to appropriate the work.

Extensive Reading: It is done with long texts more naturally outside the classroom, its purpose is the promotion of pleasures and habit towards reading, seeks a global understanding and has a close relationship with libraries.

Intensive reading: It is carried out with short texts, of didactic exploitation in the classroom, its purpose that development of micro-skills, focuses on the different types of understanding such as central idea, details, grammatical reflection, is usually included in the books of text.

Reading for pleasure: It is done for the pleasure of reading, regardless of the time it takes because the main thing is that the reader enjoys the experience, is usually linked to literatura or the news.

Critical reading: It is done in order to determine the ideas, characteristics and intentions of the text and the author, in some way it will not be digested or assumed as an absolute truth; contrasts can be made with other texts (Brown, 1994).

The European Framework of Reference (2001) considers these types of readings:

1. Global reading (skimming): looking through a text, settle for capturing the essence; thus, this is how one reads the newspaper.

2. Focused reading (scanning): look for one or more data included in a text, without paying attention to all the information, p. For example, when someone searches your phone book for a friend.

3. Extensive reading: read long texts, looking for a global understanding, p. eg, when reading a novel in the mother tongue (L1). This type is usually used to develop fluency.

4. Intensive reading: read texts to extract specific information, p. eg, when reading the textbook. This type is usually used in L1 to increase the correction.

5. Critical reading: read with the purpose of evaluating the text, analyzing the literary quality, the attitude of the author, etc. An example would be when the teacher reads an exercise written by the students.

2.1.3 Purpose of reading.

What do they do when you want to inform yourself of the meaning of a word? When you read the newspaper, do you prefer to check the news or sports articles? These questions point to the purposes that each person has when choosing a text to read. We all have different tastes and different ways of thinking, which also determines what we like, we are interested and need to read, and what we do not like or are not interested in reading.

Likewise, many times we look for texts to entertain us, to inform us, to learn, to follow instructions, etc., but this will also depend on each one of us. The following purposes can be applied in the language clases when one teaches English as a foreign language:

- Identify the receivers of a message.

- Apply or contrast the text content with your own life.

- Compare and contrast information between different parts of the text.

- Identify the phrases that justify an idea, an opinion assessment.

- Describe the relationship between two characters.

- Explain the relationship between characters.

- Order sequences, arguments and places.

- Prediction of what will happen and review or conformation of predictions.

- Consider possible alternatives to the actions of the characters and their consequences.

- Make direct inferences, based on what the text says, taking into account the different parts of that text and its relation to the whole.

- Deduce that one event is the cause of another.

- Establish the conclusion that lead to several reasons.

- Identify the generations of the text.

- Describe the generations of the text.

- Determine the referent of a pronoun or determinant.

- Check that we resort to ellipsis when telling things (a story, a movie, a process, a routine.

- Narrate in detail and thoroughly something simple to climb a ladder or write a name conclude on the need for ellipsis.

- Critically consider the content of the text.

- Take a stand before the representation of the reality shown.

- Evaluate the impact of some textual features.

- Evaluate the probability that descriptive events may actually occur.

- Analyze and describe how the author manages to elaborate an interesting ending, boost interest through narration, connect facts, objects, situations throughout the text.

- Determine the author's perspective on the subject, assess his position.

- Identify the intention or motives that move a specific character

- Contrast the content with rules of coexistence, aesthetics.

- Relationship of the evidence provided with the conclusion

- Deduce meaning from context

- Reflection on vocabulary: registration, wealth.

- Substitution of adverbs, adjectives, verbs and assess the result.

- Issues related to writing the text.

- Search for unknown words

- Identify time, time, moment specified in the text

- Search for synonyms of words in the text.

- Ask questions as if they were journalists.

- Determine main idea or topic.

- Mark a text with three colors, model by the teacher, in pairs or individually title or subtitles.

- Selection of the sentence that best picks up the meaning (paragraph, part, text)

- Summarize a text.

- Decide the best summary of a text.

- Keywords of a problem, your question.

- Parts: presentation, problem, solution, introduction, body, conclusion, etc. (depending on the text).

- Interpret and integrate ideas and information. Rework the text.

- Identify the intention or purpose of a text.

- Model how the selection of the answer is made in multiple choice questions.

- Make, comment, relate words to illustrations and / or labels on a drawing.

- Discuss the type of book that the text provided could contain.

- Make contextual inferences or the secquence of a story.

- Describe: main character scenario or atmosphere of a story

2.1.4 Background knowledge and schema theory.

2.1.4.1 Background knowledge.

They are ideas or previous knowledge. They are part of the set of knowledge that the student possesses and can hinder or facilitate the integration of new knowledge to existing ones. Background knowledge is the information that the individual has stored in his memory, due to his past experiences. It is a concept that comes from the meaningful

learning theory postulated by Ausubel (1963) therefore it also relates to cognitive psychology.

The schemes are the categories of knowledge (concepts, information, ideas) that are configured in the mind of the reader through experience. In addition to reading comprehension taking place, the reader learns certain ideas from the text and relates them to their acquired knowledge: with your schemes.

2.1.4.2 The scheme theory.

A scheme is an abstract structure of knowledge. This is intended to explain how prior knowledge of people affects understanding. The schemes consist of concepts that provide "slots" to be "filled in" with specific information. There are specifications of the type of information that each "slot" can "contain". To understand a message you need to activate or build a scheme that gives a "good" account of the objects and events described. Each segment of information can be placed in a "slot" without violating the specifications. All important "slots" must contain information. When a text does not contain information for a "slot" it can be "filled in" by inference.

Schema theory explains how the information contained in the text is integrated into the previous knowledge of the reader and influences its understanding process. Reading as the process by which the reader tries to find the configuration of specific schemes to explain the text in question.

In this way, the reader can understand a text only when he can find in his mental file (in his memory) the configuration of schemes that allow him to explain the text correctly.

When there has been no experience in a given subject, there are no schemes available to activate a given knowledge and understanding will be very difficult, if not impossible. These schemes develop and transform constantly. When new information is

received, the schemes are restructured and adjusted. Each new information expands and refines the existing scheme (Heimlich and Pittelman, 1991).

Understanding occurs so smoothly that we are not aware of the performance of our own schemes. In understanding, the ability to develop a scheme that accounts for the relationships between different elements is critical.

Understanding is a matter of activating or building a scheme that provides a coherent explanation of the relationships between objects and the events mentioned in the speech. Reading implies a more or less simultaneous analysis at many different levels, from textual to knowledge levels. Reading is conceived as an interactive process, it does not work with a specific and sequential order. The interpretation of the meaning of a text depends on both the analysis of the printed and the hypothesis of the reader. The processes that flow from the printed are called data-driven (or from the bottom to the top), while the processes that flow in the other direction are called from top to bottom or directed to the hypotheses.

2.1.5 Reading comprehension levels.

In recent years, the various investigations carried out at international and national level indicate that our country has serious difficulties regarding the reading comprehension of its students. Therefore, to improve reading comprehension in children, it is essential to develop levels of understanding. Work must be done rigorously on all four levels of the education system: initial, primary, secondary and higher.

In this study we will focus on 3 levels: literal level, inferential level and critical level.

Literal level.

It is a basic ability to work with students, as this will allow extrapolating their learning to the higher levels, also serves as the basis for achieving optimal understanding.

It is the recognition of everything that is explicit in the text (Neville, 2007). The teacher will encourage his students to:

- Identify details

- Specify space, time, characters

- Sequence events and events

- Capture the meaning of words and sentences

- Remember passages and text details

- Find meaning in words with multiple meanings

- Identify synonyms, antonyms and homophones

- Recognize and give meaning to prefixes and suffixes of habitual use, etc.

Through this work the teacher will be able to check if the student can express what he has read with a different vocabulary and if he does, it will be easy for him to develop the next level of understanding.

Clues to formulate literal questions.

- What…?

- Who…?

- Where…?

- Who are they…?

- How is it…?

- With whom…?

- For what…?

- When…?

- Which…?

- What is your name…?

Inferential level.

Inferential understanding is a process that presents the report of the previous knowledge of the reader, that is to say, the figurative language is recognized and identified, as well as the possibility of identifying the type of text (narrative, argumentative, expository) (Neville, 2007).

It is to establish relationships between parts of the text to infer information, conclusion or aspects that are not written. This level is of special importance, because whoever reads goes beyond the text, the reader completes the text with the exercise of his thought; therefore, teachers will encourage their students to:

- Predict results,

- Deduce teachings and messages

- Propose titles for a text

- Raise ideas force on the content

- Recompose a text varying facts, places, etc.

- Infer the meaning of words

- Deduce the subject of a text

- Prepare summaries

- Anticipate a different ending

- Infer logical sequences

- Interpret figurative language

- Develop graphic organizers, etc.

It is necessary to point out that if we make inferential understanding from a poor literal understanding, we will most likely have an inferential understanding also poor. Clues to ask inferential questions are:

- What would happen before ...?

- What does it mean...?

- Why...?

- As you might…?

- What other title ...?

- Which…?

- What differences ...?

- What similarities ...?

- What do you mean when ...?

- What is the reason...?

- What relationship will there be ...?

- What conclusions ...?

- What do you think…?

Critical level.

It implies an exercise in the evaluation and formation of the reader's own judgments based on the text and his previous knowledge, with subjective responses about characters, author, content and literary images. It is the elaboration of arguments to support opinions, this means that teachers promote a dialogue and democratic climate in the classroom.

Therefore, we must teach students to:

- Judge the content of a text

- Distinguish a fact from an opinion

- Capture implicit senses

- Judge the performance of the characters

- Analyze the author's intention

- Issue judgment against behavior

- Judge the structure of a text, etc.

- Clues to formulate criteria questions.

- You think it is…?

- What do you think...?

- How do you think that…?

- How could you rate ...?

- What would you do…?

- As you think…?

- How should it be ...?

- What do you think…?

- How about…?

- How would you rate ...?

- What do you think of…?

To sum up, we have described the three levels of reading comprehension that the Ministry of Education considers what every teacher should develop and every student should achieve. Literal understanding consists in understanding what the text says explicitly. Inferential understanding refers to understanding from clues provided by the text. Criterial understanding refers to evaluating the text related its subject, character, message, viewpoint etc.

2.1.6 Teaching reading classroom procedures.

The reading process is an internal, unconscious one, of which we have no proof until our predictions are fulfilled; that is, until we verify that the text is not what we hope to read (Solé, 1994). This process must ensure that the reader understands the text and can build ideas about the content by extracting from it what interests him. This can only be done through an individual, precise reading that allows you to move forward and

backward, that allows you to stop, think, recapitulate, relate the new information to the previous knowledge you have. You should also have the opportunity to consider questions, decide what is important and what is secondary. It is an internal process; It is imperative to teach.

Williams (1996) divides the process into three threads: pre- reading, while-reading and post-reading. There is a consensus among all researchers about the activities that readers carry out in each of them. Solé recommends that when you start reading you get used to answering the following questions at each stage of the process.

a) **Pre- reading:** Its purpose is to explore the previous knowledge of the reader, arouse interest in reading and make predictions about the text. Why am I going to read? (Determine the objectives of the reading). At this stage, the reader must:

- Practice reading aloud.

- Learn new words.

- Present a paper.

- Follow instructions.

- Review a writing.

- Demonstrate that it has been understood.

Also people read for accurate information as well as for pleasure.

b) **While-reading:** Its purpose is to read the reading, formulate hypotheses, predictions, conjectures and discover the meaning of the words according to the context. At this stage, the reader must:

- Make predictions related to the text and formulate hypotheses

- Ask questions related to the topic of the text you read

- Clarify possible misunderstandings related to the text

- Summarize the text

- Read again some parts that can be confusing

- Consult about possible doubts and misunderstandings in a dictionary

- Think out loud to ensure that everything is clear

c) **Post- reading***:* Its purpose is to understand the reading, which can be in its three levels: literal, inferential and criteria through schemes, organizers, summaries, double entry tables, etc. At this stage, the reader must:

- Make a summary from the text you read

- Make questions and answer them

- Use visual organizers

Considering reading as a constructive process involves using very different approaches to those we have been using to develop reading comprehension. It implies that we will be taught more isolated techniques of understanding and that we will stop checking reading comprehension, as it has been done. Because the reading as we mentioned above, is not: decode words from a text; answer questions after a literal reading; read out loud; always read alone and in silence; a simple word identification.

Johnson and Johnson (1986) have developed another procedure on how to teach reading, they recommend the following steps:

Step 1: Introduction.

The teacher evaluates students' prior knowledge about the strategy and explains the purpose of the strategy and its usefulness for the reading comprehension process.

Step 2: Demonstration.

The teacher explains, describes and models the strategy he wants to teach. Students answer questions and build understanding of the text.

Step 3: Guided practice.

Students read a fragment individually or in a group. They implement the strategy learned under the tutelage of the teacher. It is recommended to give students all the necessary practice until they can demonstrate that they dominate the strategy.

Step 4: Individual practice.

The student independently practices what they have learned with new material, either at home or in class.

Step 5: Self-assessment

The teacher asks students to self-assess their performance.

Step 6: Evaluation.

The teacher uses the data he collects from the work that students do on their own to evaluate the teaching and learning processes.

In other words, know if students dominate the strategies.

2.1.7 Types of texts.

One of the fundamental elements in the teaching of reading comprehension, are the texts, which are bearers of both cognitive, intellectual and emotional sense and can have different classifications.

The different types of text allow to develop a specific communicative function in each situation of daily life. For this reason, a large number of mechanisms can be found for the interpretation, understanding and production of texts.

According to gender, they can be classified as: narrative, descriptive, argumentative, expository / explanatory and conversational, this according to linguistic features and their dominant function. Taking into account the classification genre allows activating, determining and controlling the interpretations that can be given to each of them.

Scientific texts

For Grellet (1996) the scientific texts are:

Those that belong to the pure experimental sciences, which study the physical

realities of the world and are characterized by the search for general principles and

laws that have universal validity. On the other hand, the technical texts refer to

applied sciences in their technological and industrial aspects (p. 4).

They also have the purpose of transmitting knowledge, the development of

comprehension, analysis and synthesis capacities of the information that is explicit. These

texts are characterized by being precise, clear, verifiable, universal and objective, it should

be noted that they handle specialized terminology and are usually accompanied by graphic

representations.

If you are one of those people who has studied at the university, you will surely

have read a scientific text, which is a type of text that aims to show research progress. It

highlights formal writing, in which a technical language is used. The structure is

consistent, and the information must always be referenced.

Communicative texts

Its main purpose is to inform or communicate, it is characterized by being a fluid

and neutral language text with psycholinguistic influences, socio-linguistic development

and cultural level, typical of the language of communicators with presence Santiesteban

(2012) "of value aesthetic and aesthetic value as complementary elements of

communication" (p. 7). The communicative texts are of different expressive modalities

depending on the intention of the author. The communicative or journalistic texts can be

classified into three subgenres: informative, opinion and mixed.

Literary texts

Santiesteban (2012) explains that this type of text "has the presence of abundant stylistic resources and expressive means. These texts recreate images, it combines oral and written language, its purpose is to express the plasticity of language and its function is aesthetic" (p. 7). These characteristics allow the development of interpretation skills and understanding, because this type of texts in addition to allowing the decoding of the message in which they express the subjective and internal world of the issuer allow extrapolation with other contexts. We can find in this type the narrative and the argumentative ones maily. The narrative text is one that tells events, stories, stories, facts or myths, so it can be fictional or non-fictional. It is characterized by a sequence of events expressed by dynamic verbs and adverbs and spatial connectors such as: "and then", "first", "second", "third" ... For example: "First we packed our bags and then climbed into a taxi and we went to the airport. Thereafter…". The verbal form most used in this type of texts is the past. Usually past perfect but others are also used: he raised the salt shaker, lived in that home, had walked, was clear, said what he thought, etc. However, when dialogues are reproduced they are directly, that is, transcribing what the characters say to the letter, the most usual verbal form is usually the present: - Get out of here! Let me continue with my path! said the man.

The argumentative texts start from an assumption, in which a writing style is used that tries to persuade the reader, because the reasons for or against a certain "position" or "thesis" are stated. To achieve this, the text is usually started with an exhibition that helps to understand the arguments that are proposed. That is to say, it is necessary to put the reader in context before proceeding to expose the benefits or characteristics of the subject at hand. To add credibility, this type of text may contain bibliographic references that allow demonstrating its validity, but also reasoning of cause, of authority (that is, experts

in the subject) or of popularity (for example, all do), among others.

There are also, other types of text that can be used in developing reading skills. They are descriptive, expository,directive or instructive,legal,administrative,humanistic,advertising, journalistic,digital and many others that may dependo n the way specialists have classified thm.

Descriptive text

This type of text, called descriptive text, is intended to define something, be it an object, a person, an animal, a situation or a description of another type of text. It is also used to express feelings. The text usually revolves around the attributes of a thing and usually uses the pronoun forms of the third person.

There are two types of descriptive texts: a) Technical descriptive text: it is characterized by emphasizing the accuracy of the data, b) Literary descriptive text: the descriptions are more personal and it is the author who grants the intentionality.

Expository text

The purpose of this type of text is to explain. The expository text is oriented to expose subject but in which the author does not give his personal opinion, that is, he usually provides relevant facts and figures, but does not include his opinions. These types of text are often found in many textbooks such as those of a school or university subject. They usually include definitions, explanations, etc. The structure of these texts is usually very clear, which begins with an introduction to publicize the subject; development, which highlights the objective analysis, examples or data; and the conclusion, which summarizes the most important aspects of the subject at hand. Its purpose is to inform.

Directive or instructive text

The directive text encourages the reader to do something, so it is an instructive text that explains how to develop an activity or carry out an objective. In this type of texts, the

order is very important, as well as the logical order, with cause-effect relationships, and the order of more and less importance. An example of such texts would be an instruction manual.

Legal texts

They are texts used in the judicial field, which contain numerous technicalities, ancient terms (for example, from Greek or Latin) and a formal and conservative language. They are characterized by the logical and progressive ordering of the contents, and their content stands out for their objectivity, which aims to avoid erroneous or ambiguous interpretations. The sentences are in the third third person singular, impersonal and passive reflexes. Compared to other types of text, word repetition is common and, in fact, the key concepts in the document are often repeated over and over again to avoid ambiguity.

Administrative texts

Administrative texts are similar to legal ones. In fact, they are often called legal-administrative texts. However, they tend to be less rigid than legal ones. Certificates are an example of this.

Humanistic texts

Humanistic texts are those that deal with the theme of human relations (for example, philosophy or sociology), but which is not formal, as is the case with scientific texts.

Advertising texts

As the name implies, the content of these texts is advertising, and aims to persuade the reader to hire a service or make a purchase of a product. Copys and slogans are examples of this type of text.

Journalistic texts

Journalistic texts are those that pretend to inform, although they can also contribute opinion. Its objective is journalistic communication, and they can be found both in paper newspapers and on web pages.

Digital texts

New technologies have allowed our way of relating and communicating to have changed. This change has also affected the texts, which have a lot of power in the digital world. This type of text, for example, is what we can find in blogs or in digital magazines. The immediacy of the information that characterizes this medium and the ease of access to the content that can be found, makes the reader not read many of these texts in their entirety, but usually scan them to go directly to the information that interests them.

Although there are different typologies in the classes of texts, the importance lies not in learning them, but in recognizing them, because each text offers characteristics that allow applying various cognitive operations such as anticipation and interpretation, and allowing the student / reader that recognizes the clues that the same author uses to construct meaning and, if applicable, to interpret it on the other hand, attending to the structure of the text allows for a drastic improvement, which is possibly the only reading comprehension strategy that is used universally by all teachers: the formulation of questions (Solé,1998).

The language teachers should have some criteria to select textos for the language classroon. Another element that complements the teaching of comprehensive reading is the need to differentiate between the types of texts and the characteristics that they must possess, at the moment in which the teacher decides to choose a specific text for the teaching of comprehensive reading. In this regard, reading is one of the most important activities in the cultural formation of the human being, its effects include the intellectual,

educational and psychological activity of the subject (Lima, 2010). For this reason the choice of texts must be an intimate, responsible and affective process. We can consider the following requirements in the choice of texts by teachers:

Texts should be easy to understand, if the student / reader cannot understand vital information without looking up words or without giving them extra information, the activity will expand their vocabulary and previous knowledge, but it will be less useful as a means to improve their reading skills In this way the vocabulary that is handled must allow to infer the meaning from the context of the reading.

They must also transmit cognitive and altruistic elements that inspire their personality and, above all, the development of reflective and critical thinking.

They must be a carrier of truthful, up-to-date information, but also must respond to the needs and interest of the student / reader.

Teachers devoted to develop reading skills must keep a certain relationship with the context in which the student/reader develops, which will allow them to make anchors and activate the next development zone, facilitating the decoding process. This allows the reader to move within his/her own text and decode it as required: understand, interpret and incorporate the elements that appear in its collection of knowledge (Lima, 2010).

2.1.8 Reading comprehension strategies.

When a reader reads a text, he uses a wide range of reading strategies due to the diversity of problems he has to solve, such as lexical, syntactic, semantic, rhetorical, textual, pragmatic and sociocultural aspects (Van Dijk, 1980).

The practice of these strategies involves the cognitive and the metacognitive, which are characterized by Solé (2006) when she asserts that:

Their ability to represent and analyze problems and the flexibility to find solutions,

hence when teaching them, construction and use must be prioritized part of the

students of general procedures that can be transferred without major difficulties to multiple and varied reading situations (p. 60).

In the reading comprehension process, it is necessary to intentionally familiarize the child with a series of elements or strategies that allow him to achieve understanding, in this order of ideas, it is necessary to take into account what Valls (1990) cited by Solé in his *Reading Strategies* book,asserted when he affirmed that "reading comprehension strategies regulate the activity of people to the extent that they allow selecting, evaluating, persisting or abandoning different actions to achieve the goal we set ourselves" (p. 59), That is to say as Solé (2006) that they "are procedures of a high nature that involve the presence of objectives to be met, the planning of actions to achieve it, as well as their evaluation and possible change" (p. 59).

Calero (2011) established.

That reading comprehension strategies correspond to:

Metacognitive strategies, which are likely to be taught and describes them as thought processes, about the cognitive resources used by the student to appropriate these knowledge, such as planning, supervision and evaluation of skills put at the service of reading comprehension (p. 50).

Sánchez (2002) defined cognitive strategies as:

Processes through which knowledge is obtained. They are those that allow the individual to carry out internal processes to learn, they are those that operate directly on the information being processed. Cognitive strategies encourage learning as they constitute aids for thinking, these are activities or mental processes carried out by students (p. 112).

In this order of ideas, it is necessary to highlight that students who use metacognitive strategies are aware that they have cognitive strategies (learning strategies)

to achieve knowledge objectives. At the same time they have the capacity to control and self-evaluate the application of these strategies, that is, they are competent to make decisions when they find a difficulty in the process of understanding.

Also, they are able to self-assess their progress and propose proposals for improvement in the future.

In the practical exercise of teaching reading comprehension, there are moments and fundamental elements when structuring a didactic proposal.

- **Planning**

It is a procedure that allows actions to be taken to achieve the reading objective, that is, in this space the structuring of all procedures is carried out to carry out the entire process of understanding from the beginning to the end. Collins, Brown and Newman (1989) in Coll (1990) consider that "teaching planning should attend to four dimensions simultaneously" (p. 69).

The first dimension corresponds to the contents to be taught, from the point of view reading comprehension is taught strategic procedures to read autonomously and productively, the second teaching methods so that students can build their own knowledge and apply it in its context, third sequencing of the contents to help students make the greatest number of connections between what they already know with the new knowledge and fourth the social organization of the classroom where all the possibilities offered by the classroom for teaching the reading.

- **Capturing interest in reading**

One of the important elements to develop the process of reading comprehension in students is to awaken and promote their interests, this factor allows to generate an advance in academic performance, which must be implemented as experience in the process is gained reader, one of the key points is to be forming the gradual habit of reading with short

texts, easy to understand and above all not to be forced to read as an act of punishment but in a natural way, for pleasure and that attracts the student to appropriate and live reading with books of your motivation. These spaces must be generated by the mediator, that is, the teacher, who must be a lover of reading to convey this feeling or taste for reading to students, because it is known that they are formed by the example of the teacher.

- **Establishing the reading purpose**

Within the framework of reading comprehension we find that the purposes are elements for which students read, for this reason reading is used with different uses, in the case of school and in elementary school the reading is done for personal enjoyment purposes and for learning.

According to Mullis, Kennedy, Martin and Sainsbury (2006) reading comprehension focuses on two purposes within and outside the school context, "Reading as a literary experience; and reading for information acquisition and use" (p.17). With respect to the first one, it is carried out through the narrative literature of shared use and the second one is used in instructional texts. However, these purposes are not prevailing in reading, since they can depend on the tastes, interests and expectations of the students and these are very varied depending on each one of them, that is, most children focus on reading narrative and literary type. This reading class is becoming more important as students develop their reading skills and, progressively, are required to read to learn in different areas and curricular subjects.

- **Activating prior knowledge**

The concept is established by Ausubel, Novak and Hanesian (1976) in their theory of Significant Learning in the mid-twentieth century, for these authors the concept refers to "the knowledge that the student has in memory all related to the different experiences previously lived" (p.19).

Aisenberg (2000) called prior knowledge to:

The tools of assimilation of the school information and refers to the conceptions that

the student elaborates, differentiating himself from the knowledge taught. The

concept of prior knowledge collaborates with the necessary articulation between the

cognitive activity of the child in the process of learning historical knowledge and the

intervention of teaching these school contents (pp. 30-31).

In this sense, prior knowledge is a tool that the child has available to establish

meaningful relationships in their interaction with school information to be able to

reconstruct it conceptually. Assimilative frameworks are the hypotheses or theories that

the child develops by integrating historical information based on the relationships that he is

able to establish between them and the latter.

These assimilation frameworks refer to children's conceptions of the social world

built in their daily social interactions and the specific information that was acquired inside

and outside the school that could have a certain degree of organization to assimilate the

current ones. In other words, prior knowledge would work as if it were a scheme of

conceptual assimilation, with a certain degree of organization, in relation to a specific

knowledge of social and historical domain (Aisenberg and Kohen-Kohen, 2000).

From the didactic perspective, characterizing knowledge as prior does not refer to a

temporary condition, in the sense of being formed before interaction with school

knowledge (Aisenberg, 2000) it is the knowledge available to the student at that time, that

work in the cognitive interaction with the information to assimilate it by which they are

modified in the direction of the knowledge accommodated.

In the reading process, teaching strategies are distinguished that the teacher teaches

his students to acquire and use when reading independently, however, these require the

accompaniment of the teacher so that the student then applies them according to the type of text and its reading purposes. Among these strategies are:

- **Anticipating**

Fandiño (1985) cited that anticipation consists in "anticipating, before reading, what will happen in the book. It is an operation that uses imagination and personal experience. It can be used during reading; before an event, the child can be asked to anticipate its consequences" (p. 201). Working anticipation with students will facilitate the process of understanding, while anticipation allows you to anticipate the facts, then leading the reader to compare, contrast and verify information.

- **Inferencing**

The ability to understand some particular aspects of the text from the meaning of the rest consists of overcoming the gaps that for various reasons appear in the process of the construction of understanding (Cassany, 1997). The inference then allows to discover findings implicit in the texts, for which the reader puts into play what he has understood, his knowledge and in interaction with the new information clarifies the doubts and constructs meaning. Consequently, the inference leads him to draw his own conclusions from the readings he makes according to the need he tries to satisfy. On the other hand, to make inference is to collect facts a situation of the information that was presented and combine them with information or beliefs already have to draw conclusions, such as why someone responded in a particular way or how an event occurred.

- **Predicting**

According to Goodman (1996) prediction predicts and anticipates what comes like this:

When starting a syntactic structure, readers have some idea that it is a question, statement or order. They should know from the beginning of the word, phrase or

proposition, where it is likely to end. The prediction strategy makes the process flow

as the reader constructs the text and meaning (p.56).

Reading strategies act in interrelation, however, it is necessary to differentiate the

inference prediction. The prediction, in practice, is "an assumption that certain information

that is not available will still be at some point in the text" while the inference provides

information that is not explicit in the text (Bachman, 1990).

- **Confirmation**

    It is a strategy that is used to check both inferences and predictions, which leads to

generate interest in students and maintain motivation throughout the reading and especially

to promote understanding, to the extent that it allows identifying difficulties and guiding in

a way timely to overcome them.

    In addition, the reader must be constantly verifying if his predictions and inferences

are correct, for this he can use other data that appear in the text and the intellectual and

linguistic competence of the reader.

    According to Goodman (1996) making inferences and predictions implies:

    To assum the risk of not being accurate in the exercise, which is why it is necessary

    to verify the information created by the student before knowing the text to identify

    the extent to which their inferences and Predictions are congruent. The reader is

    always willing to contemplate the rectifying information. In general, confirmation

    must be made based on the significance of the text being prepared (p.57).

- **Hypothesizing**

    Within the reading strategy we find several elements that provide a lot of

information such as pre-readings, images, titles and covers; which significantly help

hypothetize clear concepts or ideas that the global idea of the text contains, a procedure

that leads to anticipate a possible initial event of the content from the information obtained.

This criterion allows to advance a more successful cognitive process to be better prepared to contrast and assimilate the new information, therefore, the student is much more receptive to understanding, otherwise it is much more difficult to understand with students who do not perform this activity. In such a way that these actions allow mental connections and operations to be carried out to be added to the cognitive system through thought processes that lead to the capacity for reflection, abstraction, deduction and the elaboration of hypotheses as Calero (2011) points out " that may be true or false and susceptible to exploration in the search for their truthfulness or applicability "(p. 67).

As the reading process continues, a confrontation of the hypotheses with the text is carried out to observe the veracity of the same, work that can be done collectively to generate a constructive debate and make a better conceptual interweave to win a greater understanding.

As Tarricone states (quoted by Calero 2011) "hypothetical-deductive thinking stimulates the connection between the student's previous knowledge with their cognitive experiences and usually becomes general to new learning situations" (pp. 67-68).

Within this process of reading, it is also important to hypothesize unknown words with different strategies to arrive at their meaning, as Calero (2011) states "with partial semantic clues strategically reconstruct the meaning of said word, in order to develop a hypothesis of its meaning" (p.302). This mechanism allows the student to establish a better interpretation since the knowledge of more words strengthens the lexicon and therefore the understanding will be much better.

In the same way it is important to keep in mind that in the process of reading the hypotheses allow to control the progress of interpretation and understanding; process carried out by experienced readers.

Baker and Brown (cited by Calero 2011) stated that:

They carried out an extensive review of the type of metacognitive strategies put into play by competent readers. They found that good readers build hypotheses about the text they read and control their interpretation before the new information that reading provides them. While striving to get meaning from the text, these readers put into play cognitive resources to control their understanding process. Also, their initial hypotheses are confirmed or discarded by new ones, and questions are asked to find the relevant answers (p. 88).

Within the educational context, particularly in the teaching of reading, it is necessary to put into practice the elaboration of hypotheses about the content because it allows the construction of new knowledge as well as Calero (2011) states "the information provided by the structural components of the text, places the task of reading comprehension in a reflective and strategic context" (p. 389).

- **Skimming**

    Nuttall (1982) has defined skimming as:

    Glancing rapidly through a text to determine its gist, for example in order to decide whether a research paper is relevant to our own work…or to keep ourselves superficially informed about matter that are not of great importance to us (p.49).

- **Scanning**

    Scanning is to find a 'match' between what the reader seeks and what the text supplies. In scanning, very little information is processed for long term retention or even for immediate action.

    Williams (1996) states that scanning is "reading for particular points of information. It is a selective reading, and its purpose is to achieve very specific reading goals" (p. 107).

Other reading comprehension strategies used by several researchers are the predictions of consisting of asking questions; understanding in answering those questions by reading, by attending to a speaker, by living every day, we are constantly asking ourselves questions. As we answer those questions, to the extent that we are not left with any uncertainty, we are understanding (Smith, 1990).

When we are going to read a text, the textual elements (of the text) and the contextual elements (of the reader) activate our knowledge schemes and without intending to anticipate aspects of their content. Hypotheses are formulated and predictions are made. About the text (How will it be?; How will it continue?; What will be the end?) The answers to these questions are found as we read. What has been anticipated, or said to happen, must be confirmed in the text and for this, it is necessary to look for the evidence in the text. It cannot be invented. In order to confirm our hypotheses, clues of all kinds will be sought: grammatical, logical and cultural, in order to verify the certainty of our forecast. When predictions are made, risks are run, since making a prediction does not imply accuracy in what is formulated.

When our student is asked to make hypotheses and make predictions, it is necessary to keep in mind that the student must feel confident that in the classroom he can take risks without the danger of being censored for venturing to make a prediction. The suggestions given below involve several of the types of strategies that must be carried out for efficient reading.

1) Pre-reading: Before you start reading.

2) Observation of the text: infer information from the author, the length, the year in which it was written, the index or table of contents, editorial comments, etc. (It is what you do when you are going to buy or decide to read a book).

3) Observation of the parts of the text (parts, chapters, titles, subtitles) and if the text is short, title, author and paragraphs.

4) Infer the central idea from the title and reading the first and last paragraph (skimming).

5) Verify this idea through the location of keywords that confirm it (scanning). It is necessary to assume what it is that we are going to read.

6) Establish the central idea of the text:

If the reading is superficial, just ask what the text is about. However, sometimes this is not so easy to determine. To do this, it deepens by analyzing the text. This is what you do when you read to learn: process information with an intention. What you read, contrast it with your previous idea as a result of pre-reading, you are probably right.

7) Reading by paragraphs: Proceed to read by paragraphs. If it is not understood in the first instance, relate what is captured with the preconceived central idea product of pre-reading and with our previous knowledge. It is learned when information is processed.

8) Help, organizing ideas: Build a graphic that organizes main and secondary ideas with their connectors, establish the type of functions of the connections, if there is internal coherence, the type of text according to its structure, and therefore, make inferences and assumptions of what is going to the type of information to be found, etc.

2.2 Teaching writing

2.2.1 Nature of writing for communication

Many communicative tasks have been incorporated into the classroom in order to achieve communication similar to real life environment as a goal. All these tasks have given the communicative approach a reason for being, because all of them provoke in the

student a need to communicate and create meanings, an essential condition that allows him to acquire the language through an internal process. In this direction, writing can be interpreted as a set of threads of thought, applied through mental operations with different types of strategies of the writer.

This interpretation has motivated many investigations, which reflects the general cognitive revolution, establishing a cognitive paradigm for the understanding of teaching and learning a foreign language as English in our context.

2.2.2 The written expression.

The importance that written expression has and has had in human development is unquestionable. Indeed, writing is a know-how, which is the domain of a set of operations that include planning, transcription, revision, among others (Salvador, 1997). Language as an instrument of communication, has basic and fundamental characteristics that define it and differentiate it from other communication systems.

Written expression is a complex activity, which requires the knowledge of a system of signs, an adequate psychomotor development and cognitively, the knowledge that is required to produce a text. In other words, the procedures to follow and mastery of strategies to build each type of text (Salvador, 1997).

Next, we analyze all the theoretical models that have offered a complete vision of the act of writing.

2.2.2.1 *The stage model.*

One of the most influential models on the written composition process was that of Rohman and Wlecke (1964) on the effect of prewriting exercises. These authors designed a linear composition model that consisted of the following stages: prewriting, writing and rewriting. This model was based on the fact that writing activity requires the practice of a series of phases such as planning, writing and text revision.

The main contribution of the stage model was to specify some of the processes that take place during the composition of a text. However, the model does not explain how the subject executes these processes, assuming a rigid sequence, which is not detected in reality.

2.2.2.2 The word processor model.

This model was developed by Van Dijk (1980) and was based on cognitive psychology. It describes the mental operations that explain the coding and decoding of the written language. It is involved in the comprehension of written and oral language, although it also contemplates some peculiarities of writing (Cassany,1997).

Three mental processes involved in the composition of texts. They are: 1) the recovery of the ideas that the person has stored in memory, 2) the reconstruction of those ideas based on the knowledge that the writer has about his world and 3) the elaboration of the creative and coherent text. In this way, memory in this model is very important, because it is through it that information is organized logically so that the writer writes and builds his text (Van Dijk, 1980).

2.2.2.3 The Hayes and Flower model.

The components of this model are: the context of the task, long-term memory and cognitive processes. In the long-term memory, the knowledge that the writer has about the composition is stored, through a certain structure. It refers to the knowledge that the writer has on the subject, on textual structures and on the audience. In the context of the task influence all those factors both social and physical that are involved at the time of writing. As for the cognitive processes involved in writing are planning, transcription and review. The model also relies on some basic assumptions such as: in the writing process several thought processes are involved, the processes are hierarchically organized and closely

related, writing is a process aimed at an objective, and in turn the writer can formulate new objectives during the process.

Salvador (2000) points out that this model also involves metacognitive processes. For this he mentions that "to perform the operations included in the aforementioned processes, the writer has to make decisions. The mental control of these decisions is called the meta-cognitive process. Its function is to direct the sequence of the process, promoting decision making" (p.18).

Writing is a communicative act that requires a social context and a physical environment, where the component of motivation, affectivity, cognitive planning, transcription and review processes, as well as memory is essential to generate written expression. All these cognitive, affective, social and physical factors must be taken into account at the time of written production (Delmastro, 2009).

2.2.2.4 The Scardamalia and Bereiter model.

The written composition model presented by these authors clarifies the proposal of the Hayes and Flower model. This model explains the processes that immature writers use and the processes that writers with experience in the field of textual production use. The model of Scardamalia and Bereiter represents a greater advance in the understanding of what writers do when they write and why different writers write in different ways (Scardamalia, 1986; Bereiter, 1992).

These authors state that the writing process cannot assume a unique processing model, but that different models must be taken into account in the different stages of the development of the ability to write. This is how they illustrate that the processes of a young student who is learning to produce texts are not the same as those of a mature writer, who already has some experience in this regard.

Two aspects appear in this writing model: The slope of saying knowledge and the aspect of transforming knowledge. The slope of saying knowledge (knowledge telling process) explains how the immature writer elaborates a text, from something known, without having to resort to a previous plan. In this case, the writer produces a mental representation of the task, then locates the indicators of the subject and the type of text that will facilitate the search in memory and the establishment of relations with other associated concepts (Scardamalia, 1986; Bereiter , 1992).

In the aspect of transforming knowledge (knowledge transforming process), on the contrary, it represents the process to which the expert writer is involved when trying to solve a writing problem. The composition process is conceived here as a complex problem-solving process due to the tension between the knowledge that is to be said and those of the text that are to be constructed (Scardamalia, 1986; Bereiter, 1992).

The two aspects characterize two different ways of describing the processes of written composition. Thus, according to what is presented in this model, some immature or less experienced writers in the process of written communication, reach only the aspect of saying knowledge; On the other hand, other more expert writers are moving towards transforming knowledge, although there is also the possibility of mixing these aspects to respond to the demands of the writing process.

2.2.2.5 Other models that explain the writing process.

It is important to mention in this section other theoretical models that have presented their contributions regarding the written composition process. These models include Berninger and Swanson, De Beaugrande's parallel stage model, and other models that start from a less cognitive and more sociocultural and contextual approach to writing.

Berninger and Swanson's model (1994) is focused on the freedom of the writer to choose against the limitations imposed by various factors throughout his personal

development. This model contemplates four conditions in the written expression. Among them are: linguistic limitations, cognitive limitations, contextual ones and limitations in neurological skills.

In the model of De Beaugrande (1984) which is called the parallel-stage interaction model (parallel-stage interaction model), the existence of several stages that are interactive and open until the end of the writing is described. This model does not speak of recursion in the process but of concurrence and cooperation between the components. Both the student and the teacher should keep in mind that it is a difficult task. It is also worth mentioning that the expert writer develops strategies that allow him to combine the different demands, but the apprentices focus on local levels of the text and in the vast majority of times levels like the content are neglected.

There are also other models of written composition. These models also start from the cognitive, but to explain the acquisition of the written composition, they fundamentally start from the role that the social environment plays. These authors react to the model of Hayes and Flower (1980) making several criticisms. Among some of them, the processes in the composition are not uniform, but vary depending on the task, context, audience and purpose. They also criticize that little attention is given to the context where writing takes place and the age of the subjects to name a few.

In general, these models give more importance to the social context. Well, they express that the written language is a sociocultural construction whose development is linked to human beings, for their communication patterns and for the use made of the written language in the different activities of daily life. Most of these authors criticize the model of Hayes and Flower (1980) for not giving it the importance of the social context in the cognitive.

2.3 Developing writing skills

Nunan (1996) argues that it is not easy to achieve mastery of writing even in the mother tongue despite the many years dedicated to the development of this skill. It is to be considered then, that if the development of written expression in the mother tongue becomes difficult, students will see with greater difficulty the mastery of the expression written in a second language. This lies primarily in the discomfort that students manifest at the time of writing.

It is also worth mentioning that, over time, oral language has been given more priority than written. The latter is considered more complex due to the number of lexical words used in it, the grammar is more formal and because of the temporal and physical distance that exists between the sender and the receiver. Due to all this, more attention should be given to the logical organization of information since the recipient cannot ask for clarification (Nunan, 1991; Tribble, 1996).

According to what Tribble (1996) mentions, learning to write is not only a matter of developing certain strategies, but also implies learning a series of new cognitive and social relationships. It is also necessary to take into account what the purpose of the text is, what it is that is to be expressed, and to whom it is addressed. That is, the characteristics of the receiver of said text.

According to Canale and Swain (1980) to write correctly and effectively, the four components of the communicative competence mentioned above in this investigation must be mastered (grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discursive competence and strategic competence). In the same way, the writing process must follow three phases according to what Pincas (1982) exposes, emphasizing that the first phase is to familiarize yourself with a type of text that can be worked on simply by making reading comprehension. The second phase consists of conducting guided exercises that introduce

the student to the writing process; and the third phase is that of creativity and production by the student. This phase must be related to the previous ones, but in the end it manages the student to make his own writing.

Similarly, Tribble (1996) mentions several elements that the writer must take into account when making textual production. Among them, the knowledge of the subject to be written, the social context of the recipient, the lexicon, the syntax, the cohesion, the spelling and other aspects of the linguistic component, and the knowledge of the writing process stand out. In summary, the writing process is framed by several aspects of vital importance for the writer to issue his message appropriately and effectively highlighting that written language is an essential instrument for the development of thought.

2.3.1 Approaches to teaching writing.

When teaching writing, it is important to consider the choice of a certain approach to ensure that writing is done effectively. In teaching / acquiring written production skills, three approaches are distinguished: one based on the form or text, another based on the writer and a third based on the reader (Tribble, 1996).

2.3.1.1 Text centered approach: product.

This approach is known as the product approach and is focused on the text as a product. It is based on a model text that is analyzed and serves as the basis for a task that consists of writing a text similar to the model. Hence, some authors describe it as models approach (Tribble, 1996).

The teaching of written production based on this approach has a special interest in the linguistic resources available to the writer to produce a text. Special emphasis is placed on the organization of the text, its structure, cohesion, and various grammatical elements, although it is not reflected in the purpose of the writing, in the reader or in the expectations of the speech. Teaching to write from this approach makes students aware of the rhetorical

strategies that are relevant at the time of writing, but often the context and specific purposes of the text are forgotten (Hyland, 2002).

2.3.1.2 Approach centered on the figure of the writer: process.

This approach highlights the figure of the writer. It is known as the process approach and analyzes how good writers face the writing process to create methods that help students acquire skills in the composition process (Tribble, 1996). This author suggests four stages in the process. The first is the prewriting, where the task is specified and the work to be done is planned, the second is the composition, where the text is written, the third is the revision that takes into account the timely information and the reader, and the fourth It is the edition that allows you to review grammar, vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, etc.

Many authors mention the advantages of this approach in the teaching of writing, because it takes into account the creativity of the writer and because it also emphasizes cognitive aspects, transforming this whole stage of reflection, into sentences and paragraphs, where write and constantly review the drafts made in this process until you reach the final text.

|However, it seems that there are also authors who criticize this approach because it offers an incomplete view of the complexity of cognitive activities involved in the written production process (Hyland, 2002). By focusing this approach on the sender of the message as an independent figure, written production is not recognized as a social activity, the importance of context is ignored, and communication in real contexts that is relevant in the writing process is not contemplated.

2.3.1.3 Focus on the figure of the reader: gender.

The third approach is based on the figure of the reader or receiver of the message as a fundamental reference in the writing process (Tribble, 1996; Hyland, 2002). According

to these authors, writing is an act of social relevance in which writers must keep in mind the context in which they are writing. The context has restrictions for what the writer writes and for the way he expresses ideas. This approach is based on the idea that the writer must select his words to engage with others and present his arguments and ideas in the way that makes the most sense for those who will read his writing (Hyland, 2002). It is the social practice and not simply the text, which makes possible the gender and the social purpose of a communicative act influences the textual choice of the writer, taking into account that all the terms or expressions in the written language vary according to the social purpose of the text

According to Hyland (2002) in this approach there are three aspects that are "writing as social interaction, writing as social construction and writing as power and ideology" (p.34). In the first case, writing becomes a process of social interaction between the reader and the writer first because the writer produces a text assuming what the reader knows and expects and secondly because the reader predicts a text according to what he assumes about the objective from the writer. The second aspect considers that writing is a social act and that the text conveys certain meanings only within the community for which it has been written and the third aspect emphasizes that the most important of the social context are the power relations that exist in it and the ideologies that maintain these relationships.

2.4 Classroom procedures for writing

According to the approaches of the cognitive models, the cognitive processes that should be activated in the process of written expression and that according to García (2003) are important at the time of the written composition and that many times the students do not have in mind when writing, and therefore it is considered important and necessary to teach students strategies to improve their texts.

2.4.1 The planning of writing.

The previous mental planning or process is characterized by the production of ideas, search, selection and organization of the pertinent information for the development of the task, in addition to the representation of the subject for whom it is written, the subject and the purpose of the writing. In this process the writer thinks what he is going to write and prioritizes the objectives. This process also includes aspects such as the auditorium, the selection of ideas, the registration of ideas, the intention, among other aspects (García, 2007).

Hayes and Flower (1980) describe this process as the most complex and the one that needs the most resources because what the writer thinks is at stake, then reflected in what he has written. When someone presents difficulties in this process, he writes a text that does not respond to the needs of the audience, the theme to be developed and the textual structure and this occurs because the subject may not have adequate strategies to search for the information, he does not know the audience and does not know how to organize the contents within the structure of the text (Meneses, Salvador, Ravelo, 2007; Mongelos, 2000).

According to García (2003) a good writing requires effective planning and this in turn requires the development of four sub-stages that are pre-writing, draft, revision and editing. In pre-writing, for example, everything that is done before writing a draft such as thinking, taking notes, brainstorming, among others, is taken into account. The draft is given when ideas are translated into sentences and paragraphs. At this stage you have to concentrate on explaining and supporting ideas and connecting them to each other. The review process is very important for effective documents. The document focuses on the reader and finally in the edition things like grammar, spelling and punctuation are verified.

2.4.2 The process of writing.

This process refers to the writer's abilities to develop ideas and translate them through written language. This process requires that the writer have mastery of the linguistic component as well as the syntactic, semantic and pragmatic conventions (Hayes and Flower, 1980). In the development of this process the writer must then face various demands in the proper use of the written language and this is where the complexity of the process lies, because the writer must transform an idea into a written expression where it is reflected in the possible what was in mind.

As mentioned by Serrano and Peña (2003) the writing of a text does not arise at once, but it is a work that requires mental effort and that at the same time other processes such as the elaboration of drafts in which different linguistic and structural aspects are considered and reviewed until they reach the version that satisfies the writer. According to what these authors mention, it is important to help students understand that in the writing process several drafts are required according to the recipients and the objectives of the text and that to reach the final version where it is reflected What is really meant, we must make many times changes in the wording of words, phrases and even paragraphs.

2.4.3 The review process.

In this process the writer has the ability to analyze the written text and modify aspects in which he perceives some error in relation to what he had previously planned (Scardamalia and Bereiter, 1986). These authors highlight in this process the importance of comparing the written text with the text designed to detect discrepancies between them, diagnose the cause of the discrepancy and change the text by adding or deleting words if necessary.

In this process, the coherence of the text is reviewed according to the linguistic rules, taking into account the spelling, morphology and syntax, the lexicon, the

punctuation and, in short, make a review of the content to detect if what has really been reflected and reviewed the structure of the paragraph where ideas should be organized properly so that they will not confuse the reader and analyze if what has been written is suitable for those who will read it.

It is then at this stage that what is written is reviewed before it is concluded and it is verified that the text communicates what is really meant to be expressed as planned. This process allows the writer to prepare a better quality text since it allows him to read it at the same time as he edits it or makes improvements to it. That is, it allows the writer to review both conceptually and linguistically, to then publish it.

On the other hand, Harmer (2007) describes the development writing in English as a foreign language as a component of a spiral movement containing several stages. These stages are:

1) Pre-writing, or planning stage: includes the selection of the topic and the organization of the ideas to include.

2) Identification of the reasons for writing: includes the identification of the purpose, which gives the unit to the production.

3) Audience identification: the importance of knowing who is going to read the writing influences linguistic-discursive decisions and form.

4) Find the ideas: it implies the selection of the arguments to be used through triggers, for example images, whirlwind of ideas, information search, among others.

5) Writing: refers to the writing of a first draft, with the focus on the organization and coherence of ideas.

6) Review: includes the first socialization of production before teachers and / or peers with the objective of looking again at what has been written to improve it.

7) The emphasis of this stage is not the mechanics of writing but its content.

8) Rewriting: it implies retaking the work already commented and its rewriting based on the suggestions and comments you have received.

9) Correction and editing: according to White and Luppi (2010) "there may be a new instance of review and subsequent rewriting selected from the scope of written production" (p. 20). This stage can be repeated several times if necessary. The edition includes the verification of linguistic aspects (grammar correction, use of appropriate vocabulary) and the mechanics of writing (spelling, capitalization and punctuation).

10) Publication: It implies the presentation of a final copy for evaluation.

The complexity of the writing processes themselves increases due to the demand for time needed for their implementation in the classroom.

Chapter III

Testing written communication

3.1 Conceptualization of testing

3.1.1. What is testing.

Testing belongs to the world of evaluation and assessment, but these words that are commonly used have their own particularities.

According to Thornbury (2006):

Testing is a form of *assessment*. It can happen at any stage of the teaching/learning process. At entry, learners are often given *placement tests* in orde to ascertain their level. They may also be given some kind of *diagnostic test* in order to identify their particular needs (as in needs analysis). In order to monitor the learning process, learners may then be given periodic tests during their course (*progress tests*), and at the end of the course (*achievement tests*). These are called *formative* and *summative* *tests*, respectively (p. 227).

In other words, when testing, a teacher applies a test that can also be an evaluation or an exam that is done for someone to demonstrate their knowledge and skills on a certain subject: "My son got an eight in the grammar test", "I have to give the driving test to get me renew the license", "This weekend I will not be able to leave: on Monday I have a chemistry test and I need to study to pass". Therefore, a test determines the academic

progress of the student population, as well as the popularity tests to have an acceptance among student groups. Many companies often require their candidates to pass a series of proficiency tests, examinations of various natures (both technical and medical and psychological) that aim is to determine if an individual has the necessary conditions to perform the job to which he is running.

On the other hand, in the words of Thornbury (2006):

Assessment refers to the different ways of collecting information about learner's progress and achievement. One of these ways is by testing the learner, but testing and assessment are not necesaritly the same thing. Assessment may include informal procedures such as those carried out by the teacher in the course of a lesson. Teachers, for example, can assess their learners by listening to what they say in pairwork, and collecting examples of error for subsequent feedback……Assessment is also distinguished from evaluation, which is concerned with evaluating the effectiveness of the overall course of programme, rather than the progress of individual learners on it (p.18).

That everyone who is involved in language education is closely related to the processes of assessment and evaluation is true.

3.1.2 Definition of testing reading.

There is no doubt about the complexity involved in the measurement of reading comprehension when testing it. Knowledge about the interactive nature of the processes involved in it prevents a simple answer to this problem. The attempt to establish hierarchies that classify the skills involved in comprehension has not been successful, so that understanding is still evaluated as if it were a series of processes that, for most reading specialists, do not represent globally comprehension.

This form of evaluation of reading comprehension is based, in general, on the use of product measures. This type of measure seems to assume that understanding is the result of the reader's interaction with the text and they focus more on the final product of the reading than on the process followed by the reader during it. In this type of evaluation, a short text is often used followed by questions that are related to it.

What kind of tests can be carried out so that an evaluation that is characterized by being external and timely obtains the best results in the shortest possible time and interfering as little as possible in the daily routine of the centers?

3.1.3 Reading testing techniques.

Some authors point out that the most appropriate approach would be to use the different approaches to measures available since, in their opinion, each method measures only partial aspects of reading comprehension. In this way, the combination of several types of measures will give a clearer view of that capacity.

Empirical research has only provided ambiguous evidence about the fact that, for example, tasks with elaborate questions measure skills clearly differentiated from those that measure tasks with multiple-response questions. Among the different product measures that can be used are those that we develop below (Benitez, 2007).

Free remembering.

This type of measure is obtained by asking the reader to read a text or a series of texts and then evoke the texts read. It is one of the most traditionally used procedures to verify the acquisition of information. The fidelity and precision with which what has been read is reflected in what has been written will be, in this case, a test of understanding since the production of a message demands, as it is obvious, the previous understanding of it (Smith, 1990).

This procedure has the advantage that its application is easy. However, this is offset by the difficulty posed by the interpretation of this measure. In this sense, there has been little agreement between the different authors about the procedures that must be used when scoring the protocols.

The student has to understand the text and then must be able to express what is understood for another person (the evaluator) to read. The understanding of the text written by the student achieved by this evaluator will be the determinant when granting a grade. It is a chain composed of three links. What the evaluator interprets must coincide with what the evaluated student has written and this, in turn, is associated with their level of understanding of the text read. This could be the most significant limitation that affects the procedures for assessing comprehension from the elaboration of texts by those who are supposed to have understood the initial text. All these factors mean that this type of measure must be interpreted with caution.

Polling questions.

A variety of evocation or free recall procedures consist of asking a series of probing questions to locate the information that the reader may have stored after reading the text. The use of this procedure presents some problems. The first is that there is no method to generate appropriate questions that is valid for all texts. The second is that the use of these polling questions does not guarantee that all the information that the reader has collected from the text has been exhausted. It is also unclear whether there is a qualitative difference between the understanding of the information freely invoked and that obtained through probing questions, or if the difference is related to the level of information retrieval. In addition, this technique consumes a great deal of time, and its administration and correction require practice and training.

Open questions.

Open questions allow to obtain different information from that obtained with free evocation, since these questions facilitate a type of processing of stored information other than purely memorial. Thus, for example, the good reader may make certain inferences during the reading that the bad reader may not ask if the probing questions do not suggest that they may be useful.

Questionnaires.

When making a questionnaire, it is assumed that, since the reading comprehension cannot be directly observed, the student must be asked to perform some type of task that indicates the degree of understanding achieved. This task is usually to read a text and then answer a series of questions about it.

Different models of questionnaires have been used in which different types of questions that have been used. Each of them intends for the student to develop a different set of skills that also allow the collection of information of a different nature.

True / False ítems.

Questions with true / false items present the advantage that they do not require the use of production-related skills. However, they present other problems that must be kept in mind. In the first place, when scoring these tests, it is necessary to eliminate the possibility of being successful by chance - and the probability of doing so is around 50%. Chance is not always an easy factor to eliminate because you can never know why the reader has responded correctly or incorrectly. In addition, in this type of test, the reader must carry out a "matching" process that is determined by the characteristics of the question. Thus, when the superficial structure of the question is equal to that of the original text, the process does not entail much difficulty.

Multiple choice questions.

One of the most commonly used procedures to assess reading comprehension is the use of multiple choice questions of alternatives. In these cases, students are provided with a relatively short text followed by several questions that, in turn, have possible answers from which the student must choose the one he considers correct. Although the problem that we point out when talking about other types of questionnaire persists, since the use of questions induces the reader to carry out a processing that otherwise might not have taken place, the fact of providing a variety of alternatives diminishes its impact.

Regarding the limitations of this measurement procedure, one of the main ones is that only one answer is considered correct, although recent advances in the study of reading comprehension show that it is possible for a creative reader to go beyond conventional implications of the text and draw inferences that will be considered incorrect if only one of the answers is accepted as valid. This problem makes the construction of such tests not an easy task.

Other problems of product measures.

The product measures for the evaluation of reading comprehension present problems such as, for example, the determination of texts. It does not seem appropriate that it is chance that determines the texts to be used to assess the reading comprehension of the students, since what is interesting to find out is how far the reader is able to reach when making inferences and establishing relationships between the information that you already have and what the text provides.

Regarding the comprehension tests, there are no rules to generate the questions that should be included. Currently, some authors have tried to develop systems that allow classifying these questions through the propositional analysis of the text and the subsequent analysis of the sources of information required to answer.

3.2 Testing writing skills

Testing is the action by which we will assess whether the objectives proposed in the program have been achieved or not, and then decide which components or aspects within it we must modify or maintain to achieve the achievement of these objectives. The evaluation of the program must be globalized, continuous and formative. To carry after the evaluation we will have to take into account the following aspects:

- **What and how are we going to test?**

    The aspects to be evaluated will be the fulfillment of the established objectives and the acquisition of the learning of the contents proposed in the programming.

    Thus, we will check if these have been achieved through the criteria of evaluation formulated in the institution. For example, some evaluation criteria could be the attitude in the classroom, participation in carrying out activities, perseverance, learning vocabulary, cooperation with classmates, etc.

    The evaluation will be carried out by direct observation and analysis of homework, that is, the teacher will evaluate the activities carried out in the student's notebook. In addition, the teacher will have a record in his notebook to record attitudes both positive as negative of the students.

- **When to test?**

    We can distinguish three types of evaluation:

    a) **Entry test**, in which we will observe the previous knowledge of the student to see what level they have and if we have to make adjustments to the program.

    b) **Progress test**, which will be carried out throughout the program.

    In it we will monitor if students are able to achieve the objectives proposed.

    c) **Final Test**, at the end of the project or program we will evaluate if the students have been able to achieve the objectives proposed in it by correcting of all the

activities carried out and reflected in the notebook or portfolio. The teacher will review all the activities of this and will give a critical judgment.

Finally, one of the factors that interest teachers most is the evaluation of the over all program.

Cassany (2012) proposes to teachers at the time of correcting the writing of our students:

- Correction of what the student can learn.

- Short time between the correction and the production of the text.

- Correction of previous versions of the text: drafts, schemes.

- Report of the inaccuracies and that they look for the solution.

- Concrete and practical instructions.

- Time in class to read and comment on your corrections.

- Dialogue with each student.

- Sample tools for self-correction.

- Teaching use of the correction.

It is necessary to know at all times what we want to correct and make them active participants in this correction, working in groups, giving them clear instructions with which they can correct (always starting from what they already know). In short, the teaching-learning process of the composition process does not differ excessively from that of other aspects of language.

3.3 Process of testing in written skills

Writing or written expression is one of the four skills of English, along with reading (reading), oral expression (speaking) and listening (listening). Based on Hall (1989) language is a resource for making / constructing meanings. Language is functional, that is,

it allows us to interact with others, express our opinion to the world, think about something and make sense of it; and provides us with tools to create spoken and written texts.

The texts can be as long as a novel or as short as a single word or statement (as long as they have specific meaning, intention and context). In turn, the texts can be: oral (debate, speech, interview...), written (diary, curriculum, novel...) or visual (a picture, a sign) (Harris, 2003).

The social model of the written expression in English is based on the following postulates:

- Written expression is a part of language.

- Written expression is a social practice.

- Writers write in social situations and cultural contexts that shape their writing.

- The written expression is evaluated in different ways depending on the situation and the context.

- Written expression is a process.

- Written expression is a product.

- Written expression develops in parallel with reading (reading).

The use of language is a social activity, since through this we are able to interact with others, express our ideas or thoughts and archive messages or conclusions of our day to day.

When writing the shopping list, taking notes in class or writing in our journal. We use language, more specifically writing. According to what we want to write we will use some guidelines or others, that is, when writing a story we will start by putting a title and then develop the introduction, the knot and the outcome. However, to write a recipe, we will write the name of the dish we are going to cook, its ingredients and its development step by step.

We must also consider the context of the situation when choosing how we are going to use the language. For this we will have to take into account several aspects: what, who and how.

1) What: refers to the topic or content we are going to deal with.

2) Who: refers to the members who are going to participate in this interaction, taking into account the role that each one plays and the relationship that exists between them. For example: a student will not speak in the same way to his teacher as to his classmate. With the teacher he will use formal language, while with his partner he will use a more colloquial one.

3) How: refers to the type of language we will use (written, oral, body or facial expressions, etc).

3.4   Analysis of the written expression

As we are native speakers of Spanish, it is necessary to clarify that there are important differences between English and Spanish that condition a form different to teach reading in both languages.

In English, each grapheme has different pronunciation; hence the first step for children to learn to read is the teaching of phonetics. Another important aspect is the learning of writing is that it goes hand in hand with that of reading. While children read also learn to write, because when they are they practice reading they also develop the recognition of graphemes, so they learn how words are written.

This reinforces the learning of vocabulary, and in addition, it will help them later when putting into practice the written skill, since they will be able to make use of the words acquired visually during the reading.

It is convenient to highlight the importance of motivation as one of the factors that they condition the learning of writing in children. The stimulation that they receive at

home from their families determines the interest and desire to learn within the classroom. Thus, parents who motivate their children to write, cause greater performance in their learning process, thus increasing their interest in improving their level of written expression.

Hence we can also observe different levels of writing among students of the same class. In these cases, the teacher must take specific measures so that students who have a lower level of writing get to match their classmates.

Written production is a long and complex process because it does not arise naturally as oral language. On the contrary, it needs the learning of a series of phases that compromise motor processes such as the generation of ideas and the transcription to a text, meaning of words, the syntactic and grammatical construction of sentences and paragraphs, the purpose of the text, cohesion and coherence framed in a logical-semantic structure according to social reality. Its improvement depends on the permanent practice and feedback that begins in the school stage and continues until professional and university education. For this reason, the need arises to begin with the teaching of prewriting in children as it is the basis for written production, which must be perfected over time taking into account all these subprocesses to achieve an adequate written text (Bazerman, 2013).

As for the organization of the text, coherence and cohesion are found as necessary parts. Van Dijk (1980) says that coherence is responsible for linking the central idea and secondary ideas to make sense of the text. On the other hand, cohesion according to Pessoa (2010) and others, take into account the microlinguistic aspects to maintain the topic of discourse and macro-linguistics for the global semantic structure.

In cohesion the syntactic aspects are analyzed with the use of conjunctions, prepositions, adverbs and connectors, which is one of the most used linguistic resources of semantic relation.

Finally, the text must have a structure which will allow integrate and sort the information. Therefore, the title, the introduction, the textual body and the end. All of them concatenated with clear ideas, understandable and complemented with examples and appropriate punctuation. It should be emphasized that the text must be related to the reality of the learners.

3.5 Rubrics for testing writing

As for the rubric, thought that it was best to work with holistic scales, which lend themselves more to a subjective correction and are rather proper in the initial stages of learning. However, it was decided to design an analytical rubric, since starting from B1, analytical evaluation criteria must be written that allow establishing with greater precision both what the learner is capable of doing and the way in which he does it.

Table 2

Adaptation and content

Qualitative score	Crieria
A	The text is clear and precise, and meets all the requirements, responding efficiently to the proposed communicative situation, follow the instructions and the length of the text.
B	The text is clear and sometimes deviates from the suggested situation. It does not include the title.
C	The text is simple and meets all the requirements, responding efficiently to the proposed communicative situation, following the instructions and the length of the text.
D	The text is basic and does not meet some of the requirements (it moves away from the objective of the communicative situation, introduces irrelevant information, is shorter than required…).
E	The text is very basic and does not meet the requirements.

Source: Own authorship.

Table 3

Structure

Qualitative Score	Criteria
A	The text is consistent and well structured: Demonstrates proper control of the elements to organize and connect your ideas. Synthesize information, mark the relationship between ideas and plan your speech very well. Use punctuation marks and distribute paragraphs consistently.
B	The text is consistent and structured: Demonstrates limited but appropriate control of connection elements. Synthesize information, mark the relationship between ideas and plan your speech well. Use punctuation marks and distribute paragraphs appropriately.
C	The text presents some problems in the structure: In some of its parts, the presentation and organization of ideas are confusing. There is misuse of pronouns and some ideas are not well connected. Some inaccuracy in the use of punctuation marks.
D	The structure is somewhat confusing and it may be necessary to reread these confusing parts of the text: There are problems in the organization and distribution of ideas. There are problems in the relationship between the parts of the text. In some cases, punctuation marks are missing or used incorrectly.
E	The text presents serious problems in its structure (in the ordering of ideas and in the relationship between parts of the text), and in the use of punctuation marks. It is necessary to reread the text continuously in order to interpret it.

Source: Own authorship.

Table 4

Grammar

Qualitative score	Criteria
A	The text shows a very good grammatical control and morphological, syntactic or spelling errors are typical of an advanced level.
B	The text shows a good grammatical control and, although it presents some morphological, syntactic or spelling errors, these occur mainly in structures that are being studied, but are not serious or affect their understanding.
C	The text presents simple grammatical structures. Basic errors appear frequently and / or systematically, even if you understand what you want to convey.
D	The text presents serious grammatical errors that make understanding difficult and require a rereading of some parts of the text.
E	The text presents numerous errors that require continuous rereading and, even, it may be impossible to understand the writing.

Source: Own authorship.

Table 5

Vocabulary

Qualitative score	Criteria
A	The text presents a correct and precise vocabulary, with a certain variety and richness.
B	Some inaccuracies or slight inaccuracies in the use of vocabulary appear, but these do not affect the comprehension of the text.
C	There are inaccuracies in the use of vocabulary that may affect the comprehension or require a rereading of specific parts of the text. There are some literal translations.
D	There are inaccuracies in the use of vocabulary that make understanding difficult and require a continuous rereading of the text. The literal translations are constant and the vocabulary is redundant, little varied and / or poor.
E	There are numerous errors in the use of vocabulary that impede the understanding of the text.

Source: Own authorship.

Chapter IV

Didactic application

Real life reading, a skill that is defined as the ability to read quickly, accurately and with

the appropriate expression, intonation and pronunciation, lies mainly in its strong

correlation with reading comprehension. Each basic component that contributes to the

development of reading fluency has a clear connection with the understanding of a text.

Among these components we highlight, firstly, the precision and decoding of words,

secondly the automation in word recognition, and thirdly the appropriate use of prosodic or

suprasegmental elements that contribute to reading and even understanding a text such as

accent, duration, tone or intonation and expression. To arrive at this stage we need to

follow a methodology for teaching reading. I decided to follow what Eddie Williams

proposed in his seminal work *Reading in the language classroom*, where he clearly

explained the secquences of pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading, the model that I

took into account to prepare my lesson plan.

Lesson plan

I.   General information:

1.1 Institution: Jesus Niño Primary School

1.2 Room : 6 th "B"

1.3 Teacher: Ms. Mary Cruz Canchasto Cardenas

1.4 Lesson Title: Teenagers Daily Routine.

1.5 Date: December 23rd , 2019.

II.   Objective:

The student should be able to understand written texts literally and inferentially.

III.   Teaching materials and resources:

Visual aids, worksheets, etc.

IV.   Teaching procedure:

Stages	Activities	Techniques	Time
Pre-reading	T introduces herself and presents a flashcards about teenager´s activities and asks Ss: What are they doing? Vocabulary: Daily routines - Wake up - Go to school - Read books - Use social networking - Go to the movies - Go out with their social groups	Lead in, image, worsheet, etc.	Aprox 3´
While-reading	T gives Ss a worksheet and asks them to read. After that T asks Ss to do the exercises 1 and 2. Then, T asks Ss to compare their answers in pairs. Then,T checks the answers as a whole class.	Worksheets practice (See appendix)	Aprox 2´ Aprox 3´
Post-reading	T asks Ss to make their own daily routines in 4 sentences by using the reading text as a model.	Worksheets practice (See appendix)	Aprox 5´
Homework	T delivers an extra sheet where Ss will bring for the next class about his/her best friends routines.	Notebooks.	Aprox 2´

V. Evaluation

Teacher will assess the process of reading comprehension taking into account formative and summative criteria.

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Conclusions

1. Written communication comprises the development of reading and writing skills in the process of learning English as a foreign language.

2. Reading is the multifaceted ability to understand a written text so reading is a process of interaction between the reader and the text, the process by which the former tries to satisfy the objectives that guide his reading. It consists of relating, criticizing or overcoming the ideas expressed in a text.

3. Among the types of reading we have familiarized with silent reading, reading aloud, expressive reading, choral reading, dramatized reading, creative reading, extensive reading, intensive reading, reading for pleasure, global reading, focused reading and critical reading that work according to the purposes of the reader.

4. Background knowledge and scheme theory are important aspects in developing reading skills, due to the fact that learning is meaningful in the learner's context and there is a need to develop appropriate methodology for teaching it.

5. The teaching of reading has a procedure that takes into account the steps of pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading that was primarily proposed by Eddie Williams. This process can be developed within a variety of reading texts such as academic texts, literary texts, scientific texts, etc. Among the strategies of reading we can use skimming, scanning, inference, anticipation, predicting, confirming, hypothesizing, etc.

6. Referring to the teaching of writing we can mention that there are some models of writing as well as the development of its skills taking into account the approaches and procedures that can be used in the language classroom.

7. When testing written communication a teacher should apply a test that can also be an evaluation or an exam that is done for someone to demonstrate his/her knowledge and skills on a certain area of language learning..

Suggestions and critical appraisal

1. Learning to read and write in English can be a slow and frustrating process. This, because every time one believes to have written a text correctly, someone arrives and points out an error. First, one is probably better writing than thinking. If those people who are reading what you wrote in English understand what you mean, so grammar and writing may not be perfect, you are halfway there. Second, you will be surprised to know how many native English people have problems with writing and make many mistakes.

2. Students should read all they can. Nowadays, there is a lot of interesting online content that students can read, one just has to make sure he/she looks for texts from reliable sources that are well written. Also, one can expand reading sources and read newspapers, magazines, brochures, reports and any other material that one can find interesting.

3. Reading can help students to gain a broader understanding of grammar, it will help them study sentence structure and learn typical vocabulary of culture. When they find words or expressions that they do not understand, underline and search once one has finished his/her reading session.

4. Students should participate in chats and forums, because the key to perfecting English skills is to learn to think in English. This will help them write better and faster. Chat rooms and forums force everyone to think in the language.

5. Students can also create a personal dictionary, because this is very easy to do and it will be very helpful to improve students writing skills. Writing irregular verbs, idioms, technical words and any other new words sttudents find will help them learn those words better than any other dictionary one can find. No matter how

efficient the digital world is, when it comes to learning, there is nothing better than writing to remember the new content in the future.

6. It is really necessary to promote that reading can be the key to success in learning a foreign language, because when you read, you can develop many other skills, being those oral or written to be communicatively competent in using a language.

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Appendix

Rubrics for Writing Assignment

Assessment criteria	Points
Information	
Provides relevant information	4
Provides limited information	2
Provides irrelevant information	1
Main idea	
Ideas are well crafted	4
Ideas are expressed in phrases	2
Ideas are expressed only in words	1
Vocabulary	
Use vocabulary relevant to context	4
Use vocabulary a bit relevant to context	2
Use vocabulary that does not approach the context	1
Language structure	
There are few errors in word order, pronouns, verbal conjugations and use of plurals	4
There are several errors in word order, pronouns, verbal conjugations and use of plurals	2
There are many errors in word order, pronouns, verbal conjugations and use of plurals	1
Spelling	
There are few spelling, punctuation and capitalization errors.	4
There are several spelling, punctuation and capitalization errors.	2
There are many spelling, punctuation and capitalization errors.	1
Total score	

Source: Minedu, 2016.

Reading sheet

Name: _____

A teenager's day

Let me tell you how is a typical day of a teenager!

First, they always go to school in the morning for 8 hours from Monday to Fridays.

Some teenagers wake up before 6 am to get ready for school.

In some cases, they have extra activities in the afternoon such as study English at an institute or Sports training.

On their free time, many teenagers usually go to the movies, go out with their social groups, play video games on the computer or cellphones, use the social networking or read a book.

In some other cases, during the weekend teenagers often do their homework or help at home with chores.

But, many teenagers never go to church on Sundays at 7 am because most of them say that are too busy for do that.

In conclusion, teenagers have a lot of activities in their routines but they always have fun.

Alexander Gallegos.

Worksheet 2

Name: _____   **Score** _____ / 20

<u>Activities</u>

1. **Choose the correct alternative. (8 points)**

   a) What activities do teenagers do from Monday to Friday?
      A. They play Soccer.
      B. They go to school.
      C. They eat ice cream.

   b) At what time do some teenagers wake up?
      A. They wake up before 3 PM
      B. They wake up after 8 PM
      C. They wake up before 6 am

   c) What other activities do teenagers do in the afternoon?
      A. They play an instrument and read a book.
      B. They listen to music and use their cellphones.
      C. They study English and go to sport training.

   d) What activities do teenager do on their free time?
      A. They go to movies, go out, play video games and read a book.
      B. They eat ice cream, play outside, cook and read comics.
      C. They go to movies, go to school, eat ice cream and go out.

2. **Read the blog and write (T) if the sentence is correct of (F) if the sentence is incorrect. (10 points)**

   a) Teenagers don't have daily routines.   _____
   b) Teenagers never go to church.   _____
   c) Teenagers only do activities when they feel happy. _____
   d) Teenagers study English at institutes.   _____
   e) Teenagers go to school from Monday to Sunday.   _____

3. **Write about your daily routine in 4 sentences. (2 points)**

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____