

Sudan University of Science and Technology



College of Graduate Studies

Investigating Difficulties Encountered by EFL First Year University Students in Understanding Reading Texts.

(A Case Study of College of Education (ELT)

تقصي الصعوبات التى تواجه دارسي اللغة الإنجليزية لغة أجنبية بالسنة الأولى بالجامعات في فهم نصوص القراءة (دراسة حالة- كلية التربية-جامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنلوجيا)

A Thesis submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of PhD in Education (ELT)

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Dedication

To my parents, lovely children, devoted husband and all members of my extended family.

Acknowledgements

Praise be to Allah Almighty who endowed me with the power and health to complete this work. It is with pleasure that I would like to express my sincerest gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Abdul mahmoudIdris Ibrahim for his great help. I am very much proud of his constructive criticism. I owe him the largest debt of intellectual and personal gratitude for the keen and demanding supervision.

My thanks are also due to Dr. Hassan Mahil who helped in various ways right from the registration to discussion. A number of colleagues and even my students have helped in diverse ways without whose support the present research wouldn't have seen light of day. They deserve especial thanking and admiration.

Abstract (in English)

This present research seeks to explore the problems first year undergraduates of ELT are likely to encounter in understanding reading passages. It further aims at demonstrating how students develop their reading skills. It is also inclined to highlight the various ways students can develop their critical analysis abilities. In this study the researcher applied the descriptive and analytical method to analyze the collected data.

A questionnaire and a test have been the primary tools to assess the hypotheses. After analyzing and comparing the results with the main hypothesis, the significance indicates that there is highly significant difference among the students.

In the light of what stated above, this indicates that first year undergraduate students do face reading comprehension in terms of inferring words meaning, summarizing and understanding discursive meaning of reading comprehension passage. Therefore, the researcher recommends that students should be trained in how they can infer meaning of words when reading, how they can summarize and paraphrase reading comprehension passages and understand discursive messages.

مستخلص البحث

(Arabic version)

تهدف هذه الدراسة للتحقق من المشاكل التي تواجه طلاب السنة الأولى جامعي في فهم واستيعاب القطعة المقروءة .

كما تهدف لإثبات كيفية تطور الطلاب في مهارات القراءة وكيف أن طلاب السنة الأولى جامعيين يعرفون كيف يقرءوا نقدياً ، كيف يبدون آرائهم ويفهموا المعني السياقي عندما يقرءون بغرض الاستيعاب وعليه استخدمت الباحثة المنهج التحليل الوصفي ، بالإضافة إلى الاستبانة والاختبار كأداتين أساسيتين للتحقق من الفرضيات .

بعد التحليل ومقارنة النتائج مع الفرضيات الأساسية وجدت أن الاستبانة والاختبار تشير إلي وجود فارق كبير بين الطلاب .

نتيجة لذلك ، طلاب السنة الأولى جامعيين يواجهون مشاكل في فهم استيعاب القطعة المقروءة فيما يتعلق باستنتاج معاني المفردات و تلخيص وتفسير القطعة المقروءة وفهم الرسائل الضمنية للقطعة المقروءة .

وعليه توصل الباحث للتوصيات الآتية :يجب تطوير وتدريب طلاب السنة الأولي جامعي على استنتاج معاني المفردات ويجب تطوير وتدريب طلاب السنة الأولي جامعي على تلخيص وتفسير القطعة المقروءة ويجب تطوير وتدريب طلاب السنة الأولى جامعي على فهم الرسائل الضمنية للقطعة المقروءة.

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CHAPTER ONE

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.0 Introduction

No doubt, Reading Comprehension (RC) is the most important for students, because it is chosen as instrument to widen their knowledge. Reading is very essential for students who study English as a foreign language (EFL) because most texts book, the sources of science knowledge and information on higher technology are published in English.

As the result, reading is the foundation of advanced studies while require reading abilities to access both textbooks and other reading materials outside the class-room as stated by (Roe, Stood & Burns, 2007).

While I am teaching English, I have found that they have problems in reading English texts. Therefore, the study is designing to yield data that would contribute to our understanding of the nature of problems that our students encounter in comprehending English texts s and the way they process such texts. Through investigating the reading process, I can learn a great deal about how students approach reading and what kind of strategies they use.

Reading is an extremely essential skill that equips individuals with the ability to interact with written texts. The ability to read allows one to attach meaning to written words thereby facilitating fluency and comprehension. There are numerous skills, which are extremely essential when it comes to grasping the ability to read. Reading plays a significant role since it brings tremendous satisfaction to individuals through enabling them to be informed and enriched.

Competence in reading makes it possible for readers to understand and learn how to attach meaning to various texts.

It is essential for students and teachers to have an easy access to pertinent reading materials. This is mainly comprehending a foreign language is a difficult task that can only be made possible through matching the interests of students with appropriate learning materials.

Contemporary reading tasks involve various phases, which include pre, while and post-reading stage. Pre-reading phase entails motivating students before engaging them in an actual reading exercise. This plays a pertinent role in aiding the activity of the appropriate schema, thereby facilitating the comprehension of a text. The while-reading stage is aimed at enhancing the ability of students to develop their linguistic and schematic knowledge too. Post reading phase on the other hand emphasizes the enhancement of learning comprehension through reference to matching exercises, cut-up sentences and comprehension questions. Studies on the efficient teaching of reading skills have, in recent times, dwelt on the use of computers (MacGregor, 1988; Knaack, 2003; Johnson, Perry & Shamir, 2010) or considered the role of information technology, such as the Internet (Laborda, 2007).

Teachers make use of different reading strategies in order to enhance comprehension by students. It is essential to note that the teachers are exceptional when it comes to teaching about reading strategies. The teachers demonstrated the fact that they did not teach students how to establish the purpose of regular reading exercises. It is also essential to note that the students were not competent when it comes to generating questions concerning various texts in a consistent manner. The strategy of assessing the comprehension process was taught to students some of the time only as opposed to regularly.

However, comprehension strategies are essential when it comes to enhancing reading processes.

Reading competence enables one to undergo the process of understanding and constructing meaning from a piece of text (Zhao, 2009). Therefore, the improvement of reading competence among English as a foreign language/English as second language (EFL/ESL) learners is a primary and overriding goal in the English-language pedagogy.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

During teaching the students, the researcher has found that first year students do not understand the reading comprehension passage in terms of answering questions. For this reason, the researcher Investigating Problems Encountered by First Year University Students in Understanding Reading Texts, to find solutions.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The study is set out to:

- 1. Investigate the importance of reading comprehension passage.
- 2. Highlight the problematic areas in reading comprehension passage.
- 3. Provide solutions to students' reading obstacle.

1.3 Questions of the Study

This study is set out to answer the following questions:

- 1. To what extent first year university students know how to read comprehension passage critically?
- 2. To what extent first year university students give feedback when they read comprehension passage effectively?

3. To what extent first year university students understand contextual meaning when they read comprehension passage?

1.4 Hypotheses of the Study

This study is set out to investigate the following hypotheses:

- 1. First year university students know how to read comprehension passage critically.
- 2. First year university students give feedback when they read comprehension passage effectively.
- 3. First year university students understand contextual meaning wher they read comprehension passage.

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study has great significance to teachers in terms of understanding reading texts which make problems to students. Moreover, the study will help teachers to promote their teaching. In addition, the study helps teachers in terms of identifying students' reading problems so as to provide solutions.

1.6 De Limitations

The study has been limited to Sudan University of Science and Technology - college of Education- The sample is students and teachers chosen randomly among the first year university students of English language and another one teachers of English language in universities in Sudan (June2012-June2015).

1.7 Methodology

The researcher has used descriptive analytical, quantitative and qualitative methods as well as questionnaire and test as tools in the collection of data

relevant to this study. The researcher has designed a questionnaire for teachers of English language in Sudan to identify their views in reading comprehension problems as well as a test to identify the problems encounteredbyfirst year university students at Sudan University of Science & Technology-College of Education.

CHAPTER TWO

CHAPTERTWO

Literature Review and Previous Studies

2.0 Theoretical Background

Learning is the major factor of progress. Therefore, if anyone ever wants to know what a developed student is; he firstly has to look at what kind of skill the student has. Accordingly, learning to read is not like learning to speak. The human brain is hard wired to learn spoken language, and it is therefore a naturally occurring process (Shaywitz, 2003). Typically, simply exposing hearing children to spoken language allows them to acquire and produce speech. Learning to read, however, is not "natural" for children. It has to be explicitly taught; exposure to text and print is not enough for the majority of the population. In 1997, the National Reading Panel (NRP) was established in order to assess the status of research-based knowledge, including the effectiveness of various approaches to teaching children to read. The NRP identified 5 components to reading instruction that are essential for a student to learn to read. These 5 components are also referenced in IDEA 2004 and the Federal Regulations. The 5 essential components are phonemic awareness, phonics, reading fluency, comprehension, and vocabulary. For most of the student population identified with learning disabilities, a breakdown occurs in their basic reading skill (BRS). BRS difficulty includes problems with phonemic awareness and/or phonics. That is, students struggle to identify individual sounds and manipulate them, to identify printed letters and the sounds associated with those letters, or to decode written language. It is also typical for these students to struggle with spelling or encoding. However, it should be noted that not all students with encoding difficulties have BRS difficulties.

It should be noted that in reading research and in clinical contexts, a breakdown in basic reading skill is frequently referred to as dyslexia. While schools tend not to use this term, instruction and intervention should align with the underlying need for BRS acquisition.

2.1 Characteristics and Assessments

The ability to understand letters and the sounds they represent is a prerequisite skill for reading comprehension. While many people think that learning phonics is something children should learn in kindergarten and 1st grade, many students do not, particularly if phonics has not been taught systematically and explicitly. Shaywitz (2003: 51) states

"If letters and sounds are not mastered, the student's phonemic awareness should be assessed. "Phonemic awareness refers to the ability to notice, identify, and manipulate the individual sounds, phonemes, in spoken words".

For example, can the student identify that the word "cat" has 3 distinct sounds: /c/ /a/ /t/? Can they blend those sounds together to make one word? Assessment tools for both of these areas (phonics and phonemic awareness) include the Comprehensive Test of Phonological Processing (CTOPP) and Test of Word Reading Efficiency (TOWRE). The Dynamic Indicators of Basic Literacy Early Skills (DIBELS) is also an effective tool. There are many informal assessments that can be conducted as well.

The Dynamic Indicators of Basic Literacy Early Skills (DIBELS) is also an effective tool. There are many informal assessments that can be conducted as well.(Ibid)

Speae. L, (2006) says that the upper grade levels, assessment should start at higher skill levels and then funnel down to the more basic skills. Therefore, it is recommended to start at the reading fluency level. If students cannot decode sentences fluently, then word level reading should be assessed. Teachers should determine if students can read words in isolation from a list. If a student is not able to do this accurately, then assessment should address single syllabic words,

and then vowel sounds. Many older students with BRS deficits have not mastered their vowel sounds, and those who have tend to struggle to decode multi-syllable words. Formal assessments for these skills include the Test of Silent Contextual Reading Fluency (TOSCRF), Test of Silent Word Reading Fluency (TOSWRF), TOWRE and DIBELS. If older students have not mastered their consonant and vowel sounds, it may be prudent to assess their phonemic awareness. Many of these students don't understand that words are made up of individual sounds that can be segmented and blended. The CTOPP can be used with this age group as well.

Work samples should also be examined. Many students who struggle with BRS write using simpler language in their writing than in their oral vocabulary (typically 1-2 syllable words), and often jumble the letters in the words. They may have the correct letters but in the wrong order. This is indicative of difficulties with sounding out what they are writing and relying heavily on their visual memory on attempting to spell.

When examining work samples, educators should look for patterns. Does the student have any words or vowel patterns they can spell or use consistently? Do they consistently use all of their short vowel sounds correctly? Do they understand the "magic e" rule? Work samples are extremely informative about concepts students have mastered, as well as those they have not.

The Colorado Department of Education also provides assessment flowcharts in accordance with the Colorado Basic Literacy Act. These provide basic frameworks for how to assess reading abilities at the different grade levels. If students have the skills to decode at grade or age level accurately, but not fluently, then this may not be a basic reading skill issue. Reading fluency skills are addressed following basic reading skill.(Ibd)

It is important to understand the difference between a basic reading skill (BRS) deficit and a reading fluency deficit. Students who struggle with fluency typically present in two distinct profiles. The first includes students who struggle with accuracy, rate, and prosody; the second includes those who struggle with rate and prosody only. Students who struggle with reading accuracy should be assessed for possible BRS deficits. Typically, these students need instruction in phonemic awareness and phonics, and therefore the fluency interventions alone will not result in as great an improvement.

Students who only struggle with reading rate and prosody (how fast they read and if they read with expression) are those who truly have a fluency disability and will benefit most from fluency interventions. Typically these students will also struggle with any rapid automatic naming tasks such as identifying colors, letter names, numbers, and names of familiar items and so on.

Sovik. N, (2003) summarizes, fluency deficits may compound other reading deficits. Disfluent readers are exposed to significantly fewer words than those who are strong readers. If these skills are not remedied early, the cumulative lack of exposure to words becomes extremely challenging to reconcile. Students who are struggling to read are less motivated to read, reducing exposure to vocabulary, a critical element of reading comprehension. As a student progresses through school, a breakdown in fluency can make it extraordinarily difficult to keep up with the intensity and high volume of reading required for secondary and post-secondary education.

There are many assessments that can measure reading fluency. Again, it is important to attend to accuracy while conducting fluency measures. If a student struggles with accuracy, it is important to assess the underlying basic reading

skill. Some examples of assessments that measure fluency or that includes fluency measures are as follows:

- A. Test of Word Reading Efficiency (TOWRE)
- B. Test of Silent Word Reading Fluency (TOSWRF)
- C. Gray Oral Reading Test-4 (rate and accuracy scaled score combined)
- D. AIMS web progress monitoring measures
- E. Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS)
- F. Qualitative Reading Inventory-4 (QRI-4)
- G. Texas Primary Reading Inventory (TPRI).

2.2 Intervention

Tierney . R, J &Leys .M , (1984). state that all students with basic reading skill deficits, instruction must be systematic, direct, and explicit. Instruction must be targeted to the student's unique needs and focus on areas of skill breakdown.

Systematic instruction progresses from simple to complex and follows a predetermined scope and sequence for instruction. Time should be built into lessons for independent practice and review of previously mastered skills.

In addition, because every year that student misses out on grade level reading, they also miss learning grade level vocabulary, all reading interventions need to include enriched language experiences. These include listening to, talking about, and telling stories (Ibd). A key component of effective intervention is the provision of ample opportunity for practice. Students with BRS deficits need significantly more practice on skills in order to be accurate and fluent with the skill. Teachers need to teach to mastery, not just accuracy.

Students who have breakdowns at the phonemic awareness level should be taught how to segment and blend words. Lessons should be brief (10-15 minutes per day) and should have two or three focused activities. In

Language Essentials for Teachers of Reading and Spelling (LETRS), Module 2, Louisa Moats provides the following guidelines for teaching phonological skills:

Build proficiency at segmenting and blending individual phonemes in words with two or three phonemes.

Gradually move through the developmental progression of task difficulty. The object is to 'roam around in phonological space' at the appropriate level of difficulty.

Emphasize oral production of words, syllables, and sounds. After hearing sounds, children should say them, paying attention to how the sounds feel when they are formed.

Always show children what you want them to do [model]. Do one together, and then let the child do one.

Give immediate corrective feedback. For example, if the child gives a letter name instead of a sound, tell him or her difference and elicit the correct response.

Think 'multisensory': Use concrete objects—such as fingers, chips, blocks, coins, or felts—to represent speech sounds. Inject movement into the activity.

Letters to reinforce awareness once children have the idea. Phoneme awareness, reading and spelling are reciprocal; each benefits the other. (Moats, 2005:19)

There are many reading programs that incorporate these guidelines. As Shaywitz explained, "the specific program chosen from among them is far less important than the provision of systematic, explicit instruction in phonemic awareness and phonics and then teaching children how to apply this knowledge to reading and writing" (Ibd). When teaching phonics, all of the rules around systematic, explicit and direct instruction continue to apply. There are many ways to teach phonics as well, however, it works best if there is a daily routine at the beginning of each reading lesson. Again, Louisa Moats provides recommendations from her LETRS Module 7 for what the routine should include:

Set up a goal and purpose for the lesson.

Review what has been taught, with the goal of accurate and fluent response.

Identify and isolate phonemes: Listen for sounds, pronounce sounds, and use oral-motor cues to enhance speech sound awareness.

Teach alphabet names, sequence, and letter formation, until they are known.

Link the sound with its symbol: Introduce a new sound-symbol concept or association following a planned progression.

Apply phoneme-grapheme associations to reading real and nonsense words.

Extend to word study: sorts, chains, maps, families.

Spell by sound-symbol association: say word, segment sounds, spell, check, then say word again.

Recognize and spell irregular ('memory') words.

Use speed drills as necessary to increase fluency in well-learned skills.

Write words, phrases, and sentences to dictation.

Read decodable sentences and books for fluency and meaning.(Moats,2005: 19-20)

While interventions for BRS deficits tend to result in more rapid success with younger children, there is ample research to show that older students can learn these skills and become effective readers with the right instruction. It is never too late to teach someone how to read.

2.3 Progress Monitoring

Progress Monitoring should occur at the student's instructional level and should be specific to the skills they are being taught. However, periodic benchmark assessment should occur to compare student performance with that of peers.

Curriculum Based Measures (CBM) is well researched and can be used to monitor student's progress toward mastery of concepts. CBM were developed to permit frequent assessment of student growth on targeted skills. They also help to guide instructional practices and determine when changes in intensity, duration, or intervention are needed.

Tools that can be used to monitor progress in BRS include DIBELS, AIMS web, and Monitoring Basic Skills Progress (MBSP), and other Curriculum Based Measures (CBM).(Ibd).

2.4 Reading Fluency Skills

Reading fluency refers to the ability to read words accurately, quickly, and effortlessly. Additionally, fluency skills include the ability to read with appropriate expression and intonation or prosody. Fluency therefore relies on three key skills: accuracy, rate, and prosody.

Reading fluency can and should vary, even for skilled readers, depending on the type of text (narrative, expository, poetry), familiarity with the vocabulary, background knowledge of the content, and the amount of practice the student has had with a particular text or type of text. Fluency comes from many successful opportunities to practice reading (Lambert, 2007).

Fluency is a necessary but not sufficient component for comprehension. It is, however, the bridge that links accurate word decoding to comprehension (Rasinski, 2004). The ability to read fluently allows readers to free up processing "space" so that they can comprehend, make connections to the text, and acquire new vocabulary. Typically, students who cannot read fluently show a significant lag in reading comprehension skills as well.

2.5 Intervention and Progress Monitoring

The earlier reading fluency intervention is provided, the more likely it is that students will respond. "Once serious fluency problems have developed, they can be resistant to remediation" (Spear-Swerling, 2006). Joe Torgesen and his colleges have found that reading fluency is the hardest area to improve when intervention has not occurred early enough. This is not to say that fluency cannot be improved, rather that early identification and intervention are most likely to result in complete remediation.

It is important to note that when intervening for reading fluency, an overemphasis on rate alone can have a detrimental effect on overall reading

ability. Direct, explicit instruction is required for students to improve all three components of fluency: accuracy, rate, and prosody. Reading rate develops as a function of efficient decoding skills, opportunities for successful practice, and learning to read with expression (Rasinski, 2004).

A good fluency intervention program includes frequent opportunities to practice reading. According to the National Reading Panel, guided oral reading in small groups is sufficient for "typical" children; however, it should not be the sole technique for teaching fluency to students with an identified disability in this area (NRP, 2000). Teachers should model reading fluency, students should work in pairs, and chunking or phasing should be explicitly taught. Other strategies include simultaneous oral reading, reader's theater, and having students chart fluency rates as they improve.

(Pikulski& Chard, 2005) identified the following nine steps to building fluency in their article, *Fluency:Bridge Between Decoding and Reading Comprehension*:

- 1. Develop orthographic/phonological foundations (phonemic awareness, letter knowledge, phonics).
- 2. Increase vocabulary and oral language skills.
- 3. Effectively teach high-frequency vocabulary and provide adequate practice.
- 4. Teach common word-parts and spelling patterns.
- 5. Effectively teach decoding skills and provide adequate practice.
- 6. Provide students with appropriate text to assist in building fluent reading.
- 7. Use guided, oral repeated reading strategies for struggling readers.
- 8. Support, guide, and encourage wide reading.
- 9. Implement appropriate screening and progress monitoring assessments.

There are numerous tools available to monitor fluency. As listed above, AIMSweb, DIBELS and other Curriculum Based Measures are available with multiple forms that allow frequent administration. The key to progress monitoring fluency is to do the frequent monitoring at the student's instructional level (student can read accurately with 95-100% accuracy) but to benchmark at least 3 times per year at grade level. The progress monitoring will be sensitive enough to show growth and gain as a result of instruction, and the benchmarking will help to keep the ultimate goal in mind. Websites and references are provided at the conclusion of Reading Comprehension for all three areas of reading.(Ibd)

2.6 Reading Comprehension

2.6.1 Definition and Implications

A disability in the area of reading comprehension affects a student's ability to understand and make meaning of text. The RAND Reading Study Group defines comprehension as "the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language" Cox,c, 2002). Reading comprehension is a complicated set of processes that has been studied relatively little compared to the other areas of reading. In spite of the lack of research on reading comprehension *only* disabilities, there is consensus that all students with any type of reading disability benefit from direct, systematic, explicit instruction in reading comprehension skills and strategies.

It is most common for students to have basic reading skill (BRS) deficits combined with comprehension deficits, and/or fluency deficits. If this is the case, it is critical to instruct on the basic skill deficits, as well as the comprehension deficits. Although it tends to be more unusual for a student to have a comprehension only deficit, this can occur. A reading comprehension

deficit assumes that basic reading skills are intact and that the student can read fluently without errors. Students with a reading comprehension disability are typically not identified until the shift occurs from learning to read to reading to learn. In most cases, this is around the third or fourth grade.

2.6.2 Characteristics

Reading comprehension encompasses a multi-faceted set of skills. First and foremost, children with this deficit may have more basic struggles in the area of oral language including new vocabulary development. In

Overcoming Dyslexia, Sally Shaywitz determined that a child learns about seven new words per day, which amounts to three thousand words per year (Shaywitz, 2003). If students struggle with acquiring oral language, this will certainly impair their ability to comprehend written language. Typically students who struggle in this area use smaller words and need significantly more exposure to new words. These students may also be challenged by how to form sentences. Their ability to understand what makes a complete sentence and what order to put words in may be impaired. For students with breakdowns in language comprehension, phonological processing is often intact.

Nevertheless, a student must be able to understand oral language before they can comprehend written language. If there are gaps in listening comprehension, it is likely there will be gaps in reading comprehension as well. While gaps in oral language are often a contributing factor to reading comprehension, not all students with reading comprehension disorders have oral language deficits. Another area that can affect comprehension is working memory. The demands of reading new information, holding on to it, connecting it with previously learned information, and applying the new learning can be overwhelming for some students. In addition, it is significantly more difficult for students with

working memory deficits to learn new vocabulary introduced in a novel setting than when it is directly taught.

There are also several other processes that must occur for a student to comprehend well. These include the ability to infer, monitor comprehension, and be sensitive to story structure. To make inferences the student must draw conclusions from text or "read between the lines." Comprehension monitoring is the one of the most important and effective strategies used by effective readers. It requires the reader to "identify inconsistencies in the text, gaps in understanding, or the need to seek information from other parts of the text" (Catldo&Cornoldi, 1998). Students who are poor readers do not stop when they are confused by text and will not check for understanding during the reading process.

Finally, story structure sensitivity is an important contributor to reading comprehension. Each genre in literature has its own distinctive linguistic style and structure clues. Understanding the implications of story titles, paragraph beginnings and conclusions, bulleted points, and use of illustrations, for example, fosters stronger comprehension of text. Poor readers do not attend to these details.

2.6.3 Assessments

Unfortunately, Cox,c (2002) says that: there are not assessments for accurately measuring all aspects of reading comprehension. As was noted in the RAND Reading Study Group Report:

Currently, widely used comprehension assessments are heavily focused on only a few tasks: reading for immediate recall, reading for the gist of the meaning, and reading to infer or disambiguate word meaning. Assessment procedures to evaluate learners' capacities to modify old or build new knowledge structures, to use information acquired while reading to solve a problem, to evaluate texts on particular criteria, or to become absorbed in reading and develop affective or aesthetic responses to text have occasionally been developed for particular research programs but have not influenced standard assessment practices. Because knowledge, application, and engagement are the crucial consequences of reading with comprehension, assessments that reflect all three are needed (COX,C,(2002).

The easiest aspect of comprehension to measure is that of vocabulary. Two common assessments are the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) and the Test of Word Knowledge (TOWK). A Speech Language

Pathologist (SLP) should be consulted to rule out speech/language impairments if deficit in expressive or receptive language is suspected. The SLP can also be very helpful in assessing any area related to vocabulary development. Example of assessments for passage comprehension (typically retell and inference) include the following:

Diagnostic Assessment of Reading Second Addition (DAR-2)

Qualitative Reading Inventory-IV (QRI-IV)

Developmental Reading Assessment 2 (DRA-2)

And other Informal Reading Inventories Passage reading fluency assessments that are related to reading comprehension include the AIMS web Maze CBM or other CBM maze passages.(Ibd)

2.7 Intervention and Progress Monitoring

In spite of the fact that assessment tools are limited for identifying specific reading comprehension deficits, there is good news about reading comprehension interventions. Both specific skills instruction and strategy instruction have been shown to result in very positive outcomes.

As the name implies, specific skills instruction includes direct instruction on improving the skills required to be a successful reader and can include vocabulary instruction, instruction on how to find the main idea, fact finding and making inferences. Teachers should model and coach students in these skills. Instruction must be explicit.

Strategy instruction is "viewed as [instruction on] cognitive processes requiring decision making and critical thinking" (Clark &Uhry, 1995). This includes instruction on activating prior knowledge, comprehension monitoring, and understanding how to read for different purposes.

Regardless of the type of intervention, in order to be effective, comprehension instruction must be explicit, systematic, and provide multiple opportunities for practice. The National Reading Panel outlined the following seven categories of text comprehension instruction that have a solid, established scientific basis:

- 1. Comprehension monitoring, where readers learn how to be aware of their understanding of the material
- 2. Cooperative learning, where students learn reading strategies together
- 3. Use of graphic and semantic organizers (including story maps), where readers make graphic representations of the material to assist comprehension
- 4. Question answering, where readers answer questions posed by the teacher and receive immediate feedback
- 5. Question generation, where readers ask themselves questions about various aspects of the story
- 6. Story structure, where students are taught to use the structure of the story as a means of helping them recall story content in order to answer questions about what they have read
- 7. Summarization, where readers are taught to integrate ideas and generalize them from the text information (National Reading Panel, 2000)

While many of these strategies are effective in isolation, they are far more powerful and produce greater effect sizes when used in combination in a multiple-strategy method. As with the area of assessment, there is significantly fewer progress monitoring tools available to measure the specific areas of comprehension. AIMS web and Ed Checkup do have made progress monitoring tools that measure overall comprehension.

2.8 Reading Deficiency

One of the more compelling reasons to view reading deficiency as the derivative of a language deficiency is that success at learning to read is associated with the adequacy of certain linguistic short-term memory skills.

In our work at Haskins Laboratories, my colleagues and I have found clear indications of this association in a variety of different studies of good and poor beginning readers. For the moment, however, let me put aside a discussion of those studies in order to consider first the short-term storage requirements of normal language processing, and to summarize some recent findings as to how these requirements are met by the mature language user.

An adequate short-term memory is essential to language comprehension simply because the component words of a phrase or sentence must often be held temporarily, pending extraction of the meaning of the whole phrase or sentence (Baddeley, 1978), It is for precisely this reason that many current models of sentence processing explicitly include some form of short-term memory buffer as a part of their parsing device (cf. Frazier & Fodor, 1978; Kimball, 1975; Marcus, 1980), some consideration has been given to the form of memory representation that mediates human parsing. Current psychological theory has it that some level of phonetic representation is likely to be involved, this being an abstract representation of the articulator gestures that constitute the material being parsed (Liberman, Mattingly, &Turvey, 1972), there are many

experimental findings to corroborate this view. On the one hand, adult subjects have given evidence of relying on phonetic representation while performing such ecologically invalid tasks as recalling a string of letters or a string of words (Conrad, 1964; Drewnowski, 1980). More importantly, there is evidence that phonetic representation is also involved during comprehension of both written and spoken sentences (cf, Baddeley, 1978; Daneman& Carpenter, 1980; Kleiman, 1975; Levy, 1977; Slowiaczek& Clifton, 1980; Tzeng, Hung, & Wang, 1977), It is, of course, not inconceivable that, in reading, some nonlinguistic representation of written words might be employed in lieu of a phonetic one (cf. Kleiman, 1975; Meyer, Schvaneveldt, & Ruddy, 1974). There is, after all, much evidence to suggest that access to the mental lexicon for printed words may not necessarily require reliance on phonetic representation (cf, Baron, 1973; Kleiman, 1975; Meyer et al., 1974). Nonetheless, it is important to emphasize that reading typically involves more than mere lexical access alone.

A successful reader must often go beyond the lexicon and place reliance on the grammatical structure of the material being read, In contrast to experiments involving lexical access, those experiments concerned with reading situations where sentence structure is at stake have consistently given evidence of the involvement of phonetic representation (Daneman& Carpenter, 1980; Kleiman, 1975; Levy, 1977; Slowiaczek& Clifton, 1980). Even readers of Chinese logography, an orthography in which access to the lexicon is necessarily mediated by non-phonetic representation, appear to make use of phonetic representation when their task involves recovering the meaning of written sentences and not simply words alone (Tzeng, 1977).

For adult subjects, phonetic representation is clearly involved in both written and oral language comprehension. Having made this point, let me return to the primary concern of this paper, which is a review of some recent studies of good and poor beginning readers? These provide another form of support for the involvement of phonetic representation in all language processing, by revealing that effective use of phonetic representation is associated with, and may even presage success in, learning to read. I intend to review some of the many findings that support this conclusion; however, it might be useful first to provide some basic information about the population of beginning readers whom my colleagues and I have studied, since they have provided much of the data to which I will refer 152, Most frequently our subjects have been first, second, and third graders who attend public schools. All of them are native speakers of English who suffer from no known neurological impairment. They are identified by their teachers as being "good," "average," or "poor" readers, a status that we confirm by administering standard reading tests to each child (typically the Word Attack and Word Recognition Subtests of the Woodcock Reading Mastery Tests, Woodcock, 1973; or the Word Recognition Subtests of the Wide Range Achievement Test, Jastak, & Jastak, 1965). Administration of these tests has typically revealed the "good" readers to be reading at a level one or more years above their grade placement, whereas the "average" readers are reading at a level between one year above and one-half year below placement.

The "poorl1 readers tend to be reading at a level one~halfyear or more below grade placement. Aside from administering standard reading tests, we have also usually given our subjects intelligence tests (either the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, Dunn, 1959; or the Slosson Intelligence Test for children, Sl03son, 1963; or the W1SC-R), and have excluded those children in either reading group who score below 90 or above 145.

One of the more general findings to emerge from our work is that good and poor readers may differ in temporary memory for some types of material, but

not for other types (Katz, Shankweiler, & Liberman, in preSs; Liberman, Mann, Shankweiler, & Werfelman, in press; Mann & Liberman, in press). An example of this trend may be seen in the results of a study that assessed recognition memory skill among good and poor beginning readers (Liberman et al., in press). The subjects were second graders who differed in reading ability, but not in mean age or mean IQ. They participated in an experiment that employed the recurring recognition memory paradigm of (Kimura ,1963) as a means of evaluating memory for several different types of material. The material we studied included two non-linguistic materials--photographs of unfamiliar faces and nonsense I1doodlel1 drawings--and one linguistic material--printed nonsense syllables. For each of these, the children inspected a set of stimuli and proceeded to indicate any of the inspection items that recurred in a subsequent recognition set. As may be seen in Figure 1, the poor readers were equivalent to the good readers in memory for faces and even somewhat better than the good readers (although not significantly so) in memory for the nonsense drawings. However, they were significantly inferior to good readers in memory for the nonsense syllables. Thus there is an interaction between reading ability and the type of item being remembered; an interaction that prevailed in an analysis of covariance adjusting for any effects of age or IQ differences.

Clearly, this experiment cannot support a conclusion that poor readers suffer from some general memory difficulty. Rather, they appear deficient only in the ability to remember linguistic material. Many findings that concern short-term memory lend further support to this conclusion. Good readers typically surpass poor readers in short-term memory for printed strings of letters or printed words (cf. Shankweiler, Liberman, Mark, Fowler, & Fischer, 1979; Mark, Shankweiler, Liberman, & Fowler, 1977) as well as for printed nonsense syllables. However, good readers also excel at recall of spoken strings of letters (Shankweiler et al., 1979), spoken strings of words (Bauer, 1977; Byrne &

Shea, 1979; Katz & Deutsch, 1964; Mann, Liberman, &Shankweiler, 1980; Mann &Liberman, in press), and even spoken sentences (Mann et al., 1980; Perfetti& Goldman, 1976; Wiig& Roach, 1975; Weinstein &Rabinovitch, 1971). At this point it is important to note that, since the advantage of good readers holds for both written and spoken material, it must extend beyond processes involved in reading, as such, to the broader realm of language processing.

To account for the linguistic memory distinctions between good and poor readers, some of my colleagues (Liberman&Shankweiler, 1979; Shankweiler et al., 1979) offered the hypothesis that poor readers have some difficulty that specifically compromises effective use of phonetic representation. Therefore, they used a modification of Conrad's (1964) procedure for examining the involvement of phonetic representation in memory for written letter strings, to test a group of good, average, and poor readers from a second grade population that was homogeneous with respect to age and IQ. As was the case in Conrad's procedure, the children were asked to recall strings of consonants that were of two basic types."""Half of the strings were composed of consonants with phonetically confusable (i.e., rhyming) names, whereas the other half contained letters with phonetically no confusable (i.e., no rhyming) names. During testing, the children saw a letter string with all of its letters printed in upper case on a single line in the center of the visual field. After a three-sec inspection period, when the letters could no longer be seen, they wrote down any letters that could be remembered, preserving the sequence as closely as possible.(Ibd)

Conrad.R,(1964) states on the basis of Conrad's findings, Liberman, Shankweiler, and their colleagues predicted that no rhyming letter names would generate less phonetic confusion than rhyming ones, and thus facilitate recall in Subjects who rely on phonetic representation as a means of retaining letters in

short-term memory. It was felt that if a Subject's level of performance failed to profit from reduced phonetic confusability, then that subject might have made less effective use of phonetic representation as a mnemonic device. The performance of good, average, and poor readers on the two types of letter strings is compared in the top section of Figure 2. Good readers, in general, made fewer errors than poor readers, and the average readers fell in between. The performance of the good readers, however, was also more significantly affected by the manipulation of rhyme than was that of the average or poor readers. In fact, the advantage of the superior readers was virtually eliminated when the letter strings contained letters with phonetically confusable names. In other words, phonetic confusability penalized the better readers to a greater extent than children in the other two reading groups.(Ibd)

These findings were extended by two subsequent experiments involving the same group of subjects and the same set of letter strings. In the first of these, the letters of each string were presented visually, but successively rather than simultaneously. In the second experiment, the letters were presented successively, but auditory rather than visually. The results of these experiments are also displayed in Figure 2, where it may be seen that, once again, the interaction between reading ability and the effect of phonetic confusability was upheld. Indeed, it prevailed even when the letters were heard instead of seen. It is important to underscore the fact that reading ability was the only variable that interacted with the effect of phonetic confusability on letter recall. The children with higher IQ scores did tend to perform at a higher level than those with lower scores; however, the extent of their superiority was the same regardless of whether the comparison involved phonetically confusable letter strings or phonetically no confusable ones. Thus, the interaction between reading ability and the effect of phonetic confusability was unaltered It/hen the analysis of the data covered for any effects of IQ.

To strengthen these findings about poor readers' ineffective use of phonetic representation, my colleagues and I followed the study of letter~ string recall with a study of the role of phonetic representation in recall of other, more ecologically valid material such as spoken word strings and spoken sentences (Mann et al., 1980). In that study, the subjects were again good and poor readers from a second-grade classroom. This time, however, the good readers had a slightly higher mean IQ than the poor readers. The experiment involved having the children in each group repeat strings of five spoken words, and also the words of 13-word sentences that were either meaningful or semantically anomalous. The material s included many different items of each type, but for word strings and both types of sentences, half of the items contained a high density of phonetically confusable (i.e., rhyming) words. Whereas half contained phonetically no confusable words instead. Children's performance on the word strings is compared in Figure 3, and that on sentences is compared in Figure 4. As can it be seen in those figures, for word strings. As well as for both meaningful and semantically anomalous sentences, good readers made fewer errors than poor readers as long as the material was phonetically no confusable. For all three types of material, however, they fell to the level of the poor readers when the material contained a high density of phonetically confusable words. In this experiment, although good readers tended to have higher IQ's, a significant interaction between reading ability and the effect of phonetic confusability was obtained when the results were subjected to an analysis of covariance that adjusted for any differences in IQ. Once again, intelligence alone was not the source of the good readers' more effective use of phonetic representation.(Ibd)

Mooko.T,(1996) says that: whether the material is apprehended by ear or by eye, and whether it involves letter strings or meaningful sentences, the performance of good readers tends to be both superior to that of poor readers

and also more strongly affected by manipulations of phonetic confusability, For most good readers, as for most adults, phonetic confusability of the material to be recalled makes reliance on phonetic representation a liability rather than an asset. In contrast, phonetic confusability has little effect on the memory performance of most poor readers, a fact that we interpret as evidence that they are, for some reason, encountering difficulty with phonetic representation.

At this point, it becomes appropriate to consider why good and poor readers might differ in performance on tasks that involve reliance on phonetic representation. We can lay aside the possibility that memorial representation. in general, is a problem, since if this were so, poor readers would have been inferior on other tests of temporary memory and not merely on those that involve reliance on phonetic representation. A general cognitive deficiency would also seem an unlikely basis, given our findings that IQ scores are not. (Ibd)

Liberman.I& shank weiler.D, (1979) summarize. Two other possibilities seem more plausible. On the one hand, poor readers might not resort to phonetic representation at all, relying instead on visual or semantic modes of representation. However, it is likewise possible that they do attempt to employ phonetic representation, but for some reason their representations are less effective.

One piece of evidence that is relevant to this issue is provided by the results of an experiment in which I extended Liber man and Shank weiler t s study of letter string memory to a population of second- and third-grade children who were learning to read Dutch. The subjects were the ten best readers and the ten worst readers in each grade; their mean ages and reading abilities are given in Table 1. The procedure was the same as in the first experiment of

Table 1: Age and Reading Ability among Beginning Readers of Dutch

Second Graders:

Good readers

Poor readers

Third Graders:

Good readers

Poor readers

Mean Age Grade-equivalent scores measured by the Ein-Minuten .(1979) with one innovation. In constructing the letter strings, I separately manipulated phonetic and visual confusability, since this was more feasible in Dutch than in English. Thus it was possible to examine recall of three different types of uppercase consonant strings: strings of letters that were phonetically confusable but not visually confusable; strings of letters that were visually confusable but not phonetically confusable, and strings of letters that were minimally confusable along both the visual and phonetic dimension. In all cases, the measure of phonetic confusability was the density of letters with rhyming names, since that measure had been employed by the Conrad (1964) study on which the Shankweiler et al. (1979) study had been based. The measure of visual confusability was derived from the upper-case letter confusion matrix compiled by Townsend (1971), and was the summed probability of visual confusion for each possible pair of letters in a given string. Computed in this way, the mean confusability for the ten visually confusable strings was 0.81, and was significantly greater than that for either the ten phonetically confusable or the ten minimally confusable strings (0.27 and 0.31, respectively, t(18):::3.1, p<.01, and t(18):::2.8, p<.01, respectively).

As no children's IQ test was available in Dutch, I controlled for nonlinguistic short-term memory rather than for general intellectual ability.

The test of nonlinguistic memory that I administered was the Corsi test (Corsi, 1972). The materials for that test consist of a set of nine wooden cubes attached

in a random fashion to a flat wooden base. The entire apparatus is painted black; there are identifying numbers on the rear surface of the cubes that can be seen by the experimenter although not by the subject.

During testing, the Subject watches the examiner tap out a sequence of blocks and then attempts to reproduce that sequence. Practice sequences of two and three blocks are given first, followed by eight test sequences of four and eight of five blocks each. The suitability of this test as a measure of nonlinguistic short-term memory is indicated by clinical studies revealing that whereas performance on linguistic short-term memory tests is selectively impaired by damage to the left or language-dominant hemisphere, that on the Corsi blocks shows the opposite pattern of selective impairment as a consequence of damage to the right, or language-no dominant hemisphere (Corsi, 1972; Milner, 1972).

Because of my experience with American children, which had revealed no significant relation between reading ability and non-linguistic memory, I did not anticipate finding that good and poor beginning readers of Dutch would differ in performance on the Corsi test. There seemed to be no reason to anticipate that children in the two reading groups would differ in nonlinguistic abilities. It did seem possible, however, that poor readers would do less well than good readers on the letter-string memory test, and that they might also be differently affected by the manipulations of phonetic and visual confusability. Proceeding from the fact that phonetic confusability penalizes recall in subjects who rely on phonetic representation, I speculated that if poor readers rely on visual representation, then they might be inordinately affected by the manipulation of visual confusability. (Ibd)

All memory test scores are error scores that include errors of item omission and substitution, as well as of incorrect order. In that table, it may be seen that despite any differences in the Dutch and English languages or in the educational

practices by which they are taught, the memory profiles of good and poor readers in the t\vO countries prove quite similar. As we have found to be the case for American children, Dutch children who are poor readers are equivalent to good reader:: in performance on the nonlinguistic short-term memory test. However, the good readers at both ages fell to the level of poor readers when they attempted to recall phonetically confusable strings. A further twist to these data involves the effect of visual confusability, or rather, its non-effect. Neither good nor poor readers were affected by the presence of a higher density of visual confusability. That is to say, for both groups of subjects at both age levels, performance on the visually confusable strings was no different from that on the non -confusable ones. This gives UB no reason to believe that in this task the poor readers opted for a purely visual representation of the letter strings. Either they relied on some as yet undetermined form of representation, or they relied on phonetic representation and for some reason failed to profit from reduced phonetic similarity among the letter names.(Ibd)

substitution errors, the poor readers tended to make more of these than the good readers. We therefore turned to analyzing the composition of the substitution errors and their relation to the words of the original string.

Our analysis revealed that the pattern of substitution errors was the same for good and poor readers alike. Almost no substitutions were semantic associates of the words in the string being recalled; instead, the majority was composed of a subset of the phonemes that had constituted the words of the string being remembered. For example, a great proportion of the errors contained an appropriate initial consonant and even more contained an appropriate vowel or final consonant. Thus it seemed as if the children in both reading groups had remembered many of the phonemes they had heard. The poor readers, for some reason, had merely made more errors in recalling the original word strings, perhaps because their phonetic representations were less well formed, or perhaps because their representations decayed more rapidly than those of the good readers.

Thus, in at least some circumstances, it seems that poor readers may rely on phonetic representation to some extent; otherwise they would not have tended to make substitution errors that preserve phonetic aspects of the original word string. Before leaving this topic, it would be pertinent to mention the possibility that problems with phonetic representation may force the poor readers to rely on semantic representation during certain memory tasks. All though my colleagues and 1 have seen almost no semantically-based substitution errors among either good or poor readers, this has not been the case in another study done by (Byrne and Shea, 1979). These investigators compared the performance of good and poor beginning readers on a spoken-word recognition memory test, and found that, in general, good readers performed at a higher level than poor readers. They also discovered that children in the two groups tended to make different types of errors. Whereas poor readers made proportionately more false recognition errors on semantic associates of the correct items, good readers

tended to make more such errors on words that were phonetic associates. For example, when asked to remember and subsequently recognize "home," poor readers tended erroneously to recognize "house," but good readers, "comb." Yet when the task was to remember nonsense syllables instead of words, children in both reading groups made many errors on phonetic foils. Once again, however, good readers somehow made more effective use of phonetic representation, as evidenced by their tendency to make fewer errors, in general, coupled with their tendency to make disproportionately many errors on phonetically-similar foils.

Turning now to the question of why the phonetic representations of poor readers may be less effective than those of good readers, let me return to the above-mentioned study by Brady et al. (1982). In that study an approach to the problem of phonetic representation was inspired by the finding that, when the speech perception is stressed by the presence of background noise, short-term memory span is inordinately affected (Rabbitt, 1968). This finding led us to consider the possibility that the short-term memory difficulties of poor readers might be associated with some difficulties in encoding speech.

Therefore, we designed an experiment to compare the ability of good and poor readers to identify spoken words that were partially masked by white noise. The third graders who were subjects of this study did not differ in age or IQ, but did differ in reading ability, and also in memory for strings of spoken words. Their performance showed the usual interaction between reading ability and the effect of phonetic confusability. They were asked to identify pre-recorded set of spoken words that contained an equal number of high and low frequency word s and were balanced for phonetic constituents and syllabic structure. Each child heard the words under two different conditions: first partially masked by signal-correlated white noise, and later under more optimal listening conditions. (Ibd)

The results revealed that although the poor readers were not significantly different from good readers in performance under the optimal conditions, they made about 35% more errors when the words were partially masked. That this problem could not be attributed to some basic vocabulary deficiency could be seen from the fact that differences between children in the two reading groups obtained equally for high and low frequency words, and also from the fact that the Subjects of our study had performed at the same level on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (Dunn, 1959). It is also consistent with this observation that an interaction between reading ability and the effect of partial masking was obtained with an analysis that covered for the effects of age and 1Q.

To determine whether the findings of this experiment were specific to speech perception, as opposed to being an attribute of general auditory perception, we conducted a second experiment. In it, the same subjects were asked to identify a set of environmental sounds taken from a standard clinical test, including such sounds as a cat meowing and a door slamming. The procedure was analogous to that in the previous experiment with spoken words; the subjects first identified the sound when partially masked by white noise, and later when presented under more optimal listening conditions. The pattern of results for this second experiment proved distinct from that obtained in the first one. Many of the poor readers were actually better than the good reader s at identifying the partially-masked sounds, although this difference is not significant. An analysis of covariance that adjusted for age and IQ effects reveals that, although the noise penalized the overall level of performance, there was neither an effect of reading ability nor an interaction between reading ability and the penalizing effects of the noise masking. (Ibd)

Though; it would appear that any deficiency in auditory perception on the part of the poor readers is limited to the realm of speech perception.

Although more research is needed to clarify the relation between this speech perception deficiency and poor readers' problems with phonetic representation, the fact of its existence is certainly provocative and most pertinent to the view that reading skill is associated with language skill.

Having made a link between reading skill and effective use of phonetic representation in linguistic short-term memory tasks, and having reviewed some of the evidence as to why poor readers may have difficulty with phonetic representation, I will now concentrate on some ramifications of this difficulty. (Ibd)

According to the view introduced in the beginning sections of this paper, phonetic representation is crucially involved in all normal language processing. Since spoken language antedates written language, and insofar as phonetic representation is involved in spoken language processing, difficulty with phonetic representation should often be found as an antecedent of reading failure.

A study completed only a short time ago speaks to this point, revealing that those kindergarten-aged children who make less effective use of phonetic representation in a word-string recall task are likely to become the poorer readers of their first-grade classrooms (Mann &Liberman, in press). The subjects for that study were a population of kindergarteners whom we followed longitudinally for one year. During May of the kindergarten year we assessed their memory for spoken strings of phonetically confusable and non-confusable words, their memory for nonlinguistic material (the Corsi block sequences), and their awareness of the syllabic structure of spoken words. The following year, as first graders, these same children again received all of the memory tests, and a standard reading test. At this time they were rated by their teachers as "good," "average," or "poor" in reading ability.

Children in the three reading groups had equivalent IQ scores; we found no correlation between IQ scores and our measures of reading achievement. The children in the three groups also performed equivalently on the Corsi test of nonlinguistic memory; neither their kindergarten nor their first grade scores on this test were correlated with our reading measure. In contrast, however, both of our linguistic measures proved able to distinguish between children in the three different reading groups. Elsewhere we have discussed the relation between success at learning to read and the ability to realize the syllabic structure of spoken words (see, for example, Liberman& Mann, in press; or Mann &Liberman, in press). Here I will focus on the relation between effective use of phonetic coding and reading skill. It can be seen in Table 3 that children in the three reading groups were strongly and significantly differentiated by their performance on the phonetically non-confusable word strings. As first graders, children's performance on this type of word string was significantly correlated with their reading ability-more importantly; a significant correlation also existed between their kindergarten performance on the phonetically non-confusable word strings, and their first-grade reading ability. Note further that both as kindergarteners and as first graders, the poorer readers tended not only to perform at the lower levels on the word string memory test, but also to be among those least affected by the manipulation of phonetic confusability. Thus, their ineffective use of phonetic representation not only associated with their difficulty in learning to read, but actually presaged it.

2.9 Phonetic Representation

The finding that effective use of phonetic representation can be a precursor of reading success is consistent with the view that reading skill derives from language skill, given the position that effective language comprehension is linked to effective phonetic representation, and the presumption that successful comprehension is essential to learning to read well.

Clearly, one final demonstration is called for. If poor readers tend to make less effective use of phonetic representation than good readers, and consequently encounter difficulty retaining the words of sentences, then we may be able to demonstrate that they are less able to comprehend spoken sentences, especially if comprehension demands reliance on an effective short-term memory store.

In the Token Test, subjects receive a series of oral instructions that specify how they are to manipulate a set of small colored "tokens." It has enjoyed considerable success as a reliable indicator of disorders of oral comprehension both among patients with acquired language deficits (De Renzi&Vignolo, 1962) and children with developmental language disorders (LaPointe, 1976). He chose to use it because it forces reliance on the grammatical structure of a sentence rather than on common-sense knowledge or extra linguistic cues, and also because it poses an obvious stress on short-term memory.

The test itself consists of five basic parts that are graded in complexity. For the first four parts, all of the instructions are simple imperative sentences that contain a constant verb and either one or two noun phrase objects. The instructions systematically increase from part to part in the number of objects involved and in the adjectival content (one or two adjectives) of the noun phrase. For the fifth part, the instructions contain as many words or more than those in the third and fourth parts, but further contain a series of different verbs and different noun phrase structures in the predicate. Thus the first four parts of the test involve a systematic increase (~ in the number of objects and attributes that the subject must remember', whereas the fifth involves not only a substantial memory load but also an increase in syntactic complexity. (Ibd)

In general, the results of our study of Token Test performance have revealed that poor readers tend to do less well than good readers. In particular, we find that they do as well as good readers on the first three parts of the test, but fall behind on the last two parts. We had anticipated that the fourth and fifth parts

might pose relatively more difficulty for the poor readers, simply because they contain the longest instructions. However, we recognize that difficulty on the fifth part of the test could also be a consequence of a more specific difficulty with recovering syntactic structure, aside from a short-term memory deficiency. Thus, while we have indeed established a relation between reading ability and oral comprehension of sentences, it remains to be determined whether ineffective use of phonetic representation can account for this relation in any direct way. We have some indication that for the children whom we tested, performance on the Token Test was at least moderately correlated with word-string memory performance. It also appears possible that for both the good and poor readers, the errors made on part five may have been direct consequences of the memory demands posed by certain instructions. We hope to continue to gain more insight into this issue as we analyze the results of our other two comprehension tests. (Ibd)

As we pursue this and other research, my colleagues and I are entertaining several possible outcomes. On the one hand, ineffective phonetic representation could not only compromise ongoing sentence processing, but also limit the development of linguistic competence. It is also within the realm of possibility that poor readers possess a comprehension deficit that is not so much a consequence as a concomitant of difficulty with phonetic representation.

Perhaps reading disability, ineffective phonetic representation, and comprehension deficiencies are all manifestations of some more general language impairment that we have only begun to characterize. Surely the characterization of that impairment will be a productive research objective, since it may both illuminate our understanding of the psychology of reading, and clarify our approach to the current epidemic of reading failure.

The difficulty of teaching and learning English as a second language (ESL) in many African countries has been widely documented especially, in the area of junior secondary level writing skills development. Besson-Molosiwa (1990), Mooko (1996), Chimbganda (2001) and Adeyemi (2004, 2006, 2008) have written extensively about the problems of composition writing at the junior secondary school level as well as college writing in Botswana. It is important to reiterate that writing skills development is still a big issue in the junior secondary education curriculum, especially if the results of a study carried out (Adeyemi, 2008) are anything to go by. This situation therefore, calls for continued efforts to address ESL composition writing problems at that level in order to forestall the writing problems students encounter later at senior secondary school and college levels.

The persistence of ESL writing difficulties among junior secondary level students has informed the discussion in this study under the following objectives:

- a) To evaluate the reading-writing connection in ESL composition writing skills development;
- b) To review literature on the reader-response theory of reading, its integration with process writing and implications for teaching composition writing skills; and
- c) To discuss the procedure/techniques of using the reader-response based pedagogy with the process approach in teaching composition writing at the junior secondary school level.

The motivation for this paper was based on some findings in a previous study on junior secondary composition writing (Adeyemi, 2008) in which it was observed, among other things, that teachers' approaches to composition writing were mainly product oriented. It was also discovered that students lacked

composing skills as the type of writing they did was physical, bland and uninspiring. In fact, many of the students failed to communicate considering their scanty writing and lack of vocabulary to express any meaningful ideas. It was also clear from the interviews conducted with the students in the investigations that many of them were averse to writing. Some reported that when they are given a topic to write on, they panic and are unable to write because they either lacked ideas or the vocabulary to express them (Adeyemi, 2008). As a result of the above situation, it is the belief of this writer that exploring and strengthening the reader's response based pedagogy to teaching writing skills would help to alleviate, the seemingly intractable problem of composition writing skills development, at the junior secondary level in Botswana and elsewhere with similar problems. This is because the strategy integrates extensive reading, discussions, individual responses and numerous interactive activities with writing. In addition, it would help to build students' confidence in their own ability to be readers, as well as writers. The type of classroom environment that allows for students' responses to be valued in a non-threatening set up, involved in response based activities, would also be beneficial in building learners' confidence and skills.

Furthermore, the revised junior secondary English syllabus (Republic of Botswana, 2008: 3) recommends the communicative approach to language teaching as it states:

"The Communicative Approach implies that communicative practice must be part of the language learning process. In order to achieve communicative ability, classroom practice therefore should be very interactive. The interactive activities suggested by the syllabus cannot be achieved with the use of the product oriented approach of teaching writing, especially, considering the mixed ability nature of the average public secondary classroom in Botswana. It is believed that the use of a response based methodology will ultimately help to improve the learning

and teaching of the English language in general, and writing in particular".

The discussion in this paper is based on the premise that learning is accomplished by an active approach. Active learning therefore, ensures that each person process their own ways of learning for knowledge to be internalized. This can be done through the utilization of what students already know and their ability to make the necessary linkages or connections to aid their understanding of new knowledge or information (Piaget, 1970).

Furthermore, cognitive development process is believed to be enhanced by active learning techniques such as discovery and interactive activities with others and the environment. This is a view supported by the constructivist views of Piaget (1970) Wertsch, (1997), Duckworth (2006) and others who articulate that it is important that students make the necessary linkages between what they already know in order to understand, and then fit the new knowledge into their schema; discriminate where necessary and accommodate where there are differences for learning to occur. The issue here is how to fit all these ideas into the act of reading and by extension, writing effectively.

2.10 The Role of Reading in Writing

On writing effectively in English, it has been argued that reading has an important role to play. In other words, possession of the basic skills of reading can enhance the skills to compose and write (Ross & Roe, 1990). Sovik (2003) believes that reading and writing, support, complement and contribute to each other's development. Other authors such as Cox (2002) and Tierney & Leys, (1984) rationalize that both reading and writing should be taught together. In fact, Heller (1995) and Ross & Roe (1990) contend that the processes involved in learning both skills are the same.

Reading or modeling (McCann &Smagorinsky, 1988; Irwin & Doyle, 1992) in writing has been looked at from different perspectives. Meriwether (1997) and Nunan (1999) look at it from a product oriented perspective when linked to extend writing. Adeyemi (2008) quotes Escholz (1980:63) who defends the use of models in composition writing as highlighted:

"Certainly few people will take exception to the general rule that one good way to learn to write is to follow the example of those who can write well ... professional writers have long acknowledged the value of reading; they know that what they read is important to how they eventually write".

Furthermore, (White & Arndt, 1991) see modeling as beneficial since it explores the link between reading and writing to improve students' writing skills. In other words, reading can be used to prepare learners for more realistic forms of writing. Also, writing activities in this context can provide a basis for integrated learning through reading and writing (Adeyemi: 2008). It is equally important that this connection does not ignore the use of interactive activities provided by process writing.

The reading dimension of this discussion can be equated with response based reading as well as the subsequent writing assignment borne out of what students have read about and their perceptions of the piece. The students' writing can then be read and appreciated the same way they have appreciated/responded to other peoples' writing as suggestions are made, and the writing and ideas expressed, revised for further improvement to the learners' developing texts.

2.11 Reader-Response Approach to Reading

The reader-response approach to reading emphasizes the reader's role in creating meaning and stresses the importance of the reader's own interpretation of texts. It rejects the idea that there is a single fixed meaning inherent in every literary work and holds that the individual creates his or her own meaning through a 'transaction' with the text based on personal associations. It is

believed that readers bring their own emotions, concerns, life experiences and knowledge to their reading to make each interpretation subjective and unique (Rosenblatt, 1985, 1994).

The underlying theory of this approach recognizes that readers are active agents in the reading process and that their experience, the individual emotions, feelings, understanding and the stance they bring into the reading process counts. It also acknowledges the reader's engagement with the text, the psychological, and the concern with the cognitive, subconscious forces, the social and cultural features that affect meaning (ERIC Digest, 2010).(Iser ,1978) argues that even though the text in part controls the reader's responses, at the same time it contains 'gaps' that the reader creatively fills. This gap that the reader fills creatively in spoken or written response can be channeled or harnessed by the teacher and facilitator to aid students in composing and writing their views and ideas.

In making a case for the reader-response aspect in teaching composition writing, reference would be made to Collie and Slater (1987) who maintain that literary texts have the potential to provide a rich context in which individual lexical and syntactic items are made more memorable for students. They argue that by reading a substantial and contextualized body of texts, students gain familiarity with many features of written language such as the variety of possible structures and the different ways of connecting ideas which broadens and enriches students writing skills. In all these ways, it is believed that literary work and experiences can improve students' spoken language and reading and writing abilities as a result of the non- judgmental and non-threatening classroom environment encouraged in the reader response process.

2.12 Integrating Reader-Response in Writing

Although reader-response is often used for literature, it can be integrated into assignments in other subject areas such as in literature and composition writing where the particular type of creative writing is required. For example, composition writing by nature is expected to be creative and closely allied to the aesthetic dimensions which the reader –response strategy can provide (ERIC Digest, 2010). In this way, students can be able to find new ways to channel their thoughts and creativity.

Rather than rely on a teacher to give them a single standard interpretation of a text or situation, students learn to construct their own meaning by connecting events and situations in print to issues in their lives and describing what they experience as they read (Mora & James, 2010). This oral/written description of events, reactions, responses or expectations can be exploited extensively to help students put their thoughts and ideas together in logical forms to develop their writing skills. Also, the exposure to different literature genres or texts has the potential benefit of helping students sharpen their reading skills as well as develop vocabulary they so badly need to put their ideas down in written form. Furthermore, the diverse responses of individual readers and the freedom it allows in a response-based classroom, enable students to value their own views, discover the variety of possible meanings, language usage, vocabulary and grammar necessary to express thoughts in speech and to extend them into their writing (ERIC Digest, 2010). As learners' personal responses are valued, they begin to see themselves as having the authority and responsibility to judge their own writing and see their potential ability as writers, too.

Finally, the social/interactive opportunities of a response based classroom makes it best suited for cooperative and group activities encouraged in communicative language teaching and the process approach to writing. This benefit is articulated by (Karolides ,2000:21) in the following:

"In the weighing and balancing of class exchanges, the students gain insight into the views of others. In this atmosphere of acceptance and honesty, students will sense an appropriate, expressive reading or a limited or misdirected reading; they will measure and receive the ideas of others, incorporating them in their own revising and building their interpretations of the text".

The above argument has implications for students' reading skills development and articulation of ideas in spoken forms that can be explored and extended into their writings. This is made possible as students read model texts, respond and examine those responses by speaking, reading and writing composition drafts, revising and fine-tuning their drafts.

The communicative approach to language teaching favoured by the Botswana government requires that the process approach to composition writing be emphasized so that students learn the language in meaningful interactions and more spontaneous and natural discourse (Republic of Botswana, 1996). There is no doubt that the process has been proven to be of use in very many ESL contexts. At the same time, some of the criticism against the approach needs reexamination. Some of the writing difficulties identified in (Adeyemi, 2008) included difficulties with meaning, cohesion in writing as well as inability to express ideas in speech and writing through lack of vocabulary on the part of the learners that were studied.

The above situation has rendered many students incapacitated in line with (Johns, 1993) warning that most have accepted the process movement without questioning its validity for the populations and educational contexts. In Botswana, where mixed ability teaching is the rule and not the exception in the country's public school system and where the English language is learned as L2, many are excluded from the beneficial effects of process writing. This was also noted by (Martin, 1985) citing his work with Aboriginal and migrant students in Australia, that because ESL students generally do not have a fully developed inter-language code system, find it difficult to participate in

discussions during the various stages of the process approach. This situation justifies the use of the reader-response approach, in which students are exposed to a variety of literary texts and genres, to help them develop the badly needed vocabulary and writing styles, needed for speech and writing skills development.

Implications of the Reader-Response - Writing Connection in Teaching Writing The type of reader-response based writing coupled with process writing activities suggested in this discussion is particularly recommended because of the notion that learning is a constructive and dynamic process in which students extract meaning from texts through experiencing, hypothesizing, exploring and synthesizing (Rosenblatt, 1985). The above are also processes that writers experience as well (Heller, 1995).

Furthermore, a reader-response approach is often task and activity based. Rather than rely on a teacher to passively pass on information or answers, students learn to construct their own meaning by connecting the textual material to issues in their lives and describing what they experience as they read (Mora & James, 2010). These experiences, meanings and responses can be exploited in writing assignments to improve students' skills in this area of language learning. Also, because personal responses and interpretations are allowed and valued, students begin to see themselves as having authority and the responsibility to make judgments about what they read and subsequently extend this confidence to their writing. After all, the approach enables them to think of themselves as potential authors who can write, too.

Last but not the least, oral discussions, small group discussions, pair work, journal writing activities, writing logs, free responses which are some of the strategies used with response based teaching are similar to process writing activities that can be incorporated, modified or strengthened to teach writing

skills needed in the junior secondary level composition writing. All these, coupled with the democratic environment and attitude encouraged in a response-based classroom are advantages to be explored to solve the problems of the teaching and learning of ESL writing.

Techniques of Using the Reader–Response Approach in Writing Pedagogy Reading/Modeling: The teacher introduces a reading topic in form of articles from books, newspaper, novels, videos, and dramatization as long as it is something that excites the students' interest and is at the level of their understanding. At this stage, a brief introductory activity for the reading can be done such as a discussion or opinion poll of the topic or theme of the reading can be done. This would be followed by a class discussion (shared responses) of questions on the reading that are reader-response based that would enable students to do the subsequent composition writing assignment later on in the lesson. For example part of the questions the teacher can use to initiate discussions on the reading may include:

What sort of person do you think the main character in the story is?

What feelings do some of the events in the story/play evoke in you?

Do you feel particularly embarrassed or annoyed with the way some of the people in the story are behaving?

How would you have responded (to a specific situation/event) if you were the main character in the story?

How would you have described the situation or reported the incident in chapter two?

Suggest a title and write two paragraphs on a similar or related event that you have experienced on a character' behavior in the (novel, play or article) you just read and so on. (Ibd)

Nuttall. C, (1982) says: these and more, along the lines of the above activities and questions can be modified to improve not only students' reading skills but their spoken and written language. More importantly, a novel, topic in a narrative, play or poem puts a human face to the issues, themes or concepts being discussed and through the reader response activities; multiple interpretations that tap into students' creative ability are encouraged. This can then translate into creative writing and enriched use of language.

Through shared responses, students discern a range of reactions to the topic being read or discussed. This helps to build or clarify the students' own responses. In this process students get the opportunity to identify and reflect on their own reactions by exploring their responses to questions posed on the subject or their feelings/attitudes to the events in the reading. The teacher should be careful at this point so that she or he does not become judgmental or prescriptive. Cross fertilization of ideas should be encouraged. It is equally important that throughout the process, students are allowed to disagree/agree and to write down important information as they deem fit.

From this point, the writing process can now take over as students are paired or divided into groups to work at writing about their own similar or different experiences on the theme of the reading. They are also encouraged to do peer review of their work and necessary revision and editing of each other's' writing. The teacher may also provide a checklist to help with the revision/editing before the final submission.

"Kellie" is enrolled in a Bachelor of Commerce degree at a large Australian university. She is majoring in human-resource management (HRM) and is in her second year of study. One of the subjects she is currently studying requires her to write an essay for which she must draw on the research literature about strategic HRM. Kellie is used to writing essays as part of her assessment requirements across different units, but is concerned about finding the right literature and understanding it well enough to use it in her essay. A major

challenge is the need to highlight the practical nature of the information from the literature. Her classmate "Mai" has an additional challenge. While Kellie is a domestic (local Australian) student, Mai is an international, full fee paying student who comes from other country where English is not her first language of communication and study. Mai decided to enroll in the HRM unit because a friend was also enrolled in it. Mai has experience in writing essays in her native language but she struggles with reading and writing in English. After a few weeks of studying this HRM unit, she is still confused by the terminology and wishes she had chosen a different major, like accounting. (Ibd)

2.13 Reading and learning in the discipline

In the management and HRM disciplines it is common practice to expect students to read scholarly academic journal articles as part of either stand-alone activities or in preparation for a written assessment task. The scholarly literature provides a foundation for students who may wish to pursue research in HR and provides important knowledge they will need as future HR professionals. The activity of reading internalizes and applies academic literature as part of a student's apprenticeship into the academic discourse of the discipline (Dunn, 2007).

In addition to decoding textual materials, students need to understand the form and structure of academic articles and adapt their reading strategies for different learning tasks and disciplines (Mather, 2001). Disciplines also have their own specialized vocabulary and "register" (or formality) that present challenges for students new to the discipline For example, in the management/HR disciplines, students are required to understand and engage in a social scientific debate much more so than they might in accounting and finance. Reading in preparation for essay-writing requires students to find, organize and synthesize information from various sources. Clearly, students must have a certain level of

literacy to communicate their understanding of the readings, and adequately represent their perspectives and opinions in written form.

Both reading and writing can be difficult for students (Rachal et al. 2007), especially those who are studying courses in their second language. As a consequence, native and nonnative speakers alike may require some intervention from discipline teachers to ensure that they learn how to read journal articles and synthesize the new knowledge they provide into their own writing.

2.14 Context and Practice: a strategic HRM Undergraduate Class

Strategic HRM is a core subject in a major offered as part of a Bachelor of Commerce at a large Australian university. It is offered once a year as a 12-week course for students enrolled both on and off-campus. Off-campus students are those who study on-line and do not attend the University for Face-to-face Classes. For on-campus students, the unit is taught via a two-hour weekly lecture and a one-hour weekly tutorial. A total of 250 students were enrolled in the subject in 2010. These students were a mix of Australian domestic and international full-fee-paying students. Most were completing an HRM specialization, some of these in combination with other specializations such as management, marketing, psychology and finance.

The formal assessment for the unit included a requirement that each student complete an essay that formed 20 percent of their final grade. The essay required students to respond to a widely contested question in the current HRM discourse: whether HRM serves people or profit. Specifically, students were asked to write an academic essay based on their critical analysis of the following statement:

"Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) is central to organizations' strategic management process, as SHRM deals with people rather than profit." (Ibd)

Students were given several recent HRM articles relating to employee wellbeing in the Australian context, and its significance for people or profit. The articles were selected carefully by the subject teaching team for their readability and relevance to the topic. The readings used typical HRM terms and discourse.

The activity described in this paper was designed to help students begin their assignment task by providing them with guidance about how to read and extract information from a journal article.

The journal-reading activity for their essay writing was designed to address four of the unit aims:

Analyze the growing importance of Strategic Human Resource Management in relation to competitive pressures facing organizations;

collect, integrate and critically analyses information from academic sources using standard research techniques, and construct an original, logical written discussion that demonstrates an understanding of the information collected; Work with others on nominated activities in a cooperative and effective manner; and communicate and work effectively with people from different cultures within Australia and the world.

The activity was designed as a two-step collaborative process. In the first week of the activity (Week 4 of a 12-week subject), the teacher introduced the activity by explaining its aims and process. Students were informed that its objectives were to help them:

Identify key themes from academic journals;

Understand how the key themes can be applied to HR functions (e.g. recruitment and selection; performance appraisals);

Understand how to integrate theories and practices in completing the essay.

For on-campus students, teachers randomly divided students into groups of six, and each group was given a different academic journal article to read. Off-

campus students were asked to select one of three articles provided on the electronic learning system. The students, however, were required to respond to the article individually, rather than as part of a group. In both cases, the teacher selected the articles bearing in mind need to ensure they were relevant to the essay topic and represented the type of literature students were required to use to write the essay.

In the second week of the activity, each group of on-campus students was given 20 minutes to discuss the themes they had identified. Off-campus students were encouraged to do likewise in their online forum, but they were not assigned to small groups for this purpose. Students were asked to focus their discussion on the themes they had each identified from the readings. The teacher instructed them to share their individual understanding of the article and agree on a response for each of the items in the framework. For on-campus students, at the end of group interactions one spokesperson was nominated from each group to share what they had learned with the whole class.

Finally, the students were asked to complete a questionnaire so that we could understand how they had experienced the task and the benefits (if any) they had received from the exercise. The questionnaire, administered with the approval of the University's Human Ethics Committee, included some demographic questions and a series of closed (yes/no) and open-ended questions.

The questions asked students about the following matters:

- A. The usefulness of the exercise for identifying the major focus and key themes of the reading and the key contributions of the main authors;
- B. Its usefulness for writing the essay assignment and understanding the application of ideas to HR practices;
- C. Its usefulness in helping them understands the application of ideas to HR practices;

- D. Other activities or resources that would help them read and understand articles;
- E. Whether they would like this type of activity to be repeated; and
- F. Factors that helped or hindered them in reading, understanding and learning from academic journal articles.

Forty students completed the questionnaires. Of these, 22 students were domestic and 18 were international. Although 10 off-campus students posted their completed framework, only three off campus students returned the completed questionnaires. Sixty-five percent of the students who returned questionnaires were female. Approximately half of the students were in their second year and the remaining half in their final year of their three-year degree. Students' open-ended responses were independently coded into themes by two researchers. The agreement between the two coders across the questions was 94.3 percent.

Part Two: Previous Studies

Amel Al Noah (2013) handles 'The Effectiveness of Reading Techniques Used in a Saudi Arabian Secondary School Classroom as Perceived by Students and Teachers: A Study of Methods Used in Teaching English and their Effectiveness,. This paper describes a study conducted in Saudi Arabia regarding the effectiveness of currently employed strategies of teaching English reading skills in the country, taking into consideration the points of view both of teachers and students. The findings highlight significant discrepancies between the variously perceived usefulness of common strategies. Another problematic area identified is the lack of support mechanisms that should supplement the classroom teaching of reading skills. The paper makes certain recommendations towards furthering the teaching of English reading skills to Saudi students.

Relatedly, Deborah, Adeninhun and Adeyemii (2011) tackles 'Reader-Response Approach: An Intervention in Composition Writing at Junior Secondary Schools in Botswana'. Recently, the reading-writing connection has come into focus as an area that can be exploited to address English as a second language (ESL) writing skills development. This is because various studies have identified ESL writing as being grossly inadequate both at the junior secondary, senior secondary and college levels in Botswana and elsewhere in Africa where English is learned as a second language (L2). Even in situations where English is taught as the first language (L1), the problem of writing persists. This paper discusses ESL composition teaching and learning issues by looking at the integration of reader-response based pedagogy with process writing as a way of improving the learning and teaching of composition writing skills at the junior secondary school level in Botswana. The paper also discusses the implications of this strategy in writing pedagogy and the procedure for its use in composition writing skills development.

Yuka Fujimoto (2011) Helping university students to 'read' scholarly journal articles: the benefits of a structured and collaborative approach. Academics often treat students' discipline-specific literacy as unproblematic. In doing so they may underestimate the difficulties for university students as they move between subjects of study that may involve different disciplines, language genres and academic practices. This paper describes an initiative aimed at supporting students in reading academic articles in preparation for completing an essay for an assessment task. This initiative involved a structured and collaborative two-week tutorial exercise that provided students with practice in using a framework to extract the main ideas from academic readings. Students were surveyed after this exercise, and their reflections of its value are described in this paper. The findings of this study will inform further stages of the project

which aim to develop and investigate practical ways to develop student's academic literacy across several business disciplines.

In addition to Ana Paula Cabral & Jos? Tavares (2002) Reading and Writing Skills in Higher Education: lecturers' opinions and perceptions Ana Paula Cabral & Jos? Tavares. The purpose of this session is to discuss teachers' opinions and perceptions on Reading/Comprehension and Writing skills of their students and on their role towards these abilities Based on a questionnaire directed to faculty members from four Portuguese state Universities*, we aim to examine the level of competence teachers consider their students have in these skills. To what extent these skills are taken into account in evaluation, the main difficulties of their students and if teachers develop any strategies to promote their students' proficiency in these fields. These data was also analyzed bearing in mind the results from a questionnaire directed to 1,000 students of these same faculty members on their specific levels of competence in these skills, the strategies they apply in their daily academic tasks and the role these skills play in the students' academic performance and success.

Ultimately, Ombra A. Imam (2013)handles Correlation between Reading Comprehension Skills and Students' Performance in Mathematics. The deteriorating performance of Filipino students in the national and international mathematics tests for the last decade has become a major challenge to Philippine education. The Department of Education attributed this problem to students' poor reading comprehension. Previous studies showed varied findings on the association between variables in reading and mathematics. The present study utilized the six elements of reading comprehension skills to determine their relationship to students' performance in mathematics. A total of 666 students belonging to the randomly selected first year classes from 18 public and private high schools were taken as sample. A correlation research design was used and a competency-based achievement tests in reading comprehension

and mathematics were the research instruments. Students in private schools performed better in reading comprehension skills and mathematics than their counterparts. While reading comprehension skills were insignificantly correlated to private school students' mathematics performance, the case is different in public schools wherein three skills namely understanding vocabulary in context, getting main idea, and making inference surfaced to have connection with mathematics. The overall students' reading comprehension skills were not significantly correlated to mathematics performance. Hence, the poor mathematics performance could be explained by other factors not related to reading comprehension skills.

Moreover, NastaranChegeni and OmidTabatabaei(2014) tackles Lexical Differencing: The Relationship between Number and Density of Lexical Items and L2 Learners' Reading Comprehension Achievement. Lexical differencing denoted a process of guessing the meaning of an unknown word by employing all linguistic cues available in the text together with the reader's world knowledge, his/her linguistic knowledge, and his/her awareness of the context.(Harrison, 1996). This study dealt with exploring the influence of number and density of unknown words on lexical differencing. To this end, different data collection devices were used: A Quick placement test given to 90 students to select 30 same English proficiency level students for this study, a text with high density of unknown words including 357 words totally and 20 unknown words and a text with low density of unknown words including 291 words totally and 10 new words were given to the participants to show the effect of number of new words on success of learners' lexical differencing. The guessing success of the students in the texts with low density of unknown words interpreted that the lower the number of unfamiliar words, the higher the available clues for the participants to use for inferring the correct meaning of those words. The results can be of significance to teachers and learners of English.

Ultimately, Published (2002) tackles reading for understanding recent research on reading instruction has led to significant improvements in the knowledge base for teaching primary-grade readers and for ensuring that those children have the early-childhood experiences they need to be prepared for the reading instruction they receive when they enter school. Nevertheless, evidence-based improvements in the teaching practices of reading comprehension are sorely needed. Understanding how to improve reading comprehension outcomes, not just for students who are failing in the later grades but for all students who are facing increasing academic challenges, should be the primary motivating factor in any future literacy research agenda. In 1999, the Office of Educational Research and Improvement of the U.S.

Department of Education charged the RAND Reading Study Group (RRSG) with developing a research agenda to address the most-pressing issues in literacy.

The decision to focus this research agenda proposal on reading comprehension in particular was motivated by a number of factors:

- All high school graduates are facing an increased need for a high degree of literacy, including the capacity to comprehend complex texts, but comprehension outcomes are not improving.
- Students in the United States are performing increasingly poorly in comparison with students in other countries as they enter the later years of schooling when discipline-specific content and subject-matter learning are central to the curriculum.
- Unacceptable gaps in reading performance persist between children in different demographic groups despite the efforts over recent decades to close those gaps; the growing diversity of the U.S. population will likely widen those gaps even further.

- Little direct attention has been devoted to helping teachers develop the skills they need to promote reading comprehension, ensure content learnxii Reading for Understanding through reading, and deal with the differences in comprehension skills that their students display.
- Policies and programs (e.g., high-stakes testing, subject-related teacher credentialing, literacy interventions) intended to improve reading comprehension are regularly adopted, but their effects are uncertain because the programs are neither based on empirical evidence nor adequately evaluated.

The RRSG believes that a vigorous, cumulative research and development program focused on reading comprehension is essential if the nation is to address these education problems successfully. Current research and development efforts have been helpful in addressing such problems, but those efforts are limited in their funding, unsystematic in their pursuit of knowledge and improved teaching practice, and neglectful of strategies for taking evidence-based practices to scale.

The program of reading research that the RRSG is proposing fits into the larger context of research on reading in the United States. The Interagency Education Research Initiative—funded jointly by the National Science Foundation, OERI, and the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development—is sponsoring efforts that bring early research to scale with some emphasis on the use of technology. Thus, the reading research program proposed by the RRSG seeks to fill any gaps left by the existing research efforts, while being coherently organized around a central set of issues facing practitioners.1

In this report, the RRSG characterizes reading comprehension in a way that the group believes will help organize research and development activities in the domain of reading comprehension. This characterization builds on the current

knowledge base on reading comprehension, which is sizeable but sketchy, unfocused, and inadequate as a basis for reform in reading comprehension instruction.

Research has shown that many children who read at the third-grade level in grade 3 will not automatically become proficient comprehended in later grades. Therefore, teachers must teach comprehension explicitly, beginning in the primary grades and continuing through high school. Research has also shown that a teacher's expertise makes a big difference in this effort; yet, few teachers receive adequate pre-service preparation or ongoing professional development focused on reading comprehension. Finally, research has also shown that improving reading comprehension and preventing poor reading outcomes require measuring outcomes at every stage of learning.

The term *practitioners* in this report refers to all school district staff, including teachers, principals, and district administrators and also tutors and any other individuals implementing education as opposed to conducting research on it. Therefore, the RRSG proposes three specific *domains* as having the highest priority for further research: instruction, teacher preparation, and assessment. In making this proposal, the RRSG emphasizes the need for research that builds on previous research findings about reading comprehension, contributes to better theories of reading development, and produces knowledge that is usable in both classrooms and policymaking arenas.

Within the federal agencies that are collectively responsible for carrying out research and development related to literacy, the capability to plan, manage, and execute the program envisioned by the RRSG is not well developed. This is particularly true within the Office of Education Research and Improvement (OERI), the agency that has the clearest mandate for addressing the problems

outlined in this report. Thus, in addition to suggesting a structure and broad priorities for a program of research, the RRSG also suggests principles that might improve the management of the program.

Chapter Three

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

First, the description of the subjects (section 3.1.1) and the data gathering instruments: The students' test and the teachers' questionnaire are presented (section 3.1.2.1) and (section3.1.2.2). Second, the procedures for data collection are outlined (section 3.5).

3.1. Method

The researcher has used the descriptive analytical, quantitative and qualitative methods as well as questionnaire and test were used as primary tools in the collection of relevant data and information to this study.

3.1.1. Subjects

The sample is divided into two, the students were (50) from both sexes; the teachers were (100) from both sexes. The first sample was exclusively selected from Sudan University of science and technology-college of education-first year students who were studying English as major subject during the academic year 2014-2015. Also second sample was exclusively drawn from teachers of English language in Sudanese universities. The sample of students who were investigated was selected from the first level at Sudan University of Science and Technology-College of Education.

This study was motivated by low achievement level attained by university student first level frequent complains of the difficulty which faces them in the learningprocess of English language in using receptive skills exclusively reading skill. Thus, it was' decided to administer a test to university students who are studying English as major subject, to examine their performance on the problems that encountered them in understanding reading comprehension passage.

For the same purpose, another questionnaire was administered to teachers of English as a foreign language at universities of Sudan, to find out their points of view in terms of teaching receptive skills exclusively reading skill and the problematic areas that encountered students when they expose to the reading comprehension passage.

3.1.2. Instruments

The questionnaire and test were adopted as primary tools for collecting data for the purpose of the main study. Both of them were designed; one for the teachers (Appendix A) and another one for the students, (Appendix B). The items of the questionnaire were based on the theoretical discussion of previous studies and the literature reviewed in (chapters 2).

The items in questionnaire were grouped in three sections:

- 1. The first section (items 1 8) in the questionnaire is to elicit the needs for first year university students know how to read comprehension passage critically.
- 2. The second section (items 9 16) focuses on how first year university students give feedback when they read comprehension passage effectively.
- 3. The third section (items 17-24) in the questionnaire is to focus on how first year university students understand the contextual meaning when they read comprehension passage.

The subjects were asked to mark their responses on a Likert scale running from (Strongly agree= 5 points, Agree =4 points, Neutral (No Opinion)=3 points, Disagree = 2 points, strongly disagree = 1 point). The respondents had to tick the appropriate alternative.

3.1.2.1. Teachers' Questionnaire

The subjects were asked about their opinions about problems encountered by first year university students in understanding reading passages in EFL classroom (Appendix A), and to what extent the English teachers use these.

3.1.2.2. Students' Test

The students' version of the test was mainly designed to collect reasonable data about the problems encountered by first year students in understanding reading passages in learning of English language (Appendix B). This was done as follow:

Question 1: concerns how firstyear university students can infer meanings of the words when they read comprehension passage successfully.

Question 2: concerns how firstyear university students can scan the passage to answer questions, when they read comprehension passage successfully.

<u>Question 3:</u>concerns how firstyear university students can summarize the passage, when they read comprehension passage successfully.

<u>Question 4:</u>concerns how firstyear university students can understand words that have cultural meanings, when they read comprehension passage successfully.

Question 5: concerns how firstyear university students can understand the discursive meanings, when they read comprehension passage successfully.

3.2. Validity and Reliability

3.2.1. Content Validity

Validity is extent to which a test measures what it claims to measure. It is vital for a test to be valid in order for the results to be accurately applied and interpreted.

Seven professionals were requested to comment on the questionnaire in terms of clarity and validity of the items and their relevance. In the light of the ELT experts' judgments about the relevance of the items to the purpose for which they were defined, the number of items was 24. Some of statements were dropped, whereas complicated or ambiguous ones were reworded and simplified in order to make them concise and precise. As well as four professionals were requested to comment on test in terms of clarity and validity of the content and relevance.

On the other hand, in section three some statement asked for other comments and suggestions, was deleted. Moreover, the length of the questionnaire and the time needed for administration were taken into consideration. Experts' opinions contributed to the modification of the tools in both content and design. For instance, Preliminary data are used to find the homogeneity of the sample, homogeneous in primary sample of teachers in terms of age, gender, experience and qualifications were pointed out. Therefore, they were deleted and also the primary sample in the students' test.

3.2.2. Reliability

The researcher has used Alpha Crunbach as statistical method for measuring the validity and the most common and in which we can measure the consistency which depends on the internal consistency and give an idea of the consistency of the questions with each other and with all questions in general. There is also test method segmentation into two halves. (Split half method) is the way

Krnbach is most commonly used when compared to retail in half because the way Krnbach rely on retail more than one part and repeatedly measuring between those parts instead of the correlation measure between the two halves only. Overall, the judgment on the validity depends on the amount resulting from the statistical analysis the correlation coefficient. Many researchers believe that the link which exceeds 0.8 guarantor tendency toward validity tool used coefficient.

3.3. Teachers' Version:

Psychometric characteristics of the scale:

psychometric is a measure of the statistical analysis to achieve the reliability and validity of questionnaire, interviews, method of data collection extent of sincerity, authenticity and what is needed to satisfy, if it's agree or disagree.

To know the characteristic of measurement scale of the vertebrae with community of current research, the researcher applying image scale revised guidance arbitrators consisting of 40 items, the primary size of the sample (24) inspected were chosen randomly from the community Current search, and after correct responses, then the researcher monitoring grades and entered into the computer, and then were as follows:

3.3.1 Validity of Internal Consistency for Vertebras:.

To know the vertebras consistency with the total degree with scale of community current search, that Pearson's correlation coefficient between the degrees of each items with the total degree of the sub-scale, which is located under the concerned item, the following table shows the results of this procedure.

Table No. (1) Shows items correlation with the total degree of the scale community Current search (n = 24)

			Total scale	e	
Readi	ing	Give	e feedback	Unde	rstand contextual
comp	rehension	when	they read	mean	ing when they read
passage critically.		comp	rehension	comp	rehension passage.
		passa	ge		
		effect	tively.		
Item	Correlation	Item	Correlation	Item	Correlation
1	.392	1	.132	1	.245
2	.545	2	.574	2	.271
3	.615	3	.396	3	.392
4	.522	4	.620	4	.456
5	.387	5	.563	5	.395
6	.395	6	.542	6	.418
7	.264	7	.543		.412
8	.563	8	.497	8	.442

From the table above explain that the correlations coefficients for all items are statistically significant at the level (0.05), this mean all items enjoy with strong Validity of internal consistency for vertebras, which allows using it as a measurement scale.

3.3.2. Coefficients reliability of the scale

To know the reliability of the overall degree of the scale in its final form, consisting of (40) items, in community current research, the researcher applying Cronbach's alpha equation on the primary sample data, stated the results of this procedure in the following table:

Table No. (2) Explains the results of the coefficients reliability of the sub-dimensions and the total degree of the scale with community current search.

Sub scales	No. items	psychometric chara	acteristic
		Cronbach's Alpha	Subjective
			Reliability
Reading comprehension	8	.664	.779
passage critically.			
Give feed back when	8	.787	.878
they read			
Comprehension passage			
effectively			
Understand contextual	8	.785	.845
meaning when they read			
comprehension passage.			

From the table above expresses that the test for all items was high reliability between 0.8 which given high reliability, that enables to use the tool.

3.4. Students' Version

Psychometric characteristics of the scale:

To know the characteristic of measurement scale of the vertebrae with community of current research, the researcher applying image scale revised guidance arbitrators consisting of (40) items, the primary size of the sample (24) inspected were chosen randomly from the community Current search, and after correct responses, then the researcher monitoring grades and entered into the computer, and then were as follows:

3.4.1. Validity of internal consistency for vertebras

To know the vertebras consistency with the total degree with scale of community current search, that Pearson's correlation coefficient between the degrees of each items with the total degree of the sub-scale, which is located under the concerned item, the following table shows the results of this procedure.

Table No. (3) Expresses items' correlation coefficient with the total degree of the scale with community current search (n = 24).

Total	scale						
Read	ing	Give	feed back when they	Understand contextual			
comp	rehension	read o	comprehension	Mean	ing when they read		
passa	ge critically.	passa	ge effectively.	Comp	orehension passage.		
Item	Correlation	Item	Correlation	Item	Correlation		
1	.525	1	.517	1	.278		
2	.519	2	.442	2	.586		
3	.527	3	.556	3	.565		
4	.538	4	.665	4	.277		
5	.591	5	.754	5	.387		
6	.512	6	.543	6	.547		
7	.645	7	.627	7	.553		
8	.578	8	.676	8	.488		

From the table above, explains that the correlations coefficients for all items are Statistically significant at the level (0.05), this means all items

Strong validity of internal consistency for vertebras. Which allows to use it as a measurement scale.

3.4.2. Coefficients reliability of the scale

To know the validity of the overall degree of the scale in its final form, consisting of (40) vertebrae, in community of current research, the researcher applying Cronbach's alpha equation on the primary sample data, which stated the results of this procedure in the following:

Table No. (4) Shows the results of the coefficients reliability of the sub-dimensions and the total degree of the scale with community current search. .

Sub scales	Numbers of	psychometric char	racteristic
	items	Cronbach's	Subjective
		Alpha	Reliability
Reading comprehension	8	.776	.798
passage critically.			
Give feed back when			
they read comprehension			
Give feed back when	8	.778	.797
theyread comprehension			
passage effectively.			
Understand contextual	8	.774	.769
meaning when they			
readcomprehension			
passage.			

From the table above explains that the test for all items was high reliability between 0.8 and 0.7 this high reliability enable to use the tool.

3.5. Procedures

After ensuring the validity and reliability of the tools, the final versions of the questionnaire was distributed to the subjects who were composed of EFL teachers, a covering letters was attached to every copy of the questionnaire explaining the purpose of the questionnaire and how they were to be responded to, (Appendix A). This version was in English originally. And the likewise, concerning the EFL students, a covering letters was attached to every copy of the test explaining the purpose of the test and how it were to be responded to, (Appendix B). The original questionnaire was prepared in English.

This university was chosen to represent the college of education at Sudan University of science and technology. The number of the students in level is just a representative sample. As for the sample of the students, copies of the students' test were handed to class teachers in university in order to administer randomly in every particular level of the student's test. The test was given to class students to be done on the same day. Copies of the teachers' questionnaire were handed randomly to universities of English Language teachers.

To ensure getting the test back, it was decided that it should be given administered during class; therefore, the test was administered by class teachers who were told about the purpose of the test, and informed about the method of distribution and collection.

The questionnaire was administered during the academic year (2014-2015) and the test was administered in July during the academic year (2014-2015) Nevertheless, for the teachers the matter was different. The researcher suffered much to get the teachers' responses.

Only one hundred copies of the teachers' questionnaire were returned. Some of the respondents completed the questionnaire in the presence of the researcher while other respondents, completed the questionnaire at their own ease and returned it later...

As for the students' test was done in time. The students were all from Sudan University of science and technology-college of education first level.

3.6. Data Analysis Technique

The data had been gathered by questionnaire and test. Then analyses were carried out through the computer by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). When data were processed, a printout of the recording data was obtained. The analysis, evaluation, and interpretation of the collected data will be done in chapter four.

Chapter Four

CHAPTER FOUR

Data Analysis, Results and Discussion

4.0 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the analysis, evaluation, and interpretation of the data collected through the questionnaire and test. Questionnaire was given to 100 respondents who represent the teachers' community (see appendix A) in Sudanese universities, and test was given to 50 respondents (see appendix B) who represent the students' community in Sudan University of Science & Technology.

4.1. The Responses to the Questionnaire:

The responses to the questionnaire of the 100 teachers were tabulated and computed. The following is an analytical interpretation and discussion of the findings regarding different points related to the objectives and hypotheses of the study.

Each item in the questionnaire is analyzed statistically and discussed. The following tables will support the discussion.

4.2. Analysis of Teachers' Questionnaire

Now, let us turn to analyze the teachers' questionnaire. All tables show the scores assigned to each of the 24 statements by the 100 respondents.

Section One: First year university students know how to read comprehension passage critically.

Statement (1)

Students are not able to understand the direct meaning of the words when they read comprehension.

Table (4.1): Students are not able to understand the direct meaning of the words when they read comprehension.

Alter	native	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
choices				Percent	Percent			
	Strongly agree and Agree	80	80.0	80.0	80.0			
Valid	Neutral(No Opinion)	9	9.0	9.0	89.0	4.22	1.06	000.
	Disagree	11	11.0	11.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

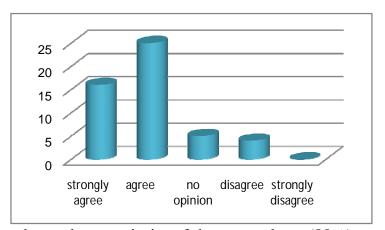


Table (4.1) above shows that a majority of the respondents (80%)strongly agree and agree that students are not able to understand the direct meaning of the words when they read comprehension. Only 11% do not agree to that and (9%) neutral(No Opinion).

This justifies that students need to be learned and developed in terms of understanding direct meaning thus was intended to elicit the teachers opinion

about the students are not able to understand the direct meaning of the words when they read comprehension.

This statement has greatest advantage of using direct meaning to enables them to comprehend the text and to know which structures are difficult and possibly even more importantly, which structures are easy and need very little explain. The student who uses direct meaning while reading text is also know potential problems with vocabulary items – words with nonequivalent. Reading text mastering two perceptive skills was intended elicit the teachers' opinion about the use of wide reading while studying English. That they use reading skills in learning English. (M = 4.22, and SD = 1.06 and potential value (.Sig) is equal to that 0.000 of this statement are considered statistically significant at the level of significance, which indicates that the average degree of response to this statement has increased the degree of neutrality which is 3, this means that there is approval by the respondents to this statement.

Statement (2)

Students are not able to understand the indirect meaning of the words when they read comprehension.

Table (4.2): Students are not able to understand the indirect meaning of the words when they read comprehension.

Alte	rnative	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
choices					Percent			
	Strongly agree and Agree	65	65.0	65.0	65.0	4.52	0.86	.000
Valid	Neutral(No Opinion)	19	19.0	19.0	84.0			
	Disagree	16	16.0	16.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

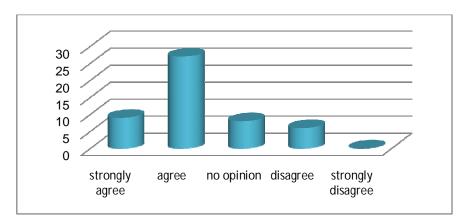


Table (4.2) above explains that most of the respondents (65%) strongly agree and agree that students are not able to understand the indirect meaning of the words when they read comprehension. Only 16% do not agree to that and(19%) neutral(No Opinion). This indicates that students need to be trained and developed to understand the indirect meaning of the words. (M = 4.52, and SD = 0.86). and potential value (.Sig) is equal to that 0.000 of this statement are

considered statistically significant at the level of significance, which indicates that the average degree of response to this statement has increased the degree of neutrality which is three this means that there is approval by the respondents to this statement.

Statement (3)

Students are not able to infer meaning of the words when they read comprehension.

Table (4.3): Students are not able to infer meaning of the words when they read comprehension.

Alte	rnative	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
choic	es				Percent			
	Strongly agree and Agree	70	70.0	70.0	70.0	4.49	0.82	0.00
	Neutral(No Opinion)	12	12.0	12.0	82.0			
	Disagree	18	18.0	18.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

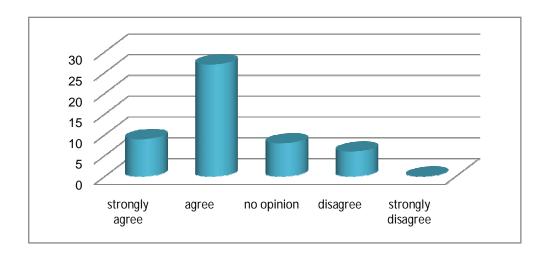


Table (4.3) above shows that a majority of the respondents (70%) strongly agree and agree that students are not able to infer meaning of the words when they read comprehension passage. Only 18% do not agree to that and(12%) neutral(No Opinion). This declares that students need to be worked out and developed in inferring meaning of the words. It was intended to elicit the teacher's opinion about the students are not able to infer meaning of the words when they read comprehension passage to understand English language well so as to input it in their mind. The mean and stander deviation of this statement are (M = 4.49, SD = 0.82) .It was designed to elicit teachers' view about the problems faced students in infer meaning of the word, that they have problems related to weakness of English language, and potential value (.Sig) is equal to that 0.000 of this statement are considered statistically significant at the level of significance, which indicates that the average degree of response to this statement has increased and the degree of neutrality which is 3 this means that there is approval by the respondents to this statement.

This statement is the highest score among the other statements in this section. Possibly the most help of using infer meaning is that enables them to use English language freely to know whom they have competence and ability in it.

Although infer meanings are the most difficult expressions to most of the students in their languages, it is crucial to know the meaning of the words.

Statement (4)

Students are notable to read critically the meaning of the words when they read comprehension.

Table (4.4): Students are not able to read critically the meaning of the words when they read comprehension.

Alte	rnative	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
choic	es			Percent	Percent			
Valid	Strongly agree and Agree	66	66.0	66.0			0.88	
	Neutral(No Opinion)	20	20.0	20.0	86.0	4.33		.000
	Disagree	14	14.0	14.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

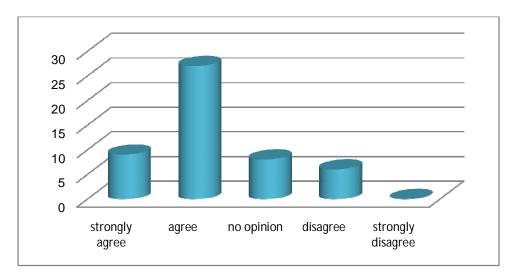


Table (4.4) above shows that most of the respondents (66%) strongly agree and agree that students are not able to read critically the meaning of the words when they read comprehension.(20%) Neutral(No Opinion) and only 14% do not agree to that. This indicates that students need to be improved and developed in reading critically. It is better to check your students comprehension was

proposed to know the teachers' estimation of the necessity to check their understanding in English . (M = 4.33, SD = 0.88), and potential value (Sig.) is equal to that 0.000 of this statement are considered statistically significant at the level of significance, which indicates that the average degree of response to this statement has increased, the degree of neutrality which is 3 this means that there is approval by the respondents to this statement.

The teachers who check students' understanding while teaching English know likely problems with critically concepts, vocabulary items – words and sentences with good structure and grammatical function.

Statement (5)

Students do not have lot lexis to understand the meaning of the words when they read comprehension.

Table (4.5): Students do not have lot lexis to understand the meaning of the words when they read comprehension.

Al	ternative	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
C	choices			Percent	Percent			
	Strongly agree and Agree	70	70.0	70.0	70.0			
Valid	Neutral(No Opinion)	15	15.0	15.0	85.0	4.16	0.96	.000
	Disagree	15	15.0	15.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

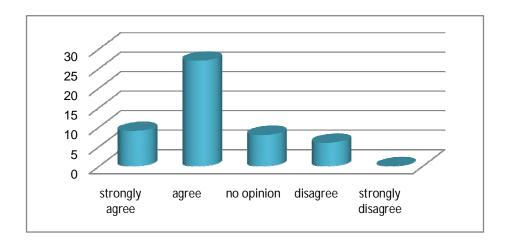


Table (4.5) above shows that a majority of the respondents (70%) Strongly agree and agree that first year students do not have lot lexis to understand the meaning of the words when they read comprehension. Whereas (15%)neutral(No Opinion) and(15%) do not agree to that. This confirms that students need to be trained and developed in how they can understand the

meaning of the words. asked the students whether remember new vocabulary of English newly introduced texts helps them to comprehend, grasp and overcome certain difficulties that remember new vocabulary of the text. (M = 4.16, SD = 0.96), and potential value (Sig.) is equal 0.000 of this statement are considered statistically significant at the level of significance, which indicates that the average degree of response to this statement has increased the degree of neutrality which is 3 this means that there is approval by the respondents to this statement.

Statement (6)

Students do not know how to scan reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.

Table (4.6): Students do not know how to scan reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.

Alte	rnative	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
choice	es			Percent	Percent			
Valid	Strongly agree and Agree	85	85.0	85.0			0.95	.000
	Neutral(No Opinion)	7	7.0	7.0	92.0	4.19		
	Disagree	8	8.0	8.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

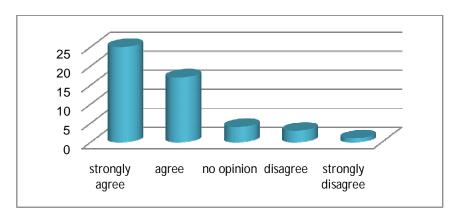


Table (4.6) above explains that a majority of the respondents (85%) strongly agree and agree that students do not know how to scan reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension. Whereas (7%) neutral(No Opinion) and only 8% do not agree to that. This confirms that students need to be trained and developed in how to scan reading comprehension. It was intended to represent teachers' judgment about if they use good presentation, phrases, and sentences is a great time saver, the understanding of English text will become better, they use presentation of topics, by PowerPoint, to understanding the English text. (M = 4.19, SD = 0.95), and potential value (Sig.) is equal 0.000 of this statement are considered statistically significant at the level of significance, which indicates that the average degree of response to this statement has increased the degree of neutrality is 3 this means that there is approval by the respondents to this statement.

Statement (7)

Students do not know how to skim reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.

Table (4.7): Students do not know how to skim reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.

Alte	rnative	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
choice	es			Percent	Percent			
	Strongly							
	agree and	73	73.0	73.0	73.0			
	Agree							
Valid	Neutral(No	10	10.0	10.0	83.0	3.86	1.06	.000
	Opinion)	10	10.0	10.0	03.0			
	Disagree	17	17.0	17.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

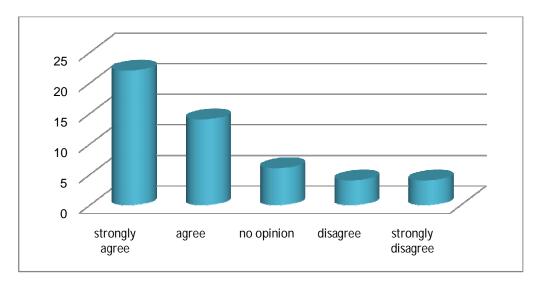


Table (4.7) above expresses that most of the respondents (73%) strongly agree and agree that students do not know how to skim reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension. Whereas (10%) Neutral(No Opinion) and(17%) do not agree to that. This indicates that students need to be

developed and improved in how to skim reading comprehension. This statement is assigned rank 5 in this section. Perhaps the greatest advantage of using how to skim reading comprehension passage when they read to comprehend the text with English and to know which structures are difficult and possibly even more importantly, which structures are easy and need very little explain. The student who uses how to skim reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension while reading text is also know potential problems with vocabulary items - words with nonequivalent. Reading text mastering two perceptive skills was intended elicit the teachers' opinion about the use of wide reading while studying English. That they use reading skills in learning English.(M = 3.86, and SD = 1.06) and potential value (.Sig) is equal to that 0.000 of this statement are considered statistically significant at the level of significance, which indicates that the average degree of response to this statement has increased the degree of neutrality which is 3, this means that there is approval by the respondents to this statement.

Statement (8)

Students do not know how to summarize reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.

Table (4.8): Students do not know how to summarize reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.

Alternative choices		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	SD	Sig.
	Strongly agree and Agree	60	60.0	60.0				
Valid	Neutral(No Opinion)	35	35.0	35.0	95.0	4.26	0.91	.000
	Disagree	5	5.0	5.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

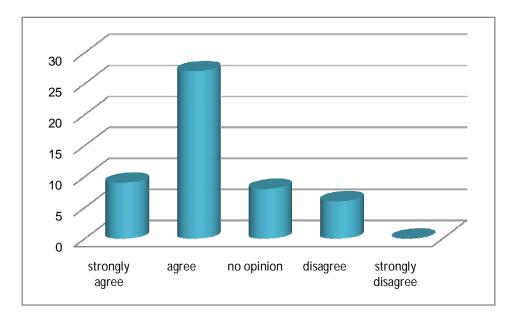


Table (4.8) above shows that majority of the respondents (60%) strongly agree and agree that students do not know how to summarize reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension. Whereas(35%) Neutral(No Opinion) and only(5%) do not agree to that. This indicates that students need to be trained and developed in how to summarizing reading comprehension. was

intended to obtain students' judgment about the need for in explaining the complicated areas in English. that they use their ability in learning English (M =4.26, and SD = 0.91).

Maybe the greatest support of summarizing reading comprehension is that it enables them to compare the synonyms word in state of text's word and to overcome the difficulty and, possibly even more importantly, which structures are easy and need paraphrase. The student who uses their own vocabulary while summarizing the paragraph is also in a situation to know probable problems in expressions and words with non-equivalents.

Section Two: First year university students give feedback when they read comprehension passage effectively.

Statement (9)

Students do not know how to paraphrase reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.

Table (4.9): Students do not know how to paraphrase reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.

Alternative		Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
choices				Percent	Percent			
Valid	Strongly agree and Agree	79	79.0	79.0		4.52	0.72	.000
	Neutral(No Opinion)	21	21.0	21.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

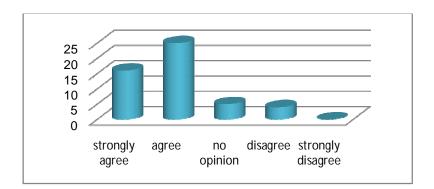


Table (4.9) above shows that most of the respondents (79%) strongly agree and agree that students do not know how to paraphrase reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension. Whereas(21%) Neutral(No Opinion) and(00%) do not agree to that. This confirms that students need wide reading to be trained and developed in how to paraphrase in reading comprehension. (M = 4.52, SD = 0.72), the average degree of response to this statement has increased the degree of neutrality which is three this means there is approval by the respondents to this statement.

Statement (10)

Students require the knowledge of the world when they read comprehension passage.

Table (10): Students require the knowledge of the world when they read comprehension passage.

Alternative		Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
choices				Percent	Percent			
Valid	Strongly agree and Agree	67	67.0	67.0	67.0	4.55	0.82	.000
	Neutral(No Opinion)	15	15.0	15.0	82.0			
	Disagree	18	18.0	18.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

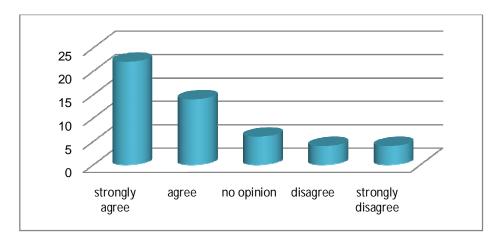


Table (4.10) above explains that a majority of the respondents (67%) strongly agree and agree that students require the knowledge of the world when they read comprehension passage.(15%) Neutral(No Opinion) and only 18% do not agree to that. This indicates that students need to be improved and developed in using the knowledge of the world. was proposed to know the teachers' estimation of

the necessity to check their understanding in English of the students about teaching vocabulary).

that they use how to analysis the word here an example of a vocabulary Log item:

Word: scar(noun, verb)

Other forms: scarred, scarring

Definition: A mark on the skin after a cut; to mark something

Sentence from the reading: "In the mirror, he saw the scars on his hands, arms and face".

Own sentence: After I cut my hand ,I had a small scar.

(M = 4.55, SD = 0.82), the average degree of response to this statement has increased the degree of neutrality which is three this means there is approval by the respondents to this statement.

Statement (11)

Students do not know how to address reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.

Table (4.11): Students do not know how to address reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.

Alternative		Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
choices				Percent	Percent			
Valid	Strongly agree and Agree	83	83.0	83.0		4.60	0.74	.000
	Neutral(No Opinion)	8	8.0	8.0	91.0			
	Disagree	9	9.0	9.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

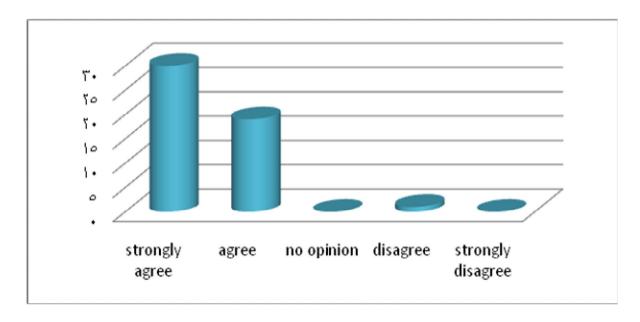


Table (4.11) above shows that most of the respondents (83%) strongly agree and agree that students do not know how to address reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension. Whereas(8%) Neutral(No Opinion) and

only(9%) do not agree to that. This indicates that students need to be trained and developed in how they can address reading comprehension passage. was intended to elicit the teachers' opinion about the Students do not know how to address reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension. (M = 4.60, and SD = 0.74). Sig=0.000 which conform the degree of neutrality which is 3 this means that there is approval by the respondents to this statement.

This statement in this section has a greatest advantage of using perceptive skills that it enables them to use reading skills in English and to know which structures are difficult and possibly even more importantly, which structures are easy and need very little attention. The students who use reading while teaching English are increase their knowledge and have ability to use the language in a real situation that appear in their performance.

Statement (12)

Students require reviewing words meanings when they read comprehension passage.

Table (4.12): Students require reviewing words meanings when they read comprehension passage.

Al	ternative	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
C	choices			Percent	Percent			
	Strongly							
	agree and	84	84.0	84.0	84.0			
	Agree							
Valid	Neutral(No	6	6.0	6.0	90.0	4.53	0.77	.000
	Opinion)	O	0.0	0.0	70.0			
	Disagree	10	10.0	10.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

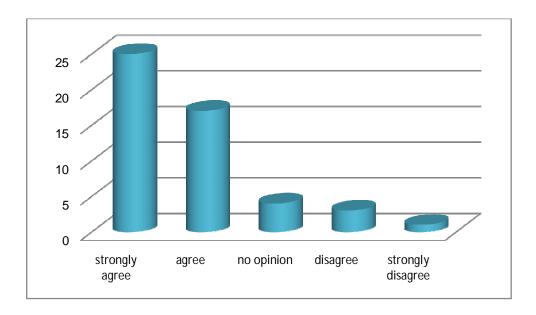


Table (4.12)) above explains that a majority of the respondents (84%) strongly agree and agree that students require reviewing words meanings when they

read comprehension passage. Whereas (6%) Neutral(No Opinion) and(10%) do not agree to that. This indicates that students need to be learned and developed in using reviewing words meanings when they read comprehension passage. It was designed to get teachers' opinion about whether students require reviewing words meanings when they read comprehension passage,

to be exploited in English language learning. They believe that help them to communicate between languages and cultures; thus, it can be used in English language learning. (M = 4.53, and SD = 0.77). Sig=0.000 which conform the degree of neutrality which is 3 this means that there is approval by the respondents to this statement.

Statement (13)

Students require the knowledge of others' culture when they read comprehension

passage.

Table (4.13): Students require the knowledge of others' culture when they read comprehension passage.

Al	ternative	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
c	choices			Percent	Percent			
	Strongly							
	agree and	89	89.0	89.0	89.0			
	Agree							
Valid	Neutral(No	3	3.0	3.0	92.0	4.23	0.91	.000
vand	Opinion)	3	3.0	3.0	92.0			
	Disagree	8	8.0	8.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

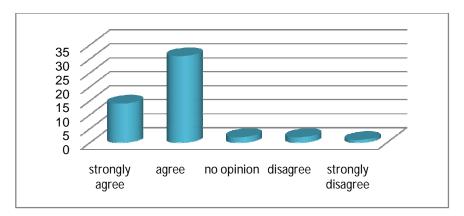


Table (4.13) above expresses that most of the respondents (89%) strongly agree and agree that students require the knowledge of others' culture when they read comprehension passage.(3%) Neutral(No Opinion) and only 8% do not agree to that. This confirms that students need to be trained and developed in knowing

others' culture when they read comprehension text. It was intended to elicit the teachers' opinion about the students require the knowledge of others' culture when they read comprehension text. (M = 4.23, and SD = 0.91). They believe that help them to communicate between languages and cultures.

This statement in this section has a greatest advantage of using reading skills as one of receptive skills that it enables them to use English language correctly and to know the knowledge of others' culture when they read comprehension text. Which structures are difference, similar and possibly even more importantly, which structures and expression are easy to comprehend.

Statement (14)

Students require understanding the discursive messages when they read comprehension passage.

Table	Table (4.14): Students require understanding the discursive messages when									
they read comprehension passage.										
Alterr	native	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Cia		
choice	es			Percent	Percent		3D	Sig.		
	Strongly agree and Agree	68	68.0	68.0	68.0					
Valid	Neutral(No Opinion)	10	10.0	10.0	78.0	4.37	0.90	.000		
	Disagree	22	22.0	22.0	100.0					
	Total	100	100.0	100.0						

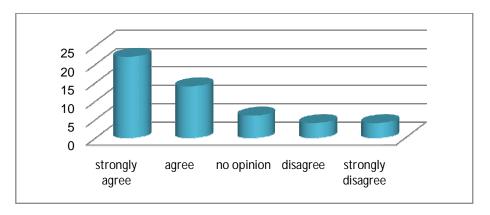


Table (4.14)) above shows that most of the respondents (68%) strongly agree and agree that students require understanding the discursive messages when they read comprehension passage. Whereas (10%) Neutral(No Opinion) and 22% do not agree to that. This indicates that students need to be trained and developed in how to understand discursive messages. was proposed to know the teachers' estimation of the necessity to practice reading skills for the students.

This statement has a greatest benefit of using reading skills as one of receptive skills that it enables them to use English language correctly and to know the students require understanding the discursive messages when they read comprehension texts. Which words are similar in the meaning, structures and expression are easy to use in their performance.

(M = 4.37, SD = 0.90), the average degree of response to this statement has increased the degree of neutrality which is three this means there is approval by the respondents to this statement.

Statement (15)

First year university students have ability to generate their own words.

Table (4.15): First year university students have ability to generate their own words.

Alteri	native	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
choic	es			Percent	Percent			
	Strongly agree and Agree	93	93.0	93.0	93.0			
	Neutral(No Opinion)	4	4.0	4.0	97.0	4.29	0.87	.000
	Disagree	3	3.0	3.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

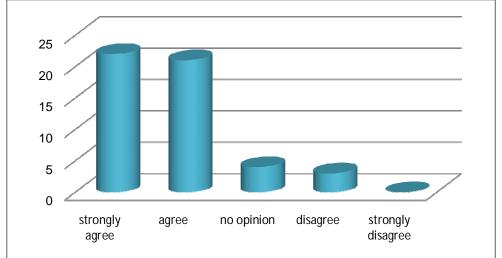


Table (4.15) above explains that a majority of the respondents (93%) strongly agree and agree that first year university students have ability to generate their own words. Whereas (4%) Neutral(No Opinion) and (3%) do not agree to that. This indicates that students need to be improved and developed in generating their own words. It was intended to elicit the teachers' opinion proposed to know the teachers' estimation of the necessity—students need to read so to

consolidate spoken language. (M = 4.29, SD = 0.87), the average degree of response to this statement has increased, the degree of neutrality which is three this means there is approval by the respondents to this statement.

Statement (16)

First year students do not provide the synonymous meaning of words.

Table (4.16): First year students do not provide the synonymous meaning of words.

Alteri	native	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
choic	es			Percent	Percent			
Valid	Strongly agree and Agree Neutral(No Opinion)				85.0 91.0	4.30	0.82	.000
	Disagree	9	9.0	9.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

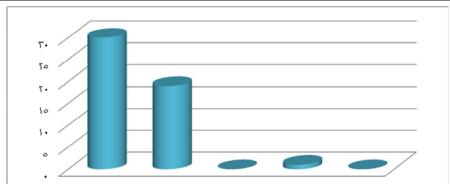


Table (4.16) above shows that most of the respondents (85%) strongly agree and agree first year students do not provide the synonymous meaning of words. Whereas (6%) Neutral(No Opinion) and (9%) do not agree to that. This indicates that students need to be developed in how they do not provide the synonymous meaning of words.

This statement has a greatest benefit of using reading skills as one of receptive skills that it enables them to use English language correctly and to know the students do not provide the synonymous meaning of words when they read comprehension texts. Which words are similar in the meaning, structures and expression are easy to use in their performance.

they use reading to learn the language (M =4.30 , SD = 0.82), the average degree of response to this statement has increased the degree of neutrality which is three this means there is approval by the respondents to t students can provide the synonymous meaning of words.

Section Three: First year university students understand contextual meaning when they read comprehension passage.

Statement (17)

First year university students cannot provide the antonymous meaning of words.

Table (4.17): First year university students do not provide the antonymous meaning of words.

Alteri	native	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
choic	es			Percent	Percent			
	Strongly agree and Agree	88	88.0	88.0	88.0		0.96	
	Neutral(No Opinion)	4	4.0	4.0	92.0	4.27		.000
	Disagree	8	8.0	8.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

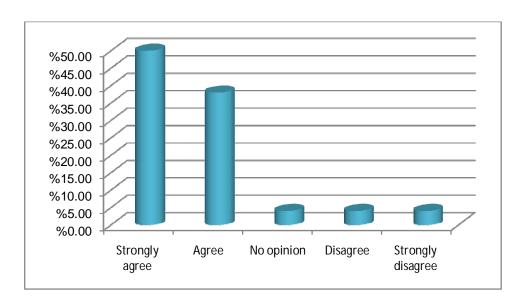


Table (4.17) above shows that most of the respondents (88%) strongly agree and agree first year students do not provide the antonymous meaning of words. Whereas (4%) neutral(No Opinion) and (8%) do not agree to that. This declares

that students need to be improved and developed in how they do not provide the antonymous meaning of words. This indicates that students need to be developed in how they do not provide the synonymous meaning of words.

This statement has a greatest benefit of using reading skills as one of receptive skills that it enables them to use English language correctly and to know the students do not provide the antonymous meaning of words. When they read comprehension texts. Which words are give opposite in meaning, to improve their performance.

they use reading to learn the language well. (M =4.27 , SD = 0.96), the average degree of response to this statement has increased the degree of neutrality which is three this means there is approval by the respondents to students can provide the antonymous meaning of words.

Statement (18)

First year university students can't decode meaning of others' culture.

Table	(4.18): Firs	t year stude	ents do r	ot deco	de meaning	g of othe	ers' cultu	re.
Alternative choices		Frequency			Cumulative Percent	Mean	SD	Sig.
Valid	Strongly agree and Agree	78	78.0	78.0	78.0			
	Neutral(No Opinion)	7	7.0	7.0	85.0	4.30	0.82	.000
	Disagree	15	15.0	15.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

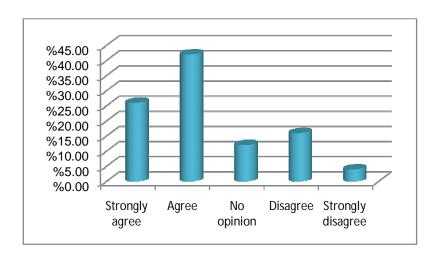


Table (4.18) above expresses that a majority of the respondents (78%) strongly agree and agree that first year university students do not decode meaning of others' culture.(7%) Neutral(No Opinion) and Only(15%) do not agree to that. This indicates that students need to be developed in decoding meaning of others' culture. This declares that students need to be improved and developed in how they can decode meaning of others' culture. This explains that students need to be developed in how they can decode meaning of others' culture.

This statement has a greatest advantages of using reading skills, that is enables them to use English language correctly and know the students decode meaning of others' culture when they read comprehension texts. Which words are use to know the meaning of others' culture, so as to improve their productive skills.

They use wide reading to learn English language well. (M = 4.30, SD = 0.82), the average degree of response to this statement has increased the degree of neutrality which is three this means there is approval by the respondents to students that do not provide the antonymous meaning of words.

Statement (19)

First year university students can't exchange others' culture.

Table	(4.19) First	year stude	nts do n	ot excha	inge others'	culture.		
Altern	native	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
choic	es			Percent	Percent			
	Strongly agree and Agree	80	80.0	80.0	80.0			
Valid	Neutral(No Opinion)	6	6.0	6.0	86.0	4.36	0.82	.000
	Disagree	14	14.0	14.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

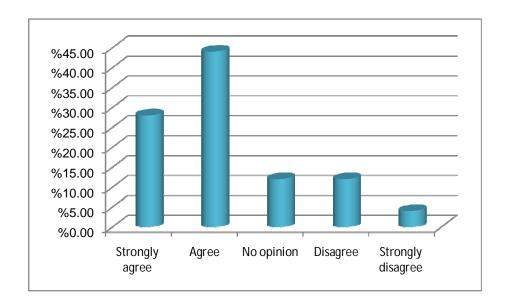


Table (4.19) above shows that most of the respondents (80%) strongly agree and agree that first year students can exchange others' culture. Whereas(6%) Neutral(No Opinion) and only 14% do not agree to that. This indicates that students need to be learned and developed in exchanging others' culture. that they use to learn the language (M = 4.36, SD = 0.82), the average degree of

response to this statement has increased the degree of neutrality which is three this means there is approval by the respondents to this statement.

This statement has a greatest advantages of using reading skills, that is enables them to use English language correctly and know the students decode meaning of others' culture when they read comprehension texts. Which words are use to know the meaning of others' culture, so as to improve their performance.

Statement (20)

First year university students can provide the synonymous meaning of words.

Table (4.20): First year students can provide the synonymous meaning of words. Frequency Percent Valid Cumulative Alternative Mean SD Sig. choices Percent Percent Strongly 86.0 agree and 86 86.0 86.0 Agree 0.72 4.63 .000 Valid Neutral (No 11 11.0 11.0 97.0 Opinion) 3 3.0 3.0 100.0 Disagree Total 100 100.0 100.0

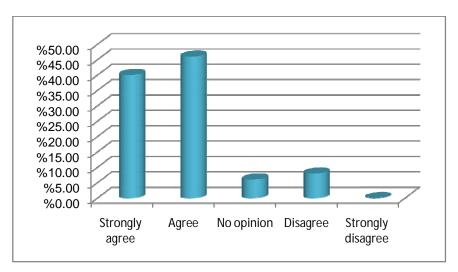


Table (4.20) above shows that a majority of the respondents (86%) strongly agree and agree that first year students can provide the synonymous meaning of words.(11%) Neutral(No Opinion) and only 3% do not agree to that. This indicates that students need to be trained and developed in providing synonymous meaning of words.

Reading text provides the synonymous meaning of words so as to be good in English writing.

they use reading text to improve writing skills, to learn the language well. (M =4.63, SD =0.72), the average degree of response to this statement has increased the degree of neutrality which is three this means there is approval by the respondents to this statement.

Statement (21)

First year university students should be given more activities in terms of reading comprehension passage.

Table (4.21): First year students should be given more activities in terms of reading comprehension passage.

Alter	native	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
choic	es			Percent	Percent			
	Strongly agree and Agree Neutral(No				82.0 91.0	4.54	1.02	.000
	Opinion) Disagree Total		11.0	11.0	100.0			

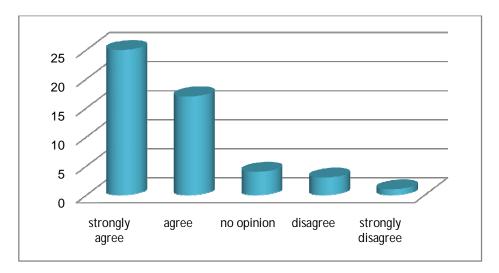


Table (4.21) above expresses that a majority of the respondents (82%)strongly agree and agree that first year university students should be given more activities in terms of reading comprehension passage. Whereas(7%) Neutral(No Opinion) and(11%) do not agree to that. This indicates that students need to be

trained and developed in giving more activities in reading comprehension text. they use reading text to improve writing skills, to learn the language well. (M = 4.54, SD = 1.02), the average degree of response to this statement has increased the degree of neutrality which is three this means there is approval by the respondents to this statement

Statement (22)

Reading comprehension passage is difficult to be understood by first year Students.

Table	(4.22): Rea	ding comp	rehensic	n passaş	ge is difficult	Mean	SD	Sig.
to be	understood l	oy first yea	r Studer	its.				
Alteri	native	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative			
choic	noices Percent Percent							
	Strongly agree and Agree Neutral(No Opinion)		86.0 10.0	86.0 10.0	86.0 96.0	3.90	1.02	.000
	Disagree	4	4.0	4.0	100.0			
	Total	100	100.0	100.0				

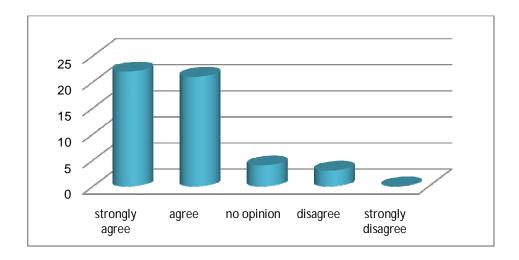


Table (4.22) above shows that most of the respondents (86%) strongly agree and agree reading comprehension passage is difficult to be understood by first year Students. Whereas (10%) Neutral(No Opinion) and only(4%) do not agree to that. This indicates that students need to be improved and developed in understanding Reading comprehension passage.

This explains that students need to be improved and developed in reading comprehension passage is difficult to be understood by first year Students.

This statement has a greatest advantages of using reading skills, that is enables them to use English language correctly when they read comprehension texts. so as to improve their receptive skills.

They use wide reading to learn English language well. (M = 3.90, SD = 1.02), the average degree of response to this statement has increased the degree of neutrality which is three this means there is approval by the respondents to students that reading comprehension passage is difficult to be understood by first year Students.

Statement (23)

Students' level should be considered in designing reading comprehension passage.

Table	(4.23): Stu	idents' leve	el shoul	ld be co	onsidered in	Mean	SD	Sig.	
design	designing reading comprehension texts.								
Alternative Frequency Percent Valid Cumulative 4.15 1.02 .000									
choices Percent Percent									
	Strongly agree and Agree	81	81.0	81.0	81.0				
Valid	Neutral(No Opinion)	7	7.0	7.0	88.0				
	Disagree	12	12.0	12.0	100.0				
	Total	100	100.0	100.0					

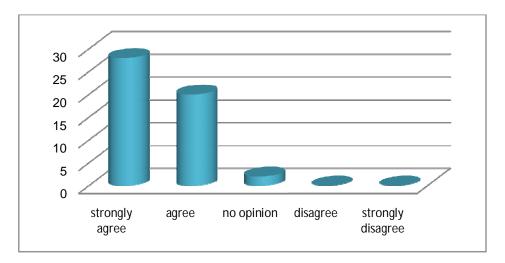


Table (4.23) above shows that a majority of the respondents (81%) Strongly agree and agree that students' level should be considered in designing reading comprehension passage. Whereas 12% do not agree to that. This indicates that students' level need to be considered in designing reading comprehension

passage (M = 4.15, SD =1.02). This explains that students need to be improved and developed in reading comprehension passage, students' level should be considered in designing reading comprehension passage.

This statement has a greatest advantages of using reading skills, that is enables them to use English language well when they read comprehension texts. so as to improve their receptive skills.

They use wide reading to learn English language well. (M = 3.90, SD = 1.02), the average degree of response to this statement has increased the degree of neutrality which is three this means there is approval by the respondents to students that reading comprehension passage is difficult to be understood by first year Students

Statement (24)

Students should have feedback in terms of reading comprehension passage.

[Table (4.24): Stu	dents shoul	d have i	feedback	in terms of	reading	g compre	ehension
passage							
Alternative	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative	Mean	SD	Sig.
choices			Percent	Percent			
Strongly					4.22	.92	.000
agree and	.89	89.0	89.0	89.0			
Agree							
Valid Neutral (No							

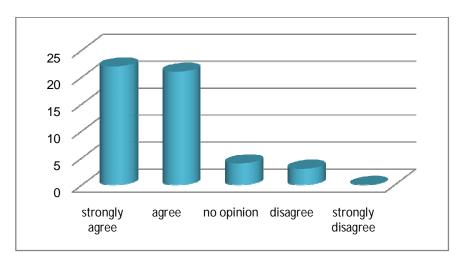


Table (4.24) above shows that a majority of the respondents (89%) Strongly agree and agree first year students should have feedback in terms of reading comprehension text. Whereas (5%) Neutral(No Opinion) and (6%) do not agree to that. This indicates that students need to be trained and developed in how they should have feedback in terms of reading comprehension text. (M = 4.22, SD = 0.97), the average degree of response to this statement has increased the degree of neutrality which is three this means—there is approval by the respondents to this statement.

4.3. The Highest and Lowest Agreement through the Teachers' responses

As seen from the above tables that statements in all sections obtained the highest mean of agreement given by the teachers. In other words, these statements scored a percentage of 82.3% agreement among the teachers. This gives evidence that the teachers of English (respondents) were in total agreement with the concept that students do not know how to read comprehension passage as well as giving feedback and understand the contextual meaning.

This indicates the evidence that the teachers have favour to understand the problematic areas of students' reading comprehension passage obstacles.

4. 3.1. The Highest and Lowest Disagreement through the Teachers' responses

Statements gave the highest disagreement and lowest percentage – with a percentage of 10.6 %. It disagrees with the idea of pleasure and benefit, which are found reading comprehension passage obstacles.

4.4. Results in Terms of the Hypotheses

The purpose of this section is to discuss the statistical results as they pertain to the hypotheses. Each hypothesis is restated and discussed the results that relate to it, is following.

In chapter one three hypotheses were addressed and in chapter three they were stated with the expected outcome of each. In this chapter, the three hypotheses are listed below with a description of the outcomes of each in a form of summary

Hypothesis 1: First year university students know how to read comprehension passage critically. by both the teacher and the learner; in other words, it is not only necessary but also an inevitable fact.

Tables 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, and 4.5, generally, for section 1 'how to read comprehension passage critically.', for both teachers and students were highly accepted by the first year students as the percentage of the agreement responses. The average mean scored by students, for section 1, was 3.83 out of a maximum mean score 5. On the other hand, the teachers' score to the first section was 3.21, which is comparatively, supported the students opinion for the use of how to read comprehension passage critically..

In summary, the use of how to read comprehension passage critically. in foreign language teaching/ learning for both teachers and students was high. Thus, hypothesis 1 is confirmed by the findings.

Hypothesis 2: First year university students give feedback when they read comprehension passage effectively in English language teaching/learning as a foreign language.

The tables and figures, in general, for section 2 of the questionnaire for teachers and test for students were highly accepted by the learners who give feedback when they read comprehension passage effectively.

They may be the type of learner that needs to relate concepts in English to give feedback. This may be their most effective way of learning vocabulary. Students feel there are clear cases, so far, where reading will facilitate their understanding of what is going on in. The average mean scored by students, for section 2 was 3.86 and the average mean scored by teachers, was 3.14 - comparatively out of a maximum mean score 5.

In summary, First year university students give feedback when they read comprehension passage effectively for foreign language teaching/learning for both teachers and students was high. Consequently, hypothesis 2 is attested by the findings.

Hypothesis 3: First year university students understand contextual meaning when they read comprehension passage.

Table 4.3 evaluated the responses of section 3 (First year university students understand contextual meaning—when they read comprehension passage). The responses agreed to four statements, they are number 20, 22, 23 and 24. Statement 24 has the highest percentage among the others. It scores a percentage of 89%. These responses reveal the students desire to be exposing most of the time to English and explain English through English. Nevertheless, this requires a careful thought by the teacher so that the vocabulary and structures used in the language of classroom management are also generally useful. Furthermore, this was supported by statement 24, which confirmed that Students should have feedback in terms of reading comprehension passage, so the use of wide reading out classroom increase the process of learning English.

Therefore, it's one of receptive skills and the main significant factors to assist students to learn English language well. It is understood that not all teachers would agree with the use of receptive skills They would say that particularly foreign language learners need as much exposure as possible to L2 input during limited class time, the only time in their daily lives when they encounter the language. On the other hand, others would say that if you only use English, you force your students to try to communicate with you in that language, giving them the opportunity to produce comprehensible output and discuss meaning.

In summary, foreign language teaching/learning for both teachers and students has its own problems. As well, exceeding use of reading comprehension in classroom may possibly be an obstruction to successful English language teaching/learning. Consequently, hypothesis 3 is maintained.

Generally, tables and figures, for all the three sections of the students 'test were highly accepted by the first year university students. The average means scored by students, for the first level were 3.9, 3.75, and 3.52, and 3.59 respectively, out of a maximum mean score 5.0. On the other hand, the mean score assigned to section two was higher than section 1, but the average mean of them all was 3.62.

Summing up, that use of reading text in foreign language teaching/learning can be affect by the level of the students, and the teacher's experience was high. That is why the findings are supporting hypothesis 3.

There is an additional reason, which advises caution as regards the use of L2. Learners tend to rely on their accessible language knowledge to understand the logic and organization principles behind the target language. Uncritical use of L1 in the classroom (particularly in terms of reading comprehension) will strengthen this tendency. use needs to be handled with care exactly because it influences the learning process, as it seems that learners tend to treat it as the understandable starting point when learning a new language, and is a popular communication strategy (Ellis, 1985: 180-189).

4.5. The Responses to the Test:

The responses to the test of the 50 students were tabulated and computed.

The following is an analytical interpretation and discussion of the findings regarding different points related to the objectives and hypotheses of the study.

Each question in the test has ten marks, analyzed statistically and discussed. The following table will support the discussion.

4.5.1. Analysis of Students' Test:

Questions	Question One		Question Two		Question Three		Question Four		Question Five	
50	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive
Frequencies	35	15	38	12	40	10	39	11	42	8
Percentages	70%	30%	76%	24%	80%	20%	78%	22%	84%	16%

Question One

The table above illustrates the percentage and frequency of the answers of the study sample that concern with the questions and shows that most of the sample answers were negative, which are represented by the percentage (70%). This justifies that students need to be trained and developed in how they can infer meanings of the words.

Question Two

The table above illustrates the percentage and frequency of the answers of the study sample that concern with the questions and shows that most of the sample answers were non-past which are represented by the percentage (76%). This justifies that students need to be trained and developed in how they can scan the passage to answer questions.

Question Three

The table above illustrates the percentage and frequency of the answers of the study sample that concern with the questions and shows that most of the sample answers were non-past which are represented by the percentage (80%). This justifies that students need to be trained and developed in how they can summarize the passage.

Question Four

The table above illustrates the percentage and frequency of the answers of the study sample that concern with the questions and shows that most of the sample answers were non-past which are represented by the percentage (78%). This justifies that students need to be trained and developed in how they can understand words that have cultural meaning.

Question Five

The table above illustrate the percentage and frequency of the answers of the study sample that concern with the questions and shows that most of the sample answers were non-past which are represented by the percentage (84%). This justifies that students need to be trained and developed in how they can understand the discursive meaning of the passage.

The use of English in the real situation is normal, unlike the artificial use in the classroom

Lack of knowledge of vocabulary leads to weakness in communications.

Replies which amounts to significant differences between the level is as follows

When I was studying English, and encourage students to read and listen to input the language they will improve in their performance.

The first level students scored the highest score (M = 4.90)

This means that first-year students use reading to learn English. This confirms the hypothesis, which claims to be determined by the level of students' use the language in their performance.

Reading is essential to understand English texts

This remarkable statement to look too, because it has achieved the mean scores of the first level.

This underscores the need for wide reading as it was seen that the level of the highest scores, but the first level students more aware of the culture of English speaking people are or may be faced with a large number of expressions that make the issue familiar to them to acquire reading power. Reading power understanding necessary to learn English

This is the third item that shows the differences between students and teachers scored first-level university students with higher grades than the Average score first level is 4.15, while the average for teachers 3.90. On the assumption that the higher level decreased . The need to use reading to learn English as a foreign language, and vice versa, and once again confirm

read English texts and reading dilated modern technical way to encourage students to understand and overcome some of the difficulties.

This is normal in the Foreign Language Teaching, learning involves students' activity in one form or another by both the teacher and the learner, which is not only needed but also the fact predictable..

Use reading comprehension of words and phrases and sentences often have a great time saver in the understanding of the English text

This statement is achieved 4.20, 3.90 and averages across students and teachers respectively. Interpretation goes in the same way as in teachers. This is typical of the scale, the higher the lowest level, taking advantage of reading in learning English as a foreign language. The first level students still confirm the assumption assumes an effective way and facilitation in English Language Teaching / learning as a foreign language.

The needing for reading explain the difficult areas in the English language.

The majority of respondents also confirmed this in the other three levels except the third one. The mean scores on the first levels are: 4.39, 4.30, respectively. Although that is expected to give higher than agree with the need for reading rate. It is illogical to claim that the first-level students more aware of using reading to learn English. In any case, it gives evidence of the need for the expansion of the reading.

Consideration and parity to a new item in the monolingual dictionary makes it easy to find meaning as much as possible, the mean scores varied apparently the highest score average level one express the hypothesis, which says:

First year university students know how to read comprehension passage critically.

First year university students give feedback when they read comprehension passage effectively.

Reading is an effective means of easing in English Language Teaching / learning as a foreign language

Students level can affect the reading in ELT / English Language Learners practiced reading in English, may improve their English much better.

The solution of reading, more exercises enable them to facilitate the

Difficulties encountered them and improve their competence in reading skills. Whenever multiplied in reading, the proportion of increasing learn English.

The result is achieved by means of students the first level, score low degree in reading

4.6. Reading skills improve speaking and writing skills

This is true for all of have their reading habit and there is a relationship in the EFL classroom, but what is amazing is the average low grades obtained by the level in another way where are the other replies to this hypothesis is certainly not to act on this statement. Proof they are unaware of the teaching methods as well as English as a foreign language

As it can be seen from the tables and figures presented above, and the need to learn is to read in English was highly rated by the first-year university student's, where the percentage of replies agree log as follow.

The proportion of the difference, on the other hand, was lower in the first year, gradually grew larger. But different in the teachers.

The results of the second category reflected, more or less, have the same importance that found in the first section, any supported reading in English Language Learners effective as a means of input as a receptive skills.

And it has the approval of the "reading problems," which of the participating students in the first year, however, the response of the high proportion of students.

4.7. Chapter Summary

To sum up, the findings of this chapter revealed that all sections justify 'the Need for reading skills' was highly rated by the first level students.

We can say there was a consensus of opinions in favor of the reading comprehension passage, giving feedback and understanding contextual meaning. The neutral responses, however, show irregularity and unexpected and unexplainable instability of the respondents' uncertainly in the all hypotheses.

The responses to all statements in terms of reading skills. All statements are positive in these sections were either strongly agreed to or only agreed to.

The percentages of the negative responses were less significant for the students, but higher for the teachers.

All teachers agreed to the all statements of the sections "reading skills". The undecided responses, however, showed small differences.

The majority of the respondents were in favor of the need for the reading skills. A very large majority of the respondents agreed on:

- a. the importance of helping the learner to acquire reading skills;
- b. the fact that reading skills increases awareness of students' inferring meaning of words;
- c. the urgent need for reading skillsespecially for explaining and understanding of the difficult areas in English;
- d. necessity that their English teachers know their reading skills ablities.

When the students' responses were compared among themselves, no statistical significant differences were perceivable which stated that the students have no opportunity for reading skills. However, the teachers confirm that reading skills should be one of the main mediam of improving students' performance, they were in favor of the use of reading skills in teaching the target language so as to reach the maximum efficiency in understanding reading comprehension passages.

This means that first-year students must be used reading to learn English better. This confirms the hypothesis, which claims to be determined by the level of students' use the language in their performance

Reading is essential to understand English texts . This remarkable statement to look too, because it has achieved the mean scores of the first level

This underscores need for wide reading as it was seen that the level of the highest scores, but the first level students must be more aware of English language culture, they faced a large number of expressions that make the issue familiar to them to acquire reading power. It emerged from the figures and tables that the sum of the percentages of the total answers given by both teachers and students, and gives evidence that the high level of the students, the lower they are used to read in English Language Learners, and lower their level was, and it was the highest they believe in it also total percentages of agreements proves this fact

Total percentages stressed the importance of reading the higher level of the students, was improvement in language.

Results of responses showed the importance of reading for students to learn the language well after listening skills, enabling them to estimated output language. The students were more in favor of the use of reading for English Language Learners.

Chapter Five

CHAPTER FIVE

Conclusion

5.1 Conclusions

The scholars have seen that learning to read is not like learning to speak. The human brain is hard wired to learn spoken language, and it is therefore a naturally occurring process. Typically, simply exposing hearing students to spoken language allows them to acquire and produce speech. Learning to read, however, is not "natural" for students. It has to be explicitly taught; exposure to text and print is not enough for the majority of the population. In 1997, the National Reading Panel

(NRP) was established in order to assess the status of research-based knowledge, including the effectiveness of various approaches to teaching students to read. The NRP identified five components to reading instruction that are essential for a student to learn to read. These five components are also referenced in IDEA 2004 and the Federal Regulations. The five essential components are phonemic awareness, phonics, reading fluency, comprehension, and vocabulary. For most of the student population identified with learning disabilities, a breakdown occurs in their basic reading skill (BRS). BRS difficulty includes problems with phonemic awareness and/or phonics. That is, students struggle to identify individual sounds and manipulate them, to identify printed letters and the sounds associated with those letters, or to decode written language. It is also typical for these students to struggle with spelling or encoding. However, it should be noted that not all students with encoding difficulties have BRS difficulties. The ability to understand letters and the sounds they represent is a prerequisite skill for reading comprehension. While many people think that learning phonics is something students should learn in kindergarten and 1st grade, many students do not, particularly if phonics has not been taught systematically and explicitly. Difficulty in decoding words impacts

the ability to comprehend text and may be misidentified as a disability in the area of reading comprehension. Therefore, educators should carefully plan how they will assess a student's reading abilities. At the kindergarten and first grade level, it is best to assess whether students can identify letters, as well as consonant and short vowel sounds, through teacher-made or formal assessment. The researcher has seen that students do not able to understand the direct meaning of the words when they read comprehension. The researcher has demonstrated that students do not able to understand the indirect meaning of the and they do not able to infer meaning of the words when they read words comprehension. The researcher has justified that they do not able to read critically the meaning of the words as well as they do not know how to scan reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension. Related, she has claimed that they do not know how to skim and scan reading comprehension passage. The researcher has stated that they do not know how to summarize and paraphrase reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension. The researcher has stated that they require knowledge of grammar and the knowledge of the world when they read comprehension passage. The researcher has stated that they require the knowledge of others' as well as they require understanding the discursive messages when they read comprehension passage.

Finally, the researcher hopes that students should infer text meaning when they read critically. They should have positive attitude towards others' culture and should be adopted and adapted others' culture. The researcher has stated that they should know how to summarize and paraphrase reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension. The researcher has stated that they shouldrequire knowledge of grammar and the knowledge of the world when they read comprehension passage. She has stated that they should require the knowledge of others' culture—as well as they should require understanding the discursive messages when they read comprehension passage.

5.2. Summary of Findings

The researcher has come out with the following findings:

- 1. Students do not able to understand the direct meaning of the words when they read comprehension.
- 2. Students do not able to understand the indirect meaning of the words when they read comprehension.
- 3. Students do not able to infer meaning of the words when they read comprehension.
- 4. Students do not able to read critically the meaning of the words when they read comprehension.
- 5. Students do not know how to scan reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.
- 6. Students do not know how to skim reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.
- 7. Students do not know how to summarize reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.
- 8. Students do not know how to paraphrase reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.
- 9. Students require the knowledge of the world when they read comprehension passage.
- 10.Students require the knowledge of grammar when they read comprehension passage.
- 11.Students require the knowledge of others' culture when they read comprehension passage.
- 12.Students require understanding the discursive messages when they read comprehension passage.

5.3 Pedagogical implications:

These findings suggest several courses of reading comprehension texts ,Teaching depend on the practical side as well as the theoretical side to develop reading skills.

5.4. Recommendations

The researcher has come out with the following recommendations:

- 1. Students should be trained in how they can infer meanings of the words when they read comprehension.
- 2. Students should be trained in how they can read critically the meaning of the words when they read comprehension.
- 3. Students should be trained in how they can skim and scan reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.
- 4. Students should be trained in how they can summarize and paraphrase reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.
- 5. Students should be required the knowledge of grammar as well as the knowledge of world when they read comprehension passage.
- 6. Students should require the knowledge of others' culture when they read comprehension passage.
- 7. Students should understand the discursive messages when they read comprehension passage.

5.5. Suggestions for further studies:

The following topics can be investigated in future studies:

- -Problems inhibiting interaction in teaching reading skill at universities.
- -The impact of motivation in teaching reading skill at universities.
- -The assessment of reading comprehension passages in overcrowded classes at universities.
- The four skills should be taught integrated together in English language to achieve perceptive skills

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Appendix

Appendix (A)

Teachers' Questionnaire

Your answer to this questionnaire will be treated confidentially and will be used for research purpose only. Thank you for your co-operation. Please tick one of these options $(\sqrt{})$ which represents your point of view

Section One: First year university students know how to read comprehension passage critically.

No	Statements	Strongl y agree	Agree	Neutral (No Opinion)	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Students are not able to understand the direct meaning of the words when they read comprehension.					
2	Students are not able to understand the indirect meaning of the words when they read comprehension.					
3	Students are not able to infer meaning of the words when they read comprehension.					
4	Students are not able to read critically the meaning of the words when they read comprehension.					
5	Students do not have lot lexis to understand the meaning of the words when they read comprehension.					
6	Students do not know how to scan reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.					
7	Students do not know how to skim reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.					
8	Students do not know how to summarize reading comprehension passage when they read comprehension.					

Section Two: First year university students give feedback when they read comprehension passage effectively.

1	Students do not know how to			
	paraphrase reading			
	comprehension passage when			
	they read comprehension.			
2	Students require the knowledge			
	of the world when they read			
	comprehension passage.			
3	Students do not know how to			
	address reading comprehension			
	passage when they read			
	comprehension.			
4	Students require reviewing			
	words meaning when they read			
	comprehension passage.			
5	Students require the knowledge			
	of others' culture when they			
	read comprehension passage.			
6	Students require understanding			
	the discursive messages when			
	they read comprehension			
	passage.			
7	First year university students			
	have ability to generate their			
	own words.			
8	First year students can't provide			
	the synonymous meaning of			
	words.			

Section Three: First year university students understand contextual meaning when they read comprehension passage.

1	First year university students can't			
	provide the antonymous meaning			
	of words.			
2	First year university students can't			
	decode meaning of others' culture.			
3	First year university students can't			
	exchange others' culture.			
4	First year students can provide the			
	synonymous meaning of words.			
5	First year university students			
	should be given more activities in			
	terms of reading comprehension			
	passage.			
	Reading comprehension passage is			
6	difficult to be understood by first			
	year university students.			
7	Students' level should be			
	considered in designing reading			
	comprehension passage.			
8	Students should have feedback in			
	terms of reading comprehension			
	passage.			

Appendix (B)

Sudan University of Science & Technology Faculty of Education- First level Year 2014\2015

Students' Test

Read the passage below and then answer the following questions.

In the 16th century, an age of great marine and terrestrial exploration, Ferdinand Magellan led the first expedition to sail to sail around the world. As a young Portuguese noble, he served the king of Portugal, but he became involved in the quagmire of political intrigue at court and lost the king's favor. After he was dismissed from service by the king of Portugal, he offered to serve the future Emperor Charles V of Spain.

A papal decree of 1493 had assigned all land in the New World west of 50 degrees W longitude to Spain and all the land east of that line to Portugal. Magellan offered to prove that the East Indies fell under Spanish authority on September 20, 1519. Magellan set sail from Spain with five ships. More than a year later, one these ships was exploring the topography of South America in search of a water route across the continent. This ship sank, but the remaining four ships searched along the Southern peninsula of South America. Finally they found the passage they found the passage they sought near 50 degrees S latitude. Magellan named this passage the Strait of All Saints, but today it is known as the Strait of Magellan.

One ship deserted while in this passage and returned to Spain, so fewer sailors were privilege to gaze at the panorama of the Pacific Ocean. Those who remained crossed the meridian now known as the International Date Line in the early spring of 1521 after 98 days on the Pacific Ocean. During those long days at sea, many of Magellan's men died of starvation and disease.

Later, Magellan became involved in an insular conflict in the Philippines and was killed in a tribal battle. Only one ship and 17 sailors under the command of the Basque navigator Elcano survived to complete the westward journey to Spain and thus prove once and for all that the world is round, with no precipice at the edge.

Question 1:

Put a circle around the correct answer.

- 1- The 16th century was an age of great..... exploration.
- A. CosmicB. LandC. mental D. common manE. None of the above
- 2- Magellan lost the favor of the king of Portugal when he became involved in a political.....

A. EntanglementB. discussionC. negotiation D. problemE. None of the above
3. The Pope divided New World lands between Spain and Portugal according to their location on one side or the other of the imaginary geographical line 50 degree west of Greenwich that extends in a direction.
A. north and southB. crosswiseC. easterly D. southwestE. north and west
4- One of Magellan's ships explored the South America for a passage across the continent.
A. CoastlineB. mountain rangeC. physical featureD. islandsE. None of the above
5- Four of the ships sought a passage along southern
A. coastB. inlandC. body of land with water on three sides D. borderE. answers not available
Question 2:
Read the passage above and answer the following questions.
1- When had a papal decree assigned all land in the New World?
2- Where was Magellan killed?
3- How did many of Magellan's men die?
4- Who led the first the expedition to sail round the world?
5- How many sailors survived the tribal battle in Philippines?

Question 3:

Summarize the following passage in not less than (15) words as stated above.

One ship deserted while in this passage and returned to Spain, so fewer sailors

remained crossed the meridian now known as the International Date Line in the early spring of 1521 after 98 days on the Pacific Ocean. During those long day at sea, many of Magellan's men died of starvation and disease.
····
•••

Question 4:

Paraphrase the meaning of the following paragraph as stated in the passage above.

Later, Magellan became involved in an insular conflict in the Philippines and was killed in a tribal battle. Only one ship and 17 sailors under the command of the Basque navigator Elcano survived to complete the westward journey to Spain and thus prove once and for all that the world is round, with no precipice at the edge.

Question 5:
What are the discursive meanings of the following words?
1. Terrestrial:
2. Favor:
3. Offered:
4. Prove:
5. Exploring:

Total(50 marks)

Good Luck

Ahmed Mohame Sudan University of Science & Technology

Faculty of Education Formation From The Property of Education From Th

Read the passage below and then answer the following questions.

In the 16th century, an age of great marine and terrestrial exploration, Ferdinand Magellan led the first expedition to sail to sail around the world. As a young Portuguese noble, he served the king of Portugal, but he became involved in the quagmire of political intrigue at court and lost the king's favor. After he was dismissed from service by the king of Portugal, he offered to serve the future Emperor Charles V of Spain.

A papal decree of 1493 had assigned all land in the New World west of 50 degrees W longitude to Spain and all the land east of that line to Portugal. Magellan offered to prove that the East Indies fell under Spanish authority on September 20, 1519. Magellan set sail from Spain with five ships. More than a year later, one these ships was exploring the topography of South America in search of a water route across the continent. This ship sank, but the remaining four ships searched along the Southern peninsula of South America. Finally they found the passage they found the passage they sought near 50 degrees S latitude. Magellan named this passage the Strait of All Saints, but today it is known as the Strait of Magellan.

One ship deserted while in this passage and returned to Spain, so fewer sailors were privilege to gaze at the panorama of the Pacific Ocean. Those who remained crossed the meridian now known as the International Date Line in the early spring of 1521 after 98 days on the Pacific Ocean. During those long days at sea, many of Magellan's men died of starvation and disease.

Later, Magellan became involved in an insular conflict in the Philippines and was killed in a tribal battle. Only one ship and 17 sailors under the command of the Basque navigator Elcano survived to complete the westward journey to Spain and thus prove once and for all that the world is round, with no precipice at the edge.

Question 1:

Put a circle around the correct answer.

- 1-The 16th century was an age of great..... exploration.
- A. Cosmic Bland C. mental D. common man E. None of the above
- 2- Magellan lost the favor of the king of Portugal when he became involved in a political.....
- A. Entanglement B. discussion C. negotiation D. problem E. None of the above
- 3. The Pope divided New World lands between Spain and Portugal according to their location on one side or the other of the imaginary geographical line 50 degree west of Greenwich that extends in a direction.
- A. north and south B. crosswise C. easterly D. southwest (E) north and west

4- One of Magellan's ships explored the South America for a passage across the continent.
A. Coastline B. mountain range physical feature D. islands E. None of the above
5- Four of the ships sought a passage along southern
A. coast B. inland C. body of land with water on three sides D. border E answers not available
Question 2:
Read the passage above and answer the following questions.
1- When had a papal decree assigned all land in the New World?
2- Where was Magellan killed?
Heis portugal
3- How did many of Magellan's men die?
IN Seed
4- Who led the first the expedition to sail round the world?
-
5- How many sailors survived the tribal battle in Philippines?
17/
Question 3:
Summarize the following passage in not less than (15) words as stated above.
One ship deserted while in this passage and returned to Spain, so fewer sailors were privilege to gaze at the panorama of the Pacific Ocean. Those who remained crossed the meridian now known as the International Date Line in the early spring of 1521 after 98 days on the Pacific Ocean. During those long days at sea, many of Magellan's men died of starvation and disease.
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Paraphrase the meaning of the following paragraph as stated in the passage

Later, Magellan became involved in an insular conflict in the Philippines and was killed in a tribal battle. Only one ship and 17 sailors under the command of the Basque navigator Elcano survived to complete the westward journey to Spain and thus prove once and for all that the world is round, with no precipice at the edge.

This	story abut pop age wan	
	(†)	

Question 5:

What are the discursive meanings of the following words?

1.	Terrestrial:
	Favor:
3.	Offered San Ol
4	Prove: Sign Sto Fixone
	TAP FAM



Sudan University of Science & Technology

Faculty of Education-First level Year 2014/2015 Students' 1 est

Arwa Bakhit Almacan

Read the passage below and then answer the following questions.

In the 16th century, an age of great marine and terrestrial exploration, Ferdinand Magellan led the first expedition to sail to sail around the world. As a young Portuguese noble, he served the king of Portugal, but he became involved in the quagmire of political intrigue at court and lost the king's favor. After he was dismissed from service by the king of Portugal, he offered to serve the future Emperor Charles V of Spain.

A papal decree of 1493 had assigned all land in the New World west of 50 degrees W longitude to Spain and all the land east of that line to Portugal. Magellan offered to prove that the East Indies fell under Spanish authority on September 20, 1519. Magellan set sail from Spain with five ships. More than a year later, one these ships was exploring the topography of South America in search of a water route across the continent. This ship sank, but the remaining four ships searched along the Southern peninsula of South America. Finally they found the passage they found the passage they sought near 50 degrees S latitude. Magellan named this passage the Strait of All Saints, but today it is known as the Strait of Magellan.

One ship deserted while in this passage and returned to Spain, so fewer sailors were privilege to gaze at the panorama of the Pacific Ocean. Those who remained crossed the meridian now known as the International Date Line in the early spring of 1521 after 98 days on the Pacific Ocean. During those long days at sea, many of Magellan's men died of starvation and disease.

Later, Magellan became involved in an insular conflict in the Philippines and was killed in a tribal battle. Only one ship and 17 sailors under the command of the Basque navigator Elcano survived to complete the westward journey to Spain and thus prove once and for all that the world is round, with no precipice at the edge.

Question 1:

Put a circle around the correct answer.

- 1-The 16th century was an age of great..... exploration.
- A. Cosmic Bland C. mental D. common man E. None of the above
- 2- Magellan lost the favor of the king of Portugal when he became involved in a political.....
- A. Entanglement B. discussion C. negotiation D. problem E. None of the above
- 3. The Pope divided New World lands between Spain and Portugal according to their location on one side or the other of the imaginary geographical line 50 degree west of Greenwich that extends in a direction.
- A. north and south B. crosswise C. easterly D. southwest E north and west

4- One of Magellan's ships explored the South America for a passage across the continent.
A. Coastline B. mountain range physical feature D. islands E. None of the above
5- Four of the ships sought a passage along southern
A. coast B. inland C. body of land with water on three sides D. border E. answers not available
Question 2:
Read the passage above and answer the following questions.
1- When had a papal decree assigned all land in the New World?
2- Where was Magellan killed?
Portugo L
3- How did many of Magellan's men die? men died of Starvationan à disease.
4- Who led the first the expedition to sail round the world? Fer dinand Magallan.
5- How many sailors survived the tribal battle in Philippines?
Question 3:
Summarize the following passage in not less than (15) words as stated above.
One ship deserted while in this passage and returned to Spain, so fewer sailors were privilege to gaze at the panorama of the Pacific Ocean. Those who remained crossed the meridian now known as the International Date Line in the early spring of 1521 after 98 days on the Pacific Ocean. During those long days at sea, many of Magellan's men died of starvation and disease.
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Question 4:

Paraphrase the meaning of the following paragraph as stated in the passage above.

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Question 5:

What are the discursive meanings of the following words?

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2.	Favor: Sevy, ce
3	Offered.
4.	Prove: Support Justificat
5.	Exploring: 0.3 cover 8

Sudan University of Science & Technology

Faculty of Education-First level Year 2014\2015 Students' Test

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2. Favor: 500 V.C.Q. 3. Offered:

4. Prove: 6 be 8 0.00

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Sudan University of Science & Technology

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Students' Test

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