CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

This introductory chapter will provide a description of the theoretical framework of the study with special focus on the statement of the problem, study questions, hypotheses, objectives and the methodology of the study.

1.1 Context of the Study

Reading comprehension for young students has always been a primary focus for a number of researchers across the world. To develop young readers’ reading comprehension at basic level, there are certain methods and techniques that teacher or classroom practitioners have to adopt. This is important in order to understand the underlying learning processes that support learning from a text. To do so, certain methods like eye tracking, verbal protocols and more traditional paper and pencil tasks are adhered to. The researcher is especially interested in how those cognitive processes develop for young readers and support the revision of common misconceptions during reading.

It is undoubtedly suitable for young learners to learn new information through textual narrative such as stories as this appeal to their interests and the information or the rule intended to be passed can easily be arrived at. Stories have a familiar structure, especially for children, and it is pretty amazing how powerful they can be. In the context of these stories, the new information is presented by story characters, engaging in relevant actions and reaching resolutions.

Apart from that, reading at a surface level is visual recognition of symbols, letters, words and sentences and the comprehension of their meaning which comprehending a written text refers to the understanding of this text. Reading represents a better access to second foreign
languages for non-native speakers. There for language teacher in non-native language setting should increase their effort towards developing these important skills. When a person read a text he is attempting to discover the meaning of what he is reading, using the visual clues of spelling, his knowledge of probabilities of occurrence his context pragmatic to a meaningful interpretation to the text. The same notion is confirmed by Mitchell cited in Grade (1986-22) He defines reading as:-

“Reading can be defined loosely as the ability to make sense of written or printed symbols to guide the recovery of information from the his/her memory and subsequently use this information to construct a plausible interpretation of the written message”.

Reading is an interactive process and the basis of his/her previous knowledge the reader interacts with the text he/she brings meaning to the text as well as talking from it.

“Reading is the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and interprets this information appropriately start by Grabe and Stoller (2002.9) According to Byrne (1971-102) Reading is” an association between the sound of broken sentences and usual symbols”.

Hence, for highlighting these important aspects of reading and how they can be beneficial for our students, the Researcher has opted for exploring this vital skill to help develop the students’ overall grasp of the reading comprehension mechanics.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The problem of this research arises out of the fact of the pupils at 8th grade inability to read and understand. A number of actors have been observed to have induced this unpleasant situation. Students read word by word with their whole attention focused in understanding only the meaning of individual words which would not account for understanding
the whole purpose or meaning. It is not like grasping contextual meaning. They stumble over long structures and totally lose their way. They have a pragmatic problem as well as a syntactic one.

Reading comprehension constitutes a major step for learning English as a foreign language. The importance of the English language in the world has stemmed from the fact that it has become the medium of international communication due to the growth of science and technology which involve English language as the major means for interaction. Moreover, the importance of English is not just in how many people speak it, but in what it is used for (Yule, 1991). It is through reading comprehension that Sudanese learners of English can attain that level communication. Situations for practicing oral communication are very scanty, reading comprehension takes over to patch up the gap. The problem is again that handling one skill in isolation of other strands or skills can provide very little help on the part of the learner. These basic skills have to be thought of in an integrated manner. The basic idea behind the four strands is that, in a well balanced language course, equal time is given to each of the four strands of meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, and fluency development. Meaning-focused input involves getting input through listening and reading where the learners’ focus is on understanding the message and where only a small proportion of language features are outside the learners’ present level of proficiency. In a reading and writing program, extensive reading is likely to be the major source of meaning-focused input. Hence, by following these strands along the lines described here, something positive will be realized and will help settle the problem.
1.3 Objectives

This study sets out to explore the following points as comprising the set objectives behind the study:

(i) Vocabulary knowledge (reading is largely dependent on sound knowledge of vocabulary without which the learner has no hope to have good grasp of the reading text)

(ii) Activating prior knowledge, as this the knowledge or information the students brings to the reading text which help them to understand.

(iii) Pre-reading, reviewing and predicting (this is one of the major strategies that students should have grasp of, to cope with their reading texts.

(iv) Mental imaging which is the forming of an image of what the text is about.

1.4 Significance of the Study

To conduct a research at lower levels of education is a matter of crucial importance as these stages of education are hardly thought in alignment with scientific research. Hence is the importance of significance of the present research. The subject matter or the topic of the research is also a significant one, as knowledge of reading can help improve other skills and sub skills. This study attempts to examine a variety of opportunities and strategies that can be given to the pupils to apply to reading comprehension, while reinforcing basic reading comprehension skills. It is further intended to reinforce and extend the reading skills of your students. The study further suggests that reading comprehension can be improved through offering a variety of reading opportunities, reading for pleasure, reading to gather information and reading to perform tasks.

According to this study, assessment of assessment and evaluation of student understanding and ability is an ongoing process. A variety of
methods and strategies should be used to ensure that the student is being assessed and evaluated in a fair and comprehensive manner. Always keep in mind that the assessment should take into consideration the opportunities the student had to learn the information and practice the skills presented. The strategies for assessment are left to the classroom practitioner to determine and are dependent on your students and your particular instructional plan.

This study, further derives its significance from the fact that it demonstrates clearly reading is one of the respective skills which needed for the development of other language skill, further the more reading is the most important skill students will need for success in their studies and careers it’s also skill leading to great enjoyment pleasure and fulfillments, so that reading is considered a san important goal in foreign language acquisitions.

1.5 The study Questions
The study seeks to answer the following questions:
1. To what extent are the pupils and teachers at basic Schools satisfied with reading comprehension texts as provided in the text book (SPINE 3)?
2. To what extent are teachers aware of the different reading techniques and strategies to help improve and develop eighth form pupils’ reading comprehension?
3. To what extent does ‘shortage of trained teachers affect negatively the pupils, standard in reading comprehension?

1.6 The study Hypotheses
1. Pupils and teachers at basic Schools are not satisfied with reading comprehension texts as provided in the text book (SPINE 3).
2. Quite a number of teachers at the basic level, who are involved in the teaching operation, are not aware of the different reading techniques and
strategies to help improve and develop eighth form pupils’ reading comprehension?

3. Shortage of trained teachers affects negatively the pupils’ standard in reading comprehension. To help improve reading comprehension trained tutors have to be funneled in classroom settings.

1.6 Methodology of the Study

In order to carry out this research, to achieve its objectives and to answer its questions, the researcher adopts the descriptive analytic approach.

The Subjects

a- Basic level Pupils.

b- English language teachers.

Tools

The researcher is going to collect data using the following tool:

a. Pare-and a post-test exam

b. A questionnaire for English language teachers.

Procedures:

The researcher is going to collect data by:

A-Distributing questionnaires to and teachers then collecting them back.

B-Analyzing the data and explaining the results.

More than one method of statistical analysis will be employed here in this research to analyze the data, and arrive at concrete solid results.
1.7 Summary of the chapter

In this chapter a detailed description of the theoretical framework has been provided with some focus on the definition of the research problem and the research methodology. In the next chapter some relevant literature will be critically reviewed.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews relevant literature on the issue in question that is examining situation of reading comprehension at the 8th level, and other related topics with some emphasis on the nature of reading comprehension. Important findings and arguments from opponents and proponents of an English-only teaching method will be discussed. The chapter is divided into two parts, the first one is on the theoretical framework, and the other is on previous studies.

Part One: Theoretical Framework

Part Two: Previous Related Works

2.1 Nature of Reading Comprehension

As far as the hierarchical structure of the skills is concerned, reading occupies the third rank, as one of the most important skills for learning foreign language. Reading is one of the respective skills which needed for the development of other language skills. The first goal of this study is to provide the Sudanese pupils at the basic level with most up-to-date strategies reading comprehension support, while teaching basic skills that can be tested and evaluated. These strategies are:

• Vocabulary knowledge
• Activating prior knowledge
• Pre-reading—previewing and predicting
• Previewing and predicting text
• Mental imaging
• Self-questioning
• Summarizing
• Semantic mapping
These skills and strategies are intended to improve and extend the students’ reading skills. Reading comprehension skill or strand cannot be handled in isolation of the other three strands or skills. The basic idea behind the four strands is that, in a well-balanced language course, equal time is given to each of the four strands of meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, and fluency development. Meaning-focused input involves getting input through listening and reading where the learners’ focus is on understanding the message and where only a small proportion of language features are outside the learners’ present level of proficiency. In a reading and writing program, extensive reading is likely to be the major source of meaning-focused input.

Meaning-focused output involves the learners producing language through speaking and writing where the learners’ focus is on others understanding the message. Meaning-focused output occurs when learners write essays and assignments, when they write letters, when they write a diary, when they send email and text messages to each other, and when they write about their experience.

Language-focused learning involves deliberate attention to language features both in the context of meaning-focused input and meaning focused output, and in decontextualised learning and teaching. In the reading and writing program, language-focused learning occurs in intensive reading, when learners consult dictionaries in reading and writing, when they get language-focused feedback on their writing, when they deliberately learn new vocabulary for receptive or productive use, when they practice spelling, when they concentrate on learning to write or form written letters of the alphabet, and when they study grammar and discourse features. There are lots of ways of making language-focused
learning a part of the course, but a teacher needs to be careful that this does not take up more than 25 percent of the total course time. Fluency development is often neglected in courses, partly because teachers and learners feel that they should always be learning something new. Fluency development involves making the best use of what is already known. The best-known kind of fluency development is speed reading where learners focus on increasing their reading speed while still maintaining good comprehension. For speed reading courses to work well with learners of English as a second or foreign language, the reading material needs to be well within the learners’ level of proficiency. There should be little or no unknown vocabulary or grammatical features in the speed reading texts. Writing fluency also needs to get attention in a well-balanced course, especially where learners need to sit a written test as part of academic study and where they have to write under time pressure. These four strands of meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, and fluency development need to take up roughly equal time in a language course. As we shall see, there are many ways of getting this balance, and the way this is done depends on local conditions, teacher preferences, the way the classes are divided up and scheduled, and timetabling constraints. What is important is that over a period of time probably no greater than a month or two, there is a roughly equal amount of time given to each of these four strands, and that the necessary conditions exist for the strands to occur. In this book, this idea of the four strands will be applied to goals as diverse as learning to spell, learning to write, and becoming fluent in reading.
2.1.1 Intensive Reading

Intensive study of reading texts can be a means of increasing learners’ knowledge of language features and their control of reading strategies. It can also improve their comprehension skill. It fits into the language focused learning strand of a course. The classic procedure for intensive reading is the grammar-translation approach where the teacher works with the learners, using the first language to explain the meaning of a text, sentence by sentence. Used on suitable texts and following useful principles, this can be a very useful procedure as long as it is only a part of the reading program and is complemented by other language-focused learning and by extensive reading for language development and extensive reading for fluency development.

At its worst, intensive reading focuses on comprehension of a particular text with no thought being given to whether the features studied in this text will be useful when reading other texts. Such intensive reading usually involves translation and thus comprehension of the text. So, one goal of intensive reading may be comprehension of the text. The use of translation makes sure that learners understand, and when the learners do some of the translation themselves, it allows the teacher to check whether they understand.

Intensive reading may also have another goal and that is to determine what language features will get attention in the course. That is, the language features that are focused on in each text become the language syllabus for the course. This has several positive aspects. First, the language features are set in the communicative context of a text. The text can be used to show how the language features contribute to the communicative purpose of the text and this can be good preparation for subsequent writing activities. Second, choosing features in this way is
likely to avoid the interference between vocabulary items or grammatical features that can occur when topic-centered syllabus design is used. There are also negative aspects to letting texts determine the language features of a course. First, the features given attention to may be an uncontrolled mixture of useful and not very useful items. That is, high frequency and low frequency vocabulary, frequent grammatical items and very infrequent or irregular grammatical items may get equal attention. Second, the topic of the text determines the salience of the items and the teaching gets directed towards this text rather than what will be useful in a range of texts.

If intensive reading is to be done well, the major principle determining the focus of the teaching should be that the focus is on items that will occur in a wide range of texts. The teacher should ask “How does today’s teaching make tomorrow’s text easier?”.

There are four ways of putting this important principle into practice.

1. Focus on items that occur with high frequency in the language as a whole (see Table 3.1 for examples). Such items will occur often in many different texts.

2. Focus on strategies that can be used with most texts (see Table 3.1 for examples).

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>Question type</td>
<td>Predicting</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Question form</td>
<td>Standardized reading procedures</td>
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<td>Sound spelling</td>
<td>Regular sound spelling correspondences</td>
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<td>Free/checked vowels</td>
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3. Quickly deal with or ignore infrequent items.
4. Make sure that the same items and strategies get attention in several different texts.

2.1.2 Focuses in Intensive Reading

Intensive work on a reading text can focus on the following aspects. These should be looked at in more detail in any reading comprehension:

1. **Comprehension.** Intensive reading can aim at understanding a particular text.

2. **Regular and irregular sound-spelling relations.** This can be done through the teaching of phonics, through teaching spelling rules, and through reading aloud. This is covered in Chapter 2 on sounds and spelling.

3. **Vocabulary.** Learners’ attention can be drawn to useful words, and the underlying meaning and use of these words can be explained. Words from the text could be assigned for later study.

4. **Grammar.** Difficult grammatical features can be explained and analyzed.
5. *Cohesion*. Learners can practice interpreting what pronouns refer to in the text, what the conjunction relationships between sentences are, and how different words are used to refer to the same idea.

6. *Information structure*. Certain texts contain certain kinds of information. Newspaper reports, for example, can describe what happened, what led to the happening, what the likely effects will be, who was involved, and when and where it happened. Learners can be helped to identify these different kinds of information.

7. *Genre features*. The vocabulary, grammatical features, cohesive features and information all contribute to the communicative effect of a text. Intensive reading can focus on how the text achieves its communicative purpose through these features and what this communicative purpose is.

8. *Strategies*. Intensive reading can be used to help learners develop useful reading strategies. By working intensively on a text, learners can practice the steps in guessing from context, using a dictionary, simplifying difficult sentences and taking notes. They can also receive training in integrated packages of strategies. In this chapter, strategies are included in the sections on comprehension, vocabulary, grammar and cohesion.

2.1.3 Extensive Reading

Extensive reading fits into the meaning-focused input and fluency development strands of a course, depending on the level of the books that the learners read. When the books contain only a few unknown vocabulary and grammar items, extensive reading provides the conditions for meaning focused input. Where the books are very easy ones with virtually no unknown items, extensive reading provides the conditions for fluency development.
Reading is a source of learning and a source of enjoyment. It can be a goal in its own right and a way of reaching other goals. As a source of learning, reading can establish previously learned vocabulary and grammar, it can help learners learn new vocabulary and grammar, and through success in language use it can encourage learners to learn more and continue with their language study. As a goal in its own right, reading can be a source of enjoyment and a way of gaining knowledge of the world. As learners gain skill and fluency in reading, their enjoyment can increase.

However, because of the nature of reading and learning from reading, a reading development program will benefit from careful planning and monitoring. There are two major language-based reasons for this. First, reading requires considerable knowledge and skill. This knowledge includes recognizing the letters and words of the language, having a large vocabulary and substantial grammatical and textual knowledge, being able to bring knowledge of the world to the reading task, and developing a degree of fluency with the reading skill. Second, learning through extensive reading is largely incidental learning, that is, the learners’ attention is focused on the story not on items to learn. As a result, learning gains tend to be fragile and thus it is important to have quantity of input with substantial opportunities for vocabulary repetition.

This quantity of input needs to be close to 500,000 running words per year, which is equivalent to 25 graded readers a year, or one and a half substantial first year university textbooks, or six unsimplified novels. This needs to continue over several years. In the following discussion of planning and running an extensive reading program, we will look at the conditions for learning that need to exist, the quantities of text that learners need to read, how to keep learners motivated, and the principles
that teachers should follow in running the program. The chapter is organized around a set of guidelines for planning a program.

2.1.4 Understand the Goals and Limitations of Extensive Reading

Extensive reading is a form of learning from meaning-focused input. During extensive reading learners should be interested in what they are reading and should be reading with their attention on the meaning of the text rather than on learning the language features of the text. Extensive reading can occur within class time (Elley and Mangubhai, 1981), or outside class time. In their very useful survey of extensive reading, Day and Bamford (1998) characterise extensive reading as involving a large quantity of varied, self-selected, enjoyable reading at a reasonably fluent speed.

There is now plenty of evidence (Elley, 1991) that reading can result in a variety of substantial proficiency gains. However, it is important to note that these gains require considerable time and effort. In their classic study of extensive reading, Elley and Mangubhai (1981) had 8 to 10-year-old learners read in class time for no more than 30 minutes per day each school day for almost eight months. The results were remarkable with learners making the equivalent of 15 months’ gain in eight months. However, the time involved was substantial, but not beyond the means of an English as a foreign language situation.

2.1.5 Effect of Extensive Reading on Oral Delivery

Reading is considered as one of the most influential factors in encouraging the students to use language orally and develop their ability to speak courageously. Extensive reading provides the students with the sufficient vocabulary which enable them to produce the target language easily and confidently. An experiment involving an extensive reading program was conducted over a three-month period with a group of learners of English as a foreign language (Davis, 1991: 118).
The program using graded readers was designed to develop extensive reading for pleasure. The reading was of large amounts of material in the foreign language for personal pleasure and interest, and without the addition of productive tasks or follow-up language work. The experience was inspired by “Krashen” input hypothesis (Krashen, 1982: 76).

For Krashen, the dominant mode of language learning is acquisition, the largely sub-conscious “picking up” of the language which characterizes language in informal settings and which is similar, if not identical to the way children develop ability in their first language (Krashen, 1982).

2.1.5. A Acquisition and Learning

Krashen contrasts acquisition with learning, the conscious process in which rules of structure and conventions of usage are explicitly studied and learned. For acquisition to occur, however, a number of conditions have to be satisfied. Learners need to be exposed to large amount of the foreign language input which is meaningful, interesting or relevant, not grammatically sequenced and this is in a tension-free environment. (ibid)

One approach to provide learners with input of this nature lies in the creation within the language classroom conditions conductive to meaningful interaction among participants (Krashen and Terrel 1983). One evident possibility for creating such an environment is extensive reading, which can provide a learning environment within which learners can be exposed to large quantities of written material in the foreign language for personal interest.

Krashen and Terrel (1983: 92) after pointing out that the input hypothesis does not at this time, distinguish between aural and written input, they go on to suggest that reading may also be a source of comprehensible input in a foreign or second language. The goal of extensive reading is to flood
learners with large quantities of a second language input with view or possibly no specific tasks to perform on this material.

2.1.5. B Reading Pedagogical Value

The pedagogical value attributed to extensive reading is based on the assumption that exposing learners to large quantities of meaningful and interesting foreign or second language material within the long run produces a beneficial influence on the learners’ command of the language. It is believable that extensive reading will improve learners’ command of second language on at least certain levels. Natal (1972: 45) for example, claims that next to going to live among native speakers, the best way of acquiring proficiency in a language is to read extensively in this language. More correctly, William (1972: 89) maintains that throughout reading, the learner is exposed to the lexical items embedded in natural linguistic contexts and as a result, they begin slowly to have the same meaningfulness for him, that they have for the native speaker.

Some support for this assumption is provided by the only study which has examined the role of extensive reading in the development of proficiency in the second language. Elley and Mangthia (1983), in a two-year study conducted in a number of primary schools, examined the effect of an extensive reading program on language skill.

The results at the end of the first year of the study receiving extensive reading had made an obvious improvement in receptive skills (reading and recognition). By the end of the second year of the study, however, this improvement has extended to all aspects of the subjects and language abilities including both oral and written production.

There is clear evidence on the nature and extent of the contribution which extensive reading may make to the development of the second language
skills. There are strong intensive grounds and some experimental justification for investigating the effect which extensive reading programs could have on the development of proficiency in a second language.

This study has implications for language teaching. The most important one is that extensive input of a second language in a tension-free environment can contribute significantly to improvement of learners’ language skills both receptive and productive.

2.1.5.C. Creating a Relaxed Environment for Better Reading Comprehension

Another significance which emerged very clearly was the importance of creating a relaxed environment in which learners were able to develop and maintain a pleasure-driven and interest-driven attitude to reading material provided. The selection of suitable materials which reflect learners’ interest is very important. The appearance of books also has a role to play. An attractive cover, good quality illustration and a clear type face can help to attract the learners’ attention. (ibid)

In conclusion, the teacher should form a library for his students and encourage them to participate by bringing books. The essential consideration is to provide a selection of reading materials capable of generating learners’ interest. This is the key to the success of extensive reading programs (Krashen, 1982).

2.6 Significance of Teaching Literature

There is no doubt that literature plays a very effective role in providing students with a sufficient vocabulary and expressions which enable them to produce the language easily and accurately. It is not only enrich the students’ word power but even further, it makes them aware of the
contextual use of the vocabulary which is very essential in producing written and spoken language in more coherent and cohesive way. Actually one of the advantages of literature is that it exposes learners to the culture of the language which includes the social conventions that work as a guarantee for the appropriate and acceptable production of the language.

Actually, one of the advantages of literature in the English language classroom is that it exposes learners to the culture of the language which is an original component of the language and which includes the social conventions that work as guarantee for the appropriate and acceptable production of the language.

Widdowson, (1978: 34) mentions that using literature involves knowledge of linguistic rules and entails knowing how to use these rules for effective communication. Lier (1995: 44) states that “Literature can foster knowledge of the language better than structural syllabuses.

In literary texts the learners are exposed to the language in a way that resembles real life contexts and as such learners focus on the context and other aspects of activities relating to the texts.

The main aim of the inclusion of literature in language teaching is to develop the awareness of the language in learners. The benefits of literature are that it presents all the language skills integrated as one whole body. Stern (1991) maintains that, literature plays an important role in learning the four basic skills.

Sandra Mckay, (1982: 123) argues that “The benefits of using literature in ESL classroom have long been proven and recognized by ESL teachers and researchers”. Also Mckay adds “If literary texts are to used successfully, they must be carefully selected and approached in a manner which promotes an aesthetic interaction between the reader and the
texts”. Literary texts are also rich resources of accurate diction, diverse sentence patterns and passionate narratives. (Ghosh, 2002).

Lenore (1993: 17) emphasizes the advantages of teaching literature and provides some reasons for the productive teaching of literature in classroom. He outlines these advantages as follows:

- It is very motivating.
- It is authentic material.
- It has general educational value.
- It helps students understand other cultures.
- It is stimulus for language acquisition.
- It develops students’ interpretative abilities.
- It expands students’ language awareness.
- It encourages students to talk about his feelings and his opinions.
- It acts as an enjoyment and fun for the students.

2.1.6 Correlation between Vocabulary Knowledge and Reading Comprehension

The correlation between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension is well-documented in the literature (Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986). However, the relationship is rather difficult to unravel. There are four hypotheses offered in this regard labeled “instrumentalist”, “aptitude”, “access”, and “knowledge”, as an attempt to explain this correlation (Mezynski, 1983 & Nagy, 2005). The instrumentalist hypothesis describes the connection as a direct one. Therefore, just knowing more words will result in greater text comprehension. It sees vocabulary knowledge as being a major prerequisite and causative factor in comprehension. Good vocabulary knowledge enables good comprehension.

The connection is described as a direct one by the instrumentalist hypothesis (Nagy, 2005). This hypothesis also sees vocabulary
knowledge as a major prerequisite to reading (Anderson & Freebody, 1981). Therefore, just knowing more words will result in greater text comprehension. The instrumentalist hypothesis does not comment on where vocabulary knowledge originates, but only that it directly impacts comprehension ability. In other words, the central idea of this hypothesis is straightforward: knowing the words enables reading comprehension. The pedagogical implications of the instrumentalist hypothesis are apparent: in order to improve students' reading ability, vocabulary teaching should be regarded as a priority in the curriculum. The larger a student's vocabulary, the better he or she will understand a text.

### 2.1.3A The Aptitude Hypothesis

The aptitude hypothesis argues that the vocabulary–comprehension connection is due to an underlying third factor that can be described as general “verbal aptitude”. The verbal aptitude in this hypothesis has been conceptualized by different researchers as quick thinking ability, skill in inferring, or metalinguistic capacity. It sees vocabulary knowledge as one of many outcomes of having these abilities. Good reading comprehension is also one of these outcomes. Other outcomes might include the ability to understand oral explanation. This aptitude makes certain students better word learners, as well as better text comprehenders. (Mezynski, 1983; Nagy, 2005). Moreover, in this model, a large vocabulary is not considered making a direct contribution to better reading comprehension: A person with a larger vocabulary is better at comprehension because of his or her mental agility, and the large vocabulary this person has is just a reflection of superior verbal aptitude (Anderson & Freebody, 1981). Pedagogically implicated that the aptitude hypothesis is rather discouraging: because individuals' abilities in reading are directly based on their verbal aptitude, reward for vocabulary training will be very limited. Although it is possible to improve students' vocabulary
knowledge through training (Mezynski, 1983). Such training will not likely result in a significant change in ranking in terms of students' reading achievements if all the students undergo the same amount of training.

2.1.3B The Access Hypothesis

The access hypothesis explains that vocabulary knowledge is useful to comprehension when words can be accessed quickly and easily. This hypothesis argues the importance of depth of vocabulary knowledge, as well as breadth. Automaticity of word knowledge is very important in this explanation. Access can be improved through practice. This access can involve several factors including fluency of lexical access, speed of coping with affixed forms, and speed of word recognition (ibid, 1983).

2.1.3C Knowledge Hypothesis

The fourth hypothesis is, the knowledge hypothesis, emphasizes the role of a reader's background knowledge in comprehension. It sees vocabulary as an indicator of good world knowledge. A person with a higher score should have deeper and broader knowledge of the world than a person with a lower score. This world knowledge supports reading comprehension because the reader must bring as much information to the text as the reader expects to get from it. It is difficult to read about astrophysics if you know nothing about it (Anderson & Freebody, 1981). In this hypothesis, knowing a word well implies that one knows other words and ideas related to the original word. This larger body of knowledge becomes crucial for understanding a text. The pedagogical implication of the knowledge hypothesis is that vocabulary should be taught in context and in respect to the acquisition of specific domains of knowledge. Specifically, as Mezynski (1983) puts it:
New vocabulary should be taught in the context of learning new subject matter. In this way, word meanings can be related to one another, and where possible, to information already possessed by the learner. According to the knowledge position, if students are taught groups of words that are semantically unrelated, the students may learn definitions but fail to learn where the word fits in with their store of related knowledge (p. 255).

Moreover, research on English as a second language had showed both a positive and significant correlation between learners’ vocabulary knowledge and their reading comprehension (Qian, 2002). According to Carr & Levy (1990), word-identification ability played a central role in successful reading in itself a complex process (Goodman, 1988; Harris & Sipay, 1985). Readers comprehend and interpret a writer’s message by using their linguistic knowledge and prior knowledge. According to Rumelhart (1977), reading was an interactive process in which readers construct the meaning by using their background knowledge and information provided by the text. In the process of reading, the fact that vocabulary knowledge was instrumental in reading comprehension had long been accepted in the field of reading and vocabulary research (Nation, 2001; Alderson, 2000; Laufer, 1996). Although the more words a reader knows the better the comprehension in reading, Qian (1999) claimed that the knowledge of vocabulary depth was an important indicator to predict learner’s performance in reading tasks. Since the crucial role of vocabulary in reading had been established by many scholars, it is significant to explore how learners’ depth of vocabulary knowledge correlated to their reading comprehension.
2.1.4 Significance of Reading

Although reading is generally placed third hierarchy of communication skill, it is the most important skill not only because learning in many subjects in school involves reading but also because the ability to read all types of material with comprehension ease and enjoyment will contribute to the self realization and increased personal social adjustment of pupils.

Moreover reading is one of the receptive skills which is needed for the development of other language skills.

Reading is the most important skills pupils will need for success in their studies and careers. It is also (a skill leading to great enjoyment, a pleasure and fulfillment) (Jayyust 1984; 50). Reading has great values in both general and specific sides and it will remain the key of knowledge. Heldreth (1988; 3) says: “Of all the values skill the overage learns in a life time, the ability to read easily head the list because it is the most universal and the most generally useful for everyone today”.

According to Aukeman (1981) that each fact of instruction in the reading program has specific objective or objectives together they all have one common objective which is comprehension. The ultimate reading skill the word “comprehension” means the act or process of understanding the nature or process of grasping with mind. It is then a mental process.

So teachers of English language must know that important step in teach their pupils English language is to teach them how to read, because if pupils read well they will overcome all the difficulties of understanding.

2.1.5 Words are the Meaning Carriers

Words may have different meanings depending on the context. Teachers have to teach only one meaning at a time. We can say that students know the meaning if they understand it in context and know its equivalent in
their mother tongue. Sometimes words have meaning in relation to other words. In this case we speak about sense relations. Students need to be able to produce the word in the right context, they need to be aware of how the meaning is expanded or limited depending on how the word is used e.g. idioms cannot be understood if you know all the words in it, because it has a special meaning. Students are supposed to know the collocations of the words and the style and register of the target word or expression if a word is used only in colloquial expressions or in formal style if it is polite, or rude. James Paul Gee,(2008). People believe that the meaning of a word is something that resides in people’s heads, perhaps in terms of what some people call a “concept.” When people hear or see a word they can consult this concept or definition in their heads to know what the word means.

2.1.5 A Shift of Meaning

Change in the meaning or function associated with a linguistic form. Whose grammaticalisation scholars argue that this semantic change is the result of meaning loss, called semantic bleaching or attenuation (weakening), others argue that it is more accurate to describe the semantic change that characterizes grammaticalisation, particularly in the early stages of grammaticalisation, as an instance of plosymy. Croft (2003: 262) describes this polysmy as ‘a chain of related meanings or uses’, and illustrates this point by means of the English word that, which has four functions. This coexistence of related meanings which emerged at historically different periods is sometimes called layering in grammaticalisation theory. According to Geoffrey Finch, (2003)."Morphology is concerned with the structure of words the term itself is of Latin origin and means of the structure of things."It is important for the learner to know how the word is pronounced. If learners
know the meaning, use and grammar of a word this word will belong to the students’ active vocabulary.

2.1.5. B Lexicography

In a narrow sense lexicography may be described as the art and craft of writing a dictionary. This definition of lexicography is derivative (Landau, 2001), and it is a compromise for the sake of brevity. According to Alan Davies & Catherine, (2004) .Defining lexicography as the art and craft of writing a dictionary to emphasize the high degree of human knowledge, insight, judgment and skill required to produce the text of a successful reference work designed to be of practical use and benefit in real-life situations.Alex Barber & Robert J. Station, (2010).Mentioned that the lexical conceptual structure is an autonomous level of grammar in conceptual semantics (Jackendoff, 1983,1990, 1997, 2002), in which the semantic interpretation of a linguistic expression is explicitly represented.

It is often thought or implicitly assumed, even in circles of professional semanticists, that predicate meanings, as codified in their satisfaction conditions, are lexically fixed in such a way that they automatically produce truth or falsity when applied to appropriate reference objects. This assumption is unfounded. A further cognitive criterion for the lexical meaning of predicates, especially those denoting artifacts, seems to be the function of the objects denoted.

2.1.5. C Word Choice

A word is more useful if it covers a lot of things than if it has only one specific meaning. The words allow for the expression of the speaker’s intentions, they combine to form larger constructions, and the conventional meanings they have license their use for making references in context. Without them, there is no language. According to Jen Tsi Yang, (1999) Using fewer words to convey a message almost always
improves Readability and it also requires more effort. Many popular expressions can be expressed as a single word, or are better omitted altogether. The word grandiloquence implies a pompous style that impresses no one and provokes ridicule. Grandiloquence implies a pompous style that impresses no one and provokes ridicule. These are rarely helpful and frequently cryptic. Careful choice of words can enable you to convey many subtleties of meaning. You cannot find a word you have forgotten or do not know in a dictionary. Look up a word of similar meaning in a thesaurus and you will find a variety of words and expressions which should include the one in the back of your mind, or perhaps an even more appropriate one which you had not even considered.

2.1.5. D Word Formation

We usually think of derivation as a process that leads from base to derived form, and thus has an inherent directionality. That is suggested naturally by the notion of derivation as adding a morpheme to a base. But once we take the classes that are involved in derivational relations seriously, we see that that is not necessary: relations between lexically significant classes might have no relevant directionality at all. Words and “morphemes” of the lexicon as a particular form of language knowledge about its words and their relations with one another, part of a person’s grammar and properties of the language organ. When we speak about word formation we mean the grammatical context according to which the word changes, for example, present participles can refer to the past and to the present. Students have to know how suffixes and prefixes change the meaning of the stem, for example, ‘polite’, ‘impolite’. The use of certain words can trigger the use of certain grammatical patterns, for example, in case of nouns the categories of countable and uncountable are very important factors. Uncountable nouns cannot be used in plural forms. In
case of verbs transitivity plays an important role in forming passive structures.

If an adjective is converted into an adverb, its position in a sentence will define the fact what part of speech it belongs to, for example, ‘The fast train goes fast.’ The first ‘fast’ is an adjective while the second ‘fast’ is an adverb.

2.1.5 E Reading and the nature of vocabulary

Vocabulary knowledge involves knowing the meaning of words and there for the purpose of vocabulary test is to find out whether the learners can match each word with a synonym, a dictionary-type definition or an equivalent word in their own language. However, when we look more closely at vocabulary in the light of the current developments in language teaching and applied linguistics, we find that we have address a number of questions that have the effect of progressively boarding the scope of what we need to assess.

Researchers who have attempted to measure how many words native speakers of English know have produced wildly varying figures, at least partly because of their different ways of defining what a word is. According to John Read, (200).Vocabulary ability involves more than just knowing a lot of lexical items; learners must have reading access to what knowledge and be able to draw on it effectively in performing language use tasks. In addition, they need to have strategies for dealing with situations where their vocabulary knowledge is insufficient to meet their communication needs. In vocabulary studies, the base and inflected forms of a word are collectively known as lemma.

2.1.5 F Vocabulary, Reading and Assessment

Assessing vocabulary Knowledge of second language is necessary in the sense that words are the basic building blocks of language, the unit of meaning from which larger structures such as sentences, paragraphs and
whole texts are formed. For native speakers, although the most rapid growth occurs in childhood, vocabulary knowledge continues to develop naturally in adult life in response to new experiences inventions, concepts, social trends and opportunities for learning. For learners on the other hand, acquisition of vocabulary is typically a more conscious and demanding process.

So, vocabulary must always be assessed in the context of a language use task where it interacts in a natural way with other components of language knowledge.

2.1.6 Reasons for Reading
According to Barnet (1989) – “Nothing is more important to academic achievement than being a good reader, the basic concept in that text information based in part from the prior knowledge available to the reader. Reading is thus viewed a kind of dialogue between the reader and the text”. Any model of language whether it will be listening, speaking reading or writing may be used to serve immediate needs, to learn from, or to give us pleasure in language for its own sake. When readers begin to read, actually a number of decisions are quickly made, almost unconsciously in most cases, for example, when a reader picks up a newspaper, a reader usually reads the from page with some combinations of search processing, general reading comprehension and skimming.

So there are many reasons why getting students to read English text is an important part of the teacher’s job. In the first place, many students want to be able to read text in English either for their careers, for study purposes or simply for pleasure. (Harmer2010:100).states-“Reading is useful for language acquisition”. Provided that students more or less understand what they read, the more they read, the better they get at it.
Reading also has appositive effect on students, vocabulary knowledge, on their spelling and on their writing. Reading texts also provide good models for English writing. At different times students can be encouraged to focus on Vocabulary, grammar or punctuation. Reading material can also be used to demonstrate the way we construct sentences, paragraphs and whole text. Students then have well models for their own writing.

In other settings, usually academic or professional ones, sometimes information are synthesized form multiple reading sources, from different parts of alone text and an a accompanying diagram or chart, such reading is quite different from searching, skimming or reading for general comprehension to have good grasp of main ideas.

2.1.7 Words of High Frequency

High frequency words are words that occur quite frequently in the language. They occur so regularly in daily conversation that if student understand these words, they are able to write and speak in comprehensible English (Nation, 2005). One of the important lists in the domain of vocabulary learning and teaching is Michael West's General Service List (GSL) of 1953 based on a corpus of 5 millions words most of them from the 1930s. "The list is considered outdated because it does not include some words of the 1980s word such as pilot, helicopter, television, or astronaut seem to have no entries in the list" (Carter, 2012: 198). Despite this fact GSL played an essential role in the development of academic textbooks designed especially for learners of EFL.

The high frequency words also include many content words, for example, government, forests, production, adoption, represent, boundary, etc. "The classic list of high frequency words is Michael West's (1953) GSL of
English Words which contains around 2,000 word families" (Nation, 2001: 16)

2.1.8 Words of Low Frequency

Low frequency words are words that deal with academic studies, words that appear throughout all academic texts and courses, but not very often in day to day speech (Nation, 2005). He further argued that "people vocabulary grows partly as a result of their jobs, interests and specializations. Some low frequency words are simply, they are almost every language user rarely uses for example: eponymous, gibbons, bifurcate, plummet, poly" (P. 48)

Low frequency words may represent a rarely expressed idea, or similar in meaning to a much more frequent words or phrase, or they may be marked as being old fashioned, very formal, belonging to a particular dialect, or vulgar, or they may be foreign words. Low frequency words include all the words that are not high frequency words, not academic words and not technical words for a particular subject. They consist of technical words for other subject areas, proper nouns, words that almost got into the high frequency list, and words that are rarely used in language (Nation, 2001: 16).

2.1.8 Academic Vocabulary

The term Academic vocabulary often refers to a set of lexical items that are not core words but which are relatively frequent in academic texts (Paquot 2010). Academic vocabulary is important for learners of English for academic purpose for several reasons:

- Academic vocabulary is common to a wide range of academic text.
• Academic vocabulary is generally not as well known as technical vocabulary.

• Academic vocabulary is the kind of specialized vocabulary that an English teacher can usefully help learners with (Nation, 2001: 236)

Coxhead (2000) published Academic Word List (AWL) which was regarded as the most widely used today in language different domains, for instance, teaching, testing and the development of pedagogical material. "It is now included in vocabulary textbooks and computer-assisted language learning materials, and dictionaries" (p. 121)

2.1.9 Reading and Speaking

It is undeniable that reading plays such an effective and vital role as a receptive skill on enhancing oral performance. There is a very strong relation between reading and speaking. The more the students read, the more fluent they will be. Basically, and normally a language is acquired and received by means of the two receptive skills (listening and reading). In countries like Nigeria and Kenya, for example, English is used as a second language. Students always listen to people around them using English continuously. This social environment helps them activate the skill of listening and, hence, they can easily improve the skill of speaking. Accordingly, they do not find any difficulty in speaking English efficiently and accurately. But, in the Arab world countries in general, English is used as foreign language. Arabic is the commonest and dominant. Students do not listen to English at all, except when they are watching foreign movies on T.V. They lack exposure to authentic English language communicative situations because nobody around them uses English. The skill of listening is completely inactive. The students do not practice English outside classroom. So, their only way to receive English
language and improve their oral ability is through reading skill. Alderson (1981: 55) states that “In Arab world reading skills are commonly considered more important than any other skills”.

2.1.9 Acquiring Knowledge through Reading

Certainly, reading is very significant skill in acquiring a language. By practicing reading skill sufficiently and continuously, students will be more competent to use the language appropriately. Reading provides students with the essential vocabulary, cohesive devices, and makes them able enough to use the language coherently. Accordingly, students’ competence grows richer and hence, they can improve their oral performance.

The Holy Quran emphasizes the significance of reading. The first verse revealed to our prophet Muhammad, “Peace be upon him” is (نورت لیک بسیم اقرأ ﷺ ﷺ خلوق الکی) (Quran, Al-Alaq, verse: 1).

Undoubtedly, if a person has the ability to read well, he can easily understand and be understood by other people around him. Moreover, he will be confident enough when producing the language. A well-read person has knowledge and a variety of topics and does not feel left out when discussing things with others. Reading makes you an intelligent individual with an improved vocabulary which eventually boosts your confidence while talking to the people. (Morris, 1966:22)

Reading is the best way of improving vocabulary and keeping in touch with the language. Reading helps improving fluency and pronunciation of words. Acquiring new words and phrases of expression with their contextual meaning within the text, will not only make your language rich but will also create a good impression on the listeners when you are
speaking to them. In fact, there is a large number of people learn English not to study the language itself but to study other subjects through English. These people read English so as to get access to information about any field of knowledge. Consequently, reading plays a very effective a vital role in second or foreign language acquisition. Reading gives us an access to literature. It enables us to enrich and expand our minds. It has great practical value concerned with technical and commercial pursuits by making the reader cope with the development in his subject. (Ehri, 1998: 13)

The opportunities for reading practice are unlimited, as they are provided by books and periodicals and do not even call for a companionship. It is comparatively easy to acquire since the vocabulary has not o be thoroughly mastered but only to be recognize in contexts. Once the pupil has been trained to read, he is virtually independent of the teacher and may practice his skill unaided, or rather with help of dictionary. (Adams, 1990: 5)

 Needless to say that reading promises success even for the weakest pupils. “In class it allows for the maximum participation of all the pupils; it also permits the application of self study methods” (Morris, 1966:18)

On the other hand, pupils in any particular classroom can be expected to vary widely in the mental ability, past achievements, learning rate, interests, 

Learning style and reading readiness. Such wide variation in learning ability, achievement and the individual differences among the pupils drives the researcher to find out about strategies for developing the reading skill of the pupils. The main goal of teaching reading is to train students to read efficiently and quickly enough, at initial stages of
learning foreign language, reading serves primarily to introduce basic linguistic forms, phonemes, words, structures, sentences patterns and language function in appropriate context. It also helps recognizing visual symbols, appropriate sentences rhythm, English spelling and it improves pronunciation above all. (Chastain, 197: 168)

In order to improve this skill, teachers should give great attention and care to the students. They should equip pupils to meet the future by teaching them how to read on their own to develop their reading ability. But pupils should know the purpose of their reading before they start reading.

So, reading is definitely an important skill in second language acquisition. The ability to read for comprehension is an essential component of knowing a modern language. Moreover, it is the most important means of learning about the language and its people. It is improvement of other language skills and expansion of knowledge. In teaching a foreign language we should supply the pupil with an additional tool of communication. Our aim is to acquaint him/her with foreign people and their civilization. Since, in most cases, a pupil cannot be transferred to another country, one of the best ways of attaining this aim is through teaching him to read on his own in the foreign language. (Chastain, 197: 169)

2.1.10 Relationship between Reading and Speaking Skills

There is an increasingly high relationship between reading and speaking skills. Printed words relate to large extent to the spoken words. There is no question that people who develop large reading vocabularies tend to develop large speaking vocabularies. Indeed, reading power relies on continuous improvement in vocabulary knowledge that provides oral
communication. The importance of word knowledge, which facilitates speaking skills, has been a major resource in the development of reading skills. Therefore, fostering improvement in word knowledge through wide reading has the potential for fostering improvement in speaking skills. (Liberman, 1998: 167).

As skills in some aspects of oral language increase, they help development in reading and as a person improves his reading skills, that improvement seems to enhance further improvement in the spoken language. This seems to be a continuing spiral. Some ESL teachers believe that development in spoken language influences development of reading. That is true, but it is also true that as people develop stronger reading skills, they further enable their development of more sophisticated speaking skills. (DeGelder, 1995: 56).

Noticing the individual sounds in word - seems to help with comprehension of the spoken language. Knowledge of spelling patterns seems to help improve pronunciation and listening. Print experience is related to knowledge of grammar and print experience also seems to help learners acquire spoken language forms, for example, function words, such as conjunctions, prepositions and articles, and derivational word endings, which are endings that form new words. We don't speak the way we thought we did. Our model of speech mimicked our model of reading: that we spoke by producing sequences of phonemes. But now we know that it doesn't work like that. That's one of the reasons it's difficult to learn to read. (Adams, 1990: 34).

Without a doubt that speech and reading are dependent on the same group of abilities needed to process phonologically difficult materials. Evidence for this is that most reading difficulties reside in phonological language
difficulties. Poor readers tend also to have poor speech perception and phonological deficits in both spoken and written language. (Blachman, 1997: 23)

Beginning readers need to learn phonological awareness: awareness of the sound system; and graphophonic awareness: Knowledge of the letters and an understanding that letters and letter combinations stand for sounds and words. If people are only doing oral skills, it might not include much attention to the elements of the sounds of the language - the bits and pieces - even if they do some work on pronunciation. (Ehri, 1998: 37).

Right after the early stages of reading, the relationships [between speech and reading] may change, depending on learner, task, and circumstances. There is evidence, for example, that while for first-language readers' oral experience is primary, reading and writing become increasingly independent and reciprocal as they develop. For some second-language or foreign-language readers, the reading skills provide the bulk of the new language input. (Adams, 1990: 76).

Most studies of adult literacy indicate that phonemic awareness is dependent on letter-sound knowledge. For example, phonemic awareness usually begins to develop in illiterate adults after they have actually had experience with printed letters. Even the concept of "word" is usually not learned until the learner experiences words in print, separated from each other by spaces. As phonological awareness develops, it helps both first- and second-language learners to understand spoken language better. (Stahl, 1998: 112).
2.1.11 Developing Speaking Skills through Reading

Language acquisition without reading is difficult. Reading is a good way of comprehension. A good reader is able to understand sentences and structures of a written text. Bright and McGregor are of the opinion that reading is ‘the most pleasant route to command of the language’, because it is via reading ‘the student is most likely to find words used memorably with force and point. Where there is little reading there will be little language learning... the student who wants to learn English will have to read himself into knowledge of it unless he can move into an English environment. Bright and McGregor, (1970: 52, 53).

It appears that reading is a key factor in language learning. One important notion of developing reading skills and speaking skills is to use the language for learning as well as communication. Reading can play a big part in successful language learning. It can develop speaking skills. It needs to be noted that speaking holds a very significant place in foreign language learning because through speech messages are conveyed. According to Ur (1996: 120), “of all the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), speaking seems intuitively the most important”.

Reading outside the classroom is the most significant influence on oral communication ability. Students who read a lot are more likely to speak well. Students through reading develop in both fluency and accuracy of expression in their speaking. Davies and Pearse, (2000) stresses the importance of communication as: “Real success in English teaching and learning is when the learners can actually communicate in English inside and outside the classroom.”
2.1.12 Reading and other Sub-skills

Reading is one of the most effective ways of foreign language learning. Reading simply is the interpretation of a written message. Walter (1979: 4) briefly defines reading as what the reader does to get the meaning he needs from contextual resources.

Reading is a fluent process of readers combining information from a text and their own background knowledge to build meaning and the goal of reading is comprehension (Nunan, 2003: 68). The ability to read requires that the reader draw information from a text and combine it with information and expectations that the reader already has (Grabe, Stoller, 2001: 187). Alderson (2000: 7) states that “reading is built from two components: word recognition and comprehension”. These two components gained through reading will foster learners’ language competence. Krashen and Terrell (1989: 131) point out that reading enables learner to comprehend better which is an important factor that can develop language competence. (Figure 1).
Hedge (2003) writes the goals of learners’ in a reading process as:

- The ability to read a wide range of texts in English.
- Building knowledge of language which will facilitate reading ability.
- Building schematic knowledge.
- The ability to adapt the reading style according to reading purpose (skimming, scanning).
- Developing an awareness of the structure of written texts in English.
- Taking a critical stance to the contexts of the texts.

Reading will add to learners’ conversational performance. Reading will help learners to decipher new words that they need for conversations. Through reading language learners will have vocabulary knowledge which will facilitate their speaking performance and their usage of structure in the target language will develop. These components which are required through reading are all necessary for developing speaking skills.

Similarly, Williams (1984: 13) suggests some reasons why language learners should read in a foreign language:

- Learners can have further practice in the language that they have learnt.
- Learners can practice language in order to reuse it in other skills such as speaking and writing.
Learners can learn how to get benefit from the texts to extract the information they need.

Learners can find enjoyment or interest through reading.

2.1.12 Linking Reading and Speaking

In a reading process, six component skills have been recognized.

1) Automatic recognition of skills.

2) Vocabulary and structural knowledge.

3) Formal discourse structure knowledge.

4) Content/world background knowledge.

5) Synthesis and evaluation skills/strategies.

6) Metacognitive knowledge and skills monitoring (Grabe, 1991: 379).

How do these component skills contribute to speaking skills? Anne Lazaraton (2001: 104) suggests that oral communication is based on four dimensions or competences: grammatical competence (phonology, vocabulary, word and sentence formation; sociolinguistic competence (rules for interaction, social meanings); discourse competence (cohesion and how sentences are linked together); and strategic competence (compensatory strategies to use in difficult strategies).

Vocabulary knowledge and grammar are two essential factors of foreign language learning, and they both influence learner’s speaking performance. Good knowledge of grammar is viewed as an essential aspect for achievement in a foreign language. Grammar is important to learn the nature of language. Grammar helps learners to build comprehensible sentences in speaking. In order to understand how
language works, learners should give attention to grammar. “If we only understand what others say partially and superficially, the communication of ideas can’t be properly realized.” (Minyan, 2007: 63).

2.1.11. A Reading, Vocabulary and Grammar

Reading will help learners acquire vocabulary and grammar. Through reading learners see how words fit together. When learners constantly engage in the target language, they begin noticing and mastering the patterns in the language.

Mccarthy (2000) states that “lexical and grammatical knowledge are significantly correlated to reading comprehension”. This means learners will achieve better reading comprehension through grammar. Krashen (cited in Hill and Holden, 1990: 92) encourages reading because it is a great factor in foreign language improvement and believes that students who read a lot are good at reading, good at writing and have a good vocabulary and grammar knowledge. Learners see structure of a sentence and this enables them to build their own sentences and utterances.

Reading may contribute significantly to competence in a second language. There is good reason; in fact, to hypothesize that reading makes a contribution to overall competence, to all four skills. (Krashen & Terrel, 1983: 131)

Vocabulary knowledge is indispensable for effective communication. Lewis (1993: 23) writes that learning vocabulary is the core task in second language learning and any language skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing, and translating cannot exist without vocabulary. Vocabulary is the understanding of meaning of a word. So, communication does not occur if there are no words. Therefore reading is probably the best way to learn new words. Reading results in incidental
vocabulary acquisition (Lechmann, 2007). Nation(1995: 5) supports this idea and says: “Reading has long been seen as a major source of vocabulary growth”. Most people recognize the important relationship between knowing words and reading well. Eskey, supporting this notion, states that “the relationship between reading and vocabulary is well documented and reciprocal” (Eskey, 2005: 567). And, “in fact the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension is well established in the reading literature” (Dole, Sloan, Trathen, 1995: 452). Hedge (1985: 77) also states that through extensive reading learners advance their ability to of guessing the meanings of unknown words and phrases from clues in the context and he concludes that students who read a lot outside the classroom may increase both their comprehending the context and improving their vocabulary which are essential elements to advance speaking skills. A broad and deep vocabulary knowledge makes learners precise and articulate. Through reading learners see how the new words connect to other words. “The more reading you will do, the more you will increase your exposure to vocabulary that doesn’t usually make its way into the spoken language” (Cunningham, 1998). An improved vocabulary will help learners develop their speaking skills. Speech without vocabulary cannot be produced. Vocabulary is one of the essential and fundamental components of communication (Levelt, 1993).

In www.ccsenet.org/ijel International Journal of English Linguistics Vol. 2, No. 6; 2012, 94, Laufer (1997) stresses the importance of vocabulary knowledge and adds that without words to express a wider range of meaning, communication in a second language cannot happen in a meaningful way. Learners will improve their speaking competence if they have better vocabulary knowledge which they can get through reading.
Sanacore (1994: 604), is of the opinion that encouraging learners to read will lead them guessing the meanings of words, phrases from the context, and the more they read the more they will understand the meanings of sentences and concepts. And an ongoing reading habit will enable learners understand a text easily; even they do not know meanings of some words in the text. Reading extensively will enhance their comprehension. Learners will easily comprehend in the foreign language if they advance their ability of guessing the meanings of words from context which will promote their speaking performance.

2.1.11.B Extensive Reading and Size of Vocabulary

Dubin and Olshtain (1977: 97) also point out that through extensive reading learners learn much vocabulary.

They emphasize the benefits of extensive reading as:

- Students develop an ability to gain pleasure and also satisfaction from reading on their own in the language they are learning.

- They are exposed to the language in a more natural and less structured way. In other words, they get different unpressured feeling on the structure of the language since they read for pleasure, and not for a grade or a test.

- Extensive reading has also effect on other language skills such as writing and speaking.

- Extensive reading, or reading for pleasure, will help the students comprehend more and also continue to use the language after the instruction.
Oya, Manalo, and Greenwood suggest that better vocabulary knowledge produces better oral performance (2009: 11). Accuracy and fluency of learners will get better through reading. They also claim that “having good vocabulary knowledge is one of the essential components to gain fluency in speaking performance” (Oya, Manalo, Greenwood, 2009: 19).

It needs to be noted that good vocabulary knowledge will give learners confidence in their speaking performance. Better vocabulary knowledge and having more words at one’s disposal is likely to facilitate the ability to tell a story better, to demonstrate a more extensive range of language resources, and to come across more intelligibly. Better vocabulary knowledge could also contribute to boosting the speaker’s confidence, which would come across when speaking and influence the overall impression created. (ibid).

2.1.11C Position of vocabulary in relation to Oral Delivery

In the theoretical model of L1 and L2 speaking (Levelt, 1989, 1993), vocabulary has a central position in forming an utterance with appropriate meanings and with syntactic, morphological, and phonological structures. Levelt’s model suggests two points. First, vocabulary is always required in the formulation stage. In other words, no speech can be produced without vocabulary, and vocabulary is indispensable to speaking performance.

Second, the lexicon consisting of lemmas and lexemes includes not only vocabulary size (i.e., primary meaning and form [phonology]) but also depth (i.e., syntax and morphology), which suggests that both size and depth are related to speaking performance (adapted from Rie Koizumi, 2005: 53).
The study by Adams (1980) and Higgs and Clifford (1982) indicates close relationships between vocabulary as part of overall speaking performance and overall speaking performance at low levels than at intermediate and advance levels (adapted from Koizumi, 2005: 53).

2.1.11.D Reading Materials for Augmenting Oral Delivery

For spoken English the best reading materials are dramas, plays and dialogues. Learners have the opportunity to find sentences and phrases used in our daily conversation in dramas, plays and dialogues because they are all based on one person talking to another. Some studies have shown that using authentic texts has a positive effect on learning the target language by developing communicative competence (Peacock, 1997). “A text is usually regarded as authentic if it is not written for teaching purposes but for a real-life communicative purpose, where the writer has a certain message to pass on to the reader. As such, an authentic text is one that possesses an intrinsically communicative quality” (Lee, 1995). It is real language created by native speakers of the target language in pursuit of communicative outcomes (Little, Devitt, & Singleton, 1989).

Integrating speaking and reading skills deepens students’ understanding of the reading material, reveals any problem they have understanding a text, and, most importantly, lets them apply the information they have read into authentic speaking practice that improves their fluency (Zhang, 2009: 34).

Finally, we can say that, oral communication without vocabulary will break down. One of the most useful ways to improve your communication skills is extensive reading. Extensive reading will help you to develop your ability to express ideas, whilst also enlarging the size...
of vocabulary. Vocabulary knowledge is one of the crucial factors that will influence in speaking. Reading introduces learners to a wider body of language and contexts. Reading helps learners build up better grammar skills. Therefore, as learners develop stronger reading skills, they develop more sophisticated speaking skills, too.

2.1.12 Types of Reading

There are quite a number of readings which can be handled briefly for the sake of the space:

2.1.12.A Aloud Reading

Reading aloud is for checking the students’ pronunciation, word stress, pauses, intonation and understanding. The passage for these activities should be short, complete and clear. Byrne (1971: 97) states that “reading used to be one of the normal methods for giving students language practice regardless of its value”.

Reading aloud comes only after silent reading and after presenting new words, structures and expressions. Reading aloud must be oral first so as to establish good hobbits of pronunciation and to train the students to develop their knowledge of the foreign language of their own.

Some educators and researchers are in favor of silent reading vs. reading aloud, but reading aloud can be used during the course to check pronunciation to improve the students’ intonation and fluency. Reading a text out aloud can help students to focus mentally, raise questions and stimulate discussion. (ibid).
2.1.12 B Silent Reading

It is for understanding. It keeps the whole class attentive and enables the students to activate their receptive abilities. Silent reading requires the teacher guidance and assistance in the early stage of the learning. The teacher is expected to help the students develop their speed in silent reading. This can be realized by forming good habits such as right sitting position, the proper distance between the page and eyes.

Timing in silent reading increase the eye snap to a great extent and makes students force themselves to read fast. Comprehension questions should immediately follow silent reading. The questions should share a logical sequence. Being able to read rapidly to oneself is an essential skill for all students.

2.1.13 Reading Sub-skills

There are numerous reading sub-skills which will be handled here very briefly:

(i) Scanning

Scanning is a rabid reading of a text to find out specific pieces of information which are prominent in the text such as numbers, dates, quantities, names or places. In other words, we scan the page until we find what we are looking for.

(ii) Skimming

It is a rabid reading of the text to find out the gist or the main idea. When a reader skims he just passes his eyes over titles, headlines, topic sentences and summaries. Therefore, skimming is effective in improving
the students’ abilities at getting information written in limited period of time.

(iii) **Intensive reading**

It a classroom activity guided by the teacher. It takes the form of silent reading than the reading aloud. In this type of reading students look for the details. The material designed for intensive reading usually a little higher than the students’ level. Robinet (1978: 229) states that “The reading done in the classroom is usually carefully guided and intensive; it is a necessary preparation of the students to read more rapidly”.

(iv) **Extensive Reading**

This is what usually occurs when readers are reading for pleasure, perhaps a novel or a play. The reading material here is usually reduced below the level of the students. It is called supplementary reading because it is supposed to supplement intensive reading achieved by the students by allowing each student read books, magazines and newspapers outside of the classroom and assigning an oral report on them in the classroom. Graft states that “Extensive reading means, reading in quantity in order to gain general understanding of what we read. It is intended to develop good reading habits, build up knowledge of vocabulary, structure and to encourage a liking for reading. (Byrne 1971: 173)

(v) **S Q 3 Rs**

A method for reading is called (S Q 3 R). The aim is to understand the material in some depth. This method involves simple steps.
- Survey: to skim through to gain an overview and not the key points.
- Question: to devise questions you hope the text will answer.
- Read: to read slowly and carefully.
- Recall: to write down from memory the main points made by the section.
- Review: to revisit your questions comparing to your recall.

**(vi) Word by Word Reading**

This type of reading is time consuming that demands a high level of concentration. The material is not readily understood and it requires slow and careful analytical reading, for example, unfamiliar words and concepts, scientific formula can take up an hour just to read a few lines of a text.

**(vii) Effective reading**

Every one reads with a purpose in his/her mind generally. This purpose is either to enjoy oneself or to obtain information. Effective reading means reading accurately and efficiently to understand as much of the passage as the student can in order to achieve his purpose of reading. It may also be necessary to reproduce the passage in some way such as discussing the main idea or writing a summary.

Sometimes comprehension failure happens and the reader is unable to achieve his/her purpose. This failure may be a simple matter of not knowing the meaning of words but it is just a likely to be a deficiency in one or more of a number of specific reading skills. (Smith, 1972).

**2.1.14 Models of Reading**

In the last fifty years reading researchers have been studying the link between the reading process (what goes in the brain?) and how to teach reading. They have developed a model of reading which is considered as an attempt to describe the nature of reading, i.e. what happens when people they read? How an individual processes a word and a clause or
comprehend a text? (Encarta Encyclopedia, 1999). Reading researchers tend to classify reading models into three kinds: bottom-up model, top-down model and interactive model.

2.1.14 A Bottom-up Model:

The bottom-up model argues that the reader begins to build up the meaning of the text by processing reading from the smallest units to the highest units, i.e. from letters to words, phrases, sentences, paragraphs and finally the meaning of the whole text. This flow of information is considered to be very fast, and little affected by information stored in the memory.

Carver, cited in Clapham (1996: 13), describes reading as being a linear process from graphic symbols to the meaning responses, and adds, “readers check words individually, and sound them phonetically.”. Clapham (1996: 13) believes that reading is a bottom-up process. According to him, “The reader is not a guesser; he plods through sentence, letter by letter, and word by word.”

Some other researchers have shown that the description of the reading process as bottom-up approach is inadequate. For instance, Nunan (1993: 36) shows that the process of reading from smaller linguistic units to higher ones show reading down, then he says, “readers should only be able to read round 60 words in a minute.”

Rumelhant as cited in Clapham (1996: 14) shows that bottom-up models fail to allow for the fact that comprehension of letters, words and sentences are affected by high level processing, i.e. the interpretation of a word depends on its context. (the surrounding words), e.g. the word “will” in “let me do as I will “and “I will be here soon”, these have different meaning. The first means “decide or choose” while the latter is a
helping verb in the future time. In this example, and the similar ones, it is clear that the process of reading cannot be a simple linear progression from low level words.

2.1.14. B Top-down Model

The top-down model argues that readers bring the knowledge they have already processed to the text. They make predictions about the text and as they read they try to check if their predictions confirm the information in the text or not.

Goodman as cited in Calpham (1996: 14) suggests that “reading can be driven by hypothesis. The reader follows cyclical procedures of sampling the text, predicting what will come next, testing predictions and adjusting or confirming them.”

In top-down model the reader plays an active role, far from being a passive reader as in the bottom-up model approach. The reader uses his/her background knowledge to form predictions and interpretations for a written text.

One of the top-down model defects is that the reader may process little knowledge about the topic of the text, in order to make predictions about it. He may need a great deal of time to make these predictions. While the bottom-up model is the process of reading letter by letter the whole text, and the top-down model is the process of predicting that, based on the prior knowledge of the reader, the interactive model is a balance between the two because both models (top-down and bottom-up) are used throughout the reading process.(Calphman, 1996).
2.1.14. C Interactive Model

Eskey (1988: 16) explains the word “interactive “ as referring to both interaction of the readers with several kinds of knowledge (using both bottom-up and top-down approaches) and the interaction of the reader and the text. So, an interactive reader is the one who apply both bottom-up and top-down approaches in the reading process.

The previous knowledge is important. Without it the reader may not be able to comprehend a text. It is the knowledge that a reader already processes and brings to a text. It is known as “Schema”.

According to Aebersold and Field (1997: 17), schema theory research shows that there is a strong relationship between the background knowledge of the reader about the text and the content of text. The more the reader has of this background knowledge, the better the reader will comprehend that text. Schema is divided into three types

(a) Central Schema

It is the accumulated background knowledge that form a basis for the reader to provide comparison, e.g. readers of a text about wedding can compare it both to specific weddings they have attended and also to the general pattern of wedding in their culture.

(b) Formal Schema

Constitutes the knowledge of the structures, vocabulary, grammar and level of formality of the language the reader brings to a text. It presents knowledge of the text types, e.g. of the basis of the formal schema- the reader’s knowledge of a newspaper article is structured differently from an economic text.
(c) **Linguistic Schema**

It refers to the decoding features the reader needs to recognize words and see how they fit together in a sentence, e.g. the reader from repeated examples will be able to generalize a pattern. (ibid)

**2.2 Review of Related Research**

As far as this part is concerned, quite a number of studies have been carried out with different objectives and outcome:

2.2.1 *(The effects of Schema Theory on Understanding Reading Comprehension Texts)* by Bilal Elimam Hamid. It is an unpublished PhD thesis, Omdurman Islamic University, 2005.

The study aimed at investigating the role of the background knowledge in comprehending English texts and the effect of age and experience on building up schema.

The main findings of this study showed that the medical students were fast and better in test one than in test two, while the English and history students were fast and better in test two than in test one.

There is a big difference between this study and the current study. The study confirmed the importance of the role played by schema in understanding English texts and the effect of age and experience on building up schemata while the present study focuses mainly on the role of reading as receptive skill in enhancing oral performance.

2.2.2 *(Teaching English Reading Skills at Postgraduate Level)*, by Hajer Alamin Yousif. It is an unpublished M.ed thesis, El Neelain University, Graduate College, 2005.
The study aimed at enabling university students to improve their reading comprehension with special emphasis on reading skills. It also aimed at examining the impact of reading on skills techniques and shed the light on the significance of efficient techniques.

The study has come out with the following findings:

- Students come to university with weak English language abilities.

- The materials in reading course tie the students with their culture.

- Students are not serious in taking reading course.

- English Language teachers at the universities do not encourage students to use the techniques that suit their needs and interests.

The findings of this study agree to some extent with the current study. The last finding of this study support the third hypothesis of the current study which says that teachers of English language do not provide students with a variety of classroom reading activities to help them improve their oral ability.

2.2.3 (Reading Speed and Comprehension at the Basic and Secondary Levels), it is an unpublished M.A thesis, EL Neelain University, Faculty of Arts, 2004.

The objectives of this study are as follows:

- To identify the roots of the problem of reading speed and comprehension.

- To find solutions for improving reading speed and comprehension.

The main findings are:

- Students’ reading ability is so poor that they cannot read correctly.
- Students are unable to read fast without making so many mistakes.

- Students have many problems which hinder their reading skills.

- Teachers do not provide students with sufficient time to practice reading.

The researcher of this study has come together with the researcher of the current study in regard of the fourth finding and supports the second hypothesis of this study which says teachers do not provide the students with sufficient time to practice reading skill.


The study aimed at investigating EFL students’ attitudes towards using Arabic in EFL classroom and towards using monolingual dictionary and bilingual one. It also tried to identify the linguistic areas where Arabic can be effectively used specially in reading comprehension.

The main findings are:

1- The amount of the Arabic is less than %40 of the whole teaching methodology employed in the classroom.

2- The amount of Arabic is needed to be used mainly in explaining idiomatic expressions and collocations.

It is clear that there is a difference between this study and the current study. The study concentrates mainly on students’ attitudes towards using Arabic and dictionary inside EFL classroom whereas the present study focuses mainly on the effect of reading as receptive skill in enhancing oral performance.
2.2.5 (Efficient EFL reading at Sudanese Secondary Schools) by Mahgoup Daffa Allah Ahmed. It is an unpublished m.A thesis, Sudan University of Science and Technology, 2005.

The study aimed at improving the teachers’ mode in teaching EFL reading efficiency and helping students to read and comprehend in an effective way. The study also investigated the views of experts about the means of teaching efficient EFL reading in Sudanese secondary schools.

The main findings are:

- Teachers do not adopt the interactive approach in teaching reading comprehension.

- EFL teachers do not encourage their students to improve their reading skills.

- Teaching reading strategies very essential for the students.

- Teaching reading should mainly focus on topics which suit students’ interests.

The researcher’s findings of this study agree with the researcher of the immediate study and support the second hypothesis which talks about the role of English language teachers in providing students with a variety of reading lessons and activities to encourage them to read eagerly.

2.2.5 Basis for Selecting Reading Material

According to Rivers (1981:262) “the essential aim of choosing texts may be to achieve language proficiency”. Texts should be “language focused”, i.e. Not just reading but for teaching language formally and functionally in classrooms.
Some teachers argue that the experience with a considerable quantity of reading materials is essential to expand student’s knowledge and give them experience with a much wide range of expressions and structures than they could gain from listening and speaking, which are limited to time spent in classroom.

It is preferable in selecting reading texts, for English language classroom, to select these texts that are interesting and highly motivating for learners and adequate to their language level so as to facilitate language learning.

Recently, the use of authentic materials has become common in classroom activities. Mingo (cited in Wallace 1993:79) interprets “authentically "as including “original pieces of written or spoken language which occurred naturally between native speakers and could therefore, be accepted as “genuine communicative acts”. Some of the factors on basis of which texts are selected for classroom use are the following:

2.2.5. A Interest:

The most important factor in selecting a reading material is interest. William (1986:42) states that “In the absence of interesting text, very little understanding…”. Carrel (1984:339) says “First, teachers of reading should use materials the students are interested in, including materials self – selected by the students” Nuttal (1982:29) refers to interest as “suitability of contents”. She claims that, “Choosing text that suit students’ interest is more critical…”

Interest is an important factor, because of its relation to motivation. When the topic of a passage does not suit the students' interest, their motivation to reading is substantially lessened.
As part of the effort to find an interesting reading material, Nutal (Ibid.) recommends that, “the teacher attempt to discover if the passage will:

A. Tell the students the new information they don’t already know.

b. Introduce the students to new ideas that make them think about things they haven’t thought about before.

c. Help the students to understand the way other people think.

d. Make them want to read for themselves.

There are numbers of approaches to determine learners’ interest, as: Ranking and Open-end ranking. The teacher asks the students to rank their preferences. And present an open-end questionnaire in which the students respond to many questions. Nuttall (Ibid.) says that: “paying attention to the materials students read in their language.

2.2.5. B Exploitability

Exploitability is defined as facilitation of learning as key factor in selecting reading texts. One way to decide the exploitability of a reading text to develop reading skills, is to discover the author’s point of view on his / her critical idea about specific information mentioned in the text furthermore, the text can be exploited for various activities to the reader’s needs.

2.2.5. C Topic

The topic of a reading article is an important factor to be considered. The readers feel that, a wide variety of topics would be helpful to maintain their interest and motivation. Therefore, a topic helps the students to read in depth. There are three techniques for reading depth, to provide
background knowledge using anthology built around a particular theme, dividing long text into shorter sections.

2.2.5. D Length of the Text

The final factor of readability concerns the length of potential reading passage. That means, the appropriate number of words include the length will affect the rapid reading ability. The reader will not be able to control his understanding, so he will be confused. Therefore, readers will be unable to finish according to time give for them. As a result of this, the readers would be frustrated, they may blame themselves that they are poor readers. So, one technique that helps the students to avoid this burden is to give them ample time to read the text.

2.2.5. E Readability:

The factor of readability ranks with interest exploitability as one of the most basic consideration. In selecting a reading text, Carrel (1987:223) uses the term to refer to the following phenomena “...syntactic appropriateness, logical, rhetorical ordering of ideas and external phenomena at the discourse level, lexical appropriateness, and background knowledge of the reader”. She serves this term only for syntactic and lexical consideration. So, readability is affected by the following:

a. Lexical knowledge: lexical knowledge and background knowledge are two important elements that determine a text’s readability. It is clear that a number of unknown lexical items in reading a text create more difficulty for readers to read with understanding.

However lexical knowledge is among the more controversial factor in selecting a reading text. The difficulty comes from two issues involved
with lexical knowledge. The first concerns how to determine the degree of difficulty of the vocabulary of reading materials. The second is the number of unknown words that is acceptable in a reading text. So, one way of assessing students’ vocabulary is through the use of reading skills exercises, whereby students identify the difficult word in the passage.

Nuttal (Ibid.):26) says: “new lexical items as words idioms or compared phrases” and recommends that in an intensive reading. A passage should contain no new word because learners cannot respond favorably to unknown items”.

However, if one the objective of reading lesson is to teach learners to guess the meaning of the unknown lexical items that only a maximum of no more than one or two words should exist per- page. This recommendation must be taken into account to improve the students’ reading ability.

b. Background knowledge: background knowledge is very important in the readability of a text. The more reader knows about a particular topic of a text. The more quickly and accurately he can read the text.

Alderson (2000:56) has demonstrated that, background knowledge plays a key role in the comprehension of reading a text by advanced learners. Since the background knowledge of the reader plays a critical role in his comprehension of the passage, teachers should make sure that the passage is on a topic that is known to their students.

That factor of background knowledge in reading a text is seen as an issue of course designs. So, to overcome the problem, three or four themes over the course of reading programmer.
e. Syntactic appropriateness: The syntactic of sentence affects their readability. Construction of syntactic affects the reading of the text. That means, if a reading text contains complicated grammatical constructions, the reader might find them difficult to understand.

Therefore, readers generally, use readability in first language reading lessons often in target language reading as a means of determining the level of syntactic complexity.

2.2.5. F Appearance:

The final factor is concerned with appearance of the reading text, which includes layout print and type size. The teacher plays a big role as relates the layout of a text. He should examine the article to see whether the layout is beneficial, also he must check the lines or paragraph numbered. The teacher can also, determine the legibility of the passage. The type size and font “the style of the type” are factors to be considered for the learner, it helps in deciding process.

2.2.5. G - Organization:

Organization refers to both rhetorical organization of the text and clarity of organization. Carrel (1987: 223) indicates, readers who can organize the rhetorical organization of a text, have better comprehension that those who don’t. Therefore, the teachers should carefully examine a text to see how its organization might present problems for the students.

2.2.5. H - Discourse:

Discourse phenomena include the arrangements of topics and comments in a reading passage, and considerations of Readers need to be aware of the manner in which the author makes use of the cohesive and coherence in the passage.
The teachers also, need to know whether their learners can handle the presentation of ideas and ruminants in the passage, natal (1982:43) “…They are extremely useful syntactic the readers. They don’t know themselves contribute to significance, but can help readers to establish the significance”.

Therefore, the good one way of determining students’ knowledge of discourse phenomena is through simple identification exercise. For example, of an unfamiliar text contains samples various cohesion maker and transition devices, students can be instructed of the text.

2.2.6 - learning to read by the orthography of the target language:

Each written language in the world has orthography, or writing system and the English uses the Roman alphabet. The way words are represented in the English writing system affects the way everyone including ELLS learns to read in English.

The experiences ELLS have with the English alphabet can be influenced by the writing system is important and too often over looked in designing instruction for ELLS recognize words and decode connected text.

2.2.5A - How words recognition occurs in English:

To read English words, we learn to match sound or phonemes, with letters, or graphemes. When we learn to read English words, we learn to perform several steps very rapidly, first we identify the first letter of the word and try to find matching phoneme, then working left to right, we match the rest of the graphemes and phonemes of the word.

Holding the sounds in our wording memory, we recombine then to form a mental representation that we attempt to match with a word from our listening vocabulary.
Once that lightning fast process has occurred, we can access it’s meaning of course if we are reading out loud, there are additional steps needed in order to pronounce the words.

(Kristin lems, 64, 2010) states “Accessing and recognizing individual words called word recognition and recognizing the sound and meaning of word across connected text what we call decoding”.

There are two broad categories of words in English:

Those with easy to match phonemes and graphemes called decodable words, decoding and sight word recognition are the primary word- attack skills used for English word recognition- there are good reasons that English words are taught through both decoding and memorization.

When learners start write English words they start with the sounds and match them with the letter symbols, no matter which end we start from both processes involve matching the English sound and letter symbol combination, the skill of matching sound and letter symbols is called (phonics). The researcher thinks that if the teachers want to help learners develop the phonic skill, they need to understand how the phonemes and graphemes of English work together in the English writing system.

The teachers also need to appreciate how the orthographies of ELLS, first language resemble and differ from English and how that affects learning to read.

2.2.5 b- The effect of orthography on learning to read:

(Katas and Frost 1992) proposed the orthographic depth hypothesis to address the question of how different writing systems in flounce the way children learn to read. They hypothesized that it would be easier for children from transparent orthographies to learn to read aloud and spell
than for children for opaque orthographies, and that children from transparent orthography language would use more phonologically based strategies to identify words.

The hypothesis has been confirmed by a number of studies, including one that examined children learning to read in alphabetic syllabic and logographic orthographies.

The children from transparent orthographic learned to read more quickly read longer words, more slowly and were more likely to say (non-words) or nonsense words when they made reading mistakes.

Children from more opaque, orthographies, on the other hand, took a longer time to learn to read, did not read longer words more slowly, and were more likely to substitute other real words when they made reading errors.

In addition, they were more likely to skip words (Ellis et al, 2004). These and comparable results have confirmed that readers form different orthographies undergo different processes in learning to read.

Reader from transparent orthographies read across the syllables of word, and as a result it takes longer to read a longer word. The fact that transparent orthographies readers have a high occurrence of non-words when reading aloud suggests that some may not be reading for meaning at least initially clearly, the transparency advantage has a down side, word calling or decoding without comprehension is a concern because the ease of decoding makes it possible to focus on the sound alone without analyzing the meaning of the words being decoded ,( Paulus etal,2000)-

Decoding is not really reading if it doesn’t include comprehension.
2.2.7 A Historical background of teaching reading

The teaching of reading, as mentioned by Robert (1982:194) has attracted the attention of educationalists as early as the 14th century. Even earlier than this, teachers invented novel ways to teach reading.

The ancient Greek alphabet with the aid of twenty four slaves, hired to represent each letter of the Greek alphabet. This was known as the ABC method. Later, the Americans like the Greeks, used the ABC method. They used baked bread in the shapes of the letters of the alphabet, believing that they may into a child’s mind was his / her stomach. Another historical aid was a wooden paddle, which was used to teach the alphabet.

The paddle was governed in leather and upon each paddle would be inscribed a letter of the alphabet. This was known as “Horn Book”. Robert (1982) mentioned that during 18th and 19th centuries, reading primers were designed to introduce children to reading.

The New England primer (1729) included pictures, the rhythmic meter, alliteration and an uplifting message. By (1783), NOAH Webster published his first book. Later on, editions were introduced to beginning readers of all ages, called Webster spelling Books. They included lists of about 9000 words, rhymes fables and moral instructions for children. According to McKay, S(1987) reading is an important language skill.

Various approaches for teaching the reading skill have been proposed. These were based upon different theories put forward to account for language acquisition and language learning. Because of this diversity of theoretical views, the reading approaches might differ in terminology and content. Each approach provides method and techniques, which are combined to achieve the best result.
Throughout the history of developing skills, different models of reading have been set for different goals of reading instruction.

More than a hundred years ago, when methods of teaching foreign language were drawn from the methods of teaching Latin, the scope of reading skills was within the limits of using reading as a means of recitation and translation from the foreign language into the mother tongue and vice versa.

Although some linguist refer to that period of “Grammar Translation Method” as the time of reading, was not taught or developed further more reading for translating foreign literature.

In the early 1700s, the “phonic method” appeared which taught the letters by the sound they make rather than their names.

But this approach was inadequate for teaching language such English where they may have more than one sound. For instance, how the learner is instructed to read the letter “c” in “CAR” “CHILD” and “CELLAR”? Which sound would be chosen? The orthographic reform approach for spelling reform had compensated this problem by introducing Pitman’s ITA (Initial Teaching alphabet) to provide children with logic relation between letters and sounds.

The weakness that accomplished the phonic resulted in the emergence of so-called “look and say” approach that encourage the child to recognize words, phrases and sentences as wholes.

If attempted to widen the young reader’s sight vocabulary. This approach was used widely after World War II. But it has disadvantage of limiting the child’s ability to work out for him of new words from the letters
forming them. During the year (1929) the reading method was implemented. It was divided into intensive and extensive reading.

Intensive reading. i.e. reading inside the classroom, took the form of loud reading. Simple phrases were used in listening and speaking practices. Students were encouraged to infer the meaning of words from their contexts without resorting to translation in the native language.

Comprehension questions accompanied the oral practice of reading tests. Reading outside the classroom (the extensive reading) is simply the read of materials that fit the reader’s age group, interests, and surroundings past experiences, attitudes and opinions.

The main objective of extensive reading is to get information and pleasure. With the recent introduction of computers and the internet into the sphere of teaching and learning, it has become even more imperative to use a combination of methods to teach reading skills that utilize these new techniques. Yet it can be argued that teachers should not disregard more traditional methods and modern methods to teach reading.

In any case, it can be argued that it is unwise to restrict the teaching of English language to one method only. A widow (1979) considers “reading, writing and conversation as forms of communication” this indicates that reading is a highly cognitive and communicative aspect.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter will provide a full description of the research methodology adopted as well as the research instruments employed. Moreover, the validity and reliability of these instruments will be confirmed.

3.1 The Study Methodology

In this study the researcher adopted the descriptive analytical method in order to study, investigate reading comprehension problems faced the pupils and find solution to the problem. The study adopted a mixed-methods approach: the descriptive analytical and experimental method. This allows the research instruments to complement each other. Hence, an experiment, questionnaires, and class observations were used to address the research questions and objectives. The (SPSS) program version 21 was used for data analysis.

3.2 The Population of the Study

The study population was students and the teaching staffs of English, male and female at basic schools. As it is known, all the students in Sudan enter basic school, after spending two years at kindergarten where they study the rudimentary of the English Language studying English at basic school. All the students are aged 11-14 years old. They all speak Arabic as their first language, and all of them have studied English for 8 years at school. All the students who took part in the study experiment were males and females.

The test used was similar to students test practiced on their text book and as Basic Level Certificate (see appendix 1). The test consists of true/false and multiple choice questions, such questions are good means to assess reading comprehension because they don’t require production
The students stay for eight years at the basic school. There were 200 students 50 per class and in addition to studying English they also studied Math, History, Geography, Biology, and other subjects (all in Arabic).

Most of the teachers are experienced native Arabic speakers. Some have taught at the school for 10 years, while a few have joined recently. As the students live together, they spend a lot of time speaking Arabic, and have little or no exposure to English outside the classroom. The official educational policy is only Arabic.

Judging by the researcher’s experience as an old practitioner, and who worked in a number of basic schools, there are very drastic variations as far as the standard of pupils is concerned as regards reading comprehension. Undoubtedly the other skills are also affected by the overall deterioration, but reading is most notably the worst of all. Improving reading skills can affect positively the other skills, too. Hence, the researcher opted for exploring this particular area. This led to selecting grade eight in basic level schools in Khartoum locality in Sahafa schools as the population of the study.

To be exact, the present study was conducted at Khartoum locality and only locus on basic school pupils who study English as a foreign language. As the number of students at this level is noticeably high, only 160 pupils have been selected for the purpose of the study, Grade Eight.
Table 3.1 the main study sample

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<thead>
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<th>No</th>
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<th>Pupils’ number</th>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Somaia Bint Khayat</td>
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</tr>
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<td>3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Al Khansa</td>
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<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Al Abass Ibn Abdelmutalib</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
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<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>200</strong></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 Instruments of the Study

a. Questionnaire (Teachers’ Questionnaire)

b. Test reading comprehension test

3.3. A The Construction of the Teachers’ Questionnaire

Teachers’ questionnaire was designed to investigate and measure the research hypotheses as well as the questions.

Table 3.2 Table (3-1) shows teachers’ numbers and their distribution according to sex.

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<td>40%</td>
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Reliability statistics

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<tr>
<td>Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>No of Items</td>
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</table>
Table (3.2) Qualifications

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<th>Percent (%)</th>
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<td>Higher diploma</td>
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<td>Masters</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Bar chart showing the distribution of qualifications]
Table (3) Received training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Received training</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty of education</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>45.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teachers training institution</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in service training</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No training</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bar chart showing the distribution of received training.
Table (3.3) Teachers’ years of experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Experience</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-15</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-20</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 20</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4 Validity of the two Questionnaires

To achieve the validity of the questionnaires the researcher adopted the following steps:

The questionnaires were seen by four judges who are university lecturers with long experience in the field of ELT. They are Prof. Abdullah Yassin (Sudan University of Science and Technology) Prof. Ahmed Mukhtar El-Mardi (Omdurman Islamic University) Dr. Muhammad Alshengheti (Arrebat National University) Dr. Amna Badri (University of Ahfad)
1-The revised and evaluated final versions of the questionnaires were distributed to both teachers and students.

2-The questionnaires were distributed personally and directly to the subjects of the study.

3-The total number of the questionnaires that the researcher has received from the respondents were (30) from the teachers.

3.5 Summary of the chapter
This chapter described the methodology employed for gathering the data of the present study. Research instruments were described; instruments reliability and validity were confirmed. Having finished with the methodology of the study, the next chapter will present data analysis, results and discussion.
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This chapter presents the analysis of data obtained from experiment, teachers' questionnaire.

4.1 Analysis of the experiment

The analysis of the experiment will focus on answering three vital questions:

1. To what extent are the pupils and teachers at basic Schools satisfied with the reading comprehension texts as provided in the text book (SPINE 3)?

2. To what extent are teachers aware of the different reading techniques and strategies to help improve and develop eighth form pupils’ reading comprehension?

3. To what extent does ‘shortage of trained teachers affect negatively the pupils, standard in reading comprehension?

Hypotheses

1. Pupils and teachers at basic Schools are not satisfied with reading comprehension texts as provided in the text book (SPINE 3).

2. Quite a number of teachers at the basic level, who are involved in the teaching operation, are not aware of the different reading techniques and strategies to help improve and develop eighth form pupils’ reading comprehension?
3. Shortage of trained teachers affects negatively the pupils’ standard in reading comprehension. To help improve reading comprehension trained tutors have to be funneled in classroom settings.

To answer these questions, we computed the mean, standard deviation, standard error and ranges for the pretest- and post-test scores of both experimental and control groups. T-test was computed to find out whether each group had made any progress as a direct result of instruction.

Table (4-1) Distribution of Pre-test and Post-test Scores within the Experimental and Control Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE of Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Pre-test</td>
<td>20.9241</td>
<td>61.333</td>
<td>3.5064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>3.8202</td>
<td>20.9241</td>
<td>69.667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Pre-test</td>
<td>60.300</td>
<td>19.2055</td>
<td>2.6846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>61.000</td>
<td>20.2055</td>
<td>3.5064</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-2) T-test comparing the results of the two groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
<th>Std Error Mean</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig(2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6.967</td>
<td>2.0924</td>
<td>.3820</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6.300</td>
<td>1.3170</td>
<td>.2404</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Judging by the statistical manifestations above, it can be stated that the results within table (4-1) show that while all the classes improved, the results of the experimental group improved even more than the control group. The control group’s improvement was not expected though, as the pupils have been exposed to intensive reading comprehension from other sources than the textbook for almost a couple of months not ignoring the development of other skills. Both groups show improvements but the experimental group showed a noticeable progress with the highest scores when compared to the slight improvements achieved by the control group. These results evidently exemplify the strongest evidence we have found in experiment, and supports our original hypothesis: Pupils and teachers at basic Schools are not satisfied with reading comprehension texts as provided in the text book (SPINE 3). The pre-test is set in a way as to account for all language levels that can affect the operation of reading comprehension. Below is the grammar element.

4.1. A Grammar Part

Table (4-3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reliability Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach's Alpha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1- He_________ in Khartoum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- We have thirteen____________ in our school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- I____________ you on TV yesterday.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- He ________ football in the evenings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- This is my________ car.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6- She is________ in the kitchen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7- Nawal is the________ girl in the class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8- My brother________ than me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9- That is our________ office, but they are not there.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10- Mona____________ her clothes on Fridays.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Judging by the above table, (4-3) that reliability coefficient for answers is the sample (98%). The truthfulness is the square root of the ratio a (99%), which indicates that the identification of the study are characterized by a degree of stability is achieved in which the purpose of the study.
Table (4-3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) lived</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) lives</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) living</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (4-4)

2- We have twelve___________ in our school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) teachers'</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) teacher's</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) teachers</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (4-5)

3- I________ you on TV yesterday.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) watches</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) watched</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) watching</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3- I________ you on TV yesterday.
Table (4-6)

4- He _______ football in the evenings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>( a ) plays</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>44.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( b ) played</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( c ) playing</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (4-7)

5-This is my ________ car.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) fathers’</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) fathers</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>62.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) father’s</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5-This is my ________ car.

![Bar chart showing frequency and percent for different categories: (a) fathers’, (b) fathers, (c) father’s. Total is 100%.]
Table (4-8)

6- She is _______ in the kitchen.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>(a) cooks</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) cooking</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>68.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) cooked</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4-9)

6- She is _______ in the kitchen.
### Table (4-9)

7- Nawal is the ________ girl in the class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>(a) taller</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) tallest</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) tallers</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Figure (4-9)

7- Nawal is the ________ girl in the class.
Table (4-10)

8- My brother___________ than me.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>(a) taller</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) tallest</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) talls</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4-11)
Table (4-12)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a)  teachers</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b)  teacher's</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c)  teachers'</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4-12)

9- That is our_______ office, but they are not there.
Table (4-13)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) washes</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) washing</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>74.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) washed</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4-13)
The above tables contain the data analysis and results concern the second hypothesis in the axis of grammatical problems of morphemes. The goal of this part is to investigate and measure the pupils' grammatical problems. The results of the morpheme(s) in table (11) concern the grammar (verb) the right answer of the word is (lives). We can see that only (12) of the sample of the pupils have given the right answer, while the (10) of the sample have chosen the morpheme(ed) while the (20) of the sample have chosen the morpheme (ing). The pupils are confused between these morphemes {(s), (ed) (ing)}.

The results of the morpheme(s) in table (12) concerns the grammar (plural) the right answer of the word is (teachers). We can see that only (24) of the sample of the pupils have given the right answer, while the (10) of the sample have chosen the morpheme(s') while the (16) of the sample have chosen the morpheme ('s). The pupils are confused between these morphemes {(s),(s')( 's)} in grammar.

The results of the morpheme(ed) in table (13) concerns the grammar (past) the right answer of the word is (watches). We can see that only (15) of the sample of the pupils have given the right answer, while the (20) of the sample have chosen the morpheme (es) while the (15) of the sample have chosen the morpheme (ing) in grammar. The pupils are confused between these morphemes {(ed),(es)(ing)}.

The results of the morpheme(s) in table (14) concern the grammar (present) the right answer of the word is (plays). We can see that only (22) of the sample of the pupils have given the right answer, while the (18) of the sample have chosen the morpheme(ed) while the (10) of the sample have chosen the morpheme (ing). The pupils are confused between these morphemes {(s), (ed)(ing)} in grammar.

The results of the morpheme('s) in table (15) concern the grammar (possession) the right answer of the word is (father's). We can see that
only (19) of the sample of the pupils have given the right answer, while the (11) of the sample have chosen the morpheme(s) while the (20) of the sample have chosen the morpheme (s'). The pupils are confused between these morphemes \{(s),('s)( s')\} in grammar.

The results of the morpheme(ing) in table (16) concern the grammar (present continuous) the right answers of the word is (cooking). We can see that only (24) of the sample of the pupils have given the right answer, while the (10) of the sample have chosen the morpheme(s) while the (16) of the sample have chosen the morpheme (ed ). The pupils are confused between these morphemes \{(s), (ing)( ed)\} in grammar. This result conforms and supports the hypothesis.

The results of the morpheme(est) in table (17) concern the grammar (superlative comparison) the right answer of the word is (tallest). We can see that only (22) of the sample of the pupils have given the right answer, while the (18) of the sample have chosen the morpheme(er) while the (10) of the sample have chosen the morpheme (ers ). The pupils are confused between these morphemes \{(er), (est)( ers)\} in grammar. This result conforms and supports the hypothesis.

The results of the morpheme(er) in table (18) concern the grammar (comparison) the right answer of the word is (taller). We can see that only (25) of the sample of the pupils have given the right answer, while the (15) of the sample have chosen the morpheme(est) while the (10) of the sample have chosen the morpheme (s). The pupils are confused between these morphemes \{(er), (est)( s)\} in grammar.

The results of the morpheme(s') in table (19) concern the grammar (plural possession) the right answer of the word is (teachers'). We can see that only (15) of the sample of the pupils have given the right answer, while the (15) of the sample have chosen the morpheme ('s) while the
(20) of the sample have chosen the morpheme (s). The pupils are confused between these morphemes {('s'),('s') (s)}

The results of the morpheme (es) in table (20) concern the grammar (present simple) the right answer of the word is (washes). We can see that only (20) of the sample of the pupils have given the right answer, while the (17) of the sample have chosen the morpheme(ing) while the (13) of the sample have chosen the morpheme (ed). The pupils are confused between these morphemes {('ing'),('es') (ed)} in grammar. This result conforms and supports the hypothesis (the basic level students are encountered by grammatical problems of inflectional morphemes. The weakness of the pupils' grammatical problems of inflectional morphemes refers to the teachers' neglect of the pronunciations as whole and inflectional morphemes as special. The poor knowledge of inflectional morphemes' phonetic affects both listening and understanding language.

4.2 Analysis of the Teachers' Questionnaire.

It consists of three interrelated parts related to surveying teachers’ viewpoints as regards reading comprehension from SPINE 3. Now, each variable will be considered in isolation and analyzed to find out to what extent it confirms the hypotheses of the study.

Table (4-3) the reading materials in SPINE are not enough to develop the pupils reading standards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>1.7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>68.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Judging by the table above, more than 84% of the respondents do agree that the texts as provided by the school curriculum are strong enough to improve reading comprehension. The problem with SPPINE though designed by local course designers, they are far from discovering the true ailing standards of our pupils in relation to the point in question and how it can be improved. Locally developed syllabus in connection with the English language have proved to be teeming with a number of shortcomings and failed to achieve the objectives set forth.

This variable further confirms the first hypothesis which states clearly that **pupils and teachers at basic Schools are not satisfied with reading comprehension texts as provided in the text book (SPINE 3).**

**Table (4-4) The content of Spine 3 doesn’t develop the pupil’s vocabularies.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As evident from the table that 60% of the respondents disagree with the variable that the content of Spine 3 doesn’t develop the pupil’s vocabularies. They believe the contents can be of great use were they to be exploited perfectly well. It depends the way these contents are approached and presented in the classroom setting. They believe the problem is not with the text, rather with some other elements or factors including teacher training. On-the-job training as well as professional training are extremely needed to help improve such a situation.

![Bar Chart]

Table (4-5) *The reading comprehension topics contain a lot of problematic phrases*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fig (5)** the above table shows that thirty–nine agree (the reading) comprehension topics contain a lot of problematic phrase that represent 65% which twenty-one disagree 35%. Domain two: good
strategies and effective technique motivate the pupil to read and comprehend. This reflects a sad fact that the designers have failed to control the type of vocabulary to be used in these books. This situation definitely calls for quick intervention to improve the type of vocabulary used here in these texts.

![Bar chart showing responses to the statement about strategies and effective technique motivating pupils to read and comprehend.](chart.png)

**Table (4-6)** Good strategies and effective technique motivate the pupil to read and comprehend, however teachers are not trained to exploit different reading strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>strongly agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Evident from the table above that 68% of the respondents believe that good strategies and effective technique motivate the pupil to read and comprehend. However, the kind of reading strategies adopted by SPINE 3 is not sufficient enough to produce good readers or text comprehenders. This indicates that massive reform across the course requires to be taken in order to improve the course. In fact, teachers need to be trained on how to adopt or design their own reading strategies. The best remedy to the issue in question particularly the part connected with teacher training is to
go back to the kind of teacher training adopted in the seventies and eighties. Teachers used to receive two uninterrupted years of teacher training. They become very competent and can handle effectively whatever course of English language they may be entrusted with. Actually they become international teachers.

![Bar Graph](image-url)

Table (4-7) the reading strategies used in the text book are not sufficient for the eighth pupils’ level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Judging from the table 70% of the teachers do agree that the type of reading strategies as adopted by SPINE 3 are not sufficient for eighth pupils’ level. Teachers have to be creative enough to have their own reading strategies based on their good knowledge of their students and the
type of syllabus they are studying. SPINE 3 has some reading strategies but they are numerous to cover the whole syllabus. Teachers should not be so dependent that they expect everything to be prepared for them. They should take active part in enriching the course by drawing on external authentic teaching material.

Table (4-8) Teachers discourage reading by translating every word

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>45.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table and figure (11) shows that about thirty-three responds disagree, teachers discourage reading by translating even word represents 55% twenty-seven responds are agree that 45%. The act of using L1 may be useful in part as it explains the meaning readily, but it can have very damaging effect on the long run as the pupils grow so dependent on glossing along Arabic language lines. The basic objective is to study English and use it in a communicative manner. However, the use of Arabic can be very detrimental. Teachers should try their level best to
explain things in English. In order for the tutors to explain the unfamiliar English this entails good preparation on the part of the teacher. Teachers always keep complaining about the standards of their students and blame the syllabus. They have to sit down and something creatively to help themselves and their pupils.

**Figure (8)** shows that about thirty-three responds disagree, teachers discourage reading by translating even word represents 55% twenty-seven responds are agree that 45%.

Table (4-9) *some types of reading questions don’t develop the pupils reading comprehension*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>65.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reading questions are intended to help students enhance their grasp of the reading text. Sometimes, if questions are not carefully prepared they will not produce the desired effect. **Table and figure (9)** showed that forty – eight respondents agree to the fact that some types of reading questions don’t develop the pupils reading comprehension that 80% , only twelve 17% disagree. For pupils at the basic level questions should be
comprehensive surveying every aspect of the text so that the pupils can have a better grasp of it. As the pupils progress in their study teachers can then limit the numbers of their question and allow for use of reading strategies such as inference, guessing and so on.

As it is clear from the table above that over 75% of the respondents are strongly of the opinion that the topics for reading comprehension in SPINE 3 are not interesting and they do not appeal to the students’ emotions. Now, there are types of students who

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>63.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it is clear from the table above that over 75% of the respondents are strongly of the opinion that the topics for reading comprehension in SPINE 3 are not interesting and they do not appeal to the students’ emotions. Now, there are types of students who are open to the world at
large through the use of the internet. This is a generation that is hard to please or be able to cater for their academic needs. They access to whatever kind of topics they may require from the different websites in the digital world. So it is very important to think of their needs in relation to the broad knowledge they have.

4.3 Hypotheses Confirmation

Table (4-3) with the statement: the reading materials in SPINE are not enough to develop the pupils reading standards, confirms the first hypotheses which states: Pupils and teachers at basic Schools are not satisfied with reading comprehension texts as provided in the text book (SPINE 3).

Table (4-6) which reads as good strategies and effective technique motivate the pupil to read and comprehend, however teachers are not trained to exploit different reading strategies, confirms the second
hypothesis which demonstrates that quite a number of teachers at the basic level, who are involved in the teaching operation, are not aware of the different reading techniques and strategies to help improve and develop eighth form pupils’ reading comprehension. This also confirms the third hypothesis which states *Shortage of trained teachers affects negatively the pupils’ standard in reading comprehension. To help improve reading comprehension trained tutors have to be funneled in classroom settings.*
CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction:

This chapter provides a summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

5.1 Conclusions

This study is an attempt to investigate the possibility of increasing classroom interaction with the aim of finding ways of improving 8th level basic schools students in reading comprehension and the learner’s communicative skills, in general. It aimed at investigating possible ways to boost students’ communicative competence via classroom interaction. It also surveyed tutors’ views on the issue in question. This study is set out to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent are the pupils and teachers at basic Schools satisfied with the reading comprehension texts as provided in the text book (SPINE 3)?

2. To what extent are teachers aware of the different reading techniques and strategies to help improve and develop eighth form pupils’ reading comprehension?

3. To what extent does ‘shortage of trained teachers affect negatively the pupils, standard in reading comprehension?

Approach: the descriptive analytical and experimental methods. This allowed the research instruments to complement each other. Hence, an experiment, questionnaires, was used to address the research questions
and objectives. The (SPSS) program version 20 was used for data analysis.

As many as 100 pupils participated in the study experiment, 50 teachers completed the questionnaires. The study found out that there are certain factors which can be used to maximize classroom interaction and hence improves the students’ oral skills. Besides the deteriorating standards in reading comprehension, the study also found out that the syllabus pursued at 8th level is highly responsible for the inadequacy in classroom interaction. All the hypotheses have been adequately confirmed each in its proper place.

It was also found that when they are exposed to an addition dose of teaching in the experiment group the students’ demonstration has been remarkably improved. They scored higher marks than those on the pre-test. The researcher can take care of this area by injecting a further dose to consolidate it. For people learning English as a second or foreign language, pronouns and the tenses can be difficult because they are expressed differently in their native language. “It” doesn’t exist in many languages, reflexive verbs are formed differently, and some languages only have one relative pronoun. Mastering English pronouns takes a lot of time and practice. So, some of the things to be taken care of are those areas which will then have positive effect on the standard of the students and increase their classroom interaction. This will also help improve the pupils reading comprehension.

There are many factors were found to responsible for good classroom interaction and good reading comprehension. One such factor is the students’ interest. If the tutors have managed to capture their students’ interest, this would then promote their communicative abilities send their classroom interaction sky-rocketing.
It was also demonstrated that talking about the students’ background in classroom settings can have a negative impact upon their progress and their interaction in the classroom. A good basic principle is never to ask your students in class anything that you would not wish to be asked yourself.

The study revealed that carefully selected texts can help narrow the cultural gap and help the student to have a better grasp of the subject matter and improve their communicative competence and classroom interaction. Consequently, tutors have to be selective as to the type of material they seek to handle with their students.

It was found that introducing authentic material can maximize the students’ grasp of the language. It is self-evident that vocabulary acquisition for all second language learners is fundamental. It is true that we can describe a few things without the use of grammar, but can express nothing without vocabulary. Good mastery of vocabulary is essential for second language learners who expect to operate at higher levels. Consequently without including this crucial element of authentic material very little and useful vocabulary will be learned. This can further be augmented by means of including simplified patterns of literary texts which have a good effect over the cultural gap and increasing the students’ word power.

New classroom techniques and improved physical environment can also help students’ have a better understanding of the texts they are dealing with and therefore maximize their interaction in the classroom. Tutors should not stick to a single technique which will turn after a short time to be insipid and stale and produce very little learning effect.

Teachers should not interfere regularly and at every step to set the students right. This can have a detrimental effect as it increases the
student’s apprehension and fear of making mistakes. This certainly maximizes the students’ stress beyond manageable levels and can stop interaction halfway.

Teachers can help their students by developing their social skills, explains to them its importance, and when it should used. Elias, et al (1997: 68) point out that appropriate academic, social, and behavioral skills allow students to become a part of the class, the school, and the community. Therefore, the teacher may need to have a comprehensive and balanced classroom management plan.

Finally, it was shown that the tutors’ role in promoting classroom interaction is remarkably great. Unless the students feel that their tutors are interested in their communication and that they are working hard to push it on, they would not be successful communicators. As it was mentioned above that calling students by their names, can generate a friendly relationship with the students as calling one by one’s name is the natural way of drawing our attention. It produces a more secure atmosphere hospitable of interaction. Some teachers have very special talent at giving favorable nicknames that will be remembered ever after they had left the school. These nicknames have the effect of establishing a close rapport and an ability to communicate well with them.

### 5.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are suggested:

(i) In order to take full advantage of their students’ willingness to get involved, tutors should capture their students’ attention and interest.
(ii) To improve reading comprehension and narrow the cultural gap, literature must be reintroduced into basic level as before.

(iii) Carefully selected material can have a positive effect on the students’ overall understanding of the language and can increase their communicative skills.

(iv) Syllabuses of English language should be brought from abroad if we require improving our students’ standards.

(v) Tutors should be trained to handle their classes in a way that promotes their students’ communicative competence.

(vi) Tutors should not interfere with the students’ private affair as this can be very damaging to interaction.

5.3 Suggestions for further studies

This study puts forward the following suggestions:

(i) Future study to be carried out on relatively larger scales as to include a number of basic level schools in and outside the capital Khartoum.

(ii) Much needed research on teacher/students and students/students reading comprehension which can be advantageous to such kind of studies when incorporated.

The present study can be further extended by means of a quasi-research to have better and different results.
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