

Dissertação de Mestrado

Critical reading in L2: teachers' and students' perspectives

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To God, for allowing me to be here,

To my family, for the support,

To my friends, for the confidences in the difficult times,

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ABSTRACT

Critical reading in L2: teachers' and students' perspectives

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This study described teachers' and students' perspectives about critical reading. One hundred and thirty-three participants from two different contexts, high school and university, answered a questionnaire based on closed and open-ended questions, in order to better evaluate similarities and differences related to specific reading situations and to analyze individual reading experiences. Results have shown that although not all of the students considered themselves critical readers, they are aware of the concept and its importance. Teachers had similar points of view to those of students, and showed their concern in relation to finding ways to teach students to read critically the discourses embedded in texts. Based on these results, it is possible to understand the importance of teachers' and students' point of view about critical reading, specially from two different contexts (high school and university), due to the fact that analyzing their experiences of working with critical reading inside and outside classrooms may contribute with new ideas to the area of reading research, in the same way that these new ideas may improve teachers' and students' practice.

Key words: critical reading, perspectives, teachers, students.

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RESUMO

Este estudo teve como objetivo descrever as perspectivas de professores e alunos sobre leitura crítica. Cento e trinta e três participantes de dois contextos diferentes, ensino médio e universidade, responderam questionários baseados em questões de múltipla escolha e descritivas, com o intuito de melhor avaliar semelhanças e diferenças relacionadas às situações de leitura específicas e analisar experiências individuais de leitura. Os resultados mostraram que embora nem todos os alunos se considerem leitores críticos, eles estão cientes deste conceito e de sua importância. Os professores tiveram pontos de vista similares aos dos alunos e mostraram sua preocupação em encontrar maneiras de ensinar os alunos a ler criticamente os discursos inseridos nos textos. Baseando-se nestes resultados, é possível entender a importância do ponto de vista dos professores e dos alunos sobre leitura crítica, especialmente de dois contextos diferentes (ensino médio e universidade), devido ao fato de que analisar as experiências de trabalho com leitura crítica dentro e fora de sala de aula pode contribuir com novas ideias para a pesquisa na área de leitura, da mesma forma que essas novas ideias podem melhorar a prática dos professores e dos alunos.

Palavras-chaves: leitura crítica, perspectivas, professores, alunos.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In Goodman's (1998) point of view, reading is a psycholinguistic process. It starts with the linguistic representation encoded by the writer and finishes with meaning constructed by the reader. The author argues that there is an interaction between language and thought in reading: "the writer encodes thought as language and the reader decodes language to thought" (Goodman, 1998, p. 12).

Towards a social perspective, Bernhardt (1991) considers reading as a social process because it maintains social relationships between people. In this view, the research on reading tries to explore how reading establishes a social context while, at the same time, the social context influences reading studies. Complementing this perspective, Wallace (2003) also considers reading a social process in which reader and writer possess roles as members of communities and this process happens in a social context.

In this context of reading as a social process, the policy documents for education (PCNs, OCEM-LE and DCEs – described in Chapter 2) affirm that schools are responsible for including students into society, in a way that they are able to criticize the ideology they live in, specially criticizing texts.

Having these important issues in mind, the aim of this study is to map both students' and teachers' perspectives towards critical reading in L2. At this point, what I mean by *perspective* is "a particular attitude toward or way of regarding something; a point of view"¹. This research will involve two different contexts, high school and university, trying to find similarities and/or differences among them.

1.2 OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The objectives of this study are to investigate the views teachers and students from both high school and university have about the concept of critical reading, and then discuss these perspectives in the light of the relevant literature.

¹ Oxford Dictionaries online, 2011.

Having the above discussion in mind, the present study seeks to answer the following research questions:

- 1) How is reading in L2 defined in both high school and university classrooms?
- 2) How do university and high school teachers say that deal with L2 reading?
- 3) What are teachers' and students' views on critical reading?

1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

In the present educational context, it is important to understand how people deal with the concept of critical reading, considering which sociocultural aspects are relevant to the classroom situation. This study seeks to comprehend how teachers and students perceive critical reading, by comparing and analyzing their answers in the light of the relevant literature.

The major contribution to the area is that this study concerns two different contexts: high school and university, which might involve different perspectives. With this approach, I intend to show how the discussion of teachers' and students' points of view can help improve the teaching/learning of critical reading. For the research field, this work intends to add contributions to the study of teacher/student relationship by means of bringing their voices to the center of discussion. For classroom practice, this study seeks to help raise awareness in relation to critical reading and possibly finding new ways of improving the techniques for teaching and learning critical reading.

1.4 ORGANIZATION OF THE DISSERTATION

This work is divided into five chapters: the first chapter introduced the work, and I briefly explained what this study is about, the reason for choosing this topic and the significance of the work. In the second chapter, I will ground my research in the light of the relevant literature. In the third chapter, there will be a description of the method used in the data collection and analysis. In the fourth chapter, I will

present the results of this study and discuss these results. And, finally, in the last chapter, I will conclude with my perceptions of this study, including the limitations of the work and the pedagogical implications for further studies about this topic.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter presents the review of literature concerning the issues involved in this research which include the following topics: teaching and learning of English in Brazil, L1 and L2 reading and critical reading. In the first part, I present some social issues about how teaching and learning English is understood in Brazil, specially the points of view of Brazilian researchers about this aspect. In the second part, there are some relevant definitions of L1 and L2 reading, considering the social aspect of them. And finally, the concept of critical reading is included.

2.1 L2 TEACHING AND LEARNING IN BRAZIL

In this section, there is a brief discussion about L2 teaching and learning in Brazil. Brazilian researchers talk about the importance of social and cultural aspects in the process of acquiring a second language; these points of view are related to the expectations raised by the official documents for education, which consider the importance of inserting critical citizens in a global society.

Vian Jr. (2006) affirms that people build their identities through language, interacting with the world and interfering in the construction of social reality. This process reflects changes in society, which require a critical position in relation to the world. Bringing language learning to this context demands a critical perspective to education, which involves social inclusion, global and critical basis.

In the case of foreign languages, the plurality of cultures is significant, because the study of any language is inherent to the study of its culture. Language and culture are inseparable terms, one is the manifestation of the other, “through language – and other semiotic systems – we manifest our culture and only in a given cultural milieu we use language” (Vian Jr., 2006, p. 157, my translation).

Since English plays a major role in public and private schools in Brazil, Brazilian researchers, teachers and linguists study how to improve EFL (English as a foreign language) teaching and learning. Scherer (2003) brings the fact that

the lack of stimulus for teaching a L2 and its inefficacy to enable the reach of communicative competence of many Brazilian students contrast with the desire of the country to get in touch with other more developed countries, access that only happens through the communication in a foreign language (Scherer, 2003, p. 105, my translation).

To understand these aspects, the author raises some questions to contextualize and clarify them. For this study, only the first question will be brought here: the purpose of teaching English in Brazil (*Por que e para que ensinar inglês no Brasil?* (Scherer, 2003, p. 105). First of all, Scherer considers why people want to learn English: it is the international language of scientific, diplomatic, artistic, political and business communities; people want to be integrated in a L2 community; and people want to enrich their curricula with L2 knowledge. Then, the author cites Celani (1996), who talks about the importance of learning foreign languages in order to participate in society, a view which corroborates Scherer's, who explains that the access to a L2 must be an instrument for the student to exchange and seek information, and also overcome barriers of the world socially and culturally built. She concludes with two important aspects of L2 learning: the development of thought through cognitive strategies and exposure to other channels of linguistic communication. Having this in mind, the author claims that there is an impression that L2 learning awakes consciousness for other truths and perspectives about certain facts or conceptions, which may help people realize that they are able to leave the condition of being 'dominated by a language/culture'.

Complementing the social aspects raised above, Moita Lopez (2009) argues that education has the role of making people think about and change the world politically, but for this, it is crucial that every teacher (and citizen) understand the world in which s/he is inserted, which concerns the social, political, economic, technological and cultural processes s/he experiences. Moita Lopez states that there is no possibility of changing something that is not understandable, a fact that involves the political view of what people are living. Thus, he clarifies his point about the English teachers' collaboration to society: they have the power to use the discourses built in English in favor of students' improvement of world knowledge.

It is very important to understand that L2 teaching and learning in Brazil are based on the official documents for education: *PCN-LE* (*Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais – Língua Estrangeira*), *OCEM-LE*

(*Orientações para o Ensino Médio – Língua Estrangeira*) and *DCE-PR (Diretrizes Curriculares Estaduais do Paraná)*.

Fogaça and Gimenez (2007), regarding the *PCN-LE*, highlight the importance of integrating people into the world, meeting different cultures, in order to redeem the problems of all societies. For this reason, “learning a L2 is a way to be part of the world, of being a global citizen, with rights and duties to this plural and worldwide society” (Fogaça & Gimenez, 2007, p. 174, my translation).

When discussing the *OCEM-LE*, Fogaça and Gimenez (2007) assert that this document recognizes the educational role of the L2, offering critical literacy as ground to social inclusion. They complement by saying that

the document advocates that social transformation may be done from the teaching which brings critical consciousness to different views of the world expressed in and by language, but admits that a good learning of language for communication purposes may also provide social inclusion (p. 176-177, my translation).

Following this line of thought, the *DCE-PR* (2007) suggest that the L2 class is a place in which the students can recognize and comprehend the linguistic and cultural diversities, in a way that they may realize the possibilities of meaning making in relation to the world they live in. The students are expected to comprehend that the meanings are socially and historically built, thus these meanings are able to change by social practice. That is why teaching and learning languages is teaching and learning perceptions of the world, ways to construct meanings and form subjectivities.

Having this in mind, we are able to realize that learning a second language and its culture creates the possibility of meeting different realities, a process that helps people – students – criticize their own reality. For this to happen, teachers always need to be conscious about their role as mediators of the target language/culture and take advantage of the classroom environment to improve students’ consciousness about the possibilities they are able to achieve.

2.2 READING INSTRUCTION IN L1 AND L2

In this second section of the review of literature, I briefly present some key concepts about reading in both L1 and L2. The first part concentrates on L1, by highlighting points of view of reliable researchers, recent research and comments about reading models. The second part is dedicated to L2, where I bring particular aspects related to L2 acquisition, reading behavior and sociocultural and psycholinguistic influences on readers' comprehension of texts.

2.2.1 Reading in L1

In this subsection, I bring what reliable authors say about reading. The ideas cover the conceptions which considered readable only print materials to conceptions that do not ignore the social aspects of reading. After this, there is a brief description about the reading models which were developed according to the emerging ideas of their time.

Urquhart and Weir (1998) discuss various definitions of reading, but decide for the one which considers reading as “the process of receiving and interpreting information encoded in language form via the medium of print” (p. 22). In this definition, the authors also consider reading in its cognitive aspects, like reading strategies, inferencing, memory, decoding, as well as basic language aspects like syntax and lexical knowledge.

In Goodman's (1998) point of view,

reading is a receptive language process. It is a psycholinguistic process in that it starts with a linguistic surface representation encoded by a writer and ends with meaning which the reader constructs. There is thus an essential interaction between language and thought in reading. The writer encodes thought as language and the reader decodes language to thought (p. 12).

Goodman (1998) highlights aspects of the reader's performance, which can be efficient and/or effective, depending on the reader's proficiency. He explains that an effective reader constructs meaning by assimilating or accommodating it according to the original meaning of the author. And that the efficient reader makes less effort to achieve effectiveness, which means that the reader maintains focus on

meaning throughout the process, using all the mechanisms to get the meaning (strategies, cues and prior conceptual and linguistic competence).

Goodman (1998) also highlights the social context in which reading is inserted. He states that

readers will show the influence of the dialect(s) they control both productively and receptively as they read. Further, the common experience, concepts, interests, views, and life styles of readers with common social and cultural backgrounds will also be reflected by how and what people read and what they take from their reading (Goodman, 1998, p. 13).

As reported in more recent articles, for example in Pandini (2004), the conception about reading changes according to time and circumstance, in the same way that the interpretation of texts also changes. The objective is to challenge the patterns that have been followed in a certain moment in society.

Pandini (2004) relies on Silva's (1981) and Sartre's (1985; 1993) ideas of reading when she states that reading, as perception of writing, creates an interdependency, because when learning to read, one starts to comprehend human relations through writing, but in the middle of this process, there is the creativity of the reader, who can create meaning guided by the reading.

Taking cultural aspects into consideration, Pandini cites Darton (1992), who says that reading cannot be considered only a skill, because it is a way of applying meaning which varies from culture to culture. That is the reason reading has new perspectives and constant renovations, influenced by the milieu where it happens. The author states that

[t]his is the perspective in which reading and/or literacy must be understood and not defined, because definitions tend to reductionism, and as each time has its own visage, reading is subscribed in this movement, assuming the oscillations of time during history. Thus, reading must overcome the abstract and purposeless activity, although the theoretical and purposeless teaching still prevail, which leads, by consequence, to demotivated constructions and inefficient learning (Pandini, 2004, p. 103, my translation).

In another recent paper by Flôres (2008), reading is taken by a political view of great relevance due to its public nature. The

sociocultural factors that condition reading are directly connected to the way of living of each historical period. The author cites Colomer and Camps (2002), who say that “reading is the process that happens to obtain information from written language” (Flôres, 2008, p. 14, my translation), which means that the priority is to understand what is written. This activity aggregates the reader’s/writer’s communities, which create ways of perceiving, feeling and living, establishing peculiar ways of dealing with reality. In this sense, Flôres brings her view of reading related to these aspects: “Somebody reads from what s/he is, and from the place s/he occupies – the social place of each one – [based on her/his] beliefs, world points of view” (p. 15, my translation).

Flôres (2008) also states that reading joins other dimensions of life and reality beyond from the ones of the reader, in this way, redefining her/his particular world, opening other possibilities of interpretation. People read to expand knowledge as well as to look for specific information, people also read to be updated about what is happening in the world, in the same way they read just for the pleasure of reading. Complementing this point of view, the author affirms that “reading is the dialog that enables one to live the universal amidst the relativism of things and peoples” (p. 22, my translation).

Considering the interactive role of reading, it enables readers to share additional experiences brought by the text, which makes them go beyond of what happens in their daily lives. As Flôres puts it, “reading is the only way of better understand the human – her/his limits and possibilities –, criticizing, mocking, or else, admitting, sympathizing, accepting the presence and difference of the Other” (Flôres, 2008, p. 24, my translation).

After presenting the above discussion about what reading is, it is interesting to complement with some of the models which describe the reading process. Samuels and Kamil (1998), when regarding the history of models, argue that the changes in language research and the psychological study of mental processes that started in 1965 gave more prestige to reading research. The influence of the psycholinguistic perspective made researchers start considering the basic processes in reading and in this context, they developed the formal models.

Before describing some of the most important reading models, there are some problems brought by Samuels and Kamil (1998) in relation to misunderstandings that happen between model builders. The first problem is about the limited knowledge in which the developer of the model based him/herself to create the model. The knowledge s/he used was limited by the scientific philosophies and studies of the

historical context in which the model was developed, e.g. if we contrast the models developed during the pre-1960 period of behaviorism with the ones developed during the post-1965 period of cognitive psychology, there are conceptualizations and components in the newer models not found in earlier ones, for example, the former models would describe events external to the participant, like word-recognition associations, and the latter models would describe the role of memory and attention.

The second problem, as put by the authors, is that any researcher would describe the reading process influenced by the results from experiments. These experiments were based on four interacting factors: the age and skill of the participants; the tasks the participants had to perform; the materials selected for the experiment; and the context (e.g. classroom, laboratory etc.). If the researcher changed one of these variables s/he could alter the results and his/her own view of the process. Samuels and Kamil (1998) believe that to evaluate a model, there is a necessity to do it in general terms.

To better evaluate reading models, Samuels and Kamil (1998) listed three main characteristics of a good model: a) it can summarize the 'past': it synthesizes the information from data collected and research that has been done; b) it can help to understand the 'present': it focuses the attention on the essential aspects and shows how they interrelate; and c) it can predict the 'future': it enables researchers to formulate hypotheses to determine its validity.

Having these characteristics of reading models in mind, I now present some of the most important models of the reading process. Urquhart and Weir (1998) have divided the models in two classes: the *process models*, which describe how words are recognized, how long they are kept in working memory, when syntactic processing begins etc; and the *componential models*, which only describe what components are involved in the reading process. The distinction between these two classes is that "componential models limit themselves to arguing that such and such a factor is actually present in the process, whereas process models attempt to describe how the factor operates" (Urquhart & Weir, 1998, p. 39).

The authors describe process models as sequential, which means that reading is modeled as a series of stages, each one is completed before the next begins, although there is an alternative, in which these processes can also be non-sequential, when a pattern is synthesized by sources that provide information simultaneously to it, as the Stanovich's interactive-compensatory model.

In a popular point of view, the models developed in this order: bottom-up, top-down and interactive. The most cited examples are: Gough's (1972), Goodman's (1967), Rumelhart' (1977) and Stanovich's (1980). Although Goodman's model is older, Gough's is commonly cited before in the literatures because bottom-up models were the first ones to appear in this scenario.

In a bottom-up approach, the reading process begins with the stimulus (the text or parts of it). In Gough's model (1972), the reader begins with letters, which are converted into systematic phonemes, and then recognized as a word. Then the reader fixates on the next words until all the words in the sentence are processed, and at this point, syntactic and semantic rules start assigning meaning to the sentence. This process goes on until it reaches the final stage called *vocal system*, where the reader vocalizes what s/he has accessed through print. For this reason, Gough's model is a model of the reading aloud process. Urquhart and Weir (1998) highlight that Gough's model is divided in two entities: text units and processing components. The text units are arranged in order of size – letters, words and sentences –, that is why the model is called bottom-up. In the case of Gough's model, the processing components are called *scanner*, *decoder*, *librarian*, *Merlin* etc. In this model, textual and processing components operate in parallel. The authors also comment that the problem of this model is that it is difficult to see when one stage is over before the next begins: when readers stop recognizing words to start processing sentences. That is why Urquhart and Weir believe that recognition and syntactic processing happen at the same time.

Urquhart and Weir (1998) compare bottom-up and top-down models saying that the difficulty of the bottom-up models is to see when to stop processing the text, but for the top-down models it is difficult to see where they should begin. Bottom-up models start with the smallest text units, like letters or letter features, while the expectation for top-down models would be the largest unit, the whole text. It is impossible for a reader to follow this order – whole text, paragraphs, sentences and so on. The authors say that 'top-down' cannot be the reverse of 'bottom-up'. Actually, 'top-down' refers to the expectations of the role which the reader plays in the processing of the text. The reader brings his/her ideas to the text, and uses text data to confirm or deny these ideas. Having this in mind, the authors suggest to relate the terms 'text (or data)-driven' and 'reader-driven' instead of 'bottom-up' and 'top-down'. They say that in the former term, "the reader processes the text word for word, accepting the author as the authority" (Urquhart & Weir, 1998, p. 42). In

the latter, “the reader comes to the text with a previously formed plan, and perhaps omits chunks of the text which seem to be irrelevant to the reader’s purpose” (p. 42).

The most cited top-down model is Goodman’s model (1967), although he has denied the association. His views of reading considered it as a process of hypothesis verification, where readers use data from the text to confirm/deny their guesses. In his model, the reader fixates at a point on a line, gets graphic cues based on his/her previous knowledge, and forms an image partly based on what s/he sees and partly on what s/he expected to see, finally attempting to identify a word. Urquhart and Weir (1998) believe that this is a description of a top-down model, because readers’ expectations are brought to the text, and it is a cyclical process, where the reader moves from hypothesis to text and back to new hypothesis. Goodman’s first paper became popular for many reasons, and one of them was that it changed the notions about texts, i.e. they were incomplete and became complete due to readers’ background knowledge. There were also criticisms about the notion of good readers. Urquhart and Weir bring the general idea of what Goodman and other authors said about this. These authors believed that good readers guessed more and used the context more than poorer readers. But other works had shown conclusively that while all readers use context, good readers are less dependent on it than poor ones.

For the interactive approaches, there are the interactive models and the interactive-compensatory models, which became famous by Rumelhart (1977) and Stanovich (1980). In the interactive models, information is provided simultaneously from several sources for a pattern to be synthesized. For example, in Rumelhart’s model, data is received by the *feature extraction device*, which operates on the *visual information store*, then it passes the data to the *pattern synthesizer*, that by its time, receives input from *syntactical*, *semantic*, *lexical* and *orthographic knowledge*, which operate at the same point. Stanovich describes the interactive models by saying that readers use not only one, but three kinds of information simultaneously: orthographic, syntactic and semantic. The difference between Rumelhart’s and Stanovich’s models is that Stanovich considers his an interactive-compensatory, where compensatory refers to the idea that a weakness in one area can be compensated by strength in another area, e.g. substituting orthographic knowledge by syntactic knowledge.

Although interactive-compensatory models have received support of the reading area, their weakness is that they are good at explaining results but poor at predicting them in advance. This happens

because readers are potentially different, arriving at a certain level of performance with different strengths. Besides this weakness, a consequence of the interactive models is that a great variety of models could be possible, because one model can have all kinds of variations of interactive top-down and interactive bottom-up models.

After Urquhart and Weir (1998) have discussed about the process models, they argue that componential models try to model reading ability, instead of the reading process. These models deal with different reading performance in terms of variation in one of the components. There is the two-component model, by Hoover and Tunmer (1993) and the three-component models, by Coady (1979) and Bernhardt (1991), which describe L2 reading (these models will be described in the next section).

In the Hoover and Tunmer's two-component model, which they refer to as 'the simple view', the components are *word recognition* and *linguistic comprehension*. In their research, the two important claims of their work were confirmed by evidence: the first is that data showed that the two variables are separable, for this, they ran tests with normal and disabled readers; the other evidence came from statistical techniques that measured the contribution of different factors to reading performance. The critiques to this model are that it generated doubts about the simplicity of the 'simple view'. Hoover and Tunmer's simple way to describe 'decoding' (accessing the lexicon by means of a phonological route) and 'word recognition' (the process of accessing the lexicon based on graphic information) made complex the process of 'linguistic comprehension' (the ability to answer questions about an oral narrative). The problems concerned limitations of text type and this definition required more than linguistic competence.

Having said this, it is interesting to notice how the different reading conceptions brought to this study cover different aspects, in the same way that the reading models help us to understand the distinct parts of its process.

2.2.2 Reading in L2

In this second subsection some aspects of L2 reading are discussed: the purpose of L2 reading, the sociocultural influence in L2, its similarities and differences with L1 reading, and the psycholinguistic aspects that characterize L2 reading performance.

For a start, Bernhardt (1991) raises the reasons that make the studies about second language acquisition interesting. First, there are sociopolitical interests in the public who wants and/or needs to learn a L2. Second, there is a pedagogical interest in L2 literacy skills, especially in reading. The author states that reading is considered the most stable and durable skill of the L2 skills, that is, “learners may lose their productive skills yet still be able to comprehend texts with some degree of proficiency” (Bernhardt, 1991, p. 1). And third, the cognitive interest, due to the fact that the learning of two encoding systems generates many intriguing questions, as for example: the existence of two separate, parallel cognitive processes at work, or the existence of generic language processing strategies that accommodate both L1 and L2. Taking this last point in regard, Bernhardt believes that L2, and especially L2 reading, is a unique phenomenon, not “a less accurate version of something else” (p. 2).

Bernhardt (1991) analyzes two main lines of thought which divide data generated about reading: cognitive and social, classifying the reading process as meaning-extracting or meaning-constructing. She explains that “taking a cognitive perspective means examining the reading process as an intrapersonal problem-solving task that takes place within the brain’s knowledge structures” (p. 6). The author highlights that the critical element of a cognitive view of reading is that it sees reading as an individual process, which consists of processing steps that can be separated and measured, but interdependently. According to this, reading is the sum of all these processing steps.

As regards reading as a social process, Bernhardt (1991, p. 9) uses Bloom and Green’s (1984) definition:

As a social process, reading is used to establish, structure, and maintain social relationships between and among peoples... a sociolinguistic perspective on reading requires exploring how reading is used to establish a social context while simultaneously exploring how the social context influences reading praxis and the communication of meaning.

According to Bernhardt (1991), this view of reading considers texts as manifestations of culture, which are presumed to bring social frames of reference, value systems, knowledge and beliefs shared by writer and reader. This aspect provides the text with multiple interpretations, because each cultural context brings different values.

In the L2 situation, what happens is that the L2 reader may not have the knowledge to perceive in a culturally specific way. S/He may possess linguistic skills, but no sociocultural skills, and then s/he will base her/his comprehension on linguistic data. Bernhardt (1991) completes her point of view by stating that L2 readers and the texts they face represent distinct social entities, because L2 readers approach the texts based on their L1 cultural framework. Thus, in order to be really successful, this reader needs to gain access to implicit information of the social group the text was meant for.

In order to understand the reader's behavior in L2, Aebersold and Field (2006, p. 23-24) listed certain factors that influence L2 reading, based on the following authors: Grabe (1991); Scarcella and Oxford (1992); and Canale and Swain (1980). The factors are: cognitive development and cognitive style orientation at the time of beginning L2 study; L1 language proficiency; metacognitive knowledge of L1 structure, grammar and syntax; language proficiency in a L2; degree of differences between the L1 and the L2 (writing systems, rhetorical structures, appropriate strategies); and cultural orientation. The authors highlight that although these aspects emphasize the differences between L1 and L2 reading, it is also important to recognize the similarities between them, in terms of word and sentence structure, self perception of reading problems and so on. They also say that L2 readers have the ability to understand some of the similarities that happen between languages, thus this factor cannot be forgotten when dealing with a classroom environment.

Scherer and Tomitch (2008) highlight the psycholinguistic aspects related to L2 reading. The authors state that the reader plays an interactive role with the text, extracting and attributing meaning to it, which vary according to the reader's previous experiences. This process makes the reader give a consistent meaning to the text, based on the ideas generated by it, which become significant propositions due to the connection the reader makes between the content of the text and the linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge stored in long-term memory. When this process happens successfully, the content of the text is set in memory, what facilitates remembering it from long-term as from working memory. This information, then, becomes easily available to be used in other future contexts, be it in reading or in other daily situations.

Scherer and Tomitch (2008) also refer to the meaning people attribute to texts, which is not the same for everyone. One of the factors that contribute to these differences is background knowledge. Although the text has linguistic cues that guide its interpretation, meaning making

is not absolute and only happens because of the interaction between text and reader. Other individual factors determine the variability of text comprehension, both for L1 and L2: motivation, content domain, memory capacity and aging.

When the authors discuss about motivation, the main point is that they see it as being responsible for the choice of text, as for the way it will be approached, having in mind that the reader uses different resources to read, depending on the objective s/he has. The second factor, content domain, is relevant because when the reader faces a text in which the content is already known, it facilitates the development of inferences and integration between new content and information retained in memory. The third factor, memory capacity, specifically working memory capacity, influences comprehension in the sense that the limits of retention capacity and processing of the content of the text vary from reader to reader. Readers with a larger working memory capacity can, for example, use context cues to deduce meaning from words, are able to process complex syntactic structures and solve lexical ambiguities, use previous knowledge, use patterns of textual structures while reading, make inferences in the meaning making and have the capacity of comprehension monitoring. The last factor mentioned by the authors is aging, which influences all the other factors: during old age, people tend to choose easier texts; at this time, there is a change in the time required to process reading; there is also a decline in the capacity of attention and working memory processing demands more time to execute reading tasks.

Specifically for L2, the authors highlight that, along with the other factors cited above, proficiency in the target language interacts with the way readers approach and comprehend the text. They state that the low level of lexical knowledge or of syntactic structure of the text overloads working memory, which makes difficult the processing and storing of information to comprehend the text. Other factor to be considered is the level of difference between L1 and L2 as for the writing system and rhetorical structures. The more different the languages are, the more difficulties the reader will have to deal with.

In the same way as the previous subsection, I brought some of the most important reading models for L2. According to Urquhart and Weir (1998), the L2 reading models are described as componential models, which try to model reading ability, instead of the reading process. These models deal with the variation in one of the components of the reading performance. For the L2, there are the three-component models, by Coady (1979) and Bernhardt (1991). Both have three

variables: for the Coady's model they are *conceptual abilities*, *process strategies* and *background knowledge*; and for Bernhardt's model they are *language*, *literacy* and *world knowledge*.

On Coady's model, 'conceptual abilities' mean intellectual capacity. He remarked that some adult foreign students could fail to achieve the necessary competence for university instruction not because they cannot learn English, but because they lack intellectual capacity. In relation to 'process strategies', he meant knowledge of the system and the ability to use that knowledge. For 'background knowledge', Coady not only adds it to comprehension, but makes it an actual component of comprehension. However, Urquhart and Weir (1998) highlight that Coady's model lacks the word recognition of Hoover and Tunmer's model. Coady relates this word recognition component to phoneme/grapheme correspondences as part of his process strategies component. This may be an evidence of the predominance of applied linguistics in L2 reading, which emphasize high-level processes.

In Bernhardt's model, 'word knowledge' is equivalent to what Coady considers 'background knowledge'; 'language' includes the seen elements of the text (word structure, word meaning, syntax and morphology); 'literacy' means operational knowledge, knowing how, why and what to do when approaching a text. And Bernhardt's model also lacks the word recognition component from Hoover and Tunmer's model.

Based on this, it is possible to notice the differences and similarities between L1 and L2 reading, which complements the analysis of this study in the sense that it is important to understand how these both concepts are reflected on readers' views about them.

2.3 CRITICAL READING

Tomitch (2000) highlights the similarities between *critical thinking* and *critical reading*. The author states that although critical thinking is a more general term used in different areas, it defines very well the view of reading that is more accepted nowadays, which means going beyond the surface words in the text. She also argues about the similarities of two different perspectives for critical reading: the area of 'reading' itself and the area of 'critical discourse analysis'. There are more similarities than differences, and the perspectives are also complementary. What characterizes each one is the degree of emphasis

on the cognitive and social aspects involved in reading comprehension. The author complements by stating that:

What seems clear is that for both lines of research, reading critically means going beyond the individual words in a text, far beyond the literal meaning of sentences and even beyond text integration. It implies engaging in a critical dialogue with the text and being able to re-create the context of text production and seeing how it relates to the context of its reception, to the reader's own knowledge of the world, his/her values and beliefs and the world around him/her (Tomitch, 2000, p. 11).

Seeking other points of view, Ferreira (2003) defines critical reading according to Goatly (2000), which states that critical reading is the ability to see flaws in arguments, weigh the evidence of claims, resist to the assumptions on which rational arguments are based and explain "how the world and our relationship within it and to it are constructed through reading and writing" (Goatly, 2000, in Ferreira, 2003, p. 45).

In a textual perspective, Stutz (2005) establishes a definition for critical reading, which goes in agreement with critical thinking, in which critical reading is intended to make students aware of the reading process involving an interaction between reader and writer, and this involves going beyond the words in the text. What is relevant is that 'critical' also refers to the "students' awareness of what to expect when reading different types of texts, of acknowledging rules of text organization, as well as of making deductions and inferences" (Stutz, 2005, p. 12).

Taking a social perspective, Figueiredo (2003) argues that understanding reading as a social practice is essential for the reader to be engaged in what s/he reads. This position presupposes a social action, what means that a critical reader does not read only for her/himself, but intending to reflect and act differently in her/his everyday situations. This kind of reader investigates her/his experiences in relation to the language, politics and history of the L2. What is considered critical in reading is the consideration of cultural aspects in relation to who reads what, as well as the preoccupation about the way the dominant ideas are maintained, challenged and modified.

Also following a social perspective, Wallace (2003) considers reading a social process in the sense that reader and writer have roles as members of communities and that reading happens in a social context. Wallace explains that in this context, the social aspect influences the

relationship between authors, texts and readers, which tends to change according to the circumstance. Explaining the role of each component in this relationship, Wallace states that there are problems in defining the social role of the author, because when readers read the text, it is up to them to understand what the writer really meant, the author cannot control all the interpretations of her/his text.

About the text, Wallace says that “a contemporary view of text and text production emphasizes the functioning of the text in a societal whole” (Wallace, 2003, p. 11). This view includes the implicit conditions of the context, proposed in the three layers of Fairclough’s theory (1989, in Wallace, 2003): immediate, institutional and wider societal context. The text also has a scaffolding role for L2 learners, in the sense that they are selected to be in advance of their current proficiency.

As for the reader, s/he has an interactive role with the text, what s/he brings to the text is as important as what s/he receives from it. Wallace highlights that this interaction is differently characterized in the literature, as for example, Widdowson (1984, in Wallace, 2003) claims that the reader chooses to be assertive or submissive about the text depending on her/his purpose; while Kress (1985, in Wallace, 2003) argues for less individual choice, in which the reader has less liberty to exercise individual preference.

In relation to critical reading, Wallace (2003) emphasizes the two views of critical to be considered: the weak view and the strong view. The weak view of critical as critical thinking means the ability to critique texts, to notice problems of consistency and lack of clarity, which encourage people to have independence of thought. The stronger view is concerned with issues of power and ideology. Critical readers in this view are able to critique not only the micro features of texts, but understand the dominant discourses and the power bases of society within texts.

Having this in mind, Wallace (2003) defines the principles, purposes and practice of critical reading. The author listed five principles for critical reading: first, critical reading focuses on general responses to texts instead of individual ones, due to the fact that in classroom contexts, texts are interpreted by group talking; second, L2 readers are not in disadvantage by reading authentic and non-pedagogic texts, on the contrary, because texts are not directly written to them, L2 readers may be more aware of the relation text-reader, which means they are in a stronger position to perceive and to understand the texts; third, critical reading is concerned with the effect of texts, not with the

author's communicative intent, the aim is to challenge the schemas of the texts; fourth, the objective of a critical reading is to go beyond the logic and arguments of the texts, and to reach the ideological assumptions that ground them; and fifth, critical readers not only comment metacognitively, but metacritically, which means that these readers challenge their own interpretations of the text, distancing and trying to understand the ideology behind them.

Talking about critical reading purposes, Wallace (2003) states that they are linguistic, conceptual/critical and cultural. First, linguistic aspects help readers to understand the ideological meanings embedded in texts, for this, the readers' grammatical knowledge is important to facilitate their reflection on the effect of language choice. In the case of conceptual/critical abilities, the objective is to go beyond the text, so readers can develop their arguments about it. Finally, the cultural implications rely on promoting insights into cultural assumptions and practices, similarities and differences across national boundaries, with the objective of sharing different cultural perspectives.

In relation to critical reading practice, 'critical reading' is seen as not being 'reading' in the usual sense, but as 'using' a text rather than reading it, this allows readers to change perspectives from being a reader of a text to using a text for critique.

Corroborating with all these reading perspectives, the DCEs (Diretrizes Curriculares Estaduais do Paraná, 2007) bring an educational view of reading, especially of critical reading. The document defines critical reading as a process that happens in the confrontation of perspectives and in the reconstruction of attitudes before the world. It also says that

the critical reading approach extrapolates the relation between reader and the unites of sense in the possible meaning making, prioritizing, in consequence, the relation which is established with other subjects who apply meaning, however it enlarges the reader's perception, who is able to create meaning at the same time s/he is limited by the interpretative procedures of the many communities s/he acts (DCE, 2007, p. 27, my translation).

It explains that the reader is not alone while constructing meaning, s/he carries with her/him her/his culture, language, interpretative procedures, discourses collectively constructed and ideologies. Through these aspects, reading is considered an interaction between all these elements and the relation between reader, text and author. The document also states that teaching and learning a L2 is to

perceive the construction of meanings beyond the ones allowed by the L1. Thus, “it is in language, not through language, that one perceives and understands reality and, by means, the perception of the world is closely connected to the languages one knows” (DCE, 2007, p. 28, my translation).

In sum, all the points raised in this study reflect the way critical reading in L2 is viewed and understood in Brazil. All these points go in agreement with the objective of this study, which is to bring teachers’ and students’ voices about the subject and discuss them in the light of the literature. It is important to understand the context where these teachers and students are inserted in, that is why this study reports how L2 teaching and learning happen in Brazil; in the same way that it is important to understand different reading conceptions in L1 and L2, so that it is possible to understand teachers’ and students’ views on critical reading.

CHAPTER 3 METHOD

This chapter presents the method chosen for this study, which consists in the description of participants and materials, and also the procedures adopted for data collection.

The organization of this section follows this order: first, there is a description of the participants, which were teachers and students from Colégio Estadual João Manoel Mondrone and Universidade Estadual do Oeste do Paraná; then the materials used are described and the choice for applying questionnaires in this study is explained; following, there are the procedures for data collection; and in the last part of the chapter there is a brief description of the pilot study.

3.1 PARTICIPANTS

3.1.1 Participants from university

Forty-seven unpaid participants answered the questionnaires. There were ten male and 37 female. Two of the participants were teachers and the remaining 45 were students. All participants were native speakers of Portuguese. The average age for the university teachers was 34,5. The undergraduate students were from the four classes of the Letras annual undergraduate course, and their average age was 18,24.

All participants signed the consent form (TCLE – Termo de Consentimento Livre e Esclarecido) provided by the CONEP (Comissão Nacional de Ética em Pesquisa), (See Appendix 5).

3.1.2 Participants from high school

Eighty-six unpaid participants answered the questionnaires. There were 39 male and 47 female. Two of the participants were teachers and the remaining 84 were students, all native speakers of Portuguese. The average age for the high school teachers was 51 and for the students it was 15,98. Only three classes of high school students were chosen to answer the questionnaire.

As well as the participants from university, all participants from high school signed the consent form (TCLE – Termo de Consentimento Livre e Esclarecido) (see Appendix 5).

3.2 MATERIALS

3.2.1 Questionnaire for teachers

The questionnaire (see Appendices 3 and 4) for the high school and university teachers was divided into three parts: the first part was about personal data (sex, age and schooling); the second part was about the L2 classes; and the third one was about the L2 reading classes.

The questionnaires were based on attitudinal questions (Dörnyei, 2003), which are used to find out what people think about a certain topic, in the case of this study, to understand teachers' and students' concept of critical reading. I opted for closed and open-ended questions. Some of the closed questions were based on Likert scales (1932, in Dörnyei, 2003) in order to better evaluate similarities and differences related to specific reading situations, e.g. seventh question (see Appendices 3 and 4). The open-ended questions sought to bring the participants' voices in regards to their individual reading experiences, e.g. twelfth question (see Appendices 3 and 4).

The questionnaires were applied in the Portuguese language because the objective was to understand the participants' views of critical reading, and not to evaluate their knowledge of the L2.

3.2.2 Questionnaire for students

For the high school and university students, the questionnaire (see Appendices 1 and 2) was divided into four parts: the first part was about personal data; the second part was about the L2 reading classes; the third part was about L2 reading outside classroom; and the fourth one was about what they thought about reading in L2. The only difference between the questionnaires was that university students had to consider their different English classes: literature, writing and grammar.

The questionnaires were designed in the same way as the teachers' questionnaire. They were based on attitudinal questions, with close and open-ended questions in which some used Likert scales, e.g.

tenth and 13th questions (see Appendices 1 and 2). They were also applied in the Portuguese language due to the same reasons and same objectives as the teachers' questionnaires.

3.3 PROCEDURE OF DATA COLLECTION

Data were collected with the consent of the principal of the school and the coordinator of the Letras undergraduate course, as well as the teachers, who allowed me to use their classes to apply the questionnaires to all the students that agreed to participate.

The questionnaires were applied, by this researcher, at Colégio Estadual João Manoel Mondrone and at Universidade Estadual do Oeste do Paraná. The application of the questionnaires was conducted in groups with the students, divided in each grade or year, and individually with the teachers. All participants had to sign the consent form to answer to the questionnaire. Participants took around 30 minutes to answer the questionnaire.

3.4 THE PILOT STUDY

For the pilot study, three copies of each questionnaire were sent by e-mail to PPGI students and to students of the Secretariado – Inglês undergraduate course of Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina. The pilot study shed light in relation to the following aspects: to clarify doubts in relation to the content of the questions; to have an idea about how much time they would take to answer the questionnaire; and to take notes of the suggestions they made, e.g. changes in the terms used and questions that could be added or eliminated. There is a list of some examples below to better exemplify these aspects:

1. Content of the questions: some questions seemed repeated, so the suggestion was to leave just one of them (“como você promove a leitura crítica dos textos em inglês?”) and eliminate the other (“o que você poderia fazer para melhorar a leitura crítica dos alunos?”);
2. Time taken to answer the questionnaire: people took from 10 to 30 minutes to answer the questionnaire, so I decided

to consider the highest number to be sure that all the participants would be able to answer;

3. Taking notes during data collection: the questionnaires were sent by e-mail and the participants of the pilot study were asked to take notes of their ideas, doubts and also about the time taken to answer the questionnaire;
4. Changes in the terms used: Based on the suggestions made, some grammar mistakes were corrected and some terms were changed to better match the specificities of the questionnaires

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents and discusses the results obtained from the questionnaires used in this study. The questionnaires were constructed based on Banks (2005), İçmez (2009), Hopper (2005), Camiciottoli (2001) and Aebersold and Field (2006), but they were specifically designed for the institutions chosen for this study, what means that changes were done. The chapter is organized in the following way: in the first part, the results of each group of participants are reported, analyzed and discussed based on the review of literature presented on Chapter 2; and in the second part, the research questions raised for this study are provided with answers based on the findings reported in this chapter.

4.1 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section is divided into four parts, corresponding to each group of participants: high school students, university students, high school teachers and university teachers. The report and analysis of the answers follow the order of sections in the questionnaires, which are ranged from three to four, depending on the group.

4.1.1 High school students' answers

The questionnaire (see Appendix 1) for the students was divided into four parts: personal data, L2 reading inside classroom, L2 reading for leisure time and ideas about L2 reading, with a total of 20 questions.

In the first part of the questionnaire personal data were collected to have a general idea of the high school students' profile, and also to find out if they had any contact with the English language outside school. From a total of 84 participants, 46,42% were male and 53,57% were female. Their ages ranged from 14 to 19, with an average of 15,98. These students were from the three grades of high school, one class per grade. Out of the 84 participants, 66,66% had not taken any extra English course before, and for the 33,33% that had already taken an

English course, the time varied from six months to ten years, with an average of 2,57 years.

The second part of the questionnaire was about the students' views of the L2 reading classes. The fifth question asked the students to choose what text types they had in class and to put them in order of frequency (Q²₅: Quais destes tipos de texto você lê nas aulas de inglês? Marque por ordem de frequência (escala: 1 para mais frequente e 8 para menos frequente)). There were eight text types: *short stories*, *instructions*, *newspaper reports*, *discursive arguments*, *explanations*, *non-chronological reports*, *persuasive texts* and *biographies* (Marcuschi, 2009). Out of 84, 34,52% of the answers had to be eliminated because the participants did not answer them properly, but this fact did not invalidate the whole questionnaire because each answer of the first part of the questionnaire was analyzed individually. Analyzing the 65,47% of the remaining answers, the text types could be put in this order of frequency (in which the text type with the lowest score is the most frequent, while the text type with the highest score is the least frequent): *newspaper reports*, *discursive arguments*, *biographies*, *non-chronological reports*, *instructions*, *short stories*, *persuasive texts* and *explanations* (see Table 1 below).

Table 1 – Text types scored by frequency

Text types	Score	
Newspaper reports	152	The most frequent
Discursive arguments	175	
Biographies	192	
Non-chronological reports	205	
Instructions	211	
Short stories	227	
Persuasive texts	269	
Explanations	279	The least frequent

The objective of this question was to have an overview of students' views in relation to the texts used in class. For this, I did not ask the teachers for what kind of texts they used in class. There were eight text types, as listed above, but the students did not need to number all of them, only the text types they read in class. There were 10,71% of the students that did not mark the eight text types, while the remaining students marked all of them. These results reflect students' behavior as readers in the sense of how much knowledge of former schema they

² Question

posses. Alderson (2000) highlights that knowing about text organization and how information is signaled in the text may facilitate reading, which means that the more students know about text structure, the better they will comprehend texts.

In relation to the sixth question, the students had to answer which of the text types of the previous question they preferred (Q6: Quais dos gêneros citados acima você prefere? Por quê?). 76,19% of the students chose only one text type, while 23,8% of the students preferred more than one. For the latter students the most cited text types were *newspaper reports*, *short stories* and *biographies*. They said they preferred these text types because they could learn more, the texts were easier to understand and they brought different points of view.

For the students that chose one text type, in the first place came *newspaper reports*, with 41,66% of the answers. The general comments for this choice was that newspaper reports present true and diversified facts, simple language, knowledge about L2 structure, general knowledge and that they are a more interesting way to learn. As an example, here are two answers to illustrate this point:

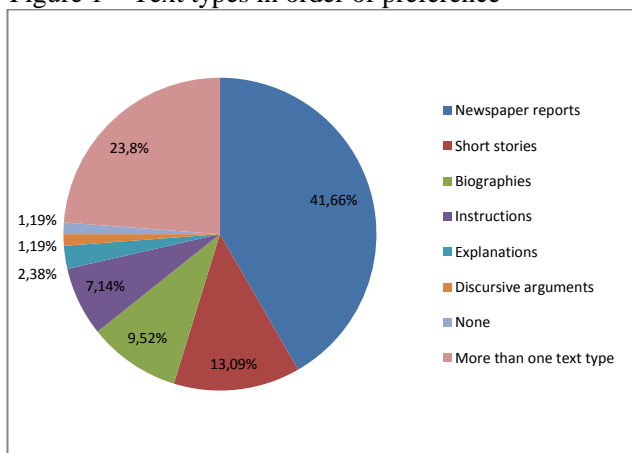
HSS³50: Reportagens, porque além de estarmos aprendendo sobre outra língua, ficamos mais informados por outros assuntos, melhorando o idioma e a nossa intelectualidade.

HSS51: Reportagens. Pois retrata o fato que realmente está acontecendo, o que me interessa mais a ser visto, estudado e compreendido.

As the second choice, 13,09% of the students chose *short stories*. Their arguments were that short stories were better to interpret than the other text types, they bring harmony to the reader and are easier to understand. The third choice was *biographies*, with 9,52% saying they enjoy knowing more about different people. 7,14% chose *instructions*, because they thought these texts are better to learn and understand and have a practical use. 2,38% (two students) preferred *explanations* because it contained easy key words and they could learn more. 1,19% (one student) chose *discursive arguments* because he liked how the subject of those texts are debated. And there was also 1,19% who did not choose any text type because he did not like English language (his own words). These results are presented in Figure 1 below.

³ High school student

Figure 1 – Text types in order of preference



The objective of the four next questions was to see how the students understood the reading comprehension activities. The seventh question asked the students to choose the level of relevance of some reading comprehension activities (Q7: Escolha o grau de relevância que as atividades abaixo proporcionam para entender melhor o conteúdo do texto em inglês (independentemente do seu professor utilizá-las em aula ou não)) through a Likert scale (important/it does not make any difference/not important). As can be seen in Table 2 below, the most important activity was *translation of key words from the text before reading*, and *summary after reading* was the activity that was chosen for not making any difference or not being important.

Table 2 – Reading comprehension activities

	Important	It does not make any difference	It is not important
a) Relate the content of the text with movies, songs etc.	64	18	2
b) Translation of key words of the text before reading.	71	11	2
c) Discussion about the content of the text before reading.	48	20	14
d) Exercises after reading.	59	18	6
e) Discussion about the content of the text after reading.	61	17	5
f) Summary after reading.	21	34	28

In the seventh question, the students had to judge the relevance of some common reading strategies. These strategies cover from knowledge of specific information in the text to the activation of background knowledge. Having this in mind, we can observe from the results shown in Table 2 above that *translation of key words from the text before reading* was considered the most important activity by the students, meaning that they need to be safe about the L2 before reading. The consideration of *summary after reading* as not important means that maybe they are not so confident about writing, or the recall of the text becomes difficult due to a lack of comprehension.

The eighth question asked students to point out which of the reading comprehension activities of the previous question their English teacher used in class (Q8: Quais das atividades acima o seu professor utiliza nas aulas de inglês (basta colocar a(s) letra(s))?). As shown in Table 3 below, the three most cited activities were *exercises after reading*, *discussion of the subject of the text after reading* and *translation of key words from the text before reading*.

Table 3 – Reading comprehension activities used by the teacher

Reading comprehension activities	Score
a) Relate the content of the text with movies, songs etc.	31
b) Translation of key words of the text before reading.	52
c) Discussion about the content of the text before reading.	23
d) Exercises after reading.	66
e) Discussion about the content of the text after reading.	62
f) Summary after reading.	13

In the previous question the students had to classify the relevance of the reading activities, and in this question they had to say if their English teacher used them in class or not. In the same way as for the text types, I did not ask the teacher what reading activities she used in class, the objective of the question was to understand how the students viewed the use of reading activities. Thus, it is possible to see that teachers help the high school students with the unknown words before reading and choose to work with the content of the text with post-reading activities.

The ninth question asked students to say what other reading activities their English teacher used in class (Q9: Que outras atividades de leitura o seu professor utiliza nas aulas de inglês?). 69,04% of the students answered that the most used activities were the ones from the class book, which included oral and group reading, presentations and translation of the whole text. 30,95% did not answer anything and

9,52% reported that the teacher did not use any extra activity from the ones mentioned in the seventh question.

The last question of the second part of the questionnaire asked how these reading comprehension activities could help the students to improve their text comprehension (Q10: Como você acha que essas atividades ajudam na sua compreensão do texto?). For the 95,23% of students who answered the questions, the general comments were that the activities help them improve the L2, see different points of view, understand the context, and learn new words. Here are two answers which illustrate this point:

HSS13: Esclarecendo dúvidas.

HSS54: Exercitando, você capta e não esquece.

The objective of this question was to investigate how aware the students were about the role that reading activities play as strategies for reading comprehension. According to Gagné et al's (1993) diagram, when readers reach the comprehension monitoring level, they establish a purpose for reading and choose which strategies are better for the kind of text, decisions that help them to verify and remediate problems while reading. This means that they are able to identify their comprehension problems and use the reading activities as a 'means to an end', in the specific case of this study.

The third part of the questionnaire was about the students' habits concerning L2 reading in leisure time. In the eleventh question there were some text types there are generally read outside classroom: *books, magazines, newspapers, comics, poems* and *lyrics*. Then the students had to mark the frequency they read these text types (Q11: Marque quais dos itens abaixo você costuma ler em inglês (impresso e/ou online) e com que frequência). This question was based on Icmez's (2009) article, which presented a question with these text types. The objective was to have an overview of the students' leisure time reading: which kind of texts they report reading and how often they read these texts. Table 4 shows that the text type the students most read was *lyrics* and the ones they read the least were *poems* and *comics*.

Table 4 – Leisure time text types and reading frequency

	Daily	Weekly	Occasionally	Never
Books	2	11	19	51
Magazines	5	9	31	44
Newspapers	6	4	22	52
Poems	0	7	22	54
Comics	3	7	15	54
Lyrics	49	16	13	7
Others	22	14	24	16

The next three questions asked students to compare the texts read in class and the ones read ‘at home’.

The twelfth question asked the students if they considered leisure time reading different from classroom reading (Q12: Você acha que esse tipo de leitura é diferente da leitura na sala de aula? Por quê?). As shown in Figure 2 below, out of the 84 participants, 85,71% stated that the readings are different, the most common answer was that they preferred the leisure time reading because they have different content and the students are free to choose what to read. There were also 13,09% in this group who declared that they preferred the classroom reading, because they have support from the teacher, discussion about the content of the text and reading activities which help them to understand it better. 14,28% reported having no difference between the two types of reading. The most common argument was that for both situations the texts were equal, they have the same content and the same goal. But there were 2,38% (two students) in this group who, although affirming that there was no difference, they said that in the classroom they received more support from the teacher, so the reading in class is easier to understand than the leisure time reading. Here are some answers to exemplify these points:

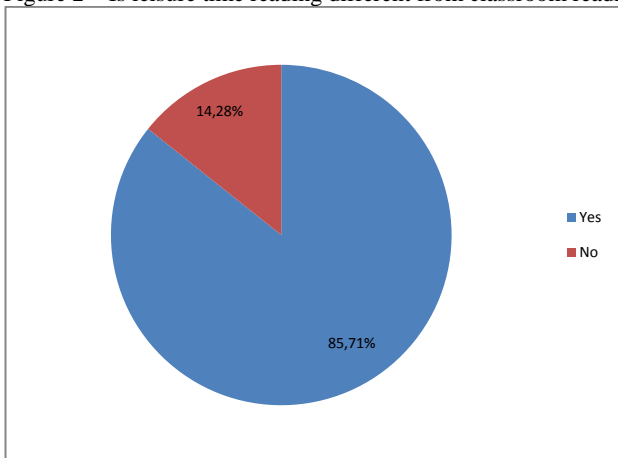
HSS24: Sim, pois é algo que nos convida a ler e tentar entender, e não algo que nos obrigaram a ler em sala de aula.

HSS75: Sim, porque é mais difícil compreender sem a ajuda da professora.

HSS19: Não, pois os dois textos da sala de aula e do cotidiano são iguais, mas na sala de aula temos ajuda maior do professor, e fora algumas vezes, temos dificuldade.

HSS82: Não, porque tem a mesma finalidade.

Figure 2 – Is leisure time reading different from classroom reading?



Based on the results presented, there seems to be an agreement that texts are read for different purposes, even if they have the same content. Alderson (2000) states that “different readers read texts with different purposes” (p. 50). Readers may change the three basic aspects of reading – process, product and recall – by just changing the reason they are reading a certain text. The other aspect that was considered important is the role of the teacher. Tomitch (2002) highlights that the role of the teacher is to prepare students to read the texts they have to read, which means that they need to help students to choose the best way to approach the text in a way that they can read successfully in the L2. Based on this, we can notice from students’ answers that they recognized this role of the teacher and that they really need teachers’ help to perform their reading.

The 13th question asked the students if they thought classroom reading activities helped in leisure time reading (Q13: *Você acha que as atividades de leitura em sala ajudam na leitura de lazer? Como?*). Figure 3 shows that out of 84 students, 90,47% agreed that reading activities help in leisure time reading, and also help to improve reading comprehension and to gain more vocabulary. They also said they complement each other, give support for translation of new words and that the teacher’s assistance is very important; 9,52% students said these activities do not help in leisure time reading; 5,95% in this group said they did not do one of the readings or that the words were too different between them; and the other 3,57% did not justify the answer. Below, there are some answers to illustrate this question:

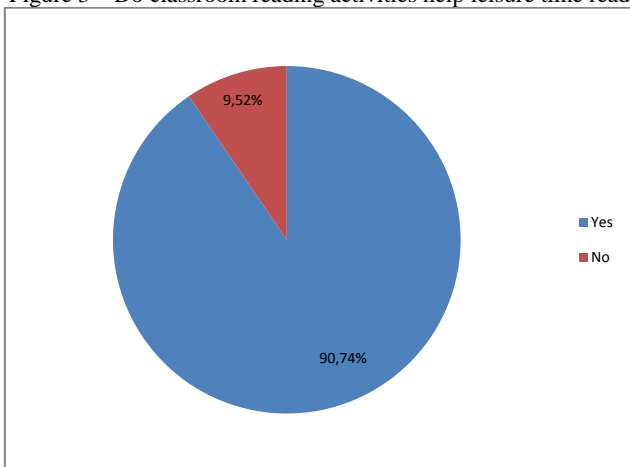
HSS5: Sim, se eu leio em sala e o professor me ajuda, conseqüentemente, vou ler melhor em casa também.

HSS50: Sim, as atividades de leitura em sala melhoram o nosso vocabulário e em nossa melhor compreensão de diversos assuntos, melhorando a nossa leitura de lazer.

HSS54: Ajudam pouco pois algumas palavras vistas em sala não são vistas em casa.

HSS55: Não, pois a maioria não pratica em casa.

Figure 3 – Do classroom reading activities help leisure time reading?



We can notice from these results that most part of the students agreed that reading activities improve leisure time reading comprehension, complementing the knowledge of vocabulary. According to Almeida's (2010) comments on Davies's (1995) ideas about reading behavior, we can analyze these results considering reading materials and reading purposes, and based on this, it is possible to see that the high school students are able use the knowledge they learn inside classroom to the extra reading they perform outside classroom. Here also there is the role of the teacher, intermediating the students' comprehension of the text, which goes in agreement with Tomitch's (2002) concept of the role of the teacher, described in the discussion of the answers to the previous question.

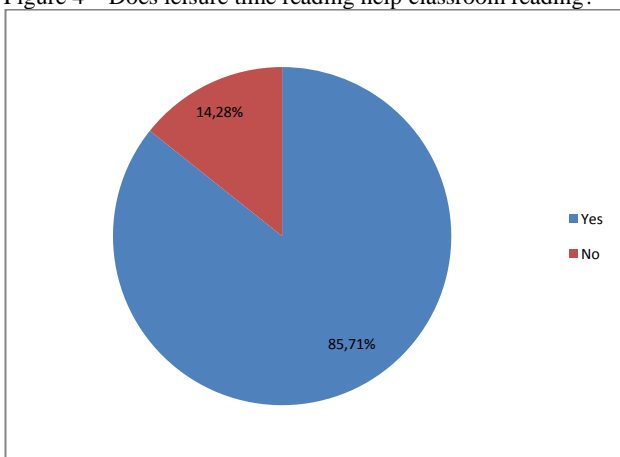
The 14th question was the opposite: if leisure time reading could provide a better understanding to classroom reading (Q14: E essas

leituras de lazer ajudam a entender melhor as leituras de sala de aula? Como?). For this question, Figure 4 shows that 85,71% of the students answered that leisure time reading was useful to improve reading practice, reading comprehension and knowledge about the language and the text, and that it also helped to gain vocabulary. 14,28% answered that it did not help; 5,95% of this group did not justify, as in the previous question, but the other 8,33% said classroom reading helped them to learn better than leisure time reading. Following, there are two excerpts illustrating the answers:

HSS34: Sim, pois com prática fica mais fácil a leitura.

HSS82: Não muito, porque você não tem as explicações necessárias para entender um texto que você lê em casa.

Figure 4 – Does leisure time reading help classroom reading?



In this question, students did not agree as much as in the previous question. Although the students who agreed that leisure time reading help in classroom reading declared that these kind of texts improve reading practice, reading comprehension, vocabulary and knowledge about the language and the text, the other students said it is difficult to read without assistance, what makes the classroom reading activities easier to deal with.

The last part of the students' questionnaire asked them what they thought about L2 reading. For the 15th question they had to think about what it means to be a good L2 reader (Q15: Para você, o que é ser

um bom leitor em inglês?). 97,61% of the students wrote that a good reader is someone who understands the text, has a good pronunciation, knows how to translate the unknown words, knows how to interpret the text, comprehends the idea of the text and knows the L2. Only 1,19% (one student) did not answer this question, and 1,19% declared that s/he did not like reading in L2. Here are two excerpts which show interesting points of view:

HSS50: É ler, compreender e fazer com que a leitura mude o jeito de nossas vidas.

HSS51: Que busca o conhecimento de várias formas, para aperfeiçoar seus dons linguísticos.

In this question we can identify different levels of readers considered by the students. Based on Gagné et al's (1993), readers seem to use *declarative knowledge* when they need to identify the unknown words and the main idea of the text, and the *procedural knowledge* when they are able to make inferences on the text, i.e. they complement the ideas of the text by integrating them where they do not connect with each other, summarizing when there is too much information, and elaborating when there is not enough information. Bringing the reading models (Urquhart & Weir, 1998) to this discussion, it is possible to say that the students seem to read guided by a bottom-up approach, which means that some of them start reading by paying most part of their attention to letters, words and their pronunciation, while others pay more attention to the interpretation and comprehension of the text. Although there are these differences, the students did not mention the use of other ideas from different sources.

The 16th question asked students what it meant to be a bad L2 reader (Q16: E o que é ser um mau leitor?). All the participants answered this question. 82,14% of the participants answered that a bad reader is someone who does not understand the text, does not have a good pronunciation and does not have any interest in reading. 17,85% wrote that a bad reader also does not read well or does not even do the act of reading. Following, there are answers which exemplify the general comments:

HSS66: Não saber interpretar o que leu, não saber nenhum significado e ter má pronúncia.

HSS79: Ser um mau leitor é não ter o hábito de ler, se você lê você é um bom leitor.

Taking Gagné et al's (1993) ideas again and based on students' answers, it is possible to conjecture that bad readers do not possess the necessary level of *procedural knowledge* because they seem to have problems in identifying the meaning of the words and their pronunciation and, consequently, they cannot understand the main idea of the text. A fact that is very interesting is the students' opinion about reading habits. They answered that bad readers do not like to read, and this point is crucial, because, in the students' point of view, people need to be interested if they want to learn.

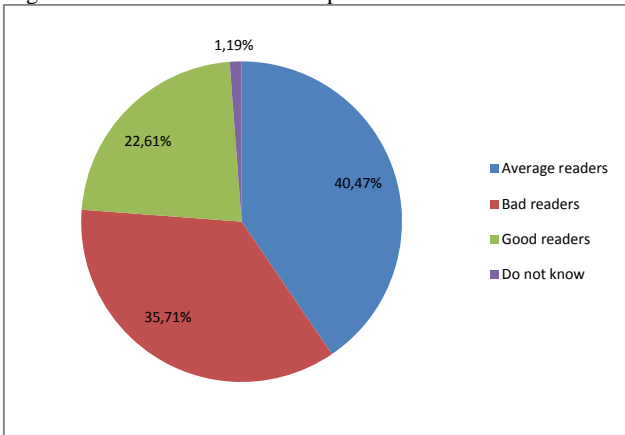
In the 17th question, the students had to describe themselves as L2 readers (Q17: O que você pensa sobre você como leitor em inglês?). Figure 5 shows that 40,47% out of the total number of students declared they were average readers, 35,71% considered themselves bad readers, 22,61% reported being good readers and 1,19% (one student) confessed not knowing what kind of reader s/he was. Exactly half of the participants justified the answer. The general comments were that they did not comprehend texts in the L2 properly, had problems with the grammar or really liked to read in the L2. Here is one answer for each type of student:

HSS47: Creio que sou um bom leitor, pois consigo compreender várias literaturas/textos em inglês, mas sempre que necessito busco mais informações para melhorar [o] aproveitamento.

HSS78: Eu sou um “médio” leitor em inglês, uma boa parte eu entendo, mas o que eu não entendo tento aprender.

HSS72: Não sou uma boa leitora. Não leio corretamente todas as pronúncias.

Figure 5 – L2 readers' self-description



In this question students had to evaluate themselves as readers, based on the previous answers about good and bad readers. We can notice that most of them have a clear image of themselves as readers, although only half of them could describe exactly why they classified themselves as a certain kind of reader. According to Tomitch and Scherer (2008), ‘bad readers’ usually have problems with the L2 lexical and syntactic structure, which impair their comprehension of the text due to the overloading of working memory capacity. When the L2 is not a problem to comprehension, readers start interacting with the text and are able to extract and attribute meaning to the text. In this context, ‘average readers’ become ‘good readers’ when they are able to apply meaning to the text successfully, by connecting the content of the text and the background information they already have stored in their long-term memory.

The 18th question asked students what they could do to improve their L2 reading ability (Q18: O que você acha que poderia fazer para melhorar sua leitura?). 48,8% of the students answered that they needed to read more, both at school as well as at home. 16,66% reported having to take an English course to improve their reading. The remaining students answered that they needed to read books, newspapers and magazines, they needed to improve vocabulary and pronunciation; and that they had to be more interested in reading and read more frequently. For example:

HHS1: Ler mais coisas além das que me interessam, para ter um conhecimento e um vocabulário maior.

HSS38: Quem sabe se eu fizesse um curso melhor e me dedicasse, porque no colégio é muito pouco tempo para aprender.

This question was complementary to the previous one. And here we can notice that the students know exactly what they have to do to improve their reading. Flôres (2008) states that readers know that the main objective of reading is to get the meaning of the written text, that is why readers will try to improve their reading ability in order to better understand the text. She highlights that this approach to the text is based on the community where the text is disseminated, which means that people will deal with the text guided by their perception of reality.

In the 19th question, students had to say if they considered themselves critical readers and why (Q19: Você se considera um leitor crítico? Por quê?). 67,85% of the students reported not being critical readers, 17,85% stated being critical readers, 5,95% declared that it depended on the subject of the text, 4,76% did not answer this question and 3,57% did not know if they were critical readers (see Figure 6 below). There were many different answers, as for example, the students who considered themselves critical readers said it is important to give an opinion about any text, to criticize the author's idea if you do not agree with it, to pay attention to the details and look for biases and also to seek the truth. The students who labeled themselves as noncritical readers said they read well but do not criticize what they read since the kind of reading they do does not require critical reading; or that they simply do not read in English or are not able to criticize in English. Following, there are some answers to illustrate these aspects:

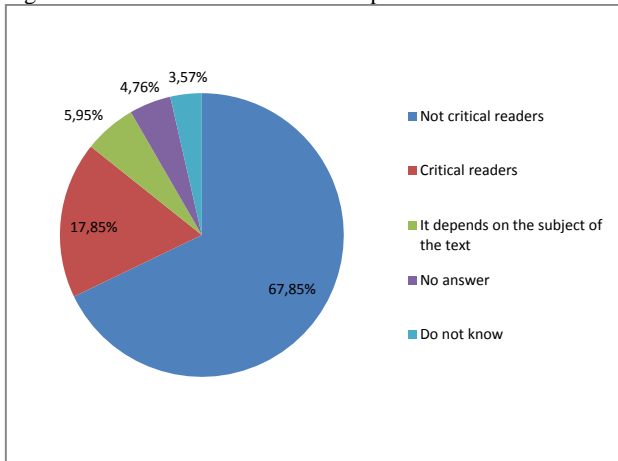
HSS2: Sim, porque eu analiso o que estou lendo, vejo sobre que assunto o texto aborda e assim posso dizer se o texto é bom ou não.

HSS76: Sim, porque presto atenção em todos os detalhes, e se não está bom, ou fala sobre preconceitos ou algo assim, eu critico.

HSS1: Não, pois apesar de “ler bem”, não tenho uma grande preocupação com o senso crítico sobre os textos.

HSS79: Não, pois quando leio me preocupo mais em eu aprender com o texto e não criticar, procurando erros.

Figure 6 – Critical readers’ self-description



Until now, the questions were not using the term ‘critical’, but they were leading the students to this aspect of reading behavior. In this question, they were directly questioned about it. Figueiredo (2003) argues that reading is a social act, which pushes the reader in an engagement with the text. This social relation between reader and text means that a critical reader will profit from the content of the text and apply it in his/her everyday situations. The critical aspect of reading, in this case, is how readers are going to deal with the dominant meaning of the material available for them. In relation to this study, most of the high school students are not prepared to absorb all the meaning that the texts in L2 carry, although they are aware of these important issues and seem to be interested in understanding them. What is also interesting in relation to the high school students’ answers is the many different meanings of ‘critical’ they brought to their answers: ‘criticizing’ was considered an evaluation of the text as a written material, an unimportant aspect if you like the text, and also a negative opinion, if the reader only reads to look for problems. These aspects show that they still have problems in defining ‘critical reading’.

For the last question of the questionnaire the students had to choose the level of relevance in a list of attitudes towards critical reading (Q20: Escolha o grau de relevância que as atitudes abaixo têm para uma leitura crítica). For this, a Likert scale was designed in the same way as the seventh question of this questionnaire. The students had to choose between *important/it does not make any difference/it is*

not important. All the listed attitudes (see Table 5 below) were taken from the table presented in the introduction of the issue “Critical Reading” of *Ilha do Desterro* (Tomitch, 2000). The attitudes represent different levels of reading comprehension and text knowledge, based on concepts of critical reading and critical thinking presented in the articles of the issue. According to the high school students’ answers, the most important attitude was to *discover the deep meaning of the text*. The attitude that would not make any difference was to *have an interactive process with the text*. And the attitude that was not considered important to promote a critical reading was to *compare the content to other similar texts*.

Table 5 – Critical reading attitudes by high school students

	Important	It does not make any difference	It is not important
a) Understand the social context of the text.	73	9	2
b) Discover the deep meaning of the text.	75	6	0
c) Have an interactive process with the text.	35	42	6
d) Analyze, synthesize and evaluate the text.	53	18	9
e) Recognize prejudice in the text.	37	32	13
f) Judge the relevance of the text.	36	35	13
g) Make questions about the content of the text.	53	24	8
h) Make interpretations about the text.	41	30	11
i) Compare the content with other similar texts.	26	36	21
j) Monitor your comprehension of the text.	41	29	10
k) Use reading strategies.	50	24	9
l) Question the ideas of the text.	55	13	5
m) Reflect about the culture presented in the text.	44	28	9
n) Manipulate and criticize different types of texts.	30	37	12

o) Have more social awareness.	34	33	13
p) Have awareness about the language of the text.	64	14	4
q) Reconstruct social relations and identities through the text.	33	33	17

The objective of this list of attitudes was to see which different aspects of reading the high school students considered important. These attitudes come from different perspectives, from reading and from critical discourse analysis: attitudes (a), (b), (c), (d), (e), (f), (g), (h), (i), (j), (k), (l) and (m) come from the reading perspective, and (n), (o), (p) and (q) are from critical discourse analysis perspective. Actually, all of these aspects are important for a critical reading. The results obtained by the Likert scale suggest that high school students prefer to understand the text by itself, trying to fully comprehend it when choosing to *discover the deep meaning of the text*. And they prefer not to expand the text to outside horizons, when choosing not to *have an interactive process with the text* and *compare the context with other similar texts*.

4.1.2 University students' answers

The questionnaire for the university students (see Appendix 2) was also divided into four parts: personal data, L2 reading inside classroom, L2 reading for leisure time and ideas about L2 reading. It has the same questions from the high school students' questionnaire, the only difference here is that the university students had to answer based on the English language classes and English literature classes.

In the same way as the high school students' questionnaire, in the first part of the questionnaire for the university students, personal data were collected and they were also questioned if they had any contact with the English language outside university. From a total of 45 participants, 22,22% were male and 77,77% were female. Their ages ranged from 17 to 39, with an average of 23,20. These students were from the four years of Letras annual undergraduate course. Out of the 45 participants, 33,33% had not taken any extra English course before entering university, and for the 66,66% that had already taken an English course, the time varied from four months to nine years, with an average of 3,21 years.

The second part of the questionnaire was about how the students perceived the L2 reading classes. The fifth question asked the students to choose what text types they had in class and to put them in order of frequency (Q5: Quais destes tipos de texto você lê nas aulas de inglês? Marque por ordem de frequência (escala: 1 para mais frequente e 8 para menos frequente)). The text types were the same used in the high school students' questionnaire: *short stories*, *instructions*, *newspaper reports*, *discursive arguments*, *explanations*, *non-chronological reports*, *persuasive texts* and *biographies* (Marcuschi, 2009). Out of the 45, 24,44% of the answers for this question had to be eliminated because the participants did not answer them properly, but this fact did not invalidate the whole questionnaire because each answer of the first part of the questionnaire was analyzed individually. Analyzing the remaining 75,55%, the text types were put in this order (the same calculation done for the high school students' answers): *instructions*, *newspaper reports*, *discursive arguments*, *explanations*, *short stories*, *non-chronological reports*, *persuasive texts* and *biographies* (see Table 6 below).

Table 6 – Text types in order of frequency

Text types	Score	
Instructions	76	The most frequent
Newspaper reports	83	
Discursive arguments	95	
Explanations	130	
Short stories	140	
Non-chronological reports	156	
Persuasive texts	158	
Biographies	164	The least frequent

In the same way as for the high school students, the objective of this question was to understand the point of view students had from the texts used in class. I selected a list of eight text types, in which the students had to number them in order of frequency, but the students did not need to number all of them, only the text types they read in class. 20% of the students did not mark the eight text types, while the remaining students marked all of them. These results reflect students' behavior as readers in the sense of how much formal schema they possess. Here, the results were analyzed in the same way as the high school students' answers. Following Alderson's (2000) point of view, knowing about text organization and how information is signaled in the text may facilitate reading, which means that the more students know about the structure of text types, the better they will comprehend texts.

In relation to the sixth question, the students had to answer which of the text types of the previous question they preferred (Q6: Quais você prefere? Por quê?). 68,88% of the students chose only one text type, while 31,11% preferred more than one. In the latter situation, the most cited text types were *discursive arguments*, *short stories* and *biographies*. The students reported preferring these text types because they could improve vocabulary, be in contact with the L2, learn another culture and because the genres are interesting to work with, talk about reality and are easy to understand and have broad subjects.

For the participants who chose one text type, in the first place came *newspaper reports*, with 33,33% of the answers. The general comments for this choice were that newspaper reports have interesting information, an easier language to understand, great amount of vocabulary and grammar within a context and bring new knowledge. Here are two students' answers to exemplify:

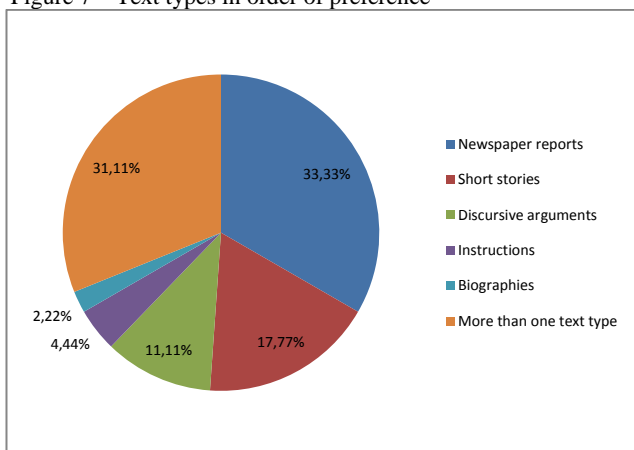
US⁴: Prefiro as reportagens porque, geralmente, trazem informações interessantes sobre a cultura, os costumes, a língua de outros países.

US39: Reportagens, porque nos mantém atualizados ao mesmo tempo que trabalhamos com o idioma.

As the second choice, 17,77% of the students chose *short stories*, they declared that literature brings possibilities to broader interpretations, the texts have a more delightful language and bring the culture and identity of the author. The third choice was *discursive arguments*, with 11,11% stating that these texts help them to give opinions and interact with their peers and that the reader reflects about her/his opinion and acquires knowledge about other subjects. 4,44% chose *instructions*, reporting that beyond the explanation, the reader gains new vocabulary and these texts help the reader to apply and search for knowledge. And 2,22% (one student) chose *biographies*, but s/he did not explain why. Figure 7 below shows these results.

⁴ University students

Figure 7 – Text types in order of preference



In the four next questions the students had to give their opinion about reading comprehension activities. The seventh question asked students to choose the level of relevance of some reading comprehension activities (Q7: Escolha o grau de relevância que as atividades abaixo proporcionam para entender melhor o conteúdo do texto em inglês (independentemente do seu professor utilizá-las em aula ou não)) through a Likert scale (important/it does not make any difference/not important). The most important activity was *relating the content of the text with movies, songs etc*, and *summary after reading* was the activity that was chosen for not making any difference and was also considered not important, the same result of the high school students' questionnaire (see Table 7 below).

Table 7 – Reading comprehension activities

	Important	It does not make any difference	It is not important
a) Relate the content of the text with movies, songs etc.	44	1	0
b) Translation of key words of the text before reading.	37	5	3
c) Discussion about the content of the text before reading.	35	6	3
d) Exercises after reading.	36	6	2
e) Discussion about the	41	3	0

content of the text after reading.			
f) Summary after reading.	21	16	7

In the seventh question, the students had to judge the relevance of some common reading strategies. Similarly to the high school students' questionnaire, these strategies cover from knowledge of specific information in the text to the activation of background knowledge. Based on this, we can observe from the results above that the students' consideration of *relating the content of the text with movies, songs etc* being the most important activity may indicate that they like to contextualize their readings, so the texts become more significant. Like the high school students, *summary after reading* was considered not important because maybe, the university students are not so confident about writing, or the recall of the text becomes difficult due to a lack of comprehension, or even because it is a tough task to do.

The eighth question asked students to point out which of the reading comprehension activities of the previous question their English teacher used in class (Q8: Quais das atividades acima o seu professor utiliza nas aulas de inglês (basta colocar a(s) letra(s))?). The three most cited activities were *discussion of the subject of the text after reading*, *relating the content of the text with movies, songs etc* and *exercises after reading*.

Table 8 – Reading comprehension activities used by the teacher

Reading comprehension activities	Score
a) Relate the content of the text with movies, songs etc.	37
b) Translation of key words of the text before reading.	21
c) Discussion about the content of the text before reading.	28
d) Exercises after reading.	37
e) Discussion about the content of the text after reading.	40
f) Summary after reading.	11

In this question the students had to say if their English teacher used the reading activities of the previous question in class or not. This question has the same objective of the one asked for the high school students. And in the same way as for the text types, I did not ask the teacher what reading activities she used in class, the objective of the question was to understand how the students viewed the use of reading activities. Therefore, in the same way as the high school teachers, university teachers work with post-reading activities to discuss the

content of the text, although they seem to prefer to relate the content with other medias instead of working with vocabulary, as has happened with the high school students.

The ninth question asked students to say what other reading activities their English teacher used in class (Q9: Que outras atividades de leitura o seu professor utiliza nas aulas de inglês?). Out of the total number, 68,88% answered that the most used activities were oral reading, production of class plans, group debates, texts chosen by the students and detailed analysis of books. 31,11% did not answer this question. In the same way as the high school students' answers analysis, I wanted the university students to complement this issue of reading activities with any other activity they remembered, with the same objective to understand how they viewed the classroom activities.

The last question of the second part of the questionnaire asked how these reading comprehension activities could help students to improve their text comprehension (Q10: Como você acha que essas atividades ajudam na sua compreensão do texto?). For the 75,55% of the students who answered, the general comments were that the activities help them to gain more vocabulary, improve their comprehension, analyze peers' opinion, facilitate the understanding through debates, increase knowledge and make the student more meticulous in her/his interpretation. 24,44% did not answer this question, and only one student declared that the activities did not help in any way. Here are two answers which illustrate these points:

US9: Inserir um contexto relacionado à realidade, antes ou depois da leitura, faz com que os alunos se apropriem do texto.

US10: A leitura e o debate facilitam muito, porque muitas vezes por ser escrito em uma língua que ainda não dominamos, o texto pode ficar confuso e com algumas dúvidas, mas debatendo com o professor essas dúvidas desaparecem ou são aliviadas.

The objective of this question was to investigate how aware the students were about the role that reading activities play as strategies in reading comprehension. In the university students' case, as it happened with the high school students', most of them also seemed to reach the comprehension monitoring level (Gagné et al,1993), in which readers establish a purpose for reading and choose which strategies are better for the kind of text, decisions that help them to verify and remediate problems while reading. This means that the students are able to identify

their comprehension problems and use the reading activities as a ‘means to an end’, in the specific case of this study.

The third part of the questionnaire was about the students’ habits concerning L2 reading in their leisure time. In the eleventh question there are some text types which are generally read outside classroom: *books, magazines, newspapers, comics, poems and lyrics*, the same text types of the high school students’ questionnaire. The students had to mark the frequency they read these texts (Q11: Marque quais dos textos abaixo você costuma ler em inglês (impresso e/ou online) e com que frequência). As shown in Table 9 below, the text type the students mostly read was *magazines* and the one they read the least was *newspapers*.

Table 9 – Leisure time text types and reading frequency

	Daily	Weekly	Occasionally	Never
Books	5	1	26	10
Magazines	1	6	29	7
Newspapers	0	3	16	22
Poems	0	2	26	13
Comics	1	4	18	18
Lyrics	22	12	9	1
Others	12	7	8	1

The objective of this question was to have an overview of the students’ leisure time reading: which kind of texts they read and how often they read these texts. Based on these results, the next two questions present the relation between the texts read at class and the ones read ‘at home’.

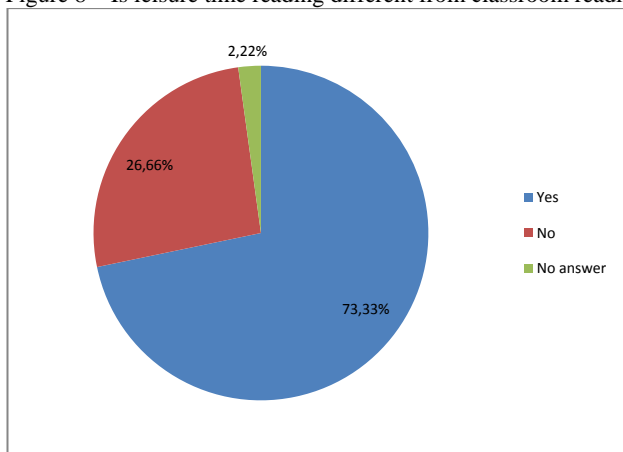
The twelfth question asked the students if they considered leisure time reading different from classroom reading (Q12: Você acha que esse tipo de leitura é diferente da leitura na sala de aula? Por quê?). Figure 8 below shows that out of the 45 participants, 73,33% of the students reported that these reading situations are different, the most common answer was that they preferred the leisure time reading because it is a personal choice, it is a more relaxed reading, there is no obligation, it is the reader’s interest that counts, because what happens in class is that it is the teacher who chooses what to read. There were also 4,44% who preferred classroom reading, because they have support from the teacher and in class they can analyze and debate the texts. 26,66% declared that there was no difference between the two types of reading. These students highlighted that the objective of reading is the same for both situations: to learn more about the L2, and that the

English classes were updated and contextualized, so there was no difference either. 2,22% (one student) did not answer this question. Following, there are two answers to exemplify these points:

US40: Sim, a leitura fora de sala geralmente é de interesse do aluno, e acaba sendo mais prazerosa.

US6: Não. Porque a partir do momento em que fazemos a leitura de algum tipo de texto em inglês, estamos acrescentando conhecimento pessoal a respeito da língua. Isso contribui para as atividades em sala de aula.

Figure 8 – Is leisure time reading different from classroom reading?



Compared to the high school students' answers, the university students saw less differences between classroom reading and leisure time reading. This difference was in relation to the way the texts are read and the purpose readers apply to them, not exactly in relation to the content. In this case, what seems important to the university students is to read whatever they like/need, but without obligation, that is, they like to read any kind of texts, but without restriction of time, they would rather do it 'on their own pace'.

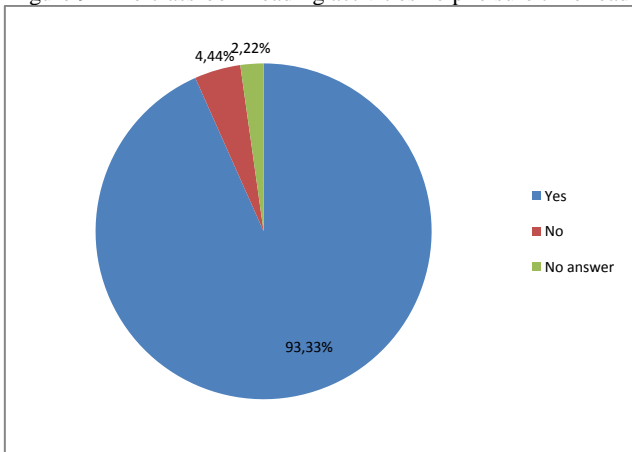
The 13th question asked the students if they thought classroom reading activities helped in leisure time reading (Q13: Você acha que as atividades de leitura em sala ajudam na leitura de lazer? Como?). As shown in Figure 9, 93,33% of the students agreed that reading activities help in leisure time reading, they reported that this kind of reading help to increase vocabulary, help in reading comprehension and encourage

them to look for a certain subject. 4,44% declared that these activities do not help in leisure time reading and 2,22% (one student) did not answer. Following, two answers illustrate these points:

US13: Sim. Toda atividade de leitura vai facilitar outra leitura posterior, logo, apenas o fato de ler na sala de aula ajudará a compreensão da próxima leitura, sendo de lazer ou não.

US21: Não, pelo fato de ser uma obrigação.

Figure 9 – Do classroom reading activities help leisure time reading?



We can notice that most part of the students agreed that the reading activities improve leisure time reading comprehension, complementing the knowledge of vocabulary and encouraging them to know more about a specific subject. What is interesting about the university students' answers is that they consider valuable every kind of reading, and what is different between them is the purpose for each one; what makes the readings enjoyable or boring is the obligation of classroom activities.

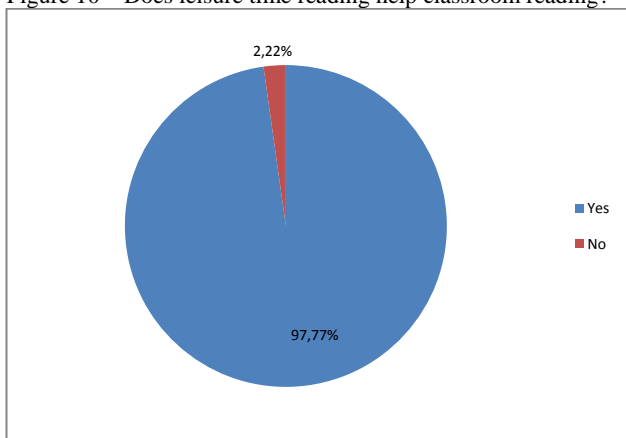
The 14th question asked about the opposite situation: if the leisure time reading could provide a better understanding to classroom reading (Q14: E essas leituras de lazer ajudam a entender melhor as leituras de sala de aula? Como?). Figure 10 shows that 97,77% of the students answered that it was useful to improve vocabulary, it was a complement to classroom reading, it promoted intertextuality and the

reading habit always improve classroom outcome (see extracts below). Only 2,22% did not agree.

US2: Também, muitas vezes é possível relacionar um texto lido em sala com outro lido por lazer.

US27: Sim. Porque ajudam-nos a contextualizar a leitura de sala de aula.

Figure 10 – Does leisure time reading help classroom reading?



In relation to the answers to this question, we can clearly see that, in the view of the university students in this study, leisure time reading help in classroom reading. From this, we can notice that their reading behavior is very different from the high school students'. The fact that university students seem to read more 'at home' makes them establish connections between readings, what promotes the intertextuality and contextualization of the classroom texts. Following Almeida's (2010) comments again on Davies's (1995) ideas, analyzing reading behavior allows us to understand readers' point of view about reading, and in the case of this study, it seems that university students are able to read a great variety of texts, which makes them use different reading strategies to cope with the connections they need to make between the different kinds of reading.

The last part of the questionnaire also asked the students what they thought about L2 reading, just as the high school students' questionnaire did. In the 15th question they had to think about what it means to be a good L2 reader (Q15: Para você, o que é ser um bom

leitor em inglês?). All the students answered this question. They reported that a good reader is someone who comprehends and interprets the text meaning, contextualizes the text, does not use the dictionary, reads different genres everyday and makes connections with other texts. Here are excerpts to exemplify:

US9: Um bom leitor, na minha opinião, é aquele que não somente lê, mas realmente absorve conhecimento e o relaciona com o “real” para verificar a veracidade dos fatos.

US11: É saber ler o texto e relacioná-lo com contextos diferentes e com leituras anteriores.

In this question we can identify a general level of readers considered by the university students, differently from the high school students’ view. Based on Gagné et al’s (1993) ideas, readers use *procedural knowledge*, which means that they are able to make inferences on the text, i.e. they complement the ideas of the text by integrating them where they do not connect with each other, summarizing when there is too much information, and elaborating when there is not enough information. The university students in this study affirmed interacting with the text, as well as absorbing the text content, contributing to this process by linking the ideas in the text being read with other ideas from other texts. Bringing the reading models (Urquhart & Weir, 1998) to understand these results, it is possible to say that university readers are able to read guided by the top down and interactive approaches, in the sense that they bring their own ideas about the text content, and can also compare those ideas to it.

The 16th question asked the students what it meant to be a bad L2 reader (Q16: E o que é ser um mau leitor?). The students answered that a bad reader does not demonstrate interest, does not comprehend the text, translates all the words, read by obligation, does not clarify doubts and satisfies her/himself with a superficial comprehension of the text. Following, there are answers which exemplify the general comments:

US11: Não compreender o sentido do texto, sem saber relacioná-lo com outros textos e contextos.

US27: Fazer a leitura sem reflexão aceitando tudo o que o texto traz.

Taking Gagné et al’s (1993) ideas again and based on students’ answers, it is possible to say that bad readers are not achieving the

necessary level of *procedural knowledge* due to the fact that they seem to have problems in comprehending the literal information of the text and, consequently, they cannot make inferences on it. An interesting aspect of these answers is that some students stated that a bad reader does not reflect on what s/he reads, which demonstrates that the students are aware of the importance of being critical about what is read. Wallace (2003) highlights that a critical reader maintains an interactive relationship with the text, which means that what s/he brings to text is as important as what s/he takes from the text.

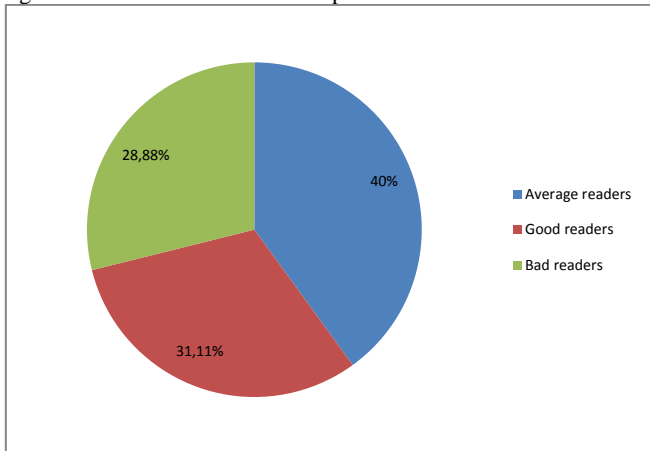
In the 17th question the students had to describe themselves as L2 readers (Q17: O que você pensa sobre você como leitor em inglês?). Below, Figure 11 shows that 40% out of the total number of students reported being average readers, 31,11% considered themselves as good readers and 28,88% as bad readers. For the ones who considered themselves as average readers, they declared that they needed to dedicate more time for reading and they read with effort and concentration. The ones who saw themselves as good readers stated that they could interpret the text, read a lot and did not get stuck in unknown words. Those who saw themselves as bad readers reported a need to read more, had difficulties with grammar and needed to improve their comprehension. Here are answers from each kind of student:

US45: Alguém que o faz por prazer e não obrigação e sempre utiliza como ferramenta para o encontro com novidades e conhecimento.

US10: Regular, ainda existem dificuldades com o vocabulário.

US34: Penso que preciso me dedicar mais, e tenho muito ainda que aprender.

Figure 11 – L2 readers' self-description



In this question students had to evaluate themselves as readers, based on the previous answers about good and bad readers. According to Tomitch and Scherer (2008), the characteristics that ‘bad readers’ share usually reveal that they have problems with the L2 lexical and syntactic structure, which impairs their comprehension of the text due to the overloading of working memory capacity, the same problems that occurred with the high school students (as reported in the subsection of high school students’ answers). When the L2 is not a problem for comprehension, readers start interacting with the text. The authors highlight that readers are able to extract and attribute meaning to the text successfully, by connecting the content of the text and the background information they already have stored in their long-term memory. These characteristics describe good readers’ behavior. The ‘average readers’ declared that their main problem was lack of time, otherwise they would be able to dedicate themselves to become ‘good readers’.

The 18th question asked the students what they could do to improve their L2 reading ability (Q18: O que você poderia fazer para melhorar sua leitura?). As for the high school students, the predominant answer was that they needed to read more. Among these students, 26,66% answered that they needed to read different genres, have more interest and time, take an L2 course and learn more vocabulary. To illustrate this point, here are two answers:

US10: Um maior interesse e aumentar a frequência para que torne-se um hábito e algo mais fácil.

US35: Continuar a ler artigos, reportagens e outros tipos de leituras, afim de melhorar o vocabulário e ter mais confiança.

Here we can see something similar to the high school students' answers. The university students know exactly what they have to do to improve their reading. Bringing Flôres's (2008) ideas again, she declares that readers know that the main objective of reading is to get the meaning of the written text, based on this, they will try to improve their reading ability in order to better understand the text. The author states that this approach to the text is based on the community where the text is disseminated, which means that people will deal with the text guided by their perception of reality.

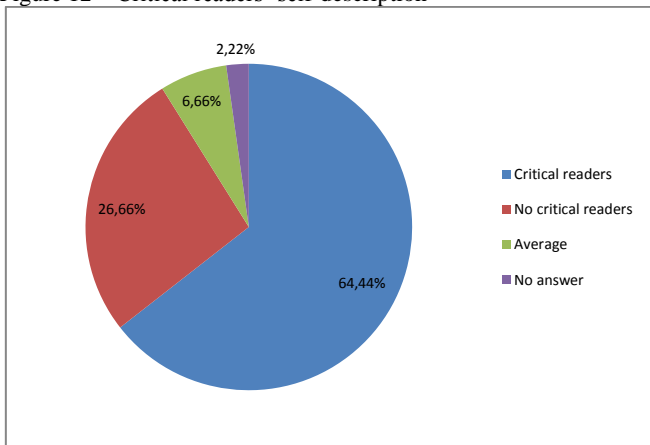
In the 19th question, the students had to say if they considered themselves critical readers and why (Q19: Você se considera um leitor crítico? Por quê?). As shown in Figure 12 below, 64,44% of the students reported being critical readers, 26,66% declared not being critical readers, 6,66% stated that they were average readers, and one student did not answer this question. The students who considered themselves critical readers pointed out that they always reflect upon the text, discuss about the content and criticize the text. The average readers answered that one can only criticize when one understands the text. The students who labeled themselves as noncritical readers highlighted that they needed to read more to get deep in the text and to be a critical reader, there is the need to know the L2. Following, I add three students' answers to exemplify:

US45: Sim. Um leitor crítico é um bom usuário das informações e de divulgá-las. Quebrar preconceitos e saber distingui-los. Procurar coesão com a realidade e nunca ser anacrônico.

US28: Em língua inglesa, mais ou menos. Porque às vezes não entendo o que está escrito, e quando a gente não entende, não pode nem criticar.

US3: Não. Teria que ler mais para ser um leitor crítico, e acho que preciso ter um conhecimento do contexto em que ele foi escrito para ser crítico. Mas só faço isso se a atividade que é dada exige, e não procuro ler textos por lazer, que eu ache que não conheço o contexto, ou que seja muito complicado.

Figure 12 – Critical readers’ self-description



Until now, the questions were not using the term ‘critical’, but they were leading the students to this aspect of reading behavior, as it was done with the high school students. In this question, they were directly questioned about it. According to Figueiredo (2003), reading is a social act, which pushes the reader in an engagement with the text. This social relation between reader and text means that a critical reader will profit from the content of the text and apply it in his/her everyday situations. The critical aspect of reading, in this case, is how readers are going to deal with the dominant meaning of the material available for them. In relation to this study, we can see that most of the university students are critical readers, they report being able to absorb all the meaning that the texts in L2 carry, differently from the high school students, who report not being able to do this. Still comparing with high school students’ answers, we can see that the university students who affirmed not being critical readers are aware of their possible lack of L2 knowledge, which impairs their critical analysis of the texts. Here we can possibly attribute the age factor, developmental in nature, due to the fact that the reader’s linguistic knowledge continues to develop with age and experience, as Alderson (2000) highlights.

In the last question of the questionnaire the students had to choose the level of relevance in a list of attitudes towards critical reading (Q20: Escolha o grau de relevância que as atitudes abaixo têm para uma leitura crítica). This question is the same one used in high school students’ questionnaire and was analyzed in the same way too. According to the university students’ answers, the most important

attitudes were to *understand the social context of the text, discover the deep meaning of the text, question the ideas of the text and have conscious of the language of the text*. The attitude that would not make any difference, according to them, was to *judge the relevance of the text*. And the attitude that was not considered important to promote critical reading was to *make questions about the content of the text*.

Table 10 – Critical reading attitudes by university students

	Important	It does not make any difference	It is not important
a) Understand the social context of the text.	42	3	0
b) Discover the deep meaning of the text.	42	1	2
c) Have an interactive process with the text.	33	8	1
d) Analyze, synthesize and evaluate the text.	38	6	0
e) Recognize prejudice in the text.	32	12	1
f) Judge the relevance of the text.	25	17	1
g) Make questions about the content of the text.	35	7	3
h) Make interpretations about the text.	41	2	2
i) Compare the content with other similar texts.	34	7	2
j) Monitor your comprehension of the text.	31	12	2
k) Use reading strategies.	34	10	1
l) Question the ideas of the text.	42	3	0
m) Reflect about the culture presented in the text.	39	6	0
n) Manipulate and criticize different types of texts.	34	10	0
o) Have more social awareness.	29	16	0
p) Have awareness about the language of the text.	42	2	0

q) Reconstruct social relations and identities through the text.	30	12	1
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From the results obtained by the Likert scale, it becomes clear that university students also preferred to understand the text by itself when choosing to *discover the deep meaning of the text*, to *question the ideas of the text*, to *have awareness about the language of the text*, although they also thought it would be important to *understand the social context of the text*, which means that the context is relevant to comprehend the author's ideas. According to Table 10, it is possible to say that there were no reading attitudes considered unimportant, due to the low score attributed by the students.

4.1.3 High school teachers' answers

The questionnaire for the high school teachers (see Appendix 3) was divided into three parts: personal data, L2 classes and L2 reading classes, with a total of 18 questions.

Two female teachers answered the questionnaire (see questions for the first part of the questionnaire in Appendix 3), teacher A being 50 and teacher B being 52 years old. Both participants have been working as teachers for 25 years, while teacher B has been working for 15 years out of the total at Colégio Estadual João Manoel Mondrone. Both have undergraduate degree in Letras Portuguese/English, and teacher B has a specialization in Portuguese and an MA in Psicopedagogia.

The second part of the questionnaire was about how the teachers conducted their L2 classes. In the seventh question, they had to answer how many lessons they gave in a month (Q7: Quantas aulas no mês são disponibilizadas para a sua disciplina?). Teacher A pointed out all the four grades she had, totalizing 32 classes a month. Teacher B answered about one of her grades in which she gave eight classes a month. In the same question, they had to divide the number of lessons in five categories: *conversation*, *listening*, *reading*, *writing* and *grammar* (Dessas aulas, quantas você dedica para cada uma das categorias abaixo? conversação; escuta; leitura; escrita; gramática). As shown in Table 11, teacher A divided her lessons in two for conversation, five for listening, four for reading, ten for writing and ten for grammar; teacher B divided in one for conversation, one for listening, two for reading, two for writing and two for grammar.

Table 11 – Number of classes per communication skills

	Teacher A	Teacher B
Conversation	2	1
Listening	5	1
Reading	4	2
Writing	10	2
Grammar	10	2

The objective of this question was to see how teachers divided their classes into the categories listed above and how many of these classes were dedicated to reading. From the results, we can see that reading is not the priority of English classes, it has the same number of classes or less than the other categories. In the next question, teachers try to explain why this happens.

In the eighth question they had to explain which of the categories of the previous question was easier to work with the students (Q:8 Qual/Quais categoria(s) do item 7 é/são mais fácil/fáceis de trabalhar com seus alunos? Por quê?). Teacher A answered that writing, grammar and reading were easier than conversation and listening, due to the number of students and the lack of an appropriate stereo system. Teacher B answered that writing and grammar were also easier than the other categories because of the number of students, and she also reported that almost all the students are able to do the tasks, but that listening, reading and conversation demand interest from the students in the L2. As teacher B reported, students need to be interested in the activities proposed by the teacher, so that they can improve their fluency in each one of the categories.

The third part of the questionnaire was specifically about the L2 reading classes. In the ninth question there were some statements related to reading attitudes that were taken from Aebersold and Field (2006) (Q9: Marque as frases com as quais você concorda.) Table 12 below shows these attitudes and teachers' answers.

Table 12 – Extensive and intensive approaches to reading

	Teacher A	Teacher B
a) Student's L2/FL reading ability will improve greatly if they will read more than four texts a week.	x	x
b) Every L2/FL text needs to be completely and fully understood in order for students' reading comprehension to improve.		
c) L2/FL reading ability improves when students read for real reasons: to get		x

information to use for an argument, a report, to find out what is going on in the world.		
d) Teachers know best which texts are appropriate for improving their students' reading.	x	x
e) Reading to get the general idea of an article or just the main ideas is sufficient to improve reading skills.	x	x
f) L2/FL readers should be able to select the texts that they read.	x	x
g) The quantity of reading is not as important as the quality of the comprehension of the text.	x	x
h) Doing several language and comprehension exercises at the end of each reading greatly improves L2/FL reading ability.		

In this question, sentences (a), (c), (e) and (f) refer to an *extensive reading approach*, while the sentences (b), (d), (g) and (h) represent the *intensive reading approach*. According to Aebersold and Field (2006), in an extensive approach to reading, the belief is that when reading large quantities of texts for general comprehension, the reading ability will improve. This kind of reading is used as a 'means' to an end. The authors say that when teachers use this approach, almost all the reading is done outside classroom, the objective is to make students read for comprehension of main ideas, not for details. They have to read large quantities of texts and more than one text on the same topic, this will enrich their background knowledge about the topic they are reading and will also help on the new texts they are asked to read. In an intensive approach to reading, the text is the end in itself. Students read carefully, seeking for the maximum comprehension, teachers provide direction and help in the process, giving exercises which require deep work in all the aspects of the text.

The answers to this question show that both teachers agreed with both approaches, although they both marked more sentences related to the extensive approach than to the intensive approach. Analyzing the choices according to Aebersold and Field's (2006) list, teachers considered better for the students to read more texts during the week to improve their reading ability, what goes in agreement with the choice of comprehending only the main ideas of the texts, i.e. read more texts to get a general understanding of a subject; although, at the same time, they also agreed with reading a text for full comprehension. What

is also interesting to notice is that teachers want their students to be autonomous when choosing their own texts to read, at the same time teachers want to control students' reading, showing that both approaches are valuable, but in different moments and contexts; and only teacher B agreed with a purpose to reading beyond the text, what complements the ideas of the extensive approach she signaled.

The tenth question asked about the advantages and disadvantages of using authentic and modified texts in L2 (Q10: Quais são as vantagens e desvantagens de se usar textos autênticos (extraídos de revistas, jornais etc.) e modificados (adequação em termos de gramática, vocabulário etc. ao nível dos alunos) em inglês?). Teacher A declared that

Primeiramente acredito que textos autênticos são mais importantes, pois os alunos [participam] e [entendem] mais. Quanto à adequá-los p[ara] trabalhar texto[,] gramática[,] acredito que não seria interessante [e] nem os faço, pois q[uan]do trabalho a gramática é porque teve a necessidade de apresentá-la.

Teacher B answered that

A vantagem dos textos autênticos é de que o aluno estará em contato com assuntos mais peculiares à sua idade ou grupo de interesse. Quanto aos modificados, facilitam o conhecimento, auxiliando na compreensão, apreensão gramatical, o que fará com que sua posterior fala e escrita fiquem mais próximas da língua padrão.

Teacher A considered authentic texts better than modified texts in all aspects, while teacher B considered both kinds of texts valuable. Devine (1998) comments on the pedagogical implications of the use of authentic or modified texts in L2. She highlights that for most of beginning-level readers it is difficult to handle with the syntactic complexities of authentic texts, that is why the practice of simplifying texts makes good pedagogical sense. In this case, a better term for this simplification would be 'appropriateness' of reading material, which is related to syntactic simplification, amount of redundancy in a text and textual 'density' or 'heaviness'. Aebersold and Field (2006) also agree with the advantage and purpose of modifying texts, as it allows students with L2 proficiency below the original text to read and comprehend the message of the text. Based on these arguments, we can see that it is interesting to work with modified texts, to the extent that the modifications happen according to the proficiency level of the students.

In the eleventh question, the teachers had to choose, through a Likert scale (*always/sometimes/never*), the frequency with which they performed some activities (Q11: Marque com que frequência você realiza estas atividades nas aulas de leitura em inglês.). Table 13 below shows these activities and the teachers' answers.

Table 13 – Frequency of reading comprehension activities performed by high school teachers

	Always	Sometimes	Never
a) Establishing a purpose for reading.		A / B	
b) Activating and/or building previous knowledge.		A / B	
c) Predicting the content of the text to create expectations.	A	B	
d) Reading the text quickly to have clues about the main ideas.		A / B	
e) Reading the first sentence of each paragraph to know what is the presented idea.		A / B	
f) Looking for specific information.		A / B	

In this question, teachers had to mark the frequency they performed the chosen reading activities. According to Aebersold and Field (2006), these are pre-reading activities. Most readers use these activities in their L1 reading, which were learned from experience with comprehension problems. When students are able to master these activities, they improve their L2 reading. From the results, we can see that teachers agree with the use of these pre-reading activities, collaborating with the improvement of students' L2 reading.

In the twelfth question the teachers had to put in order of importance the four proposed foci they used in the reading classes: a) focus on content; b) focus on strategies; c) focus on tasks; and d) focus on grammar. (Q12: Marque por ordem de importância qual dos focos você mais utiliza nas aulas de leitura (1 para mais utilizado e 4 para menos utilizado): foco no conteúdo; foco nas estratégias; foco nas tarefas; foco na gramática). Brown's (1994) insightful work on the integration of the four communicative skills provided a new view of teaching, in which this integration was essential for an interactive approach. Based on this idea, he suggested five models to guide teachers when using the four skills: the content-based teaching; the theme-based teaching; the experiential learning; the episode hypothesis; and task-based teaching. For this question, I decided to use this idea of different teaching foci and redirect this to the study with texts. Working with

different foci in reading enables teachers to transmit different aspects of the texts, e.g. the aspects chosen as foci for the twelfth question. This is important for the students because they become more conscious about these aspects and can reach different levels of comprehension. Table 14 below shows that teacher A classified *focus on content* and *focus on strategies* as the most important foci and *focus on tasks* and *focus on grammar* as the least important. Teacher B classified the foci in this order: *focus on strategies*, *focus on content*, *focus on grammar* and *focus on tasks*.

Table 14 – Reading foci according to teachers' choice

	Teacher A	Teacher B
a) Focus on content	1	2
b) Focus on strategies	4	1
c) Focus on tasks	4	4
d) Focus on grammar	1	3

In the next question it is possible to see how this idea was developed by the teachers, when they describe how they work with the different foci.

In the 13th question teachers had to explain their previous answers (Q13: Explique brevemente as escolhas da pergunta 12). Teacher A stated that every time she worked with texts she focused on reading comprehension by checking understanding of the idea of each paragraph; interpreting through raising of expectations; or looking for specific information without translation. Teacher B explained that *focus on strategies* leads the students through different paths, if they are interested in the proposed text; *focus on content* demands an extra attention, because the text needs to be consistent with the previous knowledge of the students, if the texts are too difficult the students will lose interest; *focus on grammar* promotes a revision of known situations and introduction of grammar rules; and *focus on tasks* depends on the texts, because the students can search about the subject and maybe write their own texts.

The 14th question asked how the teachers promote the making of inferences of information that is not clearly exposed in the texts (Q14: Como você promove a formação de inferências de informações que não estão claramente expostas no texto?). Teacher A answered that she does it through words and expressions that are close to Portuguese and also clarifying doubts of the students. Teacher B said she asks the

students what they already know about the subject or she makes them remember facts that are related to the theme of the text.

The objective of this question was to understand how teachers help students make inferences on the text. The results show that teachers make the students recall information of the text and relate it to their background knowledge. According to Graesser and Kreuz (1993), these kind of inferences are called ‘knowledge-based inferences’ because they are “produced during text comprehension when world knowledge structures are activated, and the content of these structures is incorporated into the constructed meaning of the text” (p. 146).

In the 15th question the teachers had to briefly explain what they understand by critical reading (Q15: Explique brevemente o que você entende por leitura crítica). Teacher A reported that

Leitura crítica é a capacidade do aluno interpretar ou entender os propósitos do texto e inferir nele suas idéias favoráveis ou contrárias ao seu ponto de vista.

Teacher B answered that

Leitura crítica é um processo de compreensão abrangente no qual exige de nós, leitores, o envolvimento da sensibilidade, da emoção, do intelecto, da nossa cultura, economia, política, enfim, tudo o que nos envolve e rodeia.

Based on these answers, we notice that teachers brought different points of view, the former is more related to the text per se, where the student judges its relevance according to her/his knowledge, and the latter states that the context where the student is inserted in is an important factor to judge the text. We can relate these points of view according to Wallace’s (2003) ideas about the weak view of critical reading and the strong one (as already discussed in Chapter 2, in this work). Based on these premises, teacher A seems to agree with the weak view of critical reading, which means the ability of criticizing texts, noticing inconsistencies and lack of clarity, what encourages independence of thought. Teacher B seems to have a more strong view of critical reading, where readers critique not only the micro features of texts but consider wider implications related to the discourses embedded in the texts.

In the 16th question teachers had to answer how they promote critical reading in the L2 texts they used in class (Q16: Como você promove a leitura crítica dos textos em inglês?). Teacher A said she

promotes critical reading through fast reading, interpretation, making of inferences, asking the students what they would add or take from the text and analyze the text as if it were a review. Teacher B answered that she shows the students that everyone is able to abstract information from a text, but there is a need to be open-minded to receive the information that will enrich the reader's life intellectually or emotionally.

Here again, there are two different points of view. The former is related to a textual perspective, and the latter to an attitudinal perspective. Based on DCEs (2007)'s educational view of critical reading, teacher A seems to help her students to understand the relation between reader and meaning making, enlarging their perception. Teacher B helps her students by making them confront their perspectives and attitudes before the world, although they are limited by the communities they are inserted into, which means that people need to understand the rules of their community to be able to confront them.

In the 17th question the teachers had to evaluate their students' critical reading (Q17: Como você avalia a leitura crítica dos seus alunos?). Teacher A answered that in relation to the students' output, she evaluates their reading behavior through the inferences they make and through their comprehension of the text. Teacher B answered in relation to the process they go through. She reported that reading is not an easy comprehension task, it happens slowly and in short steps with the teacher's help. She complemented by stating that due to cultural habits, there is not enough reading in Portuguese, so this problem reflects in English.

The last question was the same question of the students' questionnaire, a list of critical reading attitudes (see Table 15 below) (Q18: Escolha o grau de relevância que as atitudes abaixo têm para uma leitura crítica). From the attitudes that teachers signaled as not being important, I presumed that these approaches to reading may be difficult to work in class, as for example, when both teachers chose *manipulating and criticizing different types of text*, maybe because it is difficult to work with too many different types of text, when there are not as many classes to develop appropriate activities as desirable. Below, there is the table with the attitudes and teachers' choices.

Table 15 – Critical reading attitudes by high school teachers

	Important	It does not make any difference	It is not important
a) Understand the social context of the text.	A / B		
b) Discover the deep meaning of the text.	B	A	
c) Have an interactive process with the text.	A / B		
d) Analyze, synthesize and evaluate the text.	B	A	
e) Recognize prejudice in the text.	B		A
f) Judge the relevance of the text.	A		B
g) Make questions about the content of the text.	B	A	
h) Make interpretations about the text.	A / B		
i) Compare the content with other similar texts.	A		B
j) Monitor your comprehension of the text.	A		B
k) Use reading strategies.	A / B		
l) Question the ideas of the text.	A		B
m) Reflect about the culture presented in the text.	A / B		
n) Manipulate and criticize different types of texts.			A / B
o) Have more social conscience.	A		B
p) Have conscience about the language of the text.	A / B		
q) Reconstruct social relations and identities through the text.	A / B		

4.1.4 University teachers' answers

The questionnaire for the university teachers (see Appendix 4) was also divided into three parts: personal data, L2 classes and L2 reading classes, with a total of 18 questions, like the high school teachers' questionnaire.

Two female teachers answered the questionnaire (see the questions for this first part of the questionnaire in Appendix 4), teacher C being 32 and teacher D being 37 years old. Teacher C has been working as an English teacher for ten years, and teacher D for six years. Both have been working at the Universidade Estadual do Oeste do Paraná for four years. Both teachers teach English language and teacher C also teaches literature. Teacher C has an undergraduate degree in *Letras* English and a specialization in English, and teacher D has an undergraduate degree in *Letras*, MA and PhD in Linguistics and Portuguese.

The second part of the questionnaire was about how the teachers conducted their L2 classes. As it is a specific university course in English, there are different foci. Teacher C's class had a focus on writing and teacher D's had a focus on the language itself. In the seventh question, they had to answer how many lessons they gave in a month (Q7: *Quantas aulas no mês são disponibilizadas para a sua disciplina?*). Teacher C answered about one of her grades in which she gave from eight to ten lessons. Teacher D summed all the grades she had, totalizing 32 lessons. In the same question, they had to divide the number of classes in five categories: *conversation, listening, reading, writing* and *grammar* (*Dessas aulas, quantas você dedica para cada uma das categorias abaixo? conversação; escuta; leitura; escrita; gramática*). Teacher C divided her lessons in ten for reading and ten for writing; teacher D divided in eight for conversation, four for listening, eight for reading, four for writing and eight for grammar, as shown in Table 16.

Table 16 – Number of classes per communication skills

	Teacher C	Teacher D
Conversation	-	8
Listening	-	4
Reading	10	8
Writing	10	4
Grammar	-	8

In the eighth question they had to explain which of the categories of the previous question was easier to work with the students

(Q8: Qual/Quais categoria(s) do item 7 é/são mais fácil/fáceis de trabalhar com seus alunos? Por quê?). Teacher C answered that all the categories have their difficulties and easiness, depending on the applied planning, the methodology used and also depending on the students' performance. Teacher D answered that listening was easier than the other categories because the students show good oral comprehension, obtaining good results on the proposed activities.

The third part of the questionnaire was specifically about the L2 reading classes. In the ninth question there were some sentences related to reading attitudes that were pointed out by Aebersold and Field (2006), in the same way as the high school teachers' questionnaire (Q9: Marque as frases com as quais você concorda). Table 17 below shows these reading attitudes and teachers' answers.

Table 17 – Extensive and intensive approaches to reading

	Teacher C	Teacher D
a) Student's L2/FL reading ability will improve greatly if they will read more than four texts a week.	x	
b) Every L2/FL text needs to be completely and fully understood in order for students' reading comprehension to improve.		
c) L2/FL reading ability improves when students read for real reasons: to get information to use for an argument, a report, to find out what is going on in the world.	x	
d) Teachers know best which texts are appropriate for improving their students' reading.		
e) Reading to get the general idea of an article or just the main ideas is sufficient to improve reading skills.		
f) L2/FL readers should be able to select the texts that they read.		
g) The quantity of reading is not as important as the quality of the comprehension of the text.	x	
h) Doing several language and comprehension exercises at the end of each reading greatly improves L2/FL reading ability.		x

This is the same question asked for high school teachers', where sentences (a), (c), (e) and (f) refer to an *extensive reading approach*, while the sentences (b), (d), (g) and (h) represent the *intensive reading approach*. Based on Aebersold and Field's (2006) explanations about these reading approaches, the results of this question show that teachers' answers are very different. Teacher C agreed with the idea of ability

improvement by reading a great amount of texts, the assignment of a purpose to texts and the full comprehension of texts. Whereas teacher D chose the alternative of exercises after reading to fixate and better comprehend the text and improve reading ability. Analyzing their choices, it is possible to see that teacher C agrees with different ways of approaching reading, one that makes students' reading ability increase by reading a great amount of texts, and the other, that makes students try to fully comprehend only one text. Both approaches help to reach the main goal of the third approach she chose, which establishes a purpose to reading, i.e. with a real purpose in mind, readers can choose how they are going to read only one text, or how they are going to obtain the information they need from more than one text. Considering teacher D's choice, it seems that she feels more comfortable with reading exercises, where she can control the variables that may come from the students' answers.

The tenth question asked about the advantages and disadvantages of using authentic and modified texts in L2 (Q10: Quais são as vantagens e desvantagens de se usar textos autênticos (extraídos de revistas, jornais etc) e modificados (adequação em termos de gramática, vocabulário etc. ao nível dos alunos) em inglês?). Teacher C declared that

Autênticos: vivência da produção real da língua em que podem se observar os aspectos culturais que estão imbricados na língua.

Modificados: propósitos didáticos. São úteis para trabalhar com aspectos estruturais e mesmo para encorajar a leitura em iniciantes, por exemplo.

Teacher D answered that

Os textos autênticos colocam o aluno em contato com a realidade da língua em uso, por exemplo, em linguagem jornalística. Outros tipos de textos, incluindo materiais reais (*realia*), também o aproxima da língua em contexto. Entretanto, é necessário verificar em que ponto do aprendizado o aluno está, para que a tarefa de compreensão não se torne um fardo ou obstáculo de aprendizagem, o que poderia alterar a motivação do aluno para o aprendizado da língua. Nesse ponto, sou a favor de textos modificados, como os *readers*, aos quais os alunos respondem bem e ficam felizes ao detectar o quanto realmente já sabem da língua inglesa.

Both teachers considered both kinds of texts valuable. Relying on the same authors' ideas about authentic and modified texts cited on

high school teacher's answers' analysis (Devine, 1998; Aebersold and Field, 2006), we can see that working with authentic or modified texts will depend on the level of proficiency of the students and on the purpose of the activity that teachers will choose.

In the eleventh question, the teachers had to choose through a Likert scale (*always/sometimes/never*) the frequency with which they performed some activities (Q11: Marque com que frequência você realiza essas atividades nas aulas de leitura em inglês). Table 18 below shows these activities and teachers' choices.

Table 18 – Frequency of reading comprehension activities performed by university teachers

	Always	Sometimes	Never
a) Establishing a purpose for reading.	C / D		
b) Activating and/or building previous knowledge.	C / D		
c) Predicting the content of the text to create expectations.	C / D		
d) Reading the text quickly to have clues about the main ideas.	C	D	
e) Reading the first sentence of each paragraph to know what is the presented idea.		C / D	
f) Looking for specific information.	D	C	

In this question, teachers had to mark the frequency they performed the chosen reading activities. Following Aebersold and Field's (2006) ideas about pre-reading activities, we can see that university teachers also agree with the use of these pre-reading activities, collaborating with the improvement of students' L2 reading. These results follow the same line of thought of the high school teachers' answers.

In the twelfth question the teachers had to put in order of importance the four proposed foci used in their reading lessons: a) focus on content; b) focus on strategies; c) focus on tasks; and d) focus on grammar. (Q12: Marque por ordem de frequência qual dos focos você mais utiliza nas aulas de leitura (1 para mais utilizado e 4 para menos utilizado): foco no conteúdo; foco nas estratégias; foco nas tarefas; foco na gramática). This question has the same objective of the high school teachers' questionnaire, which follows Brown's (1994) idea of the integration of the four communicative skills. Table 19 below shows that teacher C classified the foci in an ascendent order: *focus on content*,

focus on strategies, focus on tasks and focus on grammar; and teacher D: *focus on content, focus on grammar, focus on strategies and focus on tasks*.

Table 19 – Reading foci according to teachers' choice

	Teacher C	Teacher D
a) Focus on content	1	1
b) Focus on strategies	2	3
c) Focus on tasks	3	4
d) Focus on grammar	4	2

In the next question we can see the description of teachers work with the different foci. In the 13th question they had to explain the previous answer (Q13: Explique brevemente as escolhas da pergunta 12). Teacher C declared that *focus on content* was used to work with the central idea of the text and verify previous knowledge; *focus on strategies* was used to encourage the students to search for information in the text according to the objectives and also read the text even if they do not know all the words and structure; applying *focus on tasks* depends on the objectives of the activities; and *focus on grammar* is used when the objective is to present new structures. Teacher D explained that she chose *focus on content* because she is used to guide the students to comprehend what the text is saying; then *focus on grammar*, because the students need to recognize the structures of the text; after this comes *focus on strategies*, according to the genre that is being used; and the last is *focus on tasks*, because at this point, students already know the content of the text.

The 14th question asked how the teachers promote the making of inferences of information that were not clearly exposed in the texts (Q14: Como você promove a formação de inferências de informações que não estão claramente expostas no texto?). Teacher C answered that she does it by relating the idea of the text with its context. Teacher D reported that she talks to the students about the structure of the text and about what they can recognize from the text, teaching how to use reading strategies.

In this question, the objective was the same as the high school teachers' questionnaire, to understand how teachers help students making inferences on the text. Results show that teachers use text features to relate to the context of the text and make the students use reading strategies with the objective of activating the relevant schema of it. According to Graesser and Kreuz (1993), these kind of inferences are

called ‘knowledge-based inferences’ because they are “produced during text comprehension when world knowledge structures are activated, and the content of these structures is incorporated into the constructed meaning of the text” (p. 146), which is the case of the situation in this study. The use of strategies is required because readers deal with different kinds of texts, so they need to adjust them according to the reading situation (Lorch et al, 1995).

In the 15th question the teachers had to explain briefly what they understand by critical reading (Q15: Explique brevemente o que você entende sobre leitura crítica). Teacher C declared that

Compreensão do texto para além das palavras. Formação de leitores que sejam capazes de apreender a ideia do texto e a intencionalidade do mesmo.

Teacher D answered that

A leitura crítica não prevê apenas a compreensão do texto em si, mas inclui observar as intenções do autor, a razão pela qual certas estruturas gramaticais são utilizadas para veicular determinado conteúdo, para quem se escreve, a estrutura textual, enfim, ter uma percepção mais aguçada do texto enquanto tessitura, ou seja, um corpo complexo de significantes, significados e sentidos a serviço da veiculação de um conteúdo.

Based on these answers, we notice that teachers brought similar points of view, where the reader judges its relevance according to her/his knowledge, but needs to be aware of the meaning hidden behind the words. We can relate these points of view according to Wallace’s (2003) ideas about the weak view of critical and the strong one, in the same way that high school teachers’ answers were analyzed. Based on these premises, both teachers seem to have a strong view of critical, where readers critique not only the micro features of texts but consider wider implications related to the discourses within the texts.

The 16th question the teachers had to answer how they promote critical reading in the L2 texts they used in class (Q16: Como você promove a leitura crítica dos textos em inglês?). Teacher C said she promotes critical reading by establishing a relation with the vehicle of information, working with the aspects of vocabulary. Teacher D answered that she works daily with the students with all the aspects she mentioned in the previous question.

Here again there are similar answers from both teachers, based on a textual perspective. Based on DCEs' (2007) educational view of critical reading, both teachers help their students to understand the relation between reader and meaning making, enlarging students' perception in relation to the act of reading. The objective of reading in this situation is to make students understand that it is the interaction between culture, language, interpretative procedures, discourses collectively constructed and ideologies, which may be compared to with the relation between reader, text and author.

In the 17th question the teachers had to evaluate their students' critical reading (Q17: Como você avalia a leitura crítica dos seus alunos?). Teacher C answered that according to the students' output, they are reasonable. Teacher D also answered that according to their output, they have deficit problems.

The last question was the same question used in the other three questionnaires (Escolha o grau de relevância que as atitudes abaixo têm para uma leitura crítica). Table 20 below shows the listed critical reading attitudes and teachers' choices. Both teachers marked all the attitudes as important.

Table 20 – Critical reading attitudes by university teachers

	Important	It does not make any difference	It is not important
a) Understand the social context of the text.	C / D		
b) Discover the deep meaning of the text.	C / D		
c) Have an interactive process with the text.	C / D		
d) Analyze, synthesize and evaluate the text.	C / D		
e) Recognize prejudice in the text.	C / D		
f) Judge the relevance of the text.	C / D		
g) Make questions about the content of the text.	C / D		
h) Make interpretations about the text.	C / D		
i) Compare the content with other similar texts.	C / D		
j) Monitor your	C / D		

comprehension of the text.			
k) Use reading strategies.	C / D		
l) Question the ideas of the text.	C / D		
m) Reflect about the culture presented in the text.	C / D		
n) Manipulate and criticize different types of texts.	C / D		
o) Have more social conscience.	C / D		
p) Have conscience about the language of the text.	C / D		
q) Reconstruct social relations and identities through the text.	C / D		

All of these aspects are important for a critical reading, which both teachers agreed with, which shows that, when comparing with the other results, students may also profit from this consciousness to improve their reading abilities.

4.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

After analyzing and discussing the results of this study, I will answer the research questions proposed in the introductory chapter. The questions will be retaken and answered one by one.

4.2.1 How is reading in L2 defined in both high school and university classrooms?

From the results, it seems that there are not too many differences between high school and university participants' opinions in relation to reading in L2. For the high school students and teachers, reading is seen as a process that happens successfully if readers are provided with a suitable classroom environment, material that satisfies both teachers' and students' needs, and the most important aspect, if the knowledge shared in class help both sides to achieve their objectives, i.e. teachers are able to implement the planned activities successfully

and students are able to internalize the content of the activities. In relation to how students saw themselves as L2 readers, most of the high school students have a clear image of how they deal with L2 reading, their main issues are related with grammar aspects, vocabulary and literal comprehension, showing that their principal concerns remain in a text-driven point of view.

University students and teachers also agree with a suitable classroom environment, where the objectives from both sides contribute for the improvement of reading comprehension. The difference in relation to high school students is how university students saw themselves as L2 readers. Besides the issues mentioned before, university students are also concerned with social aspects of reading, for example, the ideology brought by the text. In relation to this aspect, their point of view seems to be guided by the way of thinking of the course they are enrolled in, the Letras course, which is motivated by social and educational issues. Always remembering that these results were not tested, they are based on participants' point of view.

4.2.2 How do university and high school teachers say that deal with L2 reading?

In relation to this research question, we also do not have so many differences between high school teachers' and university teachers' way of dealing with L2 reading. According to high school teachers' point of view, L2 reading is not an easy aspect to work in class due to the number of students, and this influences on how teachers prepare the activities. When dealing with the material, teachers try to use as many texts as possible, being authentic or modified. They agree with the use of pre-reading activities, as well as the reading guided by different foci, processes that enable the students to make their own inferences on the texts. But these activities can only happen successfully if the students are interested in what they are doing, otherwise they will not be able to achieve the expected goals.

What happens with the university teachers is a little different. According to university teachers' point of view, the main issues concerning the classroom environment are the way the activities are planned, which depends on the methodology used and they also need to increase students' performance. In relation to the texts, the university teachers agree with different ways of dealing with the texts, but the students need to have a purpose for their reading, in such a way that they

are able to improve their knowledge of the subject they need to read about. That is why teachers said that there is a need to be careful about authentic and modified texts: both are important, but they have to be chosen according to the students' level of comprehension, in a way that they do not feel demotivated. The university teachers also agree with the use of pre-reading activities and the specific foci on reading, just as the high school teachers. They are also aware of the importance of contributing to the students' production of inferences, which is very helpful for their increasing of comprehension. In this specific Letras course environment, university teachers are dealing with 'students-teachers', who seems to have conscience about the pedagogical implications of 'being able to read successfully'.

4.2.3 What are teachers' and students' views on critical reading?

In a general view, we can notice that the participants are concerned about the notion of critical reading and what it means to be a critical reader. Although the students are aware that they need to improve their critical reading, they seem to understand that it is very important to read critically, to understand the text and to be able to judge its relevance by transcending its ideological aspects.

According to the students' answers, it is possible to see that they affirm being 'critical' or 'noncritical', they really use these terms, but not necessarily attributing their actual meaning, here I mean the meaning I brought in the review of literature. Based on the excerpts I brought as examples in the discussion and analysis part, and also on the many others included in the questionnaires, we can notice that some of the students have a misconception of what critical reading is. Some of them see 'criticizing' as an act of looking for mistakes in the texts; look for biases, but only if there is any kind of biases, the text is worth criticizing; and there were also some students who said that readers need to know the content of the text to criticize, otherwise they do not have the 'right to do that'.

Apart from these students, the ones who followed the line of thought brought to this study are aware of the social aspects implied to the critical reader. These students said that to be a critical reader, they need to understand where they fit in society, and from that place, understand the reality around them. When they are able to that, they will be able to understand other realities and contrast them with their own. Texts are an important part in this process because they represent a

concrete tool to ‘have in hands’, and when we analyze this fact taking a L2 perspective, they can be considered the ‘link’ that people can use make these contrasts between cultures.

For the teachers, we can see that they are aware of the important role they represent inside classroom, their points of view about critical reading follow the line of thought of the literature brought to this study, where social issues have a strong influence. We can also notice the teachers’ engagement from the way they promote their students’ critical reading. They affirmed making the students think about the text, stimulating them to understand the content, judge the structure, confront the ideas of the text, and in this way, making them criticize the discourses embedded in the texts.

This shows how much teachers are concerned with the educational aspects of critical reading. As Moita Lopez (2009) highlights, L2 teachers need to be aware of their role as mediators of the L2 learning process, in a way that both teachers and students can profit from this association. It is not only teaching a L2, this role implicates teaching other world perspectives, other realities, which are changing in an endless process.

CHAPTER 5

FINAL CONSIDERATIONS, LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH, AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

In this chapter, I bring the final considerations of the discussions presented in this study, concerning the perspectives that teachers and students had about critical reading in L2. Following, I present some of the limitations of this study and suggestions for further research, closing with some pedagogical implications to the area of reading instruction.

5.1 FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

The aim of the present study was to investigate how teachers and students from both high school and university understood the concept of critical reading. For this, they were only asked about their point of view, they did not have to take tests to measure their level of critical reading.

Results have shown that students are aware of what it means to be a critical reader, and according to their point of view, they are also aware of their performance as critical readers. In relation to this aspect, there was a great difference between high school students and university students. There seemed to be a bigger number of critical readers among the university students than the high school students, which presupposes that the more world knowledge and experience you have, the more capacity you have to critique texts.

In relation to teachers' perspective, both high school teachers and university teachers seem to have the same conscience about critical reading. Their way of dealing with the classroom environment, preparing the activities and improving students' comprehension of texts show their point of view about the importance of L2 reading to the students' interaction in society, that is, the importance of learning how to read critically in a L2 to better understand the discourses that influence the society they live in.

5.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In this section, I will present the limitations that need to be taken in consideration when interpreting the current results, followed by what could be done for further research based on this study.

In this study only one instrument for data collection (questionnaire) was used due to the high number of participants. It would be interesting to use other instruments, such as interviews, so that answers could be triangulated. The results obtained from the questionnaires were based only on the participants' answers, a factor that does not allow the results to be 100% conclusive, because participants may change their real answers, i.e. they may change their answers to make a good impression on the researcher or just want to answer quickly and do not pay the attention required by the question.

The results of this study may contribute to further research mainly because the teachers' and students' reports about dealing with critical reading may give new insights to the reading area, which in turn, may improve reading practice inside and outside classrooms.

5.3 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This study is important due to its contribution for understanding how teachers and students react to concepts built by society. It is important to understand what people have understood from what they have learned, to bring their voices on the subject, so that the needed changes can take place.

In the specific case of this study, the perspectives that students and teachers, from both high school and university, have about critical reading were very positive, which shows that they are aware of their roles as critical readers. For the students, the main issue is to be open to all the knowledge they can absorb from the context they are inserted in. As for the teachers, their role is to be prepared to exchange background knowledge with their students, so students can profit from this experience and learn to comprehend different realities by understanding L2 texts with other perspectives.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1 – Questionnaire for high school students

Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
Centro de Comunicação e Expressão
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês
Mestranda: Ângela Maria Tremarin de Andrade
Orientadora: Lêda Maria Braga Tomitch

Car@ alun@,

Primeiramente gostaríamos de agradecer a sua generosidade em dispor do seu tempo para participar dessa pesquisa de mestrado. O objetivo deste questionário é coletar informações sobre o que você entende e acha sobre leitura **em inglês**, assim como seus hábitos dentro e fora de sala, ou seja, o que você costuma ler em seu tempo de lazer. Este questionário contém 20 questões, que levarão aproximadamente 30 minutos para serem respondidas. Você não precisa assinar seu nome, pois as respostas são anônimas. Por favor, responda sinceramente.

A) Dados gerais.

- 1) Sexo: () M () F
- 2) Idade: _____
- 3) Série: _____
- 4) Você já fez ou faz cursinho de inglês? () Sim () Não
 Por/Há quanto tempo? _____

B) Sobre a leitura em inglês na sala de aula.

- 5) Quais destes tipos de texto você lê nas aulas de inglês? Marque por ordem de frequência (escala: 1 para mais frequente e 8 para menos frequente).

- | | |
|--------------------|-------------------|
| () contos | () relatórios |
| () instruções | () explanatórios |
| () reportagens | () persuasivos |
| () argumentativos | () biografias |

- 6) Quais dos gêneros citados acima você prefere? Por quê?
- 7) Escolha o grau de relevância que as atividades abaixo proporcionam para entender melhor o conteúdo do texto em inglês (independentemente do seu professor utilizá-las em aula ou não).

	Importante	Não faz diferença	Não é importante
a) Relacionar o conteúdo do texto com filmes, músicas etc.			
b) Tradução de palavras-chave do texto antes da leitura.			
c) Discussão sobre o assunto do texto antes da leitura.			
d) Exercícios depois da leitura.			
e) Discussão sobre o assunto do texto depois da leitura.			
f) Resumo depois da leitura.			

- 8) Quais das atividades acima o seu professor utiliza nas aulas de inglês (basta colocar a(s) letra(s))?
- 9) Que outras atividades de leitura o seu professor utiliza nas aulas de inglês?
- 10) Como você acha que essas atividades ajudam na sua compreensão do texto?

C) Sobre a leitura em inglês no seu tempo de lazer.

11) Marque quais dos itens abaixo você costuma ler em inglês (impresso e/ou online) e com que frequência.

	Diariamente	Semanalmente	Ocasionalmente	Nunca
Livros				
Revistas				
Jornais				
Poemas				
Revistas em quadrinhos				
Letras de música				
Outros				

12) Você acha que esse tipo de leitura é diferente da leitura na sala de aula? Por quê?

13) Você acha que as atividades de leitura em sala de aula ajudam na leitura de lazer? Como?

14) E essas leituras de lazer ajudam a entender melhor as leituras de sala de aula? Como?

D) O que você pensa sobre a leitura em inglês.

15) Para você, o que é ser um bom leitor em inglês?

16) E o que é ser um mau leitor?

17) O que você pensa sobre você como leitor em inglês?

18) O que você acha que poderia fazer para melhorar sua leitura?

19) Você se considera um leitor crítico? Por quê?

20) Escolha o grau de relevância que as atitudes abaixo têm para uma leitura crítica.

	Importante	Não faz diferença	Não é importante
a) Entender o contexto social do texto.			

b) Descobrir qual é o real significado do texto.			
c) Ter um processo interativo com o texto.			
d) Analisar, sintetizar e avaliar o texto.			
e) Reconhecer preconceitos no texto.			
f) Julgar a relevância do texto.			
g) Fazer perguntas sobre o conteúdo do texto.			
h) Construir interpretações sobre o texto.			
i) Comparar o conteúdo com outros textos similares.			
j) Monitorar a sua compreensão do texto.			
k) Usar estratégias de leitura.			
l) Questionar as ideias do texto.			
m) Refletir sobre a cultura presente no texto.			
n) Manipular e criticar diferentes tipos de textos.			
o) Ter mais consciência social.			
p) Ter consciência da linguagem do texto.			
q) Reconstruir relações e identidades sociais através do texto.			

Appendix 2 – Questionnaire for university students

Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
Centro de Comunicação e Expressão
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês
Mestranda: Ângela Maria Tremarin de Andrade
Orientadora: Lêda Maria Braga Tomitch

Car@ alun@,

Primeiramente gostaríamos de agradecer a sua generosidade em dispor do seu tempo para participar dessa pesquisa de mestrado. O objetivo deste questionário é coletar informações sobre o que você entende e acha sobre leitura **em inglês**, assim como seus hábitos dentro e fora de sala, ou seja, o que você costuma ler em seu tempo de lazer. As questões sobre a leitura em sala de aula se referem às aulas de Língua Inglesa e Literatura Inglesa. Este questionário contém 20 questões, que levarão aproximadamente 30 minutos para serem respondidas. Você não precisa assinar seu nome, pois as respostas são anônimas. Por favor, responda sinceramente.

A) Dados gerais.

- 1) Sexo: () M () F
- 2) Idade: _____
- 3) Período: _____
- 4) Você já fez ou faz cursinho de inglês? () Sim () Não
Por/Há quanto tempo? _____

B) Sobre a leitura em inglês nas aulas de língua e literatura.

5) Quais destes tipos de texto você lê nas aulas de inglês? Marque por ordem de frequência (escala: 1 para mais frequente e 8 para menos frequente).

- | | |
|--------------------|-------------------|
| () contos | () relatórios |
| () instruções | () explanatórios |
| () reportagens | () persuasivos |
| () argumentativos | () biografias |

6) Quais você prefere? Por quê?

7) Escolha o grau de relevância que as atividades abaixo proporcionam para entender melhor o conteúdo do texto em inglês (independentemente do seu professor utilizá-las em aula ou não).

	Importante	Não faz diferença	Não é importante
a) Relacionar o conteúdo do texto com filmes, músicas etc.			
b) Tradução de palavras-chave do texto antes da leitura.			
c) Discussão sobre o assunto do texto antes da leitura.			
d) Exercícios depois da leitura.			
e) Discussão sobre o assunto do texto depois da leitura.			
f) Resumo depois da leitura.			

8) Quais das atividades acima o seu professor utiliza nas aulas de inglês (basta colocar a(s) letra(s))?

9) Que outras atividades de leitura o seu professor utiliza nas aulas de inglês?

10) Como você acha que essas atividades ajudam na sua compreensão do texto?

C) Sobre a leitura em inglês no seu tempo de lazer.

11) Marque quais dos itens abaixo você costuma ler em inglês (impresso e/ou online) e com que frequência.

	Diariamente	Semanalmente	Ocasionalmente	Nunca
Livros				

Revistas				
Jornais				
Poemas				
Revistas em quadrinhos				
Letras de música				
Outros				

12) Você acha que esse tipo de leitura é diferente da leitura na sala de aula? Por quê?

13) Você acha que as atividades de leitura em sala ajudam na leitura de lazer? Como?

14) E essas leituras de lazer ajudam a entender melhor as leituras de sala de aula? Como?

D) O que você pensa sobre a leitura em inglês.

15) Para você, o que é ser um bom leitor em inglês?

16) E o que é ser um mau leitor?

17) O que você pensa sobre você como leitor em inglês?

18) O que você acha que poderia fazer para melhorar sua leitura?

19) Você se considera um leitor crítico? Por quê?

20) Escolha o grau de relevância que as atitudes abaixo têm para uma leitura crítica.

	Importante	Não faz diferença	Não é importante
a) Entender o contexto social do texto.			
b) Descobrir qual é o real significado do texto.			
c) Ter um processo			

interativo com o texto.			
d) Analisar, sintetizar e avaliar o texto.			
e) Reconhecer preconceitos no texto.			
f) Julgar a relevância do texto.			
g) Fazer perguntas sobre o conteúdo do texto.			
h) Construir interpretações sobre o texto.			
i) Comparar o conteúdo com outros textos similares.			
j) Monitorar a sua compreensão do texto.			
k) Usar estratégias de leitura.			
l) Questionar as ideias do texto.			
m) Refletir sobre a cultura presente no texto.			
n) Manipular e criticar diferentes tipos de textos.			
o) Ter mais consciência social.			
p) Ter consciência da linguagem do texto.			
q) Reconstruir relações e identidades sociais através do texto.			

Appendix 3 – Questionnaire for high school teachers

Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
Centro de Comunicação e Expressão
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês
Mestranda: Ângela Maria Tremarin de Andrade
Orientadora: Lêda Maria Braga Tomitch

Caro Professor,

Primeiramente gostaríamos de agradecer a sua generosidade em dispor do seu tempo para participar dessa pesquisa de mestrado. O objetivo deste questionário é coletar informações à respeito do que você acha sobre a **leitura em inglês** e sobre os procedimentos que você utiliza para ensiná-la. Este questionário contém 18 questões, que levarão aproximadamente 30 minutos para serem respondidas. Você não precisa assinar seu nome, pois as respostas são anônimas.

A) Dados Gerais

- 1) Sexo: () M () F
- 2) Idade: _____
- 3) Há quanto tempo você ministra aulas de inglês? _____
Nesse colégio? _____
- 4) Curso de graduação e instituição:
- 5) Curso de especialização e instituição:
- 6) Curso de pós-graduação e instituição:

B) Sobre as aulas de inglês

- 7) Quantas aulas no mês são disponibilizadas para a sua disciplina?
Dessas aulas, quantas você dedica para cada uma das categorias abaixo?

a) Conversação: _____	b) Escuta: _____
c) Leitura: _____	d) Escrita: _____
e) Gramática: _____	
- 8) Qual/Quais categoria(s) do item 7 é/são mais fácil/fáceis de trabalhar com seus alunos? Por quê?

C) Sobre as aulas de leitura em inglês

9) Marque as frases com as quais você concorda:

A habilidade de leitura em inglês aumenta muito quando os alunos leem no mínimo quatro textos por semana.

Qualquer texto em inglês precisa ser totalmente entendido para que a compreensão leitora dos alunos aumente.

A habilidade de leitura em inglês aumenta quando os alunos têm um propósito real: obter informações para usar em um argumento, um relatório, para descobrir o que está acontecendo no mundo.

Os professores têm mais conhecimento sobre quais textos são apropriados para melhorar a leitura dos seus alunos.

A leitura para obter a ideia geral de um artigo ou somente as ideias principais é suficiente para aumentar as habilidades de leitura.

Os leitores em inglês deveriam ser capazes de selecionar sozinhos os textos que leem.

A quantidade de leitura não é tão importante quanto a qualidade da compreensão do texto.

Fazer alguns exercícios de gramática e compreensão no fim de cada leitura aumenta muito a habilidade de ler em inglês.

10) Quais são as vantagens e desvantagens de se usar textos autênticos (extraídos de revistas, jornais, etc.) e modificados (adequação em termos de gramática, vocabulário etc. ao nível dos alunos) em inglês?

11) Marque com que frequência você realiza estas atividades nas aulas de leitura em inglês:

	Sempre	Às vezes	Nunca
a) Estabelecer um propósito para leitura.			
b) Ativar e/ou construir conhecimento prévio.			
c) Prever o conteúdo do texto para criar expectativas.			
d) Ler o texto rapidamente para ter pistas sobre as idéias principais.			
e) Ler a primeira frase de cada parágrafo para saber qual a idéia			

texto.			
h) Construir interpretações sobre o texto.			
i) Comparar o conteúdo com outros textos similares.			
j) Monitorar a sua compreensão do texto.			
k) Usar estratégias de leitura.			
l) Questionar as ideias do texto.			
m) Refletir sobre a cultura presente no texto.			
n) Manipular e criticar diferentes tipos de textos.			
o) Ter mais consciência social.			
p) Ter consciência da linguagem do texto.			
q) Reconstruir relações e identidades sociais através do texto.			

Appendix 4 – Questionnaire for university teachers

Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
Centro de Comunicação e Expressão
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês
Mestranda: Ângela Maria Tremarin de Andrade
Orientadora: Lêda Maria Braga Tomitch

Caro Professor,

Primeiramente gostaríamos de agradecer a sua generosidade em dispor do seu tempo para participar dessa pesquisa de mestrado. O objetivo deste questionário é coletar informações à respeito do que você acha sobre a **leitura em inglês** e sobre os procedimentos que você utiliza para ensiná-la. Este questionário contém 18 questões, que levarão aproximadamente 30 minutos para serem respondidas. Você não precisa assinar seu nome, pois as respostas são anônimas.

A) Dados Gerais

- 1) Sexo: () M () F
- 2) Idade: _____
- 3) Há quanto tempo você ministra aulas de inglês? _____
 Nessa universidade? _____
 Linguística () Literatura ()
- 4) Curso de graduação e instituição:
- 5) Curso de especialização e instituição:
- 6) Curso de pós-graduação e instituição:

B) Sobre as aulas de inglês

- 7) Quantas aulas no mês são disponibilizadas para a sua disciplina?
 Dessas aulas, quantas você dedica para cada uma das categorias abaixo?

a) Conversação: _____	b) Escuta: _____
d) Leitura: _____	d) Escrita: _____
f) Gramática: _____ (Linguística)	
- 8) Qual/Quais categoria(s) do item 7 é/são mais fácil/fáceis de trabalhar com seus alunos? Por quê?

C) Sobre as aulas de leitura em inglês

9) Marque as frases com as quais você concorda:

A habilidade de leitura em inglês aumenta muito quando os alunos leem no mínimo quatro textos por semana.

Qualquer texto em inglês precisa ser totalmente entendido para que a compreensão leitora dos alunos aumente.

A habilidade de leitura em inglês aumenta quando os alunos têm um propósito real: obter informações para usar em um argumento, um relatório, para descobrir o que está acontecendo no mundo.

Os professores têm mais conhecimento sobre quais textos são apropriados para melhorar a leitura dos seus alunos.

A leitura para obter a ideia geral de um artigo ou somente as ideias principais é suficiente para aumentar as habilidades de leitura.

Os leitores em inglês deveriam ser capazes de selecionar sozinhos os textos que leem.

A quantidade de leitura não é tão importante quanto a qualidade da compreensão do texto.

Fazer alguns exercícios de gramática e compreensão no fim de cada leitura aumenta muito a habilidade de ler em inglês.

10) Quais são as vantagens e desvantagens de se usar textos autênticos (extraídos de revistas, jornais, etc.) e modificados (adequação em termos de gramática, vocabulário etc. ao nível dos alunos) em inglês?

11) Marque com que frequência você realiza estas atividades nas aulas de leitura em inglês:

	Sempre	Às vezes	Nunca
a) Estabelecer um propósito para leitura.			
b) Ativar e/ou construir conhecimento prévio.			
c) Prever o conteúdo do texto para criar expectativas.			
d) Ler o texto rapidamente para ter pistas sobre as idéias principais.			
e) Ler a primeira frase de cada parágrafo para saber qual a idéia apresentada.			

h) Construir interpretações sobre o texto.			
i) Comparar o conteúdo com outros textos similares.			
j) Monitorar a sua compreensão do texto.			
k) Usar estratégias de leitura.			
l) Questionar as ideias do texto.			
m) Refletir sobre a cultura presente no texto.			
n) Manipular e criticar diferentes tipos de textos.			
o) Ter mais consciência social.			
p) Ter consciência da linguagem do texto.			
q) Reconstruir relações e identidades sociais através do texto.			

Appendix 5 – Consent form



Informação e consentimento pós-informação para pesquisa

Meu nome é *Ângela Maria Tremarin de Andrade* e estou desenvolvendo a pesquisa *Critical Reading in L2: teachers' and students' perspectives*, com o objetivo de investigar as percepções que alunos e professores de ensino médio e universidade têm sobre leitura crítica em inglês e comparar com a literatura relevante ao assunto. Questionários com perguntas de múltipla escolha e discursivas serão aplicados para os professores e os alunos. Se você tiver alguma dúvida em relação ao estudo ou não quiser mais fazer parte do mesmo, somente devolva este documento. Se você estiver de acordo em participar, asseguro que as informações fornecidas serão confidenciais e só serão utilizadas neste trabalho.

Consentimento Pós-Informação

Eu, _____, fui esclarecido(a) sobre a pesquisa *Critical reading in L2: teachers' and students' perspectives* e concordo que meus dados sejam utilizados na realização da mesma.

_____, ____ de _____ de 2010.
Assinatura: _____