Durham E-Theses

The Transferability of Reading Strategies between L1 (Arabic) and L2 (English)

GHUMA, MASOUD,A,MOH

How to cite:

Use policy

The Transferability of Reading Strategies between L1 (Arabic) and L2 (English)

A Thesis Submitted to the University of Durham for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

By

Masoud Aboulgasim Ghuma

University of Durham

School of Education

2011

Acknowledgement

First of all, I am indebted to my family for their support and encouragement during this work, and to my country, Libya, for sponsoring my expenses throughout the period of the study.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to Dr Sue Beverton and Dr Beth Howell for their patience, guidance, and helpful comments during my study. Dr Beverton helped me get into the right path whenever I strayed. Dr Howell took care of my assignments. Although sometimes they were busy, they were available when I needed help. In short, without their guiding suggestions, this thesis would not have reached this final form.

Also I would like to thank the PhD secretary in the School of Education, Miss Anita Shepherd. Before and after getting the offer she promptly answered my queries. She was the right link to all university offices.

Finally, I appreciate the help provided by all the employees, the librarians and IT officers.

Abbreviations

The following abbreviations are used in the thesis.

EFL: English as a foreign language

ESL: English as a second language

FL: Foreign language

L1: First language

L2: Target language

SL: Second language

S1: First subject in Sabratah College

S2: Second subject in Sabratah College

S3 Third subject in Sabratah College

S8: Eighth subject in Sabratah College

Y1: First subject in Yefrin College

Y2: Second subject in Yefrin College

Y30: Thirtieth subject in Yefrin College

Y37: Thirty seventh subject in Yefrin College

Z2: Second subject in Zawia College

Z54: Fifty fourth subject in Zawia College

Z55: Fifty fifth subject in Zawia College

Z56: Fifty sixth subject in Zawia College

Abstract

Relationships between learners' languages were usually studied in the form of tracing transfer of linguistic items from one language to the other. This study explored the Libyans university students' transferability of reading strategies from the first language (Arabic) to the foreign language (English) and vice versa.

In a foreign language environment, textbooks are usually the only medium for practising reading in that language. Reading textbooks prescribed in Basic Education and Secondary Education were explored to highlight the reading strategies the students practised and to answer the following research questions: (1) What reading strategies are presented in first language (L1) reading textbooks and in English as foreign language (L2) reading textbooks? Are there any differences in the reading strategies introduced in L1 reading textbooks and L2 reading textbooks? Results of comparing the strategies addressed in L1 and L2 reading textbooks indicated that some of the strategies were presented in one language's reading textbooks rather than in those of the other language.

Based on textbook analyses, two Cloze tests (one in Arabic and the other in English) were developed and administered to first year university students in three colleges in North West Libya. These tests were used to define good and poor readers and used as a basis for providing a reading environment in which they might use their reading strategies.

In each college, and after defining good and poor achievers in the Cloze test, two subjects from each group were interviewed. These interviewees were selected through stratified sampling and random sampling, respectively. The first group of interview questions investigated the reading strategies used during the Cloze tests while the second group sought to examine the reading strategies mentioned by the subjects in suggested reading situations based on the data collected from the textbooks. This procedure was carried out to answer the following research questions: What reading strategies does a representative sample of first year university students use in L1 reading and in L2 reading? Do the participants transfer any reading strategies (presented in the textbooks) from L1 to L2 or vice versa? If yes, what L1 reading strategies do good and poor readers transfer to L2 reading comprehension? And what L2 reading strategies do good and poor readers transfer to L1 reading

comprehension?

Results from the interviews indicated that good and poor readers alike transferred certain reading strategies between the two languages (Arabic and English). These strategies were mainly local, i.e. relevant to single words and sentences. However, some strategies were transferred only by good readers. These strategies were holistic i.e. they required awareness and account of the discourse.

These results indicate that transferability is affected not only by readers' ability but also by the kind of strategy he or she uses, i.e. whether it is local or universal. Moreover, it can be concluded that textbooks are not the only source of learning reading strategies.

This study suggests there may be a far wider potential than within one country where more than one language are learned for reviewing reading strategies, implicit or intentional, in L2 textbooks and the extent to which learners are able to respond to them.

Table of contents

List of Tables

List of figures

xi

Chapter 1 Introduction

This introductory chapter provides an overview of the thesis. The first section presents the rationale of the study. The second section highlights the scope of the study. Difficulties and limitations are presented in section four and the final section outlines thesis' chapters of the study.

1.1 Rationale for the study

In a foreign language environment, target language (L2) use is usually restricted to the classroom. In such environments, exams are generally the main concern of both the teachers and the students, and reading and writing become more important than listening and speaking.

Because every language has its own linguistic features, phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic, language learning research has developed various types of comparison and contrast between these linguistic components in the first language (L1) and in the (L2). Through his work 'Linguistics Across Cultures' (1957), Lado was the first to propose contrasting L1 and L2 in order to identify L2 areas that may constitute difficulty. The extent of the differences and similarity between L1 and L2 affects either positively or negatively the manner of language learning (Jarvis and Pavlenko, 2008, p 176; Matras, 2009, p 72). Differences and similarities between languages can also affect the kind of the reading strategies being used: while the features of some languages foster bottom-up processing others entail top-down procedure (Abbott, 2006; Parry, 1996). Moreover, language characteristics are not the only factor that affects the kind of reading strategies used; a reader's mastery of each language and background knowledge of reading also have roles to play (Hamada and Koda, 2008; Tzeng and Wang, 1983). In reading, textbooks are among the sources that help build the background knowledge.

Investigating and comparing reading strategies in two languages with reference to textbooks is a matter of tracing the transfer of learning. Many approaches have been used to account for this transfer, such as the formal/ mental discipline approach, the behavioural approach, and the cognitive approach (Leberman et al., 2006). While the formal/ mental discipline approach emphasises the importance of training the faculties of the mind, and the behavioural approach interprets learning in the form of stimulus-response, the cognitive

approach explores mental processes (strategies). Because strategic and procedural processes were traced and compared, the cognitive approach was used in this research.

Some researchers have pointed out that in order to transfer the L1 reading experience to L2 reading, a certain level of reading ability in L2 needs to be achieved (known as the Linguistic Threshold Hypothesis; Cummins, 1979; Clarke, 1980). Some evidence supporting this hypothesis was put forward by researchers such as Davis and Bistodeau, 1993; Bernhardt and Kamil, 1995; and Lee and Schallert 1997. On the other hand, other researchers noted that transferability could occur in early stages of L2 reading if the learner has sufficient L1 proficiency, i.e. no need to attain certain L2 reading ability (known as Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis) (Block, 1986; Cummins, 1979; Hudson, 1982).

Although the previous studies consulted by the researcher addressed the issue of transferability, none studied the transferability of reading strategies presented in reading textbooks, which are valuable source for building of reading skills. Moreover, these studies were not conducted in the Libyan environment, which represents contexts in which L1 is Arabic and English is an FL. Moreover this context has its own features that are different from the above- mentioned studies (see chapter 3 below)

1.2 Scope of the study

This thesis traces the relationship between L1 and L2 reading strategies in terms of learners' transferability from one language to the other of the reading strategies, presented in the Arabic reading textbooks and the English reading textbooks. This aim was achieved by sequential steps: defining the strategies presented in L1 and L2 reading textbooks (textbook analysis), identifying good and poor readers (Cloze tests), and finally tracing the transferability of reading strategies (interviews). These steps were guided by the following research questions:

1) What reading strategies are presented in L1 reading textbooks and in L2 reading textbooks?

2) Are there any differences in the reading strategies in L1 reading textbooks and L2 reading textbooks?

3) What reading strategies does a representative sample of first year university students use in an L1 reading test and in an L2 reading test?

4) Do the participants transfer any reading strategies from L1 to L2 or vice versa? If so, what L1 reading strategies do good readers and poor readers transfer to L2 reading, and what L2 reading strategies do they transfer to L1 reading comprehension?

1.3 **Research outline**

Chapter I is an introductory chapter. It gives the reader a brief outline of the whole thesis and its structure. It provides the rationale for the study, the scope of the study, a summary of the findings and the research outline.

Chapter II sheds light on the context of the study, Libya. An overview of the education system in Libya and details about (Arabic) L1 and (English) L2 courses are presented here.

Chapter III is a review of relevant literature. The first section presents a historical survey of reading research. The second section sheds light on the stages of learning reading. Section three traces the reading processes. Theories relevant to reading are presented in section four. The characteristics of good readers are presented in section five. Section six addresses learning strategies and their definitions. Section seven tackles a more specific issue namely reading strategies. Transferring of learning is the concern of section eight, while section nine deals with how strategies are taught. Finally, the tools used to study reading are presented in section ten.

In four sections Chapter IV presents the methodology used. The introductory section links research questions and the research techniques used. The sampling process is presented in the second section. Research techniques are described in section three. The final section concerns ethical considerations of the research.

In three sections Chapter V presents a detailed account of the data collected. The first section is about textbook analysis. There is review of a literature on textbook analysis, textbooks used, procedure used, the results and the conclusions. The second section concerns pilot Cloze tests and the main Cloze tests in the three colleges. The final section is devoted to the interviews, i.e. the participants, coding process and the data collected from the participants in the three colleges.

The data analysis is presented in Chapter VI. The first section presents an analysis and discussion of the first group of interviews questions, while the second section deals with the second group of research questions. The third section concerns the transferability noted from the aforementioned questions. The final section summarises the findings.

The final chapter provides the conclusions and the recommendations, as well as mentioning some possible areas for future research.

Chapter 2 Review of Literature on Studies and Theories about Reading and Strategies

Reading is one of the skills in which both background knowledge about the reading material and linguistic knowledge are used to find out what written marks on a page mean. Researchers have investigated this skill, elaborated the results, developed theories and examined them. Readers' first language reading strategies and target language reading strategies have been identified. Using different techniques, researchers have traced the relationships between these strategies.

This chapter provides a historical over view of reading study development. It also accounts for the reading stages and processes, theories relevant to reading, characteristics of good and poor readers, learning strategies, reading strategies, and transfer of learning. Finally, it addresses the tools used to study reading and the way reading is taught.

2.1 Historical Survey

Researchers have explored different aspects of reading. Some researchers have investigated the cognitive and metacognitive sides of reading that affect reading development whereas others traced children's reading development.

At the beginning of the 20th century, readers' errors were investigated by Thorndike (1917c). He studied readers' errors in simple reading paragraphs. He concluded that reading aloud is not the right way to learn to read; on the contrary, readers should engage actively in tasks that require them make judgements about their answers. He also raised the awareness about "not consider(ing) the reading of the text-book or reference as a mechanical, passive, undiscriminating task" (Thorndike, 1917b, p 332). He compared reading comprehension to "reasoning in mathematics" in that it follows "the same selective and coordinating nature" (Thorndike, 1917c, p 114). For him, reading is accomplished through establishing a relationship between memory and the meaning of the written items. This relationship proceeds from inspection to validation through amending "by increasing or reducing the potency of certain of relationship's elements" (Thorndike, 1917a, pp 233, 234).

By the second half of the 20th century, researchers informed by Behaviourist psychology attempted to answer the questions raised by reading educators and previous

researchers to discover suitable practices that might help reading teachers. In his work 'Verbal behaviour' (1957) Skinner viewed language learning is a matter of habit formation and like any other behaviour, could be learned through practice. Affected by these traditions, researchers explored the components of reading and developed ways to control the teaching environment in order to observe the effect of teaching different skills. This view of breaking reading down into sub-skills contradicted the previously held Gestalt view (Koffka, 1936), which argued that any phenomenon should be looked at as a whole and unitary rather than a structure of small components. Hence, "The top-down perspective of the holistic Gestalt modality was evident in the orientation to reading development …" (Alexander and Fox, 2004, p 37). Although Behaviourism was the dominant psychological school of thought from 1950 to 1965, at that time, some researchers tried to investigate the internal processes involved in learning to read (Alexander and Fox, 2004, pp 35, 36).

As a reaction against the Behaviourist views, another view about language as a natural process emerged as that in Chomsky's work 'A Review of B. F. Skinner's Verbal Behavior' (1967). This view places less emphasis on the environment as the major factor affecting learning. It was based on the belief that humans have the same innate ability to process the language and hence people process the language in the same manner (Alexander and Fox, 2004, p 38). This assumption was also applicable to reading processes. Neglecting the contribution of educators and under-estimating the impact of different teaching practices were the main criticisms of this view.

From 1976 to 1985, interest in explaining the interaction between the reader and the text became dominant. This interest brought to light the role of prior knowledge in the process of reading. Moreover, factors within the text which affected reading comprehension were investigated. Researchers developed hypotheses about the organisation of knowledge within the mind (Anderson, 1977; Rumelhart, 1980), and how poor readers appear to have different techniques from good readers (Allington, 1980; Lundeberg, 1987; Paris, & Myers, 1981). These studies brought to light the belief that learners' knowledge can be affected, if directly contacted, through training and instruction, and researchers attempted to develop software that could simulate the mental processes. Thus, most of that literature was about strategies learners used and suitable ways to introduce them.

In these studies two dominant views emerged: the 'psycholinguistic guessing game' and 'decision maker model'. The former, which dominated the last few decades, was coined

by Goodman in 1967. In this model reading is seen as a process in which the reader uses cues in the text to comprehend the message intended by the writer. On the other hand, the decision maker model is based on a metaphor derived from computing. This metaphor assumes that the written material is processed using flexible rules, techniques and the available knowledge. Birch points out that guessing is a task that needs a great deal of effort, and that oversimplifying Goodman's model leads to neglecting the instruction of letters and sounds (Birch, 2004, pp 7-9).

Many researchers have since contributed to this body of research on reading and reading strategies: Block, 1992; Brown et al., 1986; Carpenter and Just, 1986; Davis, 1968; Davis, 1972, and many others.

It can be seen that there are two major directions in language research in general and in reading specifically:

1) language as a natural phenomenon that should be tackled holistically
2) language as a construct of smaller components, which need to be tackled individually.

Although the latter was criticised by holistic theorists, who support the natural and holistic view, many contemporary researchers have attempted to investigate learning and reading strategies: Griffiths and Parr 2001; Hamada and Koda 2008; Harrison 2004; Hismanoglu 2000; Huitt 2000; Griffiths 2004; Kong 2006; Macaro 2001.

2.2 Reading Stages

Accounting for the components of reading has helped highlight the stages which readers go through while reading.

Usually, morphemes are the reading components that are used to generate meanings from written symbols. Ehri (1995, pp 118-122) suggests four phases that account for the development of reading words. These stages start by linking images to words without noticing words' internal structure, in the *pre-alphabetic phase*. As the reader learns the alphabetic system, a partial connection is developed between the alphabetic system and the words use this system, (*partial alphabet* phase). In this phase, only the prominent letters are recognised (this may be because they are commonly used or because of the sound associated with them). When whole letters are mastered, an entire association between the alphabetic system and its pronunciation is established (*full alphabetic* phase). Finally, a link between word pronunciation and its meaning takes place. Accuracy and automaticity, in this

connection, characterise this phase, *consolidated alphabet* phase.

While Ehri (1995) uses grapheme recognition as a criterion to measure children's development, Harrison (2004, pp 43, 44) uses the whole word as a standard to trace reading development. At the beginning, children link words to concrete entities such as pictures. This stage is similar to the *pre-alphabetic phase* proposed by Ehri (1995). Then, they predict unknown words by using semantic and syntactic cues from context. After that, learners analogise new words, i.e. extend what is learned to other words. Finally, they recognise the pronunciation of irregular words, and analyse words into phonemes.

Although knowledge of words constitutes the basis to reading comprehension, readers need to know how these words fit and work together in larger structures. In addition to this linguistic knowledge, they need to draw on their world knowledge, which comprises the cultural and social conventions, and to know how written materials are put together (Ibid, 2004, pp 39, 40). Readers develop in these stages by using certain processes, which account for the written symbols and how they are integrated with prior knowledge and experience.

2.3 Reading Processes

In general, apart from what model/ -s each researcher inclines to, there is a consensus that reading is the product of decoding and comprehension. Gough et al. (1996) presents the multiplicity hypothesis: *reading = decoding * comprehension*. It is implied here that, to be a reader, any of the reading components should be more than *zero*.

2.3.1 Decoding

This reading component is sometimes called *phonological recoding*, or *word attack*. Whereas *decoding* refers to deciphering the marks and the symbols to something that can be recognised by a human's brain, *phonological recoding* means turning the recognised marks into sounds. *Word attack* addresses the process of interpreting the elements that constitute the word. Usually, the term 'decoding' captures words' identification process, which involves "transforming graphemes into phonemes and blending the phonemes into pronunciation" (Ehri, 1995, p 116). This process involves word perception, i.e. accessing the corresponding word in the mental lexicon.

To decode the words as one unit, readers need to recognise spelling. At the first reading stage, this process is consciously applied and readers need to access the phonological

form to obtain the relevant meaning. However, skilled readers usually can access meaning without reference to the phonological code (Carpenter and Just, 1986, p 15). That is as soon as the reader develops, his/ her decoding becomes automatised (Field, 2004, p 235). The outcome of the decoding process contributes to another process called comprehension.

2.3.2 Comprehension

Reading comprehension refers to the processes in which the reader forms meaning from the symbols presented on the page. After establishing the word, its phonological features, and its grammatical relevance to the other words in the larger structure (a phrase, a sentence, etc.) readers start to grasp the meaning of the sentences. This link is to construct the whole meaning and to get the intended message. This reading process is characterised by being active and complex.

Text comprehension often involves processing at different levels. It proceeds from the *linguistic level* to the *semantic level*. Then the semantic elements are related to each other to form propositions that constitute what is called *textbase*, which represents the meaning of the text being processed (Kintsch et al., 2005).

Beyond the elements being dealt with, there are three sub-processes involved in reading comprehension. The first is the *perceptual processing*, in which the reader focuses on the written text and stores it in the short-term memory. The second stage is the *parsing process*, in which words and chunks are used to build meaningful blocks. The last is *utilisation/ elaboration process*, in which the meaning grasped from the text is related to the knowledge previously stored in the long-term memory. Language comprehension follows similar steps to any other comprehension process (Anderson, 1983, 1985).

Factors that affect reading comprehension were examined by many studies in the first decades of the 20th century. While some of these factors are linguistic ones such as vocabulary, grammar, and meaning, others are psychological factors such as intelligence, recalling ability, reading speed, the relationship between memory and meaning of the written items, and reasoning.

The nature of reading comprehension and its structure can be captured in three points. The first is that reading comprehension consists of micro skills, which are separate and do not relate to each other. Within the second, reading micro skills are interrelated and complement each other. Finally, reading comprehension is also seen as one unit skill rather than a

composite of smaller ones (Chapman, 1973-1974, p 232).

Research has revealed that many reading micro skills contribute and correlate to/with understanding a written text, (Irion, 1925; Alderman, 1926; Carroll, 1927); also (Nassaji, 2003; Barry & Lazarte, 1998; Hammadou, 1991; Lu, 1999; Carrell, 1985, 1987). Correlations among these skills imply tendency to support the idea that reading comprehension is achieved by interaction between smaller interrelated skills.

Rather than being sequential, reading is an interactive process where low-level reading processes (such as graphic recognition) and high-level reading processes (such as semantic interpretation) contribute to each other (Perfetti & Roth, 1980; Rumelhart, 1977; Stanovich, West & Freeman, 1981) and interact with knowledge of the world (Kleiman, 1982). Moreover, reading is interactive when reader's previous knowledge and experience interact with writer's ideas presented on the page (Carpenter & Just, 1986; Frederiksen, 1981; Perfetti & Roth, 1981; Rumelhart, 1977; Stanovich, 1980). The different activities and movements readers engage in reflect the interactivity of the reading process: checking the text "backward(ly) and forward(ly), identifying main ideas, integrating information across the text, connecting textual information with previous knowledge and inference generation" (Kolić-Vehovec and Bajšanski, 2007, p 199).

2.4 Theories Relevant to reading

Patterns reported by reading researchers have helped develop theories about reading processes and about how information is stored and managed in the human's brain; among these theories are the *information processing theory*, *schema theory*, and *transactional theory*.

2.4.1 Information Processing Theory

This theory tries to explain how previous knowledge is stored, how new knowledge is acquired from written material, and what processes are involved. It is based on the view that the *short-term memory* or *working memory* is of a limited capacity, and that the information is processed in chunks to account for this limited capacity (Miller, 1956, pp 93-96). It also takes the view that a human's brain processes information in a similar way to a computers; written material is recognised by the *sensory registers*, then the perceived information is stored temporarily in Short-term Memory/ Working Memory, where what is processed may be moved and stored in the *long-term memory* (Ali-Hassan, 2005; Huitt, 2000, 2003). Cognitive

psychology makes use of the computer metaphor to explain this process.

Another theoretical assumption accounting for information presentation and processing is provided by Anderson (1983, 1985). In this theoretical model, it is assumed that there are two forms of knowledge stored in the long-term memory: *Declarative Knowledge* = what we know about, in the form of knowledge or facts, and *Procedural Knowledge* = what we know about how to do something, skills/ experiential knowledge/ pragmatics. These two forms of knowledge are used in the following sequence: Cognitive Stage (learning declarative knowledge, consciously) → Associative Stage (detection and elimination of errors, and strengthening the link between the elements of the skill) → Autonomous Stage (performance becomes automatic) (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, pp 25, 26).

2.4.2 Schema theory

In this theory, it is assumed that information kept in the memory is arranged into structures. These hypothetical structures are called *schemata/ schemas*. This knowledge consists of imaginary patterns that represent or in some way are associated with everyday situations and places (Anderson & Pearson, 1984). Its theorists are interested in the way written material is processed and in the way that texts are structured. The concept of *story grammar* attempts to explain the underlying principles of story development or text structure by investigating the steps that readers follow while reading or listening to a story/ text (Palmer, 1981). In reading comprehension, this knowledge of story grammar interacts with the text being read and thus contributes to the overall process of comprehension (Rumelhart, 1984, p 3).

2.4.3 Transactional Theory

This theory emerged from Rosenblatt's (1968, 1969, 1978, 1985a, 1985b, 1993, 1994) views on reading. It assumes that the reader and the text are one constituent rather than two separate entities. The transaction between the reader and the text results into two kinds of reading. The first is *aesthetic reading* (when the reader reads affectively, emotionally and with pleasure), and the second is *efferent reading* (when he/ she engages cognitively and seeks for facts). Readers are described as usually moving from one kind to the other when they read, and reading comprehension as "continuous, developing process" (Palmer, 1981, p 64).

Literature about reading has made use of different scientific fields such as psychology, linguistics, sociology, and physiology. It has made use of them by adopting certain of their techniques and methodologies. These practices, which range from tracing eye fixation, and miscue analysis, to using computers to simulate reading processes, have been used to explore the characteristics of good readers, and to probe the factors affecting reading process.

2.5 Good and Poor Readers

Comparing good readers and poor readers highlights the characteristics of each. Characteristics of good readers were encouraged by educators whereas distinctive features of poor readers were avoided and eliminated. The strategies used by readers were among the characteristics, which research has brought to light. Two studies have been selected because they summarise most of the studies conducted about good readers. The first study was conducted by Golinkoff (1975-1976), and the other by Pang (2008). Golinkoff (1975-1976) surveyed the research in the 1960s and 1970s about good readers and poor readers, and Pang (2008) surveyed research about good readers from the previous twenty years. The techniques and the instruments used in studies reveal much about the prevailing views at that time. Research about good readers and poor readers in the 1960s and the 1970s is characterised by tracing a reader's eye movements and his/ her errors on one hand, and on monitoring the low-level and high-level processing on the other. Thus good readers make less/ fewer eye fixations, make regressive movements only when they make long jumps (covering more than they can process at a time), have short eye-voice spans, have few serious errors, are good decoders, decode unfamiliar words, read in chunks, and establish successful links between words.

Research about good and poor readers in more recent years is characterised by an interest in the processes involved in reading, the strategies used and how they are used, the kind of knowledge that the reader has and how it may affect reading processes. Hence, a good reader masters low-level reading processes as well as high-level reading processes, recalls important information, uses a lot of strategies, summarises, underlines, takes notes, judges and evaluates his/her reading, detects text problems, knows when and what strategy to use, makes use of prior knowledge, has sufficient knowledge of vocabulary and knows different texts structures (Pang, 2008).

These characteristics of good readers were grouped either by use of criteria from the

reading field or by terms borrowed from studies that investigated language learning in general.

2.6 Learning Strategies

Interest in the characteristics of good learners led researchers to identify learning strategies (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p 3). Learners are different because of their internal differences and the role played by the external factors. Among these differences are the strategies used by learners (Griffiths and Parr, 2001, p 249).

In some researches the terms strategies and skills are used synonymously "…skills and strategies such as …" (Drake, 2008, p 8), "…skills/ strategies…" (Lu, 2006, p ii). In other researches, skills are differentiated from strategies.

Skills are defined as "acquired abilities, proficiencies" (Harris and Hodges 1981, 298) and a "mode(s) or manner(s) in which language is used" (Richards et al. 1985, 160) and they are used to "perform well" (Hudson, 2007, p 78). In (Griffiths, 2004) strategies are defined as 'devices' (Ellis 1986; Rubin 1975), 'techniques' (Rubin 1975), 'operations, steps' (O'Malley et al 1985), 'directions' (Stern 1992) and are used to acquire (Rubin 1975) to facilitate, (O'Malley et al 1985), and to compensate (Ellis 1986). Strategies are also different from skills in that they are used consciously (Nuttall, 1996). Because they are tools, strategies are assumed to dominate over skills (O'Malley et al., 1985, p 557).

In this work, the term 'strategies' is used to refer to the systematic ways which are consciously used by the readers to guide and enhance their reading processes.

2.6.1 Classification of learning strategies

Researchers have tried to produce lists of learning strategies. Classification of learning strategies has primarily followed the theory of cognition, which is concerned with the way the brain works to process and call information back (Macaro, 2001).

Rubin (1975) defined learning strategies as "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge". She divided these "techniques or devices" into *Direct Learning Strategies* and *Indirect Learning Strategies*. *Direct Strategies* are directly related to the items or issues being learned. They are clarification/verification, monitoring, memorisation, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, and practice. *Indirect Learning Strategies* are concerned with learning environment adaptation: creating

opportunities for practice, and production tricks (Hismanoglu, 2000). Rubin's (1975) classification reflects an interest in the relationship between the strategies used on one hand and learning processes and learning-environment adaptation on the other.

In a later study, Wenden and Rubin (1987) learning strategies were classified into *cognitive strategies* and *self-management strategies* (Gamage, 2003). While *cognitive strategies* are concerned with the procedure used by the learner to process the information received, *self-management strategies* involve controlling the learning process itself. Using the term 'self-management' highlights the conscious use of the strategies.

Social and affective factors were introduced in the classification presented by O'Malley and Chamot (1990). They classified language-learning strategies into *Cognitive strategies*, *Metacognitive strategies* and *Social/ Affective strategies* (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, pp 44, 45). *Cognitive strategies* are relevant to the learning activities used by the learners to process new information. *Metacognitive strategies* are the activities which reflect a learner's knowledge and management of his/ her learning process. Finally, *Social/Affective strategies* account for the social and affective aspects related to learning such as interacting with other people or controlling one's own feelings while learning.

Oxford (1990) developed the so-called Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) which also apply to teaching. In this inventory, she divided strategies into main groups: *Direct strategies* and *Indirect strategies*. She divided these two major groups into six subgroups.

1) Direct Strategies:

   Cognitive Strategies (practicing, receiving and sending messages, analysing and reasoning, and creating structure for input and output)

   Metacognitive Strategies (centring learning, arranging and planning learning, and evaluating learning)

   Memory Strategies (creating mental linkages, applying images and sounds, reviewing, and employing action)

2) Indirect Strategies:

   Compensation Strategies (guessing intelligently, and overcoming limitations)

   Social Strategies (asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathising with others)

   Affective Strategies (lowering anxiety, encouraging one's self, and taking emotional temperature) (Oxford, 1990, p 17)

   This classification of strategies can be considered the most detailed one because of its

headings and subheadings.

2.7 Reading strategies

Reading strategies are defined as readers' "conscious use" (Nuttall, 1996, p 40) of techniques, operations or steps a learner takes to "conceive a task, what textual cues they attend to, how they make sense of what they read, and what they do when they do not understand" (Block, 1986, p 465). Doing so, readers should be aware of the strategies used and how to control them when they read (Paris et al., 1986, pp 92- 108). L1 reading studies constituted the base of reading studies in general.and the results and procedures were extended to cover L2 studies. Grabe and Stoller (2002) point out that foreign language teachers should assist "students to transfer L1 reading strategies" and to gain "sufficient L2 proficiency" (pp 84, 85).

Studies of L1 reading strategies have usually concentrated on describing and listing the characteristics and strategies that distinguish good readers from poor readers and on the factors or reasons that may affect the reading process.

Olshavsky (1976/1977) studied the effect of reading material and interest in reading strategy use for 24 tenth grade students while they were trying to comprehend a short story. The results revealed that both good readers and poor readers used the same strategies; however, readers with high interest in the material used strategies more frequently than did readers with low interest. In relation to the material, readers used more strategies when engaged in abstract material. Thus, it can be concluded that the kind of material and reader's interest affect the number of the strategies used.

Hosenfeld (1977) compared the strategies used by good readers and poor readers. The subjects were 40 students out of the 210 students who administered MLA-Cooperative Test of Reading Proficiency in Western New York. Twenty of the subjects scored high (32-45), and the other twenty scored low (13-19). The researcher concluded that good readers are characterised by keeping the meaning of the passage in mind as they read, reading in broad phrases, skipping words that are considered unimportant and unknown, looking up words, correctly, in the glossary as a last resort, and having a positive self-image as a reader. This study reveals that good readers are strategic and make use of their working memory. Some studies investigated certain strategies rather than describing the general characteristics of the reader. Kavale and Schreiner (1979) compared the way reasoning strategies were used by

eight average and eight above-average readers who were selected from sixth grade population in a suburban public elementary school based on their scores in the Comprehension section of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test. Although the two levels used similar strategies, above-average readers used strategies more efficiently and successfully. Moreover, they realised that the above-average readers used strategies flexibly and sought alternatives when they needed to. In this study, it seems that the difference between the readers is not the number or kind of strategies used rather it is a matter of efficiency and flexibility. Studies also investigated the use of a group of strategies to achieve one purpose.

Afflerbach (1990) investigated the strategies used to construct the main idea of difficult texts, and the contribution of prior knowledge to strategy use. The participants were eight (four anthropology doctoral students, four chemistry doctoral students) who had relatively high background knowledge in their own field, and relatively low knowledge in the other field. The two texts used in this study were from two different knowledge domains: anthropology and chemistry. In this study, the topic sentences were removed from the texts. He noticed that four strategies were used: *Draft-and-Revision*, *Topic/ Comment*, *Initial Hypothesis*, and *Listing*. In *Draft-and-Revision*, the reader jots down an idea, judges it, then when it proves to be wrong, it is revised. The second strategy is *Topic/ Comment*, in which the reader highlights a topic and comments on it. The third is generating an *Initial Hypothesis* based on the title, the first sentence, or skimming the text; then testing the accuracy of the hypothesis and modifying it. The final strategy is *Listing* where the related words, concepts, or ideas are grouped together. It was also noticed that familiarity with the text generated its automatic processing (Afflerbach, 1990, p 33). This may suggest a relationship between automaticity and prior knowledge. The strategies used can also be affected by level of difficulty. Kletzien (1991) compared the strategies used by good readers and poor readers as they were presented with texts that varied in difficulty. The 48 participants in this study were 10th and 11th grade students at a suburban high school in the U.S. Twenty four of these subjects were good comprehenders while the others were poor comprehenders. She observed that both groups used the same type and number of strategies when the text introduced suited group's level. However, poor readers used fewer strategies than the good readers as the texts became more difficult. Macaro (2001) also reported that good readers "do not get anxious when they do not understand" (Macaro, 2001, pp 86, 88).

Kozminsky and Kozminsky (2001) explored the relationship between general

knowledge and skills in applying reading strategies on one hand and reading comprehension on the other. The participants were 205 ninth-graders in two comprehensive high schools in a city in southern Israel. Thirty four subjects were expected to successfully complete the full high school programme and full course of the national matriculation examinations, 128 were expected to get the diploma and take a few of the national matriculation examinations, 21 students were expected to complete the high school programme and obtain a diploma, and finally 22 were expected to complete twelve years of schooling to obtain a diploma. In this study, the researchers concluded that general knowledge and the ability to apply reading strategies contribute to reading comprehension. However, this contribution varied because of the differences in the educational level of the students (academic, semi-academic, vocational, and learning disabilities).

Through think-aloud protocol and interviews, Lau (2006) highlighted the difference in the reading strategies used by four good and four poor Chinese readers. These subjects were in eighth grade in Hong Kong. The researcher realised that good readers are characterised by their knowledge of vocabulary and strategies, their abundant use of the strategies, and their memory capacity whereas poor readers lack these characteristics. L2 reading proficiency can also affect metacognitive strategies. Kolić-Vehovec and Bajšanski (2007) explored comprehension monitoring of bilingual (Croatian native speaking) students at different levels of perceived proficiency in Italian. They noted that proficient students in a second language showed greater mastery of monitoring skills than the less proficient students, and that monitoring contributed to reading comprehension in higher elementary school.

These studies show that good readers are characterised by their knowledge of vocabulary and their working memory capacity. These characteristics helped them use reading strategies more efficiently and flexibly than poor readers. Lack of these abilities and prior knowledge about the reading material, and texts' levels of difficulty affected poor readers' achievement negatively.

The strategies mentioned in the above studies can be grouped into three categories: tools used in the reading process, manipulation of reading material and planning and monitoring of reading process. The following table summarises that.

Tools used	Manipulating reading material	Planning, revising and monitoring reading process
using syntax and punctuation, using authors' style, using known phrases, using prior knowledge, using the main idea, using discourse markers	rereading, recognizing the structure of the passage or paragraph, looking for key vocabulary or phrases, associating text to prior knowledge, critiquing the text and the author, realizing text structure, connecting parts of the text, paraphrasing, skimming, summarizing, inferring, guessing meaning, topic/ comment, and listing	checking comprehension and identifying difficulties, and judging the achievement, questioning and answering, draft-and-revision, Initial hypothesis, planning next step, and specifying a purpose, predicting and checking the prediction, visualising by building a mental image, making inference or drawing conclusions,

Table 2.1 Strategies found in literature

2.7.1 L1 and L2 reading strategies

In one way or another, information and knowledge, acquired or learned, is based on former knowledge, as knowledge is accumulated over time. Hence, using L1 knowledge to build second language (SL) or foreign language (FL) knowledge seems inevitable. This makes the L1 learning context different from the SL/FL learning context. Grabe and Stoller (2002) categorised the differences between the two contexts into *linguistic* and *processing* differences, *individual* and *experiential* differences and *socio-cultural* and *institutional* differences (Grabe and Stoller, 2002, pp 41-63).

Birch (2004) describes new English as a second language (ESL) readers as having incomplete knowledge of English (words, structures) and as lacking English basic processing strategies (coding, decoding). These gaps lead the learner to resort to L1 experience in one way or the other, which may result in *interference*, i.e. negative transfer which, causes errors. Therefore, teachers of English must be aware of "… what linguistic knowledge and processing strategies ESL and EFL students have developed for their L1" (Birch, 2004, p 12). Walter (2007) states that the problems of reading are not transfer ones, but rather they are access problems. The study is based mainly on the effect of reader's level on his/ her ability to detect anomalies. Results showed that upper-intermediate grade subjects' detected anomalies more efficiently than low-intermediate grade subjects did.

In some situations, the L1 effect on L2 learning reading cannot be noticed through tracing transfer. Schacher (1974) refers that this effect can be in the form of "avoidance of the use of certain features of the target language by speakers of certain mother tongue"

(Schacher, 1974). This avoidance is a strategy in which the learner skips L2 features that he/ she cannot use or understand.

To account for these complicated relationships between L1 reading and L2 reading, many reading studies have included a sort of comparison between the two (Bernhardt and Kamil, 1995; Block, 1992; Davis and Bistodeau, 1993; Fecteau, 1999; Hamada and Koda, 2008; Koda, 1993; Kong, 2006). These comparisons have investigated specific points, ranging from the internal processes to the external factors that may affect the reading process. However, some of these studies, such as Block (1986), are only concerned with L2.

The relationship between L1 reading strategies and L2/ FL reading strategies usually falls in one or more of the following hypotheses. (1) Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis which was proposed by Cummins (1979), Hudson, (1982) and Block, (1986) in which L1 reading proficiency contributes to L2 reading without the need to attain high L2 ability. (2) Linguistic Threshold Hypothesis which was proposed by Cummins (1976); in which the L2 learner should attain a certain minimum or threshold level of competence in L2 in order to be able to transfer L1 experience (Clarke, 1980).

Recalling strategies seem to be affected by the L1 writing system. In a study conducted by Tzeng and Wang (1983) to compare the ability of Chinese readers and English readers to remember the place of nine items, Chinese readers could remember better because of the visual demands required in the logographic writing system used by the Chinese (Kong, 2006, p 20). In another study, Hamada and Koda (2008) studied the influence of L1 orthographic experiences on the L2 decoding, and how it consequently affects L2 word reading. Eighteen Chinese and seventeen Korean students enrolled in an intensive English programme in the United States were the subjects of this study. The results showed that the Koreans decoded more efficiently than the Chinese. This efficiency correlated with word learning. This was attributed to the similarity between English and the Korean alphabetic writing systems, which are different from Chinese logographic writing system.

Block (1986) compared the reading strategies used in ESL by Spanish speakers and Chinese speakers. Three of the subjects compared were speaking Spanish and three were speaking Chinese. Subjects were enrolled in remedial courses in Baruch College in University of New York. The researcher concluded that the strategies used by the Spanish and the Chinese were the same: *general comprehension* strategies (relevant to the whole meaning

of text) and *local linguistic* strategies (relevant to small linguistic items).

Similarities can also been noticed in the processes utilized among different orthographic writing systems. Sarig (1987) conducted a study that compared the reading processes associated with *main ideas analysis* and *overall message synthesis* in L1 (Hebrew) and in the FL (English), and whether L1 reading processes were transferred to reading to the FL. She pointed out that the same reading processes were used in both languages although every subject used her own strategies. Moreover, she concluded that L1 reading processes were transferred to FL (Sarig, 1987). Moreover, Block (1992) noticed that both English natives and English second language readers used comprehension monitoring processes when reading English.

Pasquarella et al. (2011) traced the bidirectional relationship between English compound awareness and Chinese vocabulary to find out about cross-language transfer of morphological awareness. The subjects were 137 Chinese children whose L1 was Chinese and L2 was English. The subjects were selected from 12 schools in a large Canadian city. Forty seven were in the first grade, fifty three were in the second grade and thirty seven were in the third grade. In this study the researchers found "strong evidence for the transfer of morphological awareness between Chinese and English" (p 38). They also concluded that this transfer (compound vs. derivational) and its direction (from L1 to L2 vs. from L2 to L1) are "influenced by the morphological structures of the languages involved" (Ibid). They pointed out that morphological structure similarity between L1 and L2 contributes to transferability.

In a similar study, Commissaire et al. (2011) investigated the contribution of L1 orthographic processing skills among children whose L1 is French, and to their learning of English at school. Forty five of the subjects examined were Grade 6 children and forty five were Grade 8 children. This study, they noticed "direct cross-language transfer for word-specific orthographic knowledge of orthographic processing skill".

Davis and Bistodeau (1993) compared the effect of the L1 on novice FL readers and on proficient FL readers. They tested sixteen paid volunteers: eight native English readers who were novices in French, and eight native French readers who were proficient in English. They concluded that L2 novice readers were affected negatively by the L1 because of their few resources in the FL, whereas FL proficient readers were not affected by the L1. When the native French subjects commented on the Canadian words used in the French texts saying

that they use different words in France, the researchers concluded that "the culturally-determined literacy practices of the reader may also be a factor influencing reading behaviors" (Davis and Bistodeau, 1993, p 468).

L1 and L2 grammatical differences have an effect on the strategies used. Koda (1993) investigated how L1 case signalling system influenced the strategies used to comprehend L2 sentences. The participants were 21 Americans, 12 Chinese, and 13 Korean who enrolled in a first-year Japanese language programme. They administered a sentence comprehension task. It was concluded that L1 background affects the "performance patterns in sentence comprehension" (Koda, 1993, p 497). It was also noticed that L1 reading skills and L2 linguistic features affected the cognitive strategies used in L2 processing.

Bernhardt and Kamil (1995) attempted to examine the Linguistic Threshold Hypothesis, which assumes that L2 linguistic ability is an important factor for L2 reading, and the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis, which assumes that L2 reading performance is affected by L1 reading ability. The subjects were students in three levels of Spanish instruction at the United States Air Force Academy. 130 were in the first semester, 24 had up to five semesters, and 33 had up to seven semesters of Spanish. Subjects took three versions of the reading comprehension section of the Adult Basic Learning Examination (ABLE). The researchers concluded that both L1 reading ability and L2 linguistic ability have a role to play in L2 reading.

Parry (1996) compared the strategies used to solve English academic reading tasks used by 20 students in northern Nigeria and 25 university graduates in China. She realised that Chinese students preferred using bottom-up methods whereas the Nigerian students used top-down methods. Parry attributes this difference to the linguistic background differences and to the way each group had been introduced to literacy. Chinese preference to bottom-up processing was also noticed in a study conducted by Abbott (2006). The researcher compared the strategies used by ESL Arabic speaking readers and ESL Mandarin speaking readers. The results revealed that Mandarin speakers used bottom-up, local, language-based reading strategies while Arabic speakers used top-down, global, knowledge-based reading strategies. This can be attributed to the different writing systems used in Chinese and Arabic. While the Chinese writing system is logographic, in which a word cannot be broken down into smaller units, Arabic has an alphabetic writing system, in which words are composed of letters.

20

Lee and Schallert (1997) tested the contribution of L1 reading ability and L2 proficiency to L2 reading performance. 809 Korean students who enrolled in 3rd-year middle school students and 1st-year high school students participated in this study. They were chosen from more than 40 schools in a large city in Korea. The results supported the Threshold Hypothesis i.e. that learners need to establish L2 proficiency to acquire L2 reading ability, and that L2 proficiency contributes more to L2 reading ability than L1 reading ability does. In another study, Taillefer and Pugh (1998) administered language proficiency and strategy tests, and a strategy questionnaire to examine the influence of L1 reading proficiency and/or L2 linguistic competence on L2 reading comprehension to 39 French native speakers who were in the second year of a three-year undergraduate programme. All subjects studied English for seven years. Results suggested that L2 competence had more effect on L2 reading comprehension than L1 reading proficiency had. However, an L1 effect on L2 reading was reported too. Fecteau (1999) investigated the relationship between L2 (French) performance of US college students on one hand and their English (L1) and French (L2) reading comprehension and inferencing skills on the other. Results showed "that L1 scores contributed more to L2 performance than did L2 proficiency" (Fecteau, 1999, p 475). L1 reading scores also were found to be predictors of L2 recall and L2 multiple-choice answers.

L1 and ESL reading strategies used by Chinese were compared. Kong (2006) reported that four Chinese subjects used more reading strategies when reading in English than when reading in Chinese. In addition, it was reported that there were different degrees of transfer of L1 reading strategies. Because the subjects had sufficient English knowledge, transfer of strategies provides support for the threshold hypothesis.

The L1 is also used when readers are doing ESL reading tasks. Seng and Hashim (2006) tried to find out how much L1 (Malaysian) was used while reading L2 (English) in a group of four female students age 22-26. They found that 30% of the strategies used included L1 use to work out word-related and idea-related difficulties in L2. This may be attributed to lack of enough L2 linguistic knowledge.

Reading studies offer a deep insight into the processes involved and the factors that may affect them. The L1 is one of the factors that have a role to play in reading L2. However, there is inconsistency in findings of the extent to which L1 reading contributes to/ affects SL / FL reading.

Studies of the relationship between the first language and the foreign/ second language have pointed out that some of the target language processes are affected by the first language writing system. However, it was shown that some processes were used in both the first language and the foreign/ second language. In some cases, the first language reading process was transferred to the language reading.

Although some differences in strategy use were identified among foreign/ second language readers of different linguistic background, similarities were also found. Some of strategy differences were attributed to reader's linguistic background and the way reading was introduced to the learner. Readers' mastery of the target language affected the role of L1; the greater the mastery of target language, the less was the effect of the L1. The L2 proficiency proved to have a role to play in TL reading.

The strategies described in the studies mentioned in the literature have been classified in various ways, as we shall see in the next section.

2.7.2 Classification of reading strategies

When researchers have traced the strategies used, whether in L1 reading or L2 reading, they have grouped them into categories. Some of these categories were named after learning strategies, while others derived their names from the reading field. Classification of reading *skills* used by Davis (1941) seems, largely similar to the terms used to address reading strategies. In the present researcher's opinion, the only difference between the terms 'strategy' and 'skill' is whether the process is automatised and carried out unconsciously. If it is, it is a skill; otherwise, it is a strategy. Davis (1968) identified nine groups of reading skills namely *recalling word meanings* and *drawing inferences* about these meanings from the content, *following the structure* of a passage and *formulating the main thought* of the passage, *finding answers to questions* answered explicitly or merely in paraphrase in the content, *weaving together ideas* in the content, *drawing inferences* from the content, *identifying a writer's techniques* (literary devices, tone, and mood), and finally *recognizing a writer's purpose intent, and point of view* (p504).

In a categorisation offered by Olshavsky (1976/1977), reading strategies are classified into *word related*, *clause related* and *story related*. This categorisation is a structural one. It takes into account the units that contribute to comprehension and their level whether it is grammatical or semantic. Strategies that are implemented into the boundaries of a word or a

clause account only for the local environment while the strategies which are *story related* account for the meaning of the whole reading text or passage.

Hosenfeld (1977) provided a classification which seems to be based on the flow of the process of grasping meaning. In this classification, reading strategies are divided into *main meaning line* strategies which are used to grasp the meaning without being interrupted by unknown words and *word-solving strategies* which are mainly used to find out the meaning of unknown words or phrases and hence the meaning as a whole is interrupted.

A reflection of the classification of learning strategies as cognitive and metacognitive strategies can be seen in Johnston's (1983) classification. Reading strategies were classified into strategies that *aids the reader in constructing a model of the meaning* of text, and the strategies that are used *to monitor understanding and take action* when necessary (Block, 1986, p 465).

Block (1986) classified reading strategies into general comprehension strategies and local linguistic strategies. General strategies are anticipating the content, recognising text structure, integrating information, questioning information in the text, interpreting the text, using general knowledge, associating, commenting on behaviour, monitoring comprehension, correcting behaviour and reacting to the text. Local strategies are paraphrasing, re-reading, questioning meaning of a word, questioning meaning of a clause or a sentence, and solving vocabulary problems (Block, 1986, pp 472- 474). A similar classification was used by Traillefer and Pugh (1998).

Taillefer and Pugh (1998) classified reading strategies into *general strategies* and *local strategies*. *General strategies* capture and are applicable all over the text: these include *guessing information*, *identifying organisation*, *learning something*, *interpreting text*, *reacting emotionally*, *using punctuation*, *counting number points*, *checking comprehension*, and *feeling efficient*. *Local strategies* are merely related to linguistic elements and include *skipping the insoluble*, *comparing L2 and L1*, *analysing a word*, *analysing grammar*, and *translating*. They also found that some of the above-mentioned strategies are common to L1 and L2 such as *guessing*, *using punctuation*, *reacting emotionally*, *feeling efficient*, and *learning something new*. However, some strategies are common only to L2 such as *interpreting*, *identifying organisation of ideas*, *counting the number of points*, *comparing a word to an L1 one*, *skipping insoluble difficulty*, *translating*, *analysing a word and analysing*

grammar, while the only strategy that they attributed to L1 readers is *checking comprehension* (Taillefer and Pugh, 1998, pp 102, 103).

Lau (2006, p 387) examined when a strategy is applied and whether it is cognitive or metacognitive. The researcher divided the reading strategies, used by four good readers, into *pre-reading strategies*, strategies for *identifying and interpreting main information*, reading *monitoring strategies* and *post-reading strategies*. *Pre-reading strategies* are used to form an initial understanding of the text. This understanding can be generated by setting up reading goals, activating prior knowledge or generating initial hypotheses, and using text signals. *Identifying and interpreting main information strategies* are used during reading. This level of reading process involves paraphrasing, looking for linguistic cues, summarising, skipping irrelevant or unimportant linguistic items, constructing macrostructure and flexibly adjusting it, predicting content/ structure of the text, generating questions about the main ideas to establish it, comparing different main ideas, visualising, inferring, and making affective reactions to the text. *Reading monitoring strategies* are used to check and control the reading process: adjusting reading speed based on the difficulty, reading selectively, being aware of the difficulties encountered in the text, rereading to resolve comprehension problems, and inferring the meaning of difficult words based on their structure, pronunciation, or contextual cues. *Post-reading strategies* are used to valuate expectations against the findings and to sum up what has been acquired. They include constructing a cohesive summary of the text, evaluating and reconstructing the hypothesised macrostructure of the text, re-reading parts of the text to increase memory of it, clarifying unclear parts, evaluating the content of the text or the quality of writing, and making affective reactions to the overall content of the text.

Macaro (2001) states that reading skills can be grouped into two main categories: the first is *bottom-up* and the other is *top-down*. While *bottom-up* skills are used to process individual parts of words, whole words, and short phrases in order to obtain syntactic and semantic information, the *top-down* group captures points such as the context of text, the relevance of the text to world knowledge, text grammar, genres, and so forth (Macaro, 2001, p 37).

Kong (2006) classified strategies into two main groups: *text-initiated* strategies and *reader-initiated* strategies. Text-initiated strategies are triggered by the written marks of the text. These strategies are a) focusing on vocabulary which includes *recalling*, *decoding the components of the words* for meaning, *inferring the meaning* from the context, and *using a*

24

dictionary b) using text structure which involves c) summarising is usually done through *paraphrasing* or *restating* what each part is about to make sense of what is read *recognition of the organisation* of the text and *commenting on the writing styles* and d) Anticipating the content of the text is usually achieved through using the associated pictures. On the other hand reader-initiated strategies are *invoking prior knowledge*, *predicting*, *evaluating*, *monitoring*, and *translating*.

In the above-mentioned classifications we can see that strategies were classified according to the trigger of the strategies (text or reader), to the reading timeline (before, ate or after reading), to the scope of strategy application (general, local, word, clause, or text), finally to their function (construct meaning or monitor understanding). The following table summarises the general trend in classifying the strategies.

Researcher	Strategies	Date
Kong	Text-initiated and Reader-initiated	2006
Lau	pre-reading strategies, identifying and interpreting main information, reading monitoring strategies and post-reading strategies	2006
Taillefer and Pugh	general strategies and local strategies	1998
Block	general comprehension strategies and local linguistic strategies	1986
Johnston's	Strategies that aids the reader in constructing a model of the meaning of text and strategies that are used to monitor understanding and take action when necessary	(1983)
Hosenfeld	main meaning line strategies and word-solving strategies	(1977)
Olshavsky	clause related, word related and story related	(1976/1977)

Table 2.2 Classification of strategies in literature

2.8 Transfer of learning

Results of comparing languages and theories of learning can help study the transferability. Language transfer and L2 proficiency are linguistic and processing differences that distinguish the L2 learning environment from the L1 learning environment. Tracing the transferability of reading strategies from one language to the other with reference to textbooks can be considered as a matter of probing the transfer of learning in which language is a factor.

Many approaches have been used to explain transfer: the formal disciplines approach, the behaviourist approach, the generalisation approach, and the cognitive approach.

The formal disciplines approach viewed brain as a muscle like other muscles. This

approach focused on the experience acquired rather than on the content used. Hence, it aimed to train mind's abilities such as memory, attention, and judgement in order to transfer these skills later whenever needed. This approach considered the appropriate material and rote methods of learning as tools to achieve its goals (Kliebard, 1995).

As a reaction toward formal discipline approach principles, the associationism was developed in the behaviourist tradition. It was against the notion of general transfer. Associationism was named after its allies' link between stimulus and response. They assumed that this bond would be affected either positively or negatively by the nature and the frequency of the stimulus–response pairings (Leberman et al., 2006, p 11).

Behaviourism interpretations could account for transfer where the original situation and the new one were quite similar but when the two situations were slightly different then transfer by generalisation sounded more appropriate. Generalisation can be established through discovering or understanding the pattern of relationship in one situation. Then this perception is used to understand another situation which is not very similar.

Research findings of generalisation were imbedded within Gestalt theory. This theory encourages the holistic view in which the whole is considered more important than the sum of its parts, because parts cannot function in isolation. It differs from generalisation approach in that not only similarity between the situations is vital to transfer to happen but also the response of the learner is a crucial factor. On the other hand, it is different from behaviourism in that it rejects the isolated parts. Gestalt theory recognises the general account of shared elements such as intellectual and perception of the learner (Eraut, 1994; Pressley et al., 1987).

In cognitive approaches, transfer of learning is interpreted through the cognitive processes involved. Learners use their previous knowledge, which was generated from previous experience, when they face a new situation. This knowledge can be about what (declarative), how (procedural), why (strategic) knowledge, or tacit/ personal knowledge. Using this previous knowledge is a form of learning transfer. The newly acquired knowledge entails reconstructing the previous knowledge through cognitive processes (Leberman et al., 2006, p 12). Cognitive approaches have many models that account for transfer such as information processing model and schema theory as discussed in section (2.4.2).

In information processing model input–process–output, what is retrieved is derived from what was stored. The training and transfer situations are identical, and what is acquired

during learning will be retrieved when similar cues are found in the transfer context (Pressley et al., 1987).

On the other hand, schema theory is about the mental representation of the world that humans have. Such ideas are formed by the learner within earlier experiences or learning situations. These assumptions/ mental models affect the way people interpret what is around them. Transfer takes place when a link is established between the previously stored assumptions and the newly encountered situation. Whereas failure to connect what is stored to the new situation hinders the transfer process, success in doing so attributes positively to transfer (Pressley et al., 1987).

2.9 Teaching Reading

In the literature three principal perspectives have been developed to identify, teach, and measure reading. The first is interested in reading as a composite of skills as discussed in section (2.1), which need to be taught and measured. The second view emphasises developing activities that may enhance reading. The final perspective attempts to foster the strategies that promote reading and encourage readers' independence (Paris et al., 1986, p 92).

Reading skills can be taught either by using *self instruction* or by using *direct instruction*. When using *self instruction*, students are provided with the material to read, after which they receive feedback from the teacher. Using *direct instruction*, whose main concern is academic reading, students are presented with the aim of instruction and given time devoted to teaching (Huus, 1968; Smith, 1965).

Activities that enhance reading can be *cognitive activities* and/ or *linguistic activities*. Interest in language activities interest because of "the findings of psycholinguistic research during the 1960s regarding the syntactic, semantic, and phonological levels of language that influence reading" (Paris et al., 1986, p 100). These activities, which can be oral or written, mediate between the reading material and comprehension, and support the view of reading as a *guessing game.* Cognitive activities make use of cognitive prompts that help analyse the text. Presenting general material before the reading material can establish a link between what the reader knows and what (s) he is going to know (Ausubel, 1968: 147).

Strategies are taught to familiarise learners with the way they are used and controlled. This can be achieved by *informed strategy instruction* or *self-control training*. In informed strategy instruction, the teacher explains the strategy and trains the students to use them

whereas in self-control training the students are trained "explicitly how to monitor and evaluate their performance" (Paris et al., 1986, pp 105, 106).

Many researchers have pointed out that training readers to use reading strategies and raising their awareness about strategy use affect reading comprehension. In their 2001study, Kolić-Vehovec and Bajšanski concluded that readers who were aware of their frequent use of reading strategies understood texts better . Carrell (1985) tested the effect of introducing the learners to text structure. It was pointed out that the treatment group benefited from the training programme in reading comprehension. In another study, Hamp-Lyons (1985) examined the effect of practising a list of text characteristics, cohesion, coherence, anaphoric reference, and logical connectors. It was observed that the trained group got significantly higher marks than the other subjects who had not been trained. Barnett (1988) trained a group to skim, scan, guess, and predict. It was recognised that comprehension and self-perception of effective strategies increased. Kern (1989) also posited that strategy instruction affects comprehension. Pressley et al. (1992) called for including direct explanation associated with teacher's verbal modelling of the few new strategies that are presented each time.

Barrett (1972) offered a taxonomy, which is meant as a "teaching tool", in which four main categories were introduced namely, *literal recognition* or *recall*, *inference*, *evaluation*, and *appreciation*. Under each category, Barrett (1972) described what students are required to do when practising this category

Nuttall (1996) states that skills/ strategies can be instructed and practised by: setting a purpose, using the appropriate material, using resources within the text; *linear* such as sentences and paragraphs content, and *non-linear* material such as titles, indexes, blurbs, foreword, prefaces, introductions, indexes, tables, diagrams, maps, graphs, illustrations, layout, punctuations, type face, symbols (Nuttall, 1996, p 44).

Whether the aim is teaching the skills, the activities, or the strategies, a teaching method is needed. The *phonic approach* and *look and say approach* are the dominant methods of teaching reading. While the *phonic approach* aims to help readers establish a letter-sound relationship, the *look and say approach* is concerned with meaning. Sometimes a combination of the two approaches is used. (Graham and Kelly, 2008, pp 2- 4). Recently, developing phoneme awareness, reading fluency, vocabulary and reading comprehension are the main concern of researchers and educators (McGuinness, 2004 and Vaughn and Linan-

Thompson, 2004).

2.10 Tools used to study reading

Eye fixation, *perceptual span*, *miscue analysis,* and *verbal protocols* have been used to trace and investigate the relationships, processes, movements, activities, approaches and theories relevant to reading.

2.10.1 Eye Fixation

The term eye fixation refers to the time needed to perceive a written item before moving to another. Tracing eye pauses can help determine the items and places of fixation, the relationship between fixation length and the entry fixated on, and the relationship between fixation time and the position of the next move (Rayner, 1978 and McConkie, 1983). The results of eye fixation analysis have "been used to construct a detailed model of encoding, parsing, and inferential processes, as well as their interaction" (Carpenter and Just, 1986, p 20).

2.10.2 Perceptual Span

Perceptual span refers to how much a reader can see in one movement while reading. The reading span measures the ability to execute many processes efficiently. Readers are classified according to the time they take to carry out a task efficiently: with better readers being able to carry them out faster than poor readers (Daneman and Carpenter, 1980).

2.10.3 Miscue analysis

This is a technique developed by Goodman (1970) to find out the strategies used by the readers. This practice is based on the view that oral reading and silent reading processes are closely related. By using the mistakes made during oral reading, the researcher tries to infer the strategies that the reader uses.

2.10.4 Verbal protocols

In this technique, the readers verbalise their thoughts while they are reading silently. It was adapted from cognitive psychology research (Olshavsky, 1976/1977). Researchers transcribe and record subjects' reported thoughts and analyse them to find out about reading processes and strategies. The results of these techniques have helped researchers develop theories about reading.

2.10.5 Summary

To sum up reading skill researchers have used techniques, ideas and approaches that were used and developed in other sciences, and adapted them to achieve their goals. Theories about memory and computer science have been employed to investigate readers' internal processes and strategies. Theories from psychology theories about learning and learning strategies, and sociological views of the role of the participant and background knowledge have helped researchers examine reading processes and define how reading strategies of one language might affect reading in another

In the above mentioned literature researchers have investigated many issues related to reading strategies. They traced the reading strategies used by good and poor readers and contrasted these groups of strategies. Factors affect implementing and using these strategies have been traced. The role of another language is of the factors that have been investigated. Hence, the relationship between L1 and L2 reading strategies has been investigated. Different hypotheses about this relationship have been proposed.

Nothing within this literature traced reading strategies of good and poor readers with reference to reading textbooks. Reading textbooks constitute the bases for developing reading in general and reading strategies in particular in certain contexts where textbooks are prescribed by educational authorities and other books sources are rarely found (See 3.1).

Chapter 3 Research Methodology

This research was motivated by the literature investigated and the specific characteristics of the context of the study which is different from the contexts of the above studies. In this chapter a section about this context will be presented. The following sections will be about the sample of the study, the techniques used and the ethical considerations in this research.

3.1 Context of the study

This study was conducted in Libya, which is a North African country, where an Arabic dialect is spoken. This dialect is different from standard Arabic. Students in Libya study standard Arabic when they start school, i.e. from the first day. They also start studying English in the second stage of Basic Education (year five). Children go to school at the age of six. Going to school marks the starting point to learn reading and writing. However, few children start reading and writing at mosques when learning Quran (the Muslims Holy book).

Most schools do not have libraries or books that can be used for extensive reading at home. Bookstores can only be found in large cities and books are so expensive to buy for most Libyans. Moreover, newspapers, magazines and other forms of papers are rarely found in most Libyan towns.

Although some public libraries are there, the majority of the books are very old and the themes of the new ones are not children oriented. These characteristics created an environment in which it is hardly to see people read in the street or in transportations. In such an environment reading is shaped by the textbooks prescribed by educational authorities.

Moreover, in this context textbooks are prescribed by educational authirities i.e. teachers are not involved in textbook decision, and teachers are bounded by a teacher's guide book which prescribes how each lesson should be handled. Teachers are monitored through inspectors, who visit schools three times per school year. Though L2 textbooks have been developed to encourage communication, such a control may hinder that goal because teacher's concern is sticking to time schedule.

3.1.1 The Education System in Libya

There are three educational stages in Libya: Basic Education, Intermediate Education,

31

and Higher Education. Basic Education is obligatory while Intermediate Education and Higher Education are mandatory. Basic Education takes nine years and involves children from 6-15 years old; Intermediate Education, usually, takes 3-4 years and is for students from 16-18/ 19 years old; and Higher Education can extend for between 3 and 6 years and is for students who have finished secondary school. The academic year in all these education stages is usually eight months, from September to April.

Basic Education "aims at providing the pupil with necessary principles, behaviour, knowledge, expertise and practical skills" (Otman and Karlberg, 2007, p 101). In this stage, children are expected to the study of standard Arabic (reading, writing, and grammar), mathematics, sciences, history, geography, Islamic culture, English, and national education.

After completing Basic Education successfully, children are expected to choose either a secondary school, if they wish to go into Higher Education later, or an Intermediate college, if they wish to start a job after finishing. There are five kinds of secondary schools: basic sciences (physics, chemistry, biology, and maths) social sciences (Arabic, English, legislation sciences, and sociology) physiology (medicine and agriculture), engineering (construction, electricity and electronics, mechanics, and natural resources), economics (management, finance, and statistics), and media and arts (fine arts and media). There are many Intermediate colleges, which were established to provide the society with essential workers: Mechanic Colleges, Electricity Colleges, Construction and Engineering Colleges, Hotel-Services Colleges, and Marine Colleges (Ahmad et al., 2004, pp 18-20). Most courses studied in the Intermediate schools or colleges are classified by field. However, some courses are common to all Intermediate Education institutions: Islamic Culture, Arabic, English, National Education, and Statistics. Almost all the material used for these courses is topic oriented, i.e. relevant to the specific courses.

Some of the Intermediate colleges have been developed into Higher Education institutions. These higher institutes, technical centres, and the universities form the Higher Education sector in Libya. They award professional Diplomas, Baccalaureates, Masters, or Doctorates depending on the level and the particular university/higher institute (Otman and Karlberg, 2007, p 102). The majority of Libyan universities are collegiate; only a few are departmental. As in Intermediate Education, some courses (in Higher Education) are general, i.e. shared by all colleges these include English, Arabic, and National Education. The rest of the courses are decided by the university and the college. There is a tendency to coordinate

the curriculum in similar Higher Education institutions.

Basic Education textbooks and Intermediate Education textbooks are prescribed by Curricula Division in the Secretary (Ministry) of Education, while Higher Education textbooks are prescribed by teachers in accordance with the outlined aims decided by the board of the institution. The medium of instruction of most of these textbooks is Arabic, but some Higher Education colleges use English, e.g. for English language departments, colleges of medicine, and most engineering colleges.

3.1.2 Arabic and English Teaching in Libyan Schools

Arabic as a subject is introduced in the first year of Basic Education and is taught up to the end of the second year of Higher Education. On the other hand, English is introduced in the fifth year of Basic Education and is taught up to the end of the second year of Higher Education.

3.1.2.1 Arabic Courses

In years one, two, and three of Basic Education, Arabic is taught for six hours per week. These hours are divided into 8 lessons, with 45 minutes for each. This time is mainly devoted to reading and writing. At the beginning of the first year, children are introduced to pictures, through which they practise standard pronunciation. Then they are taught the 28 characters of the Arabic alphabet. The main concern at this phase is establishing the relationship between these graphemes and their phonemes. After mastering the alphabet, short sentences are presented. These sentences are on topics that are familiar to the children. Teachers also narrate oral stories and discuss them with the children. Children are also introduced to ditties which are later memorised. These stories and ditties emphasise certain educational goals, which range from religious to social ones. More ditties and short paragraphs about a wide range of topics are introduced to year two children. In year three, paragraphs become longer and comprehension is stressed. In addition to learning reading and writing, dictation, and grammar are addressed and practised through the reading material.

In years four, five and six of Basic Education, Arabic lessons are reduced to seven lessons per week. Reading material, in these years, becomes more abstract, and students are introduced to Arabic morphology and syntax. Reading topics, at these stages, are more complicated in meaning and structure. After each text a set of comprehension questions is used.

In their report to the International Conference on Education in 2008, Libyan Education authorities specified the time dedicated to reading (in Arabic) for the first six years of Basic Education:

> The number of annual classes allocated to reading in [the] early elementary stages, is 238 classes, in addition to 136 annual classes in Islamic Education, which supports reading skills. The number of school years in which reading is primarily taught are 6 years [sic] (from first to sixth grades), but pupils are [also] taught subjects that help them learn to read at [sic] the seventh to ninth grades (The General People's Committee of Education, 2008, p 48).

In years seven and eight the Arabic course is divided into separate courses: Reading and Composition 2 lessons, Dictation 1 lesson, Grammar 2 lessons and Literary Texts 1 lesson. Year nine is different, to some extent, from years seven and eight in the number of lessons devoted to each component: Reading and composition 2 lessons, Grammar 1 lesson, Dictation 1 lesson and Literary Texts 1 lesson. Although they are different in the lessons located to each Arabic sub-course, material type and presentation is the same. Literary texts which contain many abstractions are introduced, and questions which explore students' comprehension are presented, after each text.

In Intermediate Education, Arabic is presented in the form of two books: one is concerned with grammar and figures of speech and the other is concerned with reading. Most reading material is derived from famous literary works. Three forty-five-minute lessons per week are located to these books. This time schedule is applied to the first, second and third secondary years.

3.1.2.2 English

English is not taught in years one, two, three, and four of Basic Education. Years five, six, seven, eight, and nine study general English, which is not associated with a particular field. The time devoted to English is 3 hours weekly. These 3 hours represent 4 lessons of 45 minutes each. The presentation of the material, to a large extent, is similar to that of Arabic material in the first four stages: simple sentences and dialogues are associated with pictures.

An English course is given to all Intermediate Education students. In this stage, English courses are geared toward the field of the secondary school or the intermediate college. Speaking, listening, reading, writing, and grammar shape these textbooks. In addition to these skills, students who are specialising in English study other linguistic aspects such as

pronunciation and literature. Most reading material is in the form of short stories, factual extracts, and dialogues. Communicative approach is the current teaching method employed in these textbooks. Using communicative language teaching implies using activities that encourage communication and urging students to communicate.

Both languages, standard Arabic and English, are introduced in school. The time allocated to Arabic in school schedule is more than that allocated to English. Moreover, learning Arabic is enhanced by the surrounding environment whereas learning English is usually confined to school environment. The same rule applies to learning reading in both languages. These differences and these two languages specific features may lead to using different reading strategies or transferring one or more strategies from one language to the other.

In this research, data were collected from two sources: reading textbooks and university students. Content analysis was used to collect data from the textbooks, while Cloze tests and semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from university students. Thus, in this study, a mixed methodology was employed to answer the research questions.

The textbook analysis, in this study, addressed two of the research questions:

1) What reading strategies are presented in L1 reading textbooks and in L2 reading textbooks?

2) Are there any differences in the reading strategies introduced in L1 reading textbooks and L2 reading textbooks?

A coding process and descriptive procedure were used to address these questions. The evidence which provided the outcome of addressing the first question is presented in the form of percentages which summarise the data gathered. The outcome related to the second question is in the form of a contrast between the results obtained from the textbooks analysis.

The third and fourth questions are answered through the interview using the two Cloze tests (one of them in Arabic and the other in English), and interviewees' reading habits:

3) What reading strategies does a representative sample of first year university students use in an L1 reading comprehension test and in an L2 reading comprehension test?

4) Do they transfer any reading strategies from L1 to L2 or vice versa? If yes,

What L1 reading strategies do good and poor readers transfer to L2 reading comprehension?

What L2 reading strategies do good and poor readers transfer to L1 reading comprehension?

The semi-structured interview is aligned with qualitative research methodology. The researcher used this instrument to account for the subjects' reading strategies when doing the Cloze tests. Hence, "the researcher tries to get closer to what is being studied" (Punch, 2005, pp 237-238). Because of the complexity of this qualitative research environment, the sample used involved fewer participants than those who participated previously in Cloze tests. The sample was selected on basis of Cloze test achievement; subjects' potential to participate in the interview was decided by their achievement in the Cloze test. Data gathered through qualitative research instruments are characterised by their detailed description, i.e. they are based on words rather than numbers. These words "are relatively imprecise, diffuse, and context-based, and can have more than one meaning" (Neuman, 2007, p 329). Content analysis was used to analyse the data collected from the interviews.

3.2 Research sample

There were two different samples: reading textbooks and first year Libyan university students.

3.2.1 Textbook sample

Representativeness did not constitute a problem because the same textbooks are used in all Libyan schools. Arabic reading textbooks and the sections devoted to reading in English textbooks [EFL] constituted the raw material for the textbook analysis. The Arabic reading textbooks were of 3rd , 4th ,5th , 6th , 7th , 8th , and 9th years of Basic Education and of the 1st , 2nd , and 3rd years of Secondary Education. The English reading textbooks were used in the 9th year of Basic Education and the 1st, 2nd and 3rd years of the Secondary Education, English Section.

The 3rd Basic Education reading textbook constituted the starting point for Arabic textbooks because it was the earliest reading textbook to introduce paragraphs, which constitute the appropriate reading material to go beyond decoding to practice comprehension processes. The 9th Basic Education English textbook was chosen for the same reason.

The research did not extend to university stage textbooks for two reasons: the human subjects for this study were students who had just joined the university, i.e. they had yet not been exposed to the university curriculum when doing the tests and the interviews. In addition, while the textbooks for the Basic Education and Secondary Education are prescribed to all Libyan schools by education authorities, university textbooks are selected by

the teacher, which might result in different textbooks and would therefore make it difficult to obtain a focused source of data.

3.2.2 University student sample

There were two groups, the first one being the participants who took the Cloze test and the second the participants who were involved in the follow-up interviews.

Libyan first year university students, majoring in English constituted the population of the Cloze test. The members of this population had studied Arabic for twelve years and English for at least six years. In Arabic and English courses, the target participants had experienced reading lessons in addition to learning other linguistic knowledge such as grammar, writing, and oral skills.

Two of the twelve Libyan universities were selected because of their convenience in terms of distance and time, i.e. the researcher could access them easily. These universities are The 7th of April University and Al-Jabla Al-Gharby University. In each of these two universities, there colleges in which there were English departments. These colleges are the College of Arts and Sciences in Sabrata, and the College of Arts and Sciences in Zawia (both belonging to the 7th of April University), and the College of Arts and Sciences in Yefren (Al-Jabal Al-Gharby University). 221 first year students in the selected colleges constituted the sample for the Cloze tests. When doing the Cloze tests, subjects were informed that if they wished to participate in the follow-up interviews, they should indicate this on the Cloze test form (see 3.3.2).

Sampling for the interview depended on the Cloze test results. After marking these it consisted of two stages. A stratified sampling strategy was used in the first stage to identify potential interviewees, and after that random sampling was used to choose the actual interviewees. The first stage involved identifying those who had agreed to take part in the interview, and then followed a stratified sampling stage. In this phase, potential interview participants were grouped according to their achievement in the Cloze test. There were three groups: the first group selected had achieved from 0% - 33%, the second group had achieved 34% - 66% and the final group had achieved 67% - 100%. Subjects who achieved 0-33 % were considered poor readers and subjects who achieved 67-100 % were considered good readers. In each college, the researcher interviewed two students from each category. Those two subjects were selected randomly for the interviews. Hence, 12 subjects were interviewed

37

in all. However, to avoid problems of absence or any other circumstances, instead of choosing two, four were chosen in each category. The first two available subjects in each list of nominees were interviewed.

3.3 Research techniques

Research techniques included these data collection instruments: content analysis, Cloze tests, and interviews, and the data analysis tools: content analysis.

Due to the research questions and sources of data, the researcher decided to use content analysis to collect data from the textbooks and Cloze tests and interviews to obtain data from human subjects. Data for this study could also be collected by observing participants as they verbalised their thoughts, during the test, using the questionnaire and/ or during the interview.

3.3.1 Content analysis

Content analysis has been defined as "the systematic analysis of the content of the media document in question" (Sanders and Liptrot, 1994), as a "technique for gathering and analysing the content of text" (Neuman, 2007, p 227), and as "an approach to the analysis of documents and texts (which may be printed or visual) that seeks to quantify content in terms of predetermined categories and in a systematic and replicable manner" (Bryman, 2001, p 177). Cohen et al. (2007) extend the definition of content analysis to include interview transcriptions and personal interviews (Cohen et al., 2007, p 475). Weber (1990) suggests that content analysis can incorporate both quantitative and qualitative analyses of texts (Weber, 1990, p 10). This wide range of uses draws attention to the flexibility of content analysis as a research method.

Content analysis was chosen in this instance for exploring textbooks because it is a tool for gathering and analysing data from written materials. It was also used because it was very difficult to contact textbook authors due to the absence of contact information, and time limitations. Using content analysis enabled the researcher to define reading strategies that those authors tried to present in the targeted textbooks.

When using content analysis the data was presented in the form of percentage to highlight the frequency of each strategy used in each reading textbook. Categories were mostly derived from literature about reading strategies as described in the previous chapter.

Because content analysis is *systematic*, using it contributed to the objectivity of textbook analysis. When using content analysis to explore textbooks, there was no threat to subjects' privacy. In this sense, content analysis was described by Neuman (2007, p 227) as nonreactive and by Krippendorp (2004) as an unobtrusive technique.

Content analysis was also used to analyse interview data. Using the same instrument and same procedure helped avoid variability within the results that may arise from using different analytical tools for the same purpose, defining reading strategies used in the textbooks and highlighting reading strategies which the subjects might use.

However, its significance can be affected by the authenticity, credibility, and representativeness of the documents used (Scott, 1990). Concerning these points, the documents (textbooks) which were used in this study are intended to teach reading and are representative of what is presented in the context of this study.

Because it is systematic, content analysis requires clear steps. These steps are sampling, choosing the right measurement, developing accurate operational definitions, then analysing the data. Operationalising the theoretical constructs into measurable elements, through using codes, adds to the objectivity and precision of content analysis. I used content analysis to answer the first two questions of my study:

1) What reading strategies are presented in L1 reading textbooks and L2 reading textbooks?
2) Are there any differences between reading strategies introduced in L1 reading textbooks and the strategies introduced in L2 reading textbooks?

The target textbooks (Arabic and English reading textbooks) were developed by The National Centre for the Planning of Education. Native-speaking Arabic specialists wrote the Arabic reading textbooks and native-speaking English specialists wrote the English reading textbooks. The material used in both textbook categories was intended to develop reading skills. An Arabic reading textbook is prescribed to each year in Basic Education and Secondary Education, while English textbooks are prescribed to 5th year Basic Education students up to the end of Secondary Education. A section in each unit of English textbooks is dedicated to developing reading skills.

Within the textbooks, the activities and exercises that were presented before, within and after the reading material were targeted for content analysis. The exercises and activities were not sampled, i.e. whole exercises and activities were checked to find out what reading strategies they contained. Thus, generalisability of the results to the same context could be

attained because Libyan students study the same textbooks.

In this part of the study, the units of analysis were the items that represented reading activities and exercises in Arabic reading textbooks and the English reading textbooks. These units were "the amount of text that [was] assigned a code" (Neuman, 2007, p 231). 'Exercises' in this study are taken to mean any interrogative sentence, and 'activities' to signify tasks based on reading material and performed by the reader, such as filling in gaps, matching columns and so on. Activities usually take the imperative form. If an item (activity or interrogative element) consisted of more than one part, each item was considered a unit.

Neuman (2007) states that content analysis is a "systematic, careful observation based on written rules" (p228). In this research operational definitions were used to guide categorisation and enable replication. The definitions of learning strategies and reading strategies, which were presented in chapter (II), were used to establish operational definitions of the reading strategies identified in the textbooks. Verbs constituted the core of coding process. Using these explicit linguistic items is called manifest coding (Neuman, 2007, p 228). Coding reliability then needed to be increased through establishing written rules for these and working cautiously. The context of these verbs (in the activities and exercises) was therefore accounted for too, and this is called latent coding (Neuman, 2007, p 230). Making use of the reliability of manifest coding and the validity of latent coding contributes to the overall veracity, trustworthiness and reliability of content analysis findings. A coding system was produced to specify these coding rules after the initial analysis. According to these rules, each analysis unit (activity or interrogative item) was labelled using words that helped relate them to their categories which were named after reading strategies.

In this research, categories were derived from research questions and hence were named after reading strategies, (which facilitated relating strategies as theoretical constructs to categories). These categories needed to be and were "mutually exclusive and exhaustive" (Sanders and Liptrot, 1994, p 126). After developing the categories they were tested through piloting "to test the trustworthiness of data treatment method by collaborating with others" (Ibid p133). This was achieved by developing a particular form which contained samples of the data and the categories. This form was distributed to other PhD students who knew Arabic and English to find out whether they interpreted the data and categories in the same way as the researcher.

After highlighting the codes and categories, the researcher identified the space dedicated to each strategy in each textbook through its frequency. After discovering the frequencies, they were represented in pie charts to summarise the key points. After this description the researcher identified the strategy patterns that emerged in the reading textbooks.

3.3.2 Cloze test

There are many techniques that are used to assess reading such as Cloze tests, multiple-choice questions, matching techniques, ordering tasks, and comprehension dichotomous items (true or false, agree or disagree). This study employs a Cloze test to assess the subjects' reading ability and to provide them with a task in which they use reading strategies.

Because of the ability of working memory, lengthy periods between a reading test and a follow-up interview about that test can result in forgetting some of the processes followed during the test. To minimize this period Cloze test was used because it could be easily and rapidly scored in a short time. This type of tests also provided the students with an environment in which they used reading strategies, and helped the researcher differentiate between good and poor readers. Compared to other reading questions such as open-ended questions and multiple-choice questions, a Cloze does not interrupt reading process because the questions are inserted within the reading material. Because introducing choices contributes to scoring efficiency (DuBay, 2004), multiple choices were introduced in each space. These choices were different from multiple-choice tests because they were in the form of words. Using just words provided less information to the subjects; this process minimised external factors that could affect student's responses.

The Cloze test was first devised by Taylor (1953) to test readability or text difficulty. This can be captured by the title 'Cloze Procedure: A New Tool for Measuring Readability' (DuBay, 2004, p 26). Since then Cloze tests have been used by many researchers to test reading comprehension, and in different areas of reading (Bensoussan & Ramraz, 1984; Bormuth, 1969; Carver, 1992; Cohen, 1986; Dubay, 2004; Ikeda & Takeuchi, 2006; Koda, 1993; Kolić-Vehovec & Bajšanski, 2007; Pichette, Segalowitz, & Connors, 2003; and Taillefer & Pugh, 1998; Greene, 2001). Greene (2001) points out that the Cloze test can be used to test subjects' ability to recognise "cohesive devices and the ability to draw inferences

from other sentences" (p 82). Such abilities characterise readers who are not beginners. It is probably for this reason DuBay (2004) asserts that "Cloze tests are suitable for intermediate and advanced readers" (p 27).

A Cloze test is a test in which a text is used and some of its words are deleted, usually on a regular basis. Subjects are required to fill in the blanks. In some Cloze tests, a word bank or choices are available for the subject to use when filling the spaces. Providing subjects with choices and selecting specific gaps can enable the researcher to tailor the choices to achieve their research goals (Bensoussan and Ramraz, 1984, p 230). Bensoussan and Ramraz (1984) also argue that introducing multiple choices in a Cloze test "permits the test designers to focus on a desired amount of text, whether on the micro-level or macro-level" (p230). Alderson (2000) considers that departure from deletion on regular basis is a move away from Cloze test. She describes deletion on an irregular basis as *gap-filling* (Alderson, 2000, p 208).

Compared to other reading questions, such as open-ended questions and multiple-choice questions, a Cloze test can help facilitate decision making about subjects' answers. Moreover, in other ways of testing reading, the reader needs to move between the reading material and the questions; in a Cloze test such an interruption of the reading process does not happen.

Cloze tests are characterised by their efficiency, i.e. many spaces (testing items) within one page. Moreover, the subject does not need to move between the text and the questions. Providing multiple-choices in the spaces of a Cloze test can capture the advantages of multiple-choice tests; a test developer can control the choices to suit his/ her purpose. Choices in Cloze tests are provided in the form of words rather than phrases or sentences which are presented in multiple-choices tests. By adopting this way, Cloze tests avoid the usual criticism of multiple-choices test of the possible contribution of the distractors[1] i.e. providing subjects with ideas that otherwise would not be apparent.

Scores of Cloze test as a tool to assess "reading comprehension and readability" have been found to correlate with results of other similar tools (Benjamin B. Greene, 2001, p 82; Pichette et al., 2003, p 393). Oller (1979) argues that Cloze tests have high reliability. Reliability means that subjects' results are variable because of the actual differences among the subjects and not because of the instrument itself. A Cloze test in particular can be reliable

---

[1] This term is used in multiple-choice questions to refer to items other than the correct one.

when choices are introduced because it tries "to measure at the most precise level as possible" (Neuman, 2007, p 116). The reliability of tests can be compromised by the way they are scored "when subjective techniques are used" (Brown, 1994, pp 253, 254). Reliability can be measured by administering the same subjects as soon as possible, although this technique may produce less reliable results because of practice effect. To avoid this effect, an equivalent test may be used, although it is difficult to find a perfect equivalent. Reliability can also be measured by splitting the test into two then comparing the results of the two halves (Walsh, 1989, pp 12, 13).

Bormuth (1965) and Rankin (1959) stated that the validity of Cloze test results could be achieved by limiting scoring to correcting only the words that match the deleted words. It has been shown that there is a match between these sorts of Cloze test scores and other reading comprehension tests (Bormuth, 1969). This claim has also been corroborated by Vincent (1985), who stated that "Cloze tests tend to agree closely with other conventional tests of reading ability. It is certainly possible to speculate that Cloze tasks involve a range of processes which are central to reading comprehension" (p 14).

The Cloze tests used in the present study were piloted twice before developing the final version. Because regular deletion makes it easy to prepare (Pichette et al., 2003, p 393), the first piloted Cloze test form followed regular basis deletion: every 5th word was deleted. The deleted words of each paragraph were grouped together to form a word bank (for that paragraph) from which subjects could choose. In addition, a question at the end of each text asked the subjects to supply a title to the text. This question is to judge subjects' recognition of the main idea.

Three Cloze test sets were piloted in order to choose the most appropriate one for the subjects. Appropriateness was decided by students' achievement and their feedback after the piloting. In these three sets, six texts, of which three were written in Arabic and three in English, were used. Each of the three sets consisted of an Arabic text and an English text which shared the same general theme. Subjects' level, abstractness of the texts, and general knowledge (text relevance to students' major) affect readers' achievement and the strategies they use (Afflerbach, 1990; Ikeda and Takeuchi, 2006; Kletzien, 1991; Kozminsky and Kozminsky, 2001). These factors were used to ascertain the difficulties of the three sets.

The tests were administered to subjects similar to the target population (students who

used the reading textbooks used in textbook analysis).

The result for each text was compared to its counterparts of the same language. The easiest and the most difficult texts were excluded to avoid frustration level with difficult texts (Lu, 2006, p 17) and autoimmunization with the easy ones (Afflerbach, 1990, p 33). The same exclusion principles were used within the selected texts i.e. the gaps filled by all subjects and the gaps which were left blank by all subjects were excluded.

The Cloze tests selected from the first piloting were piloted again to a sample of the actual population to discover the most appropriate layout and the time needed. These tests were the final form of the main Cloze test which was presented to the actual subjects.

The selected Arabic and English texts which were piloted the second time were used for the main Cloze tests. In each of these texts, no words were deleted from the first two sentences. Choices were provided as three options that were placed in each gap. Three words were bracketed in each space; two of them were distractors. Introducing such choices can contribute to scoring efficiency (DuBay, 2004). However, the last paragraph did not contain any choices. These distractors were chosen on structural and lexical bases. Distractors were carefully selected to avoid the applicability of more than one choice to the gap. The tests were scored by assigning a mark only to the correct choices and ignoring the incorrect ones.

When the Cloze test was conducted, the researcher presented a brief introduction to the study. This introductory part was presented orally because participants may have skipped reading it if it was written. In this explanation, the researcher introduced himself, the university at which he is studying, his sponsor, and the relationship between the sponsor and the researcher. The respondents were informed about why they had been chosen and how anonymity would be applied to their answers and results. In addition, they were informed about the possible contribution of this research.

On the Cloze test forms, there was a space available for the participants to write their names if they wished to participate in the interviews. Filling this space was considered to constitute an initial agreement to participate in the interview.

3.3.3 Interviews

Strategies have been examined through using different techniques such as "think-aloud verbal reports, interviews, questionnaires, observations, and written recalls"

(Bernhardt, 1991 in Brantmeier, 2002, p 1). Researchers have also asked subjects to describe "their learning processes and strategies through retrospective interviews, stimulated recall interviews, questionnaires, written diaries and journals, and think-aloud protocols concurrent with a learning task" (Chamot, 2004, p 15).

Questionnaires are frequently used to investigate reading strategies because they are economical, anonymous and reliable. However, they are usually used long before or after reading tasks, i.e. when the questionnaire is filled in, no reading task is present. In questionnaires, when the interviewer is not present, some questions may be interpreted differently by different respondents. Questionnaires limit the kind of questions used and the information gathered; open questions may not encourage respondents, while structured questions may not provide enough information. Illiterate people and those of limited literacy cannot fill in questionnaires. Usually, questionnaires are filled in hurriedly. Questionnaires usually take a long time to be returned and sometimes they are not returned at all. Some questionnaires, although they are returned, are incomplete. Another shortcoming is that researchers do not know under what conditions the questionnaire was completed and subjects may assert that they used strategies that they did not use. Sometimes questions in the questionnaire need to be answered in the order they are presented and subjects may not follow that order, which may produce different results. Usually open questions and other kinds of questions may not be understood and cannot be used in questionnaires. With most questionnaires, the interviewer is not present so the context and reactions of the respondents cannot be reported (Neuman, 2007, pp 186-187).

In addition to written techniques, oral reports are used to collect data about strategies. Oral reports may include recalling, thinking-aloud protocols, or retrospective interviews. In recalling tasks, the subjects are asked to read a text then they are asked to state what they can remember. The recall account is recorded then analysed. Recalling procedure is usually used to find out about memory capacity, ability and procedures.

Think-aloud protocols require the subjects to verbalise their thoughts while doing a task and the researcher records these descriptions. The researcher may introduce written marks within the task or use verbal open-ended questions to prompt the subjects to verbalize their thoughts. Such a procedure requires a session to train the subjects to think aloud. Moreover, it requires technical facilities that enable recording subjects' verbalised thoughts. Bryman (2001, p 330) points that when subjects feel that they are being observed "they may

behave less naturally".

The interview is one of the verbal techniques that is used to gather and probe for information in depth through using direct oral communication. The respondents' involvement in this verbal interaction is helpful to increase a response rate which may not otherwise be achieved when using other techniques such as questionnaires. The interview is conducted at an appropriate speed that suits the respondents. Using interviews emphasises the view that knowledge is generated by subjects rather than considering humans and knowledge as separate entities. This knowledge is usually produced through conversation (Kvale, 1996). Interviews can be used alone or in conjunction with other research strategies. They are often used for different purposes such as gathering data for the research, testing hypotheses, identifying variables and their relationships, or supporting other research techniques. Interviews are used in both quantitative and qualitative research. However, interviews, unless they are well prepared, are liable to be subjective and uneconomical. (Cohen et al., 2007, pp 351, 352)

Interviews can be classified in terms of their flexibility, the research approach they follow, and the number of participants involved in the verbal interaction. In terms of flexibility and the type of questions used, some interviews have questions that are standardised and the interviewer cannot modify these questions (structured interview), while others are flexible and can be subject to continuous change (unstructured interviews). However, some interviews can be in between these two extremes (semi-structured interviews).

Qualitative and quantitative approaches tend to use interviews differently, i.e. their different perspectives generate different interviewing procedures. In qualitative research, the interest lies in investigating the interviewees' points of view and perspectives to obtain as rich data as possible. To achieve this purpose interviewers sometime change the order of questions or even depart from the previously prepared schedule. Moreover, new questions can be introduced since they contribute to the issues being examined. New directions which need to be explored can emerge in the course of the interview, and interviewees can be contacted more than once. This flexibility makes interviews in qualitative research tend not to be specially rigid, i.e. standardisation is not used. Because of this departure from formality, qualitative research interviews usually start with general questions rather than specific ones.

Conversely, interviews within a quantitative approach are standardised and much more formal than their counterparts found in qualitative research. Formality increases both the reliability and validity of the interview. This standardisation is based on a researcher's previously held thoughts and concerns. The main concern of the researcher is to find answers to his/ her questions. This standardisation is threatened by violating the schedule, changing the questions or their order. Thus, these interviews are inflexible. Coding of data generated from these interviews is easy because everything is clear and predetermined. Clarity and standardisation exclude the need to contact the interviewee again (Bryman, 2001, p 313). Between these two, we can find the semi-structured interview. This type is more flexible than structured interviews. The interviewer follows a general schedule but can alter the sequence of these questions. He/she can also paraphrase the questions provided or add other questions as they contribute to data richness. However, the interview guide should be applied to all interviewees.

Interviews can also be classified according to the number of participants involved, i.e. focus group interviews and one-to-one interviews. Whereas a one-to-one interview is the usual way of conducting an interview, interviewing several people together is also common. In a one-to-one interview, the interviewing process is an alternation of question and answer between the interviewer and the interviewee. In a focus group interview, the role of the interviewer is "as a moderator or facilitator, and less as an interviewer" (Punch, 2005, p 171).

Interviews can also be classified according to the way they are administered, e.g. telephone interviews and face-to-face interviews. Telephone interviews can be effective if they are performed by a well-trained staff of interviewers. If a good telephone network is available, a large number of respondents can be interviewed in few days and the response rate can be high. Compared to face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews cost less. Compared to questionnaires, the respondents of telephone interview are most likely to answer all the questions alone. However, telephone interviews are more expensive than some other instruments, such as the online interview. Conducting such interviews also requires a modern and well-developed telephone network, which may not be available to everybody or in all nations. Introducing open-ended questions can add to the cost, and respondents may become bored. Telephone calls may interfere with respondents' activities and responsibilities.

In this research, interviews were used to explore reading strategies. Questionnaires were not used for the purposes of this study because of the aforementioned shortcomings and

the limitations of using open-ended questions. Investigating subjects reading requires deep probing which questionnaires can seldom achieve. Think-aloud protocol is a good technique to explore reading strategies but it was difficult to implement in the context of the present study because of a lack of the facilities needed to implement it and a lack of time to let the subjects practise it.

The follow-up interviews were conducted after the subjects had filled in the Cloze tests. Sometimes this procedure is criticised because subjects may forget what they did in the task. To avoid this shortcoming, the results of the Cloze tests were evaluated as soon as possible after the tests were taken. Soon after, interviewees were selected and the interviews were conducted. Therefore, an interviewee's Cloze test forms could be used as a reminder or prompt for them to verbalise what they did when answering certain points. The interview was employed to gather data through direct verbal interaction between the researcher and each interviewee. In this interview, open-ended questions were asked and the answers were recorded.

In this research the interview and Cloze test results contributed to each other; the Cloze test helped identify good and poor readers and created an environment in which reading strategies were used. Furthermore, the interview provided a full picture of the strategies used by good readers and poor readers.

Because of the clear focus guided by the research questions in this study and what resulted from textbook analysis, semi-structured interviews were used to answer the research questions related to reading strategies used by good and poor readers. They were also used to find out whether the subjects had transferred any of first language reading strategies to their English reading or vice versa. Although there were previously prepared questions, other questions emerged whenever any of the interviewees did not provide enough or clear information, or did not answer a question. The data were in the form of qualitative data but later they were summarised as quantitative data and transformed into the form of pie charts.

The semi-structured interview here aimed to explore readers' differences, i.e. what distinguishes good readers from poor readers. For this reason one-to-one interviews were used rather than focus group interview. It was also a face-to face interview in order to account for the non-verbal reactions which might contribute to the aims of the research. Neuman (2007, p 190) points out that facial expression, voice tone, and wording of the questions may

affect the responses provided by the interviewee. The researcher tried to account for these factors in order not to be mislead by the responses.

The questions used in the interview considered the level of the respondents to avoid ambiguity, and vague words were not used in order to reduce any confusion. Emotional words that might affect subjects' responses were not used either, i.e. the language used was neutral. Moreover, leading questions were avoided in order to help the respondents express their own strategies rather than feeling that something was right or wrong.

There are two kinds of questions close-ended questions and open-ended questions. Close-ended questions assume fixed predetermined responses. These responses are provided for the subjects to choose from. Thus, the respondent has limited options. In open-ended questions, the respondent can provide any answer he/ she wants.

Although close-ended questions are easy to prepare, to code and to replicate, they suggest ideas, may be confusing, and may suggest brief answers to complicated issues. In this research open-ended questions were used because they gave the respondents the chance to answer freely and in detail. They also enable clarifications and deep investigation. However, statistical analysis became difficult or even impossible. Using such questions also requires more time than close-ended questions and they are difficult to code. To account for these problems, the same procedure and coding that was used in textbook analysis was used with these interview data.

Subjects who agreed to be interviewed after doing the Cloze test were informed that a few of them would be selected randomly. Interviewees were informed again about the research, and were provided with the consent form that had been checked and approved by the supervisors and responsible body in the School of Education. Again, the content of this form was explained in the respondents' first language, Arabic. Each respondent was asked to read the form carefully and sign it if he/ she wished to participate.

To encourage the interviewees and reduce any embarrassment, anxiety or suspicion, the researcher tried to establish a relationship with them. However this was controlled in order not to affect interviewing time, as suggested by Bryman (2001, pp 114, 115). The researcher also tried to be neutral and objective, i.e. not expressing any verbal or nonverbal reactions to interviewees' answers.

One of the problems of open and semi-structured interviews is recording the answers.

This problem was addressed by using a recorder. After the participants agreed to be recorded during his/ her interview, each interview was recorded with a digital voice recorder. A folder was located for each college participant and a digital voice file was located for each participant. In addition, written notes were also used to capture interviewees' non-verbal reactions.

The early conversation was about the research and its relationship to the interviewees "to avoid confusing the respondents why they have been asked irrelevant questions" and to "grab the attention of the respondent(s)" (Bryman, 2001, p 119). To avoid participants' communicating information, about the questions and responses, to the next interviewees, the researcher did not announce the next interviewees' names and did not provide possible answers to any of the interview questions.

An interview guide was prepared to guide the course of the interview. This guide contained questions that sought the strategies used when answering the Cloze tests, and questions which were based on the results of textbook analysis. These questions can be found in the appendix.

The first group of questions was to find out about what the interviewees did or thought when they chose a word to fill the gap. They were also asked to justify their choices whenever they did not mention this. In this group of questions, subjects' Cloze test sheets were used as stimuli and prompts. Using the answer sheet enabled the subjects to remember and reveal their actual reading strategies during the Cloze test. This last step helped eliminate the effect of time between doing the Cloze test and conducting the interview.

The second main group of questions was about the reading strategies that constituted the difference between the first language (Arabic) textbooks and foreign language (English) textbooks. To preserve the meaning attributed to the strategies, each question was worded in a way that captured the definition of the strategy developed in textbook analysis i.e. definition statements were transferred into interrogative questions. In this group, whenever needed, prompts were used to probe for more information (Neuman, 2007, p 192). These prompts ranged from other questions, body gestures, to just silence.

The time, place, and setting of the interview were discussed with the interviewees and the responsible body in the colleges. To minimise the external factors effect, I tried to interview each respondent alone, although one personal issue surfaced in the actual

environment (details can be found in the second subject in Yefrin College). Concerns about the effects of ethnic-racial group (Neuman 2007) did not arise because the researcher was of the same origin as the interviewees. The time allocated to each interview depended on the time needed to answer all questions; however, half an hour was sufficient.

At the end of the interview, the researcher thanked each respondent for participation. The researcher also offered to provide the interviewees with the results of their participation.

3.4 Ethical considerations

All results and outcomes were anonymised. The time of the Cloze test and the interview were discussed with the subjects. Concerning the kind of questions that were asked, none of them affected or threatened subjects' rights or their privacy. Subjects were informed of their rights to agree or refuse to answer any of the questions and that they could withdraw from the study at any time. All these issues were clearly noted in the consent form signed by the subjects.

The following table provides an overview of the methodology used.

Subjects	Number	Research instruments
Textbooks: Arabic reading textbooks: 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th, and 9th years reading textbooks of Basic Education and of the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd years of Secondary Education. English reading textbooks: 9th year Basic Education English textbook and the 1st, 2nd and 3rd years reading textbooks of the Secondary Education.	10 Arabic reading textbooks 4 English textbooks (each of the secondary stage textbooks consist of Skills A and Skills B) NB: The second part of second year in secondary stage was not analysed (4.1.1)	Content Analysis
Cloze test participant (37 spaces in Arabic, 40 spaces in English)	221 first year university students	Descriptive statistics
Interviewees	12 students of cloze test participants	Content analysis (See appendix for interview questions)

Table 3.1 outline of methodology used in this research

Chapter 4 Data Collection and Presentation

The methods used in this study needed to be applied in a sequence: textbook analysis, then Cloze tests and then interviews. This sequence is required because the reading strategies which were extracted from textbooks analysis constituted the basis of the Cloze tests and the interview. Moreover, some of the interview questions were about Cloze Tests. Hence, the first step in this study was textbook analysis.

4.1 Textbook analysis

Textbook analysis is the starting point in this research, because it provides an idea about the reading strategies which were taught to Libyan students during Basic Education stage and Secondary/ Intermediate Education stage. The strategies identified constituted the core of some of the questions of the interview.

Textbook research can be done in different ways, such as asking concerned individuals, classroom experiments, or textbook analysis (Mikk, 2002). Few references about textbook analysis have been presented in literature. One of these works is Pingel's (1999) 'UNESCO Guidebook on Textbook Research and Textbook Revision'. This is concerned with comparing international textbooks and the stages it has passed through: political comparison, cultural comparison, then knowledge, attitudes and skills comparison. Almost all these comparisons are subject-oriented, i.e. relevant to a certain field or subject discipline. Pingel maintains that subject-oriented textbook analysis is achieved through analysing the methodology used and/or analysing the content presented (Pingel, 1999, p 18).

Ahtineva (2005) also studied the contribution of textbook analysis. It was concluded that studying the textbook before implementing it could be of a great value to "the choice of teaching methods, and it helped in the individualisation of teaching" (Ahtineva, 2005, p 31). This conclusion emphasises the importance of evaluating textbooks and their purposes before using them.

The basis for investigating the relationship between the purpose of a textbook and its success can be found in a study conducted by Verhave and Sherman (1968). In this study, they stressed the importance of considering the purpose of the textbook before evaluating it. In their review of the psychological textbook '*Principles of behavioural Analysis*' by J. R. Millenson (1967), Verhave and Sherman (1968) used three questions as bases for their study:

"Does the book make any original contribution as a systematic treatise, even at the introductory level?

If not original as such, does it make a contribution as an update version…?

Is the book successful as a text [book]?" (Verhave and Sherman, 1968, p 642)

After these investigations, they concluded that the textbook did not suit its purpose for psychology students.

There is a direct relationship between the wording of the task and the skill or the strategy being addressed in a reading textbook. This is implied in the work of Friedman and Rowls (1980). They provided a list of abstract terms and their simple equivalents, i.e. words that teachers can use to simplify abstract concepts when devising a reading task. The following table represent some of these.

Abstract Terms And Phrases	Simplified Terms And Phrases
Recall	remember, say from memory, tell
Paraphrase	say in your own words, tell in your own words
Evaluate	Compare this to that; tell if this is right/ wrong, good/ bad, ugly/ pretty…
Summary	Tell in a few words; briefly tell; tell in a sentence or two; shorten…
Main idea	most important idea; subject; high point of the story; what the author was really trying to tell us; emphasis; major point; focus; what the story is mainly about
Predict/ anticipate/ hypothesize	guess; educated guess; what will probably happen; what you will find later in the story

Table 4.1 Abstract concepts and their equivalent terms and phrases

(Friedman and Rowls, 1980, pp 205- 210)

None of the previous studies could be used as a full framework for this analysis because their purpose is different. However, Friedman and Rowls' (1980) idea of linking terms to tasks were adapted by linking tasks wording to strategies. In this research, the tasks that are associated with the reading texts are coded, whenever possible, into reading strategies to find out what strategies are presented in Arabic Reading textbooks and English Reading textbooks.

4.1.1 Sample

As noted above, representativeness does not constitute a problem because the same

textbooks are prescribed to all Libyan schools, and all the targeted text books were analysed (See 3.2).

4.1.2 Procedure

The wording of reading tasks was explored and categorised to develop operational definitions of the addressed reading strategies. Then the reading tasks were checked against strategies' definitions to decide what strategies there were in each reading textbook, and how frequently they were addressed.

After exploring the activities and questions, which were presented before and after the reading material, and grouping them, thirty categories were developed:

1) Identifying paragraph idea, 2) Identifying main idea, 3) Relating text to experience, 4) Relating prior knowledge to text, 5) Relating text to environment, 6) Relating personal experience to text, 7) Scanning, 8) Skimming, 9) Drawing conclusions, 10) Clarifying, 11) Guessing words meaning, 12) Guessing phrases meaning, 13) Awareness of the title, 14) Inferring, 15) Evaluation, 16) Relating antecedents and anaphors, 17) Responding, 18) Completing summaries, 19) Awareness of text structure, 20) Identifying text type, 21) Recalling, 22) Restating, 23) Identifying topic sentence, 24) Identifying thesis statement, 25) Prediction, 26) Re-reading, 27) Morphology, 28) Syntax, 29) Language usage, and 30) Using dictionary.

To double check this categorisation and minimise the effect of researcher subjectivity, as suggested by the first supervisor, the work was sent to another Ph.D. student, whose L1 is Arabic and whose thesis is about developing reading textbooks. He pointed out that there was some redundancy. Because of this comment and for the following two reasons, similar categories were grouped together:

1) some categories which were rare i.e. found in the textbooks just once or twice
2) some categories overlapped

As a result, the categories Identifying paragraph idea and Identifying main idea became one category: 'Identifying the idea'. The categories Relating text to experience, Relating text to environment, Relating prior knowledge to text, and Relating personal experience to text were grouped as 'Association'. Guessing word meaning and Guessing phrases meaning grouped as 'Guessing meaning'. Finally, Awareness of text structure and Identifying text type grouped as 'Identifying text type/ structure'.

The rest of the categories remained the same: Scanning, Skimming, Drawing conclusions, Clarifying, Awareness of the title, Inferring, Evaluation, <u>Relating antecedents and anaphors</u> (i.e. licnking items), Responding, Completing summaries, Recalling, Restating, Identifying topic sentence, Identifying thesis statement, Prediction, Rereading, <u>Morphology, Syntax</u> (i.e. using grammar), Language usage, and Using dictionary.

At this stage, each category was considered to represent a reading strategy. Based on the activities attributed to each reading strategy operational definitions were developed to the following 24 reading strategies:

Strategy	Definition
Association	is to link part or all of the text to prior knowledge, experience, environment, or other texts. This relationship is established either before, while, or after reading.
Clarifying	is to explain or elaborate an idea or linguistic body presented in the text.
Defining text type/ structure	is to be able to distinguish the text type on the basis of its own characteristics.
Drawing conclusions	is to be able to highlight the message/s targeted by the writer, and learning something new.
Evaluation	is to express appreciation or an opinion of the text or any of its parts.
Guessing meaning	is to get the meaning of unknown words, phrases, or sentences through linguistic items such as titles, structures, etc or paralinguistic hints such as pictures.
Identifying the idea	is to find out the message introduced in the text or in any of its parts by referring back to linguistic items.
Inference	is to elicit the implications of a certain linguistic body based on prior knowledge or experience.
Morphology	is to show knowledge of the morphological characteristics of certain words that may assist comprehension.
Prediction	is to anticipate what is coming in the text based on what is grasped through skimming, titles, or any other means.
Recalling	is to reproduce a similar version of the text without referring back to the text.
Linking items	is to relate a referent and an anaphoric expression to each other.
Re-reading	is to read again to either test or emphasise comprehension.
Responding	is to express feeling or reaction toward the content of the text or toward any of its parts.
Restating	is to reproduce a similar version of the text by using reader's own words.
Scanning	is to define specific information that is explicitly mentioned in the text.
Skimming	is to seek general information that is clearly stated in the text.
Summarising	is to produce a short and condensed version of the text.
Syntax	is to identify the syntactic relations between the words, phrases, and clauses.
Thesis statement	is to define the linguistic body that conveys the message of the text.

Topic sentence	is to define the linguistic body that conveys the message of the paragraph
Title awareness	is to suggest or match a title to a text. Reader's decision is based on linguistic and/ or non-linguistic clues that is explicitly presented in the text
Language usage	is to link a certain word, phrase or syntactic structure to a situation, function and/ meaning.
Using Dictionary	is to consult a dictionary to find out the meaning of a word or a phrase.

Table 4.2 The strategies found in the textbooks and their definitions

To check the precision and applicability of these operational definitions, a multiple-choice form was given to three Ph.D. students whose L1 is Arabic and who were majoring ELT. The first student was studying the relationship between gender and reading strategies, the second student was studying reading textbook development, and the third, teaching methodology. The form contains samples of L1 and L2 reading tasks followed by multiple choices of reading strategies. In the form distributed, each set of multiple-choice items shared certain characteristics. However, some codes could not be related to any group thus they have been put together in the last group. The following is a list of the items that have been grouped together:

The strategies Grouped	Reason for being grouped
Association and Inference	need prior knowledge/ experience
Clarifying, Recalling, Restating and Summarising	entails producing a version of the material
Drawing conclusions, Responding and Evaluating	expressing personal opinion or judgements
Guessing and prediction	Guessing
Identifying the idea, Identifying the topic sentence and Identifying the thesis statement	grasping the idea
Morphology, Syntax and Language usage	using grammar
Scanning and Skimming	highlighting things in the text
Defining text type, Re-reading, Linking items, Using dictionary, and Using the title	Not applicable to any of the groups above

Table 4.3 Grouping of the strategies in the piloting form

Results of the verification showed that 85% of the choices coincide with the definitions developed.

The following examples, which are actual tasks in the textbooks, can explain how the categories and the operational definitions were derived from the tasks. The examples from L1 (Arabic), and L2 (English) reading textbooks are represented respectively. The L1 examples shown here are translated versions from Arabic; the original L1 scripts can be found in the appendix.

Tasks that have been coded to **Association** entail the reader's linking the text to his/ her prior knowledge or experience, or to other texts. Usually these tasks address the same topic as the text. Moreover, the answer cannot be found within the text.

4.1 (L1) 'Where can we find the following nutrients: 'proteins', 'vitamins', and 'fat'?' (Mansour et al., 2004, p 90) This question is in an exercise following a lesson entitled 'Milk' and its answer needs prior knowledge.

4.2 (L1) 'Where do you spend summer?' (Mohammed et al., 2007, p 136). This question is in a text about 'The Beach' (many Libyans go to the beach in summer.)

4.3 (L2) When you read a text, you sometimes react to the information. Perhaps it makes you happy, or sad. It might make you angry. You might want to do something after reading the text. What sort of text might

make you happy?

make you sad?

make you angry?

make you want to do something? (Philips et al., 2006a, p 37)

Although the questions seek readers' reaction and the text is about reactions, the reader needs to link his/ her experience to the text. The same is applied to the following example, which requires the reader to link what is in the text to his/ her own experience:

4.4 (L2) Complete the Pen Pal [a website] application form with information about yourself (Philips et al., 2008a, p 7)

The next two tasks seek more elaboration either of the whole text or any of its parts i.e. **clarification** is required. This requirement is captured through the wording of the question. It can include words like 'explain', 'clarify', 'give detailed answer', etc. The answer is an explanation for something that is present in the text.

4.5 (L1) 'Explain how this poem is a compound one.' (Abd-Alhamied, 2008, p 135)

Thus, the words of the poem constitute the starting point for the answer. The same thing applies to the task that is presented in the L2 textbook, where the joke needs to be explained:

4.6 (L2) Read the story on the opposite page straight through. Do you understand the joke? Explain it in pairs (Philips et al., 2008b, p 30)

Defining text type/ structure is derived from tasks that require the reader's awareness of the linguistic features in the text and the way in which its elements are put together. Thus, the task may ask the reader to provide the source of the text, to define its purpose, or to highlight its parts. L1reading textbooks do not have tasks that are concerned with text type.

4.7 (L2) Look quickly at the three texts.

Which text is from a newspaper?

Where would you find the other texts? (Philips et al., 2008a, p 66)

Tasks coded to **Drawing conclusions** seek what morals, knowledge or lessons are learnt or acquired after reading the text. There are no examples in L2 textbooks.

4.8 (L1) 'What is the lesson learnt from the Badr battle?' (Mansour et al., 2007, p 88)

The following questions ask about opinion or appreciation of some of the text components. Because they require judgement, they have been coded into **Evaluation.** Such tasks may contain words or phrases like '…do you think?', '…your opinion…', '…agree...', '…disagree…'

4.9 (L1) 'Analyse the narrative structure of the poem and <u>state your opinion</u>.' (Abd-Alhamied, 2008, p 176).

4.10 (L2) 'All work and no play make Jack a dull boy.' <u>What do you think</u> this English saying mean? Do you agree? (Quintana, 2001, p 20)

The reader resorts to **Guessing meaning** when he/ she cannot understand a word, a phrase, or a sentence. In so doing, the reader makes use of any clue that indicates the meaning. These hints can be in the form of titles, pictures, adjacent linguistic items, punctuation marks. The task clearly seeks the meaning through using words like 'work out the meaning…', 'what do/es …mean?' These tasks seem based on writers' view of the item being targeted i.e. how difficult it is.

4.11 (L1) What is the meaning of 'قيد الأوابد'. (Al-Baghdady and Mohammed, 2008, p 68).

4.12 (L2) Now read the sentences and try to work out the meaning of these new words:

Surrounding/ noisy/ litter bins/ convenient/ dirty/ drop/ plenty/ entertainment/ inconvenient/ unfriendly/ in a hurry

Identifying the idea of the paragraph or text tasks entails the reader's understanding of the message(s) presented in the text or in any of its parts. The core point is extracting the idea. It is different from **Identifying the thesis statement and topic sentence**, which require signalling the exact linguistic items that contain the idea. Usually such tasks use words and phrases such as 'idea', 'point', 'what …is about?'

4.13 (L1) 'Provide the main ideas of the topic.' (Alhadi et al., 2005, p 30)

4.14 (L2) Read the texts. What is the main point in each text? (Philips et al., 2006b, p 52)

Not everything is found in the texts because writers assume things that their audience already know or they think that the readers themselves should generate the missing information. Because of this, the reader is required to fill these gaps by his/ her previous

knowledge or experience. These tasks have been coded to **Inference**. Whereas prior knowledge in **Association** tasks constitutes the core of the answer, it is used in inference as a facilitating factor.

4.15 (L1) 'Why is the mouth is important to both the soul and the body?' (Mansour et al., 2003, p 52). In this task, the reader needs to integrate prior knowledge and the text.

4.16 (L2) After a short autobiography of a film star, the students are asked, 'What does she do at work?' although nothing is mentioned about that in the text.

Tasks that require knowledge about words and parts of words have been coded into **Morphology**. These tasks seek morphological issues such as 'singular', 'plural', 'affixation', 'word structure', or 'word formation'.

4.17 وما <u>مفرد 'العبرات'؟</u> ......(Ajaj and Ramadan, 2008, p 168) It seeks the singular of the parenthesised word.

4.18 (L2) Match <u>the beginnings and the endings</u> of these industry names.

agri…	a)…ing
chem…	b)…culture
elect…	c)…ronics
fish	d)…try

The above points represent a sample of a 10 items list. (Philips et al., 2006b, p 76)

The **Prediction** code has been related to tasks that seek what is coming in the text based on what is already known. They also address testing the hypotheses formed during reading. The wording of the task can contain words like 'expect', 'expectation', 'anticipate', 'anticipation'.Such tasks are not found in L1 reading textbooks.

4.18 (L2) Scan the headings below. What information do you expect to find under each heading? (Philips et al., 2007, p 52).

Recalling refers to repeating a text or part of the text without referring back to the text. The produced version is expected to be similar to the original one. Not referring to the text is referred to in an explicit way either by the instructions: 'recall', 'recite', 'without looking…text', or 'without referring back…text'. Such a task is not presented in L1-reading textbooks.

4.19 (L2) Without looking again at the letter, answer these questions.

Where did Naomi go for New Year?

Who did she see?

What was the weather like?

What happened to her car? (Philips et al., 2008a, p 90)

When a relationship needs to be established between linguistic items such as pronouns and the nouns they refer to, the tasks requires **Linking items**:

4.20 (L1) 'Who is *the stranger*, in the phrase?' (Alhadi et al., 2004, p 146)

4.21 (L2) In the conversation, who, that and which are relative pronouns. Which nouns do they refer to? (Quintana, 2001, p 12)

A **Re-reading** task asks the reader to read more than once. This re-reading is either to test or to emphasise comprehension. Non of the L1-reading textbooks mentioned this task

4.22 (L2) Read the e-mail again. Answer the questions with complete sentences. (Philips et al., 2008a, p 7)

Some tasks require the reader to **Respond** through an action or expressing a feeling toward the text being read. This is clearly stated by the words that are used in the task.

4.23 (L1) 'Express your feeling toward the ethics of visiting relatives.' (Mansour et al., 2003, p 17).

4.24 (L2) Now you have read the texts (which are advertisements), what would you like to do? Tick or cross each one.

buy the book about the violinist.

listen to her music

join the CD club.

become a professional musician. (Philips et al., 2008b, p 66)

Restating refers to the tasks that require the reader to produce a version of the text with the reader's own words. This version can be either written or oral. Although it is not clearly mentioned, readers may refer back to the original text whenever they need and this is what distinguishes it from **Recalling**.

4.25 (L1) 'Write the poem into prose form'. (Alhadi et al., 2005, p 53)

4.26 (L2) Cover the text. Tell the story to each other. (Philips et al., 2008b, p 30)

Both scanning and skimming try to find out absolute information from the text. It is absolute in that nothing is to be added by the reader. Whereas **Scanning** probe the text to find details, **Skimming** surveys general points.

Scanning:

4.27 (L1) 'How did the poet describe his house after his children left?' (Alhadi et al., 2005, p 52)

4.28 (L2) Read the first paragraph of text 1 and complete the chart with words from the text. (Philips et al., 2006a, p 28)

In the above examples, the answers are explicitly mentioned in the reading texts.

Skimming: this strategy has not been found in L1 reading textbooks.

4.29 (L2) Skim the three texts. What is the connection between them? (Philips et al., 2007, p 4)

In these tasks, general accounts of the texts are required.

Some tasks ask the reader to generate a version that captures as much as possible the ideas presented in the text but in a short form. These tasks have been coded as **Summarising.** Being condensed and short distinguishes it from **Recalling** and **Restating**.

4.30 (L1) 'Using your own words, summarise what you have understood.' (Alhadi et al., 2005, p 77)

4.31 (L2) Complete this summary of the article. Use nouns from the box. (Philips et al., 2008a, p 42)

Syntax code has been attributed to tasks that ask the reader to identify the syntactic relations between the words, phrases, and clauses:

4.32 (L1) 'Parse 'المرجفون' in the two sentences' (Alhadi et al., 2004, pp 53- 54). This word functions as a subject of verbal sentence in the first and as a subject of the nominal sentence in the second.

4.33 (L2) Find one <u>verb</u> in the text in Lesson 5 which can be <u>followed by the gerund or the infinitive</u>. Work out a rule to explain when to use the gerund and when to use the infinitive. (Philips et al., 2006b, p 77)

The knowledge of the **Thesis statement and topic sentence** enables the reader to locate the exact linguistic body that conveys the message of the whole text or paragraph i.e. establishing the relationship between the linguistic items and the idea they convey. Tasks that seek this relationship usually use words such as 'introduction', 'topic sentence', 'first paragraph'. This item has not been addressed in L1-reading textbooks.

4.34 (L2) You are going to read a page from a teenage magazine. You can get a lot of information from the title and introduction…. Read the first paragraph. Underline the best answer.

A brainteaser is probably a test of your intelligence/ a test of your thinking skills.

'To solve' means to find the answer to a problem/ to read a problem.

The best way to find the answer is to think normally/ to use your imagination. (Philips et al., 2006a, p 60)

Awareness of the title questions ask about the title and instruct the reader to suggest or match (a) title(s) to (a) text(s), or to express an opinion about the title:

4.35 (L1) 'Choose another title for the story. (Mansour et al., 2004, p 130)

4.36 (L2) 'Match the headlines with the newspaper articles'. (Quintana, 2001, p 53)

Language usage tasks look for the relationship between a certain word, phrase or syntactic structure and the situation, function and/or meaning intended to convey. L1-reading textbooks did not tackle this aspect.

4.37 (L2) After a brief idea about when to use the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd conditional sentences, the students are asked to complete the following sentences:

We <u>make the first conditional with</u> *If*+ _____, _____ + infinitive.

We <u>make the second conditional with</u> *If*+ ____, _____ + infinitive.

We <u>make the third conditional with</u> *If*+ _____, _____ + *have* + past participle. (Philips et al., 2007, p 77)

Using Dictionary tasks require the reader to consult a dictionary to find out the meaning of a word or a phrase. Using dictionary has not been mentioned in L2 reading tasks.

4.38 (L1) 'Consult the dictionary for 'جع' ' (Alhadi et al., 2005, p 93).

This word means crowded. This word is presented in the text

Reading textbooks usually contain material to be read, questions about the reading material and activities to be performed based on the reading material. 'Questions' in this context refers to interrogative sentences. 'Activities' refers to the tasks based on reading material and performed by the reader such as filling gaps, matching columns and so on. Activities usually take the form of imperatives. By reading material, the researcher means whatever is included in order to practise reading and is followed or preceded by activities or questions.

In this textbook description, reading material is viewed as three types: authentic reading material, adapted reading material and invented reading material. Authentic material points here to the material referring to a reference without any modification or to the material that we encounter in everyday life and cannot be referred to any reference such as train timetables. Adapted reading material is the reading material that has been taken from a certain source and modified by textbook authors in one way or another to suit the student's level. Finally, invented reading material refers to the reading material which is developed by textbook authors and does not refer to any other author or source.

Summary

This procedure was followed:

1) The wording of reading tasks was explored and categorised to develop operational definitions of the addressed reading strategies.
2) The answer of the task within the text was checked to find out whether it was clearly stated in the text or needed to be inferred through background knowledge.
3) The categories generated were double-checked to minimise the effect of subjectivity.
4) The categories were amended if they required.
5) Operational definitions of the reading strategies that coincide with the categories were developed.

6) The definitions were verified and amended if they required.

7) Strategies' definitions were applied to the reading questions and activities to discover what strategies were in each textbook and how frequently they were.

4.1.3 L1 textbooks analysis

Basic 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th, and 9th year reading textbooks and 1st, 2nd , and 3rd year Secondary reading textbooks have been explored to find out the possible strategies that may have been addressed in the exercises.

Basic 3 Reading Textbook

This textbook consists of thirty-three lessons. Its material is developed by textbook authors to suit this age and its reading requirement. The topics are closely related to children's immediate environment such as parents, family, school, water, etc. Those topics emphasise national and ethical aspects. Many of the lessons contain texts, short stories, and ditties, which are explained within short paragraphs. Although texts are short and simple, pictures are used to facilitate and initiate predictions. Words which seem new to students are explained in the margins. Both questions and activities are presented after the reading material. The students need to cover the material then do the activities and questions.

The activities presented in this textbook are directly relevant to what is presented in the reading material: filling in gaps, paraphrasing, matching, and building sentences which are structurally similar to the ones which have just been studied. Some of these activities are writing or vocabulary-oriented rather being reading-oriented.

The questions presented after each lesson require prior knowledge/ experience, acquaintance of the reading material, picture recognition, or combination of them. Whereas questions about pictures or texts' material are dominant, prior knowledge / experience questions are the least used.

After applying the aforementioned steps, the following strategies were found: Association 6.73 %, Clarifying 0.96 %, Drawing conclusions 1.92%, Evaluation 3.85 %, Guessing meaning 0.96 %, Inferring 0.96 %, Scanning 82.69 %, and Title related strategy 1.92 %.
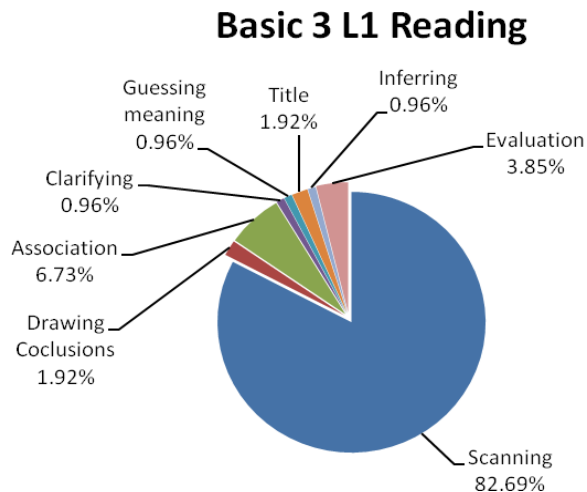
Basic 3 L1 Reading

Figure 4.1 Basic 3 L1 Reading

Basic 4 Reading Textbook

This textbook consists of twenty-nine lessons which are, to a large extent, similar in structure to the Basic 3 Reading textbook. However, some of the topics are more abstract than those presented in the Basic 3. Issues such as 'Freedom' and 'Mercy' are introduced. The reading material consists of short poems, some ditties, and a few short adapted texts and others are tailored for this reading stage. Pictures which are closely related to the themes introduced are used to help the students grasp the message. Ditties, poems, and adapted texts are preceded by a paragraph/ paragraphs which introduce/s the readers to the topic, and followed by few paragraphs which elucidate what has been introduced. Finally, activities and questions about the text, poems, or ditties are presented. Some of these questions and activities emphasise using vocabulary to build sentences.

The activities used in this textbook are filling in gaps, paraphrasing phrases, clarifying sentences, matching words or phrases, identifying synonyms, and identifying grammatical functions.

The questions presented after the reading material require the reader to make use of what he/ she previously knew/ experienced and/ or what he/ she has already learned from the reading material. Thus, the reader needs to identify information within the text, draw conclusions, draw inferences, and develop questions about what is already being read. There are also questions about pictures which may activate the student's prior knowledge/ experience and encourage prediction.

64

In this book the following strategies have been presented: Association 12.30 %, Clarifying 1.64 %, Drawing conclusions 0.82 %, Inferring 11.48 %, and Scanning 73.77 %.
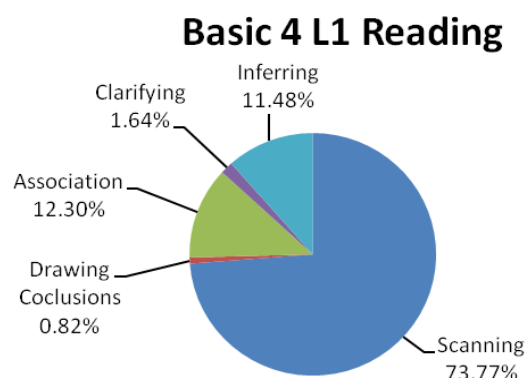
Basic 4 L1 Reading

Figure 4.2 Basic 4 L1 Reading

Basic 5 Reading Textbook

The thirty-three lessons of this book are dominated by abstract topics. The titles are mostly science or religion-oriented. The texts used are simple in terms of vocabulary and structure. Although they are simple, the texts are longer than the articles presented in the 3rd and 4th year reading textbooks. In addition to reading questions, morphology and syntax exercises have a place in this textbook. The texts are developed by the authors of the textbook whereas the ditties are quoted from other sources. Each ditty is accompanied by an explanation/ paraphrasing.

The activities used in this textbook are filling in gaps, paraphrasing parts of texts, clarifying, building questions, matching items, identifying synonyms, antonyms and grammatical functions, selecting from choices, expressing feeling, and writing titles.

The questions used after the reading material in this textbook are based on information within the text. Some questions encourage the reader to draw conclusions, to decide what is true or false, to evaluate the text, and to draw inferences. Answering these questions requires prior knowledge, understanding the text, or mixing both.

As in the previous reading textbooks, scanning is the dominant strategy. The strategies found are Linking items 0.56 %, Association 7.34 %, Clarifying 2.82 %, Drawing conclusions 1.69 %, Evaluation 1.13 %, Guessing meaning 0.56 %, Inferring 3.39 %, Scanning81.92 %, and Identifying the idea 0.56 %.

Basic 5 L1 Reading

Idea 0.56%
Linking Items 0.56%
Guessing meaning 0.56%
Inferring 3.39%
Evaluation 1.13%
Clarifying 2.82%
Association 7.34%
Drawing Coclusions 1.69%
Scanning 81.92%
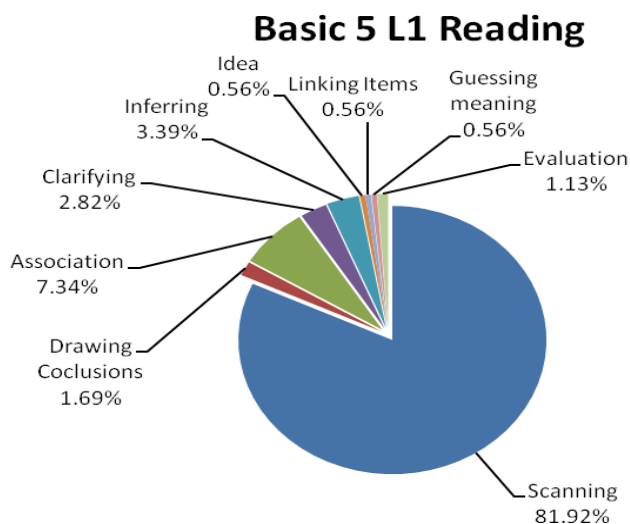
Figure 4.3 Basic 5 L1 Reading

Basic 6 Reading Textbook

This reading textbook consists of thirty-three lessons. Pictures and illustrations are less than the previous textbooks. Religious ethics and national principles are the core of the reading material which consists of poems by poets other than the authors of the textbook, an article drawn from an Arabic magazine, an adapted article, and many articles developed by the authors for this reading stage. As the previous textbooks, some questions and activities about the reading material are presented after the reading material.

The activities presented in this textbook are filling in gaps, paraphrasing, clarifying, building questions about the text, matching items, identifying synonyms, identifying antonyms, identifying grammatical functions, selecting from choices, expressing feeling, and writing titles.

The questions within this textbook seek information based on prior knowledge/ experience, seek answers based on text material (identifying information within the text, drawing conclusions, or deciding what is true and what is false) or seek answers based on prior knowledge and the text (evaluating the text or drawing inferences).

The exercises explored in this textbook incorporate the following strategies: Linking items 1.28 %, Association 7.35 %, Clarifying 6.71 %, Drawing conclusions 0.96 %, Evaluation 3.83 %, Inferring 7.67 %, Responding 1.92 %, Scanning 69.01 % and Title awareness1.28 %.

66
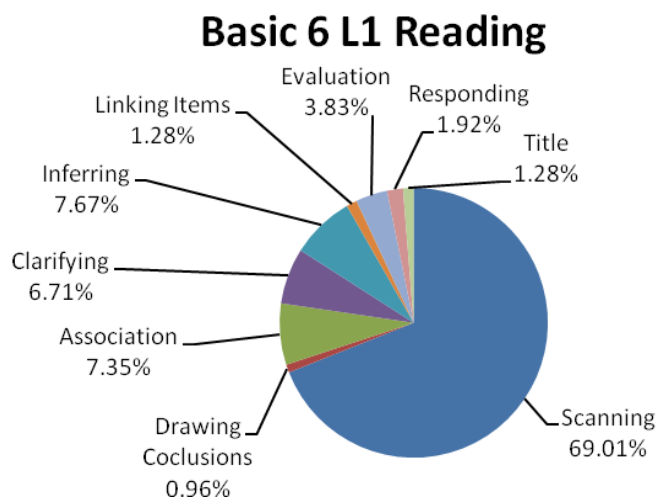
Basic 6 L1 Reading

Figure 4.4 Basic 6 L1 Reading

Basic 7 Reading Textbook

This textbook consists of 17 topics two of which are poems and another two are related to Quranic verses. One of the topics is a short story and the other 12 topics are either national topics or scientific topics. Scientific topics are about general themes such as Diseases, Smoking, Sea and Insects. National topics tend to solidify students' relationship to their country and continent. Six of the seventeen texts are adapted from other sources whereas the other texts are developed by this textbook authors. Lesson sequence is the same as the preceding L1 reading textbooks; the text is presented then the activities and questions are introduced.

The activities implemented in this textbook are filling in gaps, paraphrasing, clarifying, restating, summarising, identifying synonyms, antonyms and grammatical functions, selecting from choices, and expressing feelings/ attitudes/ opinions toward the text or any of its parts.

The questions presented require the reader to identify information within the text, decide what is true/ false, evaluate the text, and draw inferences. These questions require knowledge of the text and previously acquired knowledge or experience. However, some questions require only prior knowledge / experience.

In this textbook, the following strategies have been revealed: Linking items 0.81 %, Association 7.26 %, Clarifying 6.85 %, Drawing conclusions 0.40 %, Evaluation 1.21 %, Inferring, Morphology 3.23 %, Responding 1.21 %, Restating 0.40 %, Scanning 65.32 %,

Summarising 0.40 %, and Syntax 3.63 %.
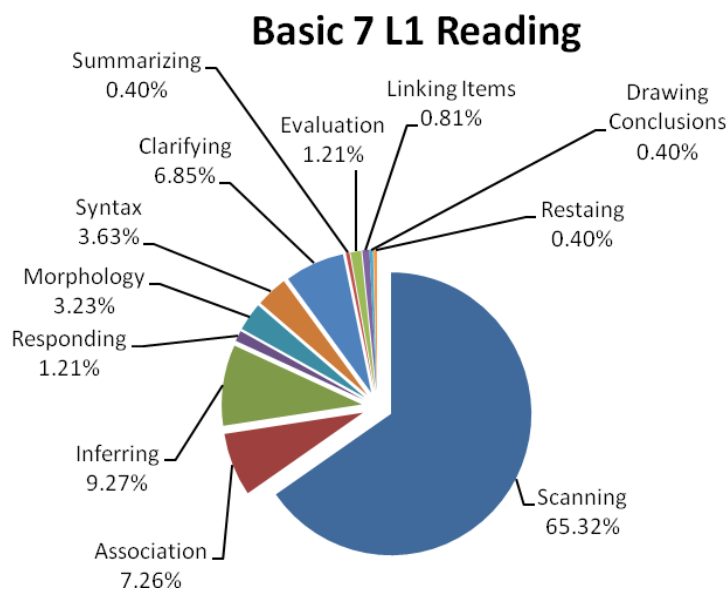
Figure 4.5 Basic 7 L1 Reading

Basic 8 Reading Textbook

This textbook contains a variety of reading material. The majority of reading material presented is specifically developed to this stage. Four of the sixteen titles that build the Basic 8 Reading Textbook are nationally oriented. One lesson is an explanation of Quranic Verses. Three address what is considered good manners. The other topics address issues such as Reading, Laughter, TV, and Apples. The material used is a composite of adapted texts and tailored texts; only two texts are adapted and the others are tailored. As in the previous textbooks, each text is followed by a group of activities and questions.

The activities introduced in this textbook are filling in gaps, paraphrasing, clarifying, restating, identifying synonyms, identifying antonyms, identifying word meaning from context, identifying grammatical functions, selecting from choices, expressing feeling/ attitude/ opinion, and providing titles.

Some of the questions provided in this textbook require prior knowledge or experience, other questions require reference to the text, and the rest require prior knowledge / experience and knowledge the text itself, whereas identifying information within the text, drawing conclusions, and deciding what is true/ false requires reference to the text, evaluating the text and drawing inferences require both reader's prior knowledge and acquaintance of the

text itself.

All the strategies have been coded in this textbook were identified in the previous textbooks. They are Linking items 1.55 %, Association 6.98 %, Clarifying 6.59 %, Evaluation 2.71 %, Guessing meaning 3.49 %, Inferring 8.53 %, Morphology 1.94 %, Responding1.16 %, Scanning 62.40 %, Syntax 4.26 %, and Title awareness 0.39%.
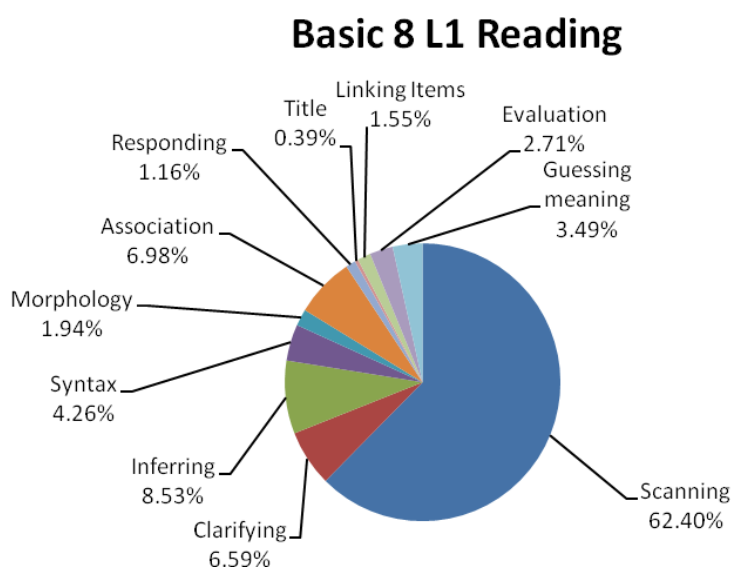
Figure 4.6 Basic 8 L1 Reading

Basic 9 Reading Textbook

This textbook consists of 17 topics most of which are religious, national, or scientific. The rest are about everyday life. In this book, these topics are preceded by clear instructions to reading teachers about what an ideal reading lesson should be like. The authors assume that a reading lesson should follow this sequence: warming up, reading silently, a general discussion session, reading aloud by the teacher, reading aloud by students, a detailed discussion session, finally supplying titles to paragraphs. Through this procedure, we can notice that pre-reading activities and questions need to be developed by the teacher. Moreover, it can be noticed that both reading silently, which is linked to comprehension, and reading aloud, which is pronunciation oriented, are emphasised within the same lesson.

Each lesson provides a text followed by questions and activities. One of the texts used is authentic, original, while two texts are adapted, modified by the textbook authors, and the rest of the texts are invented, i.e. developed by textbook authors.

The activities used in this textbook are filling in gaps, paraphrasing, clarifying, restating, summarising, asking the teacher questions, identifying synonyms, identifying antonyms, identifying word meaning from context, identifying grammatical functions, selecting from multiple-choices, and expressing feelings/ attitudes/ opinions.

Some of the questions presented after the texts require background knowledge/ experience whereas other questions require acquaintance with the text. Answering such questions requires the reader to identify information within the text, identify ideas, draw conclusions, or decide whether certain statements are true or false. However, few questions require both knowledge of the text and background knowledge. Answering this type of question requires inference of information not explicitly mentioned in the text or from expressing feelings or attitudes.

Fifteen strategies have been signalled in this textbook namely: Linking items 1.23 %, Association 4.51 %, Clarifying 6.97%, Drawing conclusions 0.82%, Evaluation 3.28 %, Guessing meaning 2.05 %, Idea identification 0.82%, Inferring 7.38%, Morphology 5.74 %, Responding 0.41%, Restating 0.41%, Scanning 63.93%, Summarising 0.41%, Syntax 1.64%, and Using Dictionary 0.41%. Identifying the idea and using dictionary are new strategies identified in this textbook. At this point, the list of the strategies underpinning the L1 Reading textbooks is established because the next L1 reading textbooks do not provide any new strategies.

Basic 9 L1 Reading

Pie chart with the following values: Guessing meaning 2.05%, Evaluation 3.28%, Restating 0.41%, Drawing conclusions 0.82%, Summarizing 0.41%, Using Dictionary 0.41%, Syntax 1.64%, Idea 0.82%, Morphology 5.74%, Association 4.51%, Clarifying 6.97%, Linking Items 1.23%, Responding 0.41%, Inferring 7.38%, Scanning 63.93%

Figure 4.7 Basic 9 L1 Reading
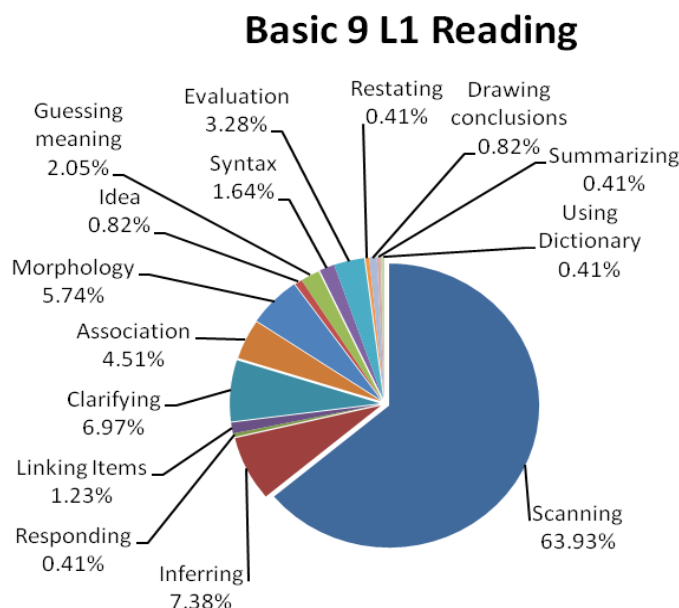
Secondary 1 Textbook

At this stage, Secondary Education, the number of texts used is greater than in the Basic Education reading textbooks. The texts used are selected from well-known Arabic masterpieces and references whose writers are considered important figures in their fields.

This textbook constitutes a shift in the reading material used. The first change is the introduction of more authentic material, which is neither adapted nor tailored. The second change is using old literary works in which some of the vocabulary is no longer used in everyday language.

The book is divided into two parts: the first part identifies the types and history of literary works. The second part presents samples that represent the literary categories presented in the first part. This analysis focuses on the second part, which introduces reading materials and its activities and questions which are related to that reading.

In the second part, all the material presented is authentic in that it is referred back to authors and is selected from well-known Arabic literary works. It consists of seven poems, one abridged drama, three speeches, five short narratives, a long piece of advice, and many proverbs and sayings. Almost all the reading material presented in this textbook is ethics-oriented.

Each lesson begins with an introduction about the author, the work and the type of literature it represents. Then the work is introduced and followed by literary explanation and analysis. After that, a mixture of questions and activities are presented.

The activities presented ask the reader to clarify, analyse and discuss, and/ or comment on parts of the text/ poem, or to express his/ her feeling, opinion or attitude toward the reading material or the style used by the author.

The questions asked after the reading material are of three types: questions requiring prior knowledge or experience, questions requiring the reader to grasp the reading material, and finally questions based on both the text and prior knowledge and experience. Questions about the text require the reader to identify some information within the text whereas questions based on both knowledge of the text and prior knowledge or experience ask the reader to evaluate the reading material, or to infer something which is implicitly mentioned.

The following strategies were highlighted in this textbook: Scanning 37%, Inferring 31 %, Clarifying 28 %, Evaluation 2%, and Text parts 2 %.

Secondary 1 L1 Reading
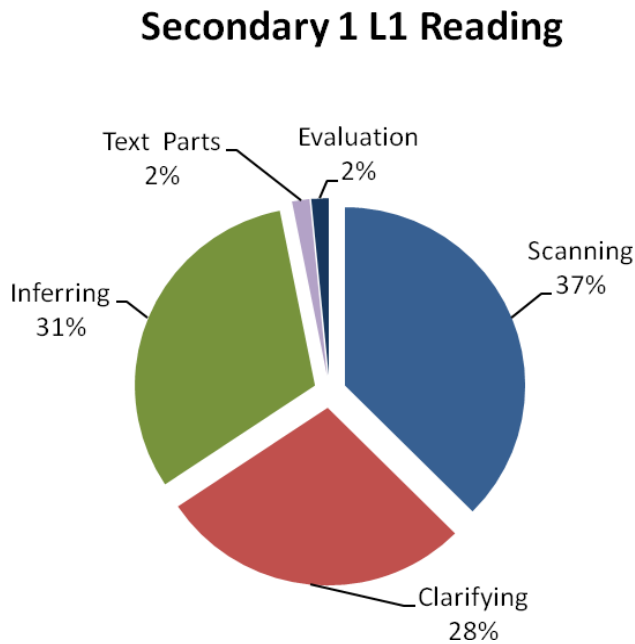
Figure 4.8 Secondary 1 L1 Reading

Secondary 2 Textbook

This textbook is divided into three parts; the first part introduces semantics and its tools used by writers, the second part is a collection of literary works produced before the emergence of Islam, and finally the third part presents few post-Islamic literary works. In these works, students are introduced to expressions and vocabulary which are no longer used in everyday communication. Few of these expressions and difficult words are explained. Only the second part and the third part will be considered as reading material because the first part is not concerned with reading skills.

The second part contains both poetry (seven poems) and prose (two speeches and a collection of proverbs). The third part consists of seven poems, one Quranic verse, five speeches and one correspondence. Since the material refers to authors and has not been modified we can conclude that the material used is authentic

Each lesson follows this sequence: presenting the work, introducing the author, explaining the material, analysing the material, then asking the reader to answer questions

about the material, and finally writing a composition about the topic presented in the material.

The exercise which follows each lesson contains some activities which are based on the reading material: clarifying some parts of the reading material, identifying synonyms, and expressing feelings, attitudes or opinions.

The questions presented about the poem/ text require either prior knowledge/ the text, or both. The questions based on the text require the reader to identify the idea or some information within the work. On the other hand, questions based on prior knowledge/ experience and the text require the reader to evaluate the text or draw inferences.

All the strategies presented in this textbook have been tackled in the previous textbooks. These strategies are Linking items 1%, Association 4%, Clarifying 19%, Drawing conclusions 1%, Evaluation 6%, Guessing meaning 4 %, Idea identification 4%, Inferring 22%, Responding 3%, Scanning 34%, Syntax 1%, Text type recognition 1%.
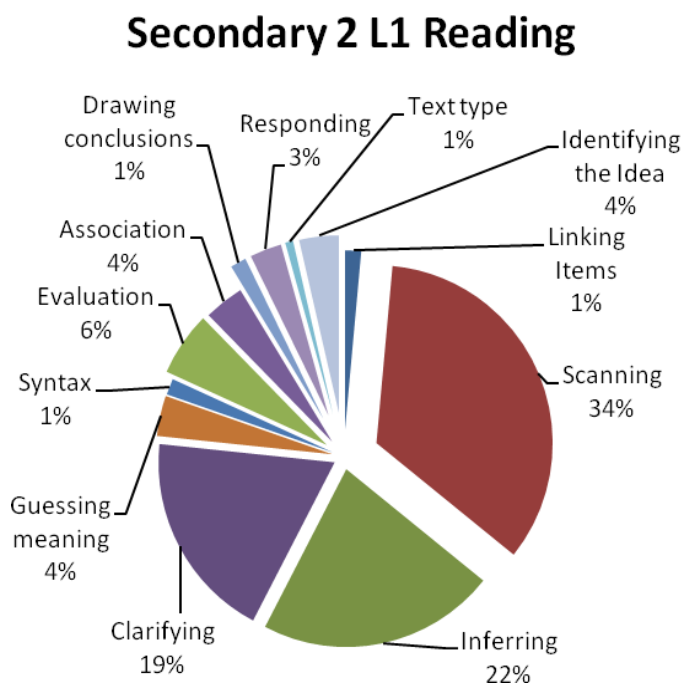
Figure 4.9 Secondary 2 L1 Reading

Secondary 3 textbook

This book is divided into two parts; the first part introduces literary devices such as simile, metaphor, and pun while the second part presents literary works. The second part contains literary works of two different states during the Islamic Era: the Abbasid State which

was in the Eastern of the part of Arab World and the Andalusian State, which was established in Spain.

There are seven poems and two texts representing each of these two States' literary works. Thus, the material used is authentic. Each poem/ text is preceded by a description of the poet/ writer and the context in which the poem/ text was produced. Then the reading material is followed by a presentation of the main idea and an analysis of the material. Finally, a group of questions and activities (as mentioned in the textbook introduction) are used to assess students' mastery and understanding of what has already been studied.

The activities used require the reader to clarify and explain parts of the material, to highlight the literary devices used, to guess the meaning of some phrases and words, to compare the material to other material, to paraphrase lines of a poem into prose form, to parse some words or sentences, and to use dictionary. After each assessment, the students write a composition. A few of these compositions are almost summaries of the reading material.

The questions used are similar to the questions used in the previous textbooks used in this stage, i.e. secondary school. Some of the questions require either reference to the text or use of prior knowledge whereas others require both. Hence, the reader, to answer these questions, needs to refer to certain part/s of the material, to evaluate it, or to inference some information of it.

The strategies in this textbook are almost the same strategies presented in the previous textbook. They are: Linking items 3%, Association 8%, Clarifying 25%, Evaluation 8%, Guessing meaning 12%, Inferring 18%, Morphology 2 %, Responding 1 %, Restating 2%, Scanning 13%, Summarising 3%, Syntax 3%, and Using dictionary 2%.

Secondary 3 L1 Reading

74
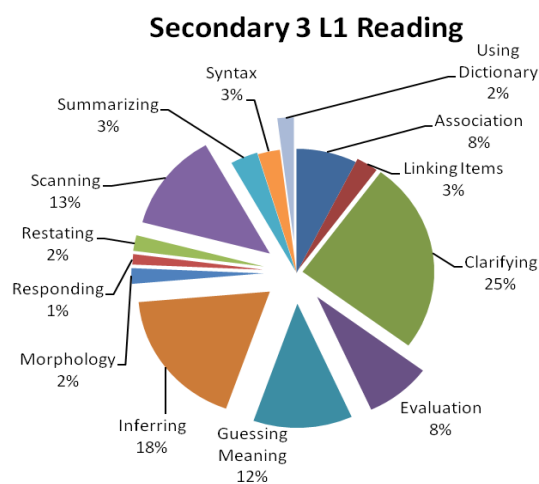
Figure 4.10 Secondary 3 L1 Reading

The following table summarises the results of L1 textbooks.

Textbooks \ Strategies	Basic 3	Basic 4	Basic 5	Basic 6	Basic 7	Basic 8	Basic 9	Secondary 1	Secondary 2	Secondary 3
Association	7	15	13	23	18	18	11		5	43
Clarifying	1	2	5	21	17	17	17	18	26	20
Drawing Conclusions	2	1	3	3	1	-	2	-	2	-
Evaluation	4	-	2	12	3	7	8	1	8	9
Guessing meaning	1	-	1	-	-	9	5	-	5	9
Identifying the idea	-	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	5	1
Inferring	1	14	6	24	23	22	18	20	30	33
Linking items	-	-	1	4	2	4	3	-	2	1
Morphology	-	-	-	-	8	5	14	-	-	9
Responding	-	-	-	6	3	3	1	-	4	1
Restating	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	1
Scanning	86	90	145	216	162	161	156	24	47	127
Syntax	-	-	-	-	9	11	4	-	2	9
Text Type Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	-
Using Dictionary	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-
Using the title	2	-	-	4	-	1	-	-	-	-

Table 4.4 Results of the analysis of L1 textbooks

4.1.4 L2 textbooks analysis:

The L2 textbooks that were examined are: EFL 3 preparatory, EFL secondary 1 skills A, EFL secondary 1 skills B, EFL secondary 2 skills B, EFL secondary 3 skills A, and EFL secondary 3 skills B . Whereas the activities and questions in L1 reading textbooks are presented only after the reading material, the activities used in EFL textbooks are presented before and after the reading material. Most of the material used in EFL reading textbooks represents the material that the reader may find in his/ her everyday life such as telephone directories, emails, transport timetables and so forth.

Basic 9 EFL Reading Textbook

This general English textbook it is divided into twelve units. These units are topic oriented i.e. each unit is dedicated to a certain topic. These topics are related to everyday life of the student such as 'Back to school', 'Making plans' and so forth. Dialogues and short paragraphs are the formats which dominate the book. Pictures and illustrations have a role to

play in each unit. Each unit addresses Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. Grammatical points are covered. After unit six and unit twelve, there are pages that summarise the grammatical issues covered in the previous units.

The reading material used in this textbook is developed for this stage. It is simplified in terms of vocabulary and the structures used. The material is in the form of dialogues, biographies, autobiographies, narrative paragraphs, short stories, instructions, diaries, letters, factual paragraphs/ articles, and newspaper articles. Dialogues are dominant within this textbook.

The reading material is preceded or followed by activities and questions. The questions used in this textbook are about pictures, about the reading material, and/ or learners' prior knowledge. Presenting the activities/ questions before the reading material contributes to the warming-up and encourages the generation of predictions about what will be read. This methodological aspect was not used in L1 reading textbooks.

Almost all the reading material used makes use of pictures, which may be attributed to learners' age and their EFL background. Some of the activities used are linked to these pictures: describing pictures, matching pictures with words, sentences, and paragraphs, and making predictions based on pictures. Other activities used are matching sentences, matching headings with full stories/ newspapers articles, building sentences, making conversations, selecting from choices, and guessing unknown words.

Presenting pre-reading questions is the first difference between reading in L1 and reading in EFL. Whereas only post reading questions are present in L1 textbooks, post, while and pre reading questions are presented in this EFL textbook. The following strategies were found: Linking items 1.37%, Association 16.44%, Clarifying 4.11%, Evaluation 2.74%, Guessing meaning 16.44%, Idea identification 6.85%, Prediction 12.33%, Scanning 36.99%, and Title awareness 2.74%. Prediction strategy is presented the textbooks. It constitutes the first strategy that is presented only in EFL reading textbooks.

Basic 9 L2 Reading

Identifying the Idea 6.85%

Title 2.74%

Association 16.44%

Evaluation 2.74%

Prediction 12.33%

Linking Items 1.37%

Guessing meaning 16.44%

Scanning 36.99%

Clarifying 4.11%
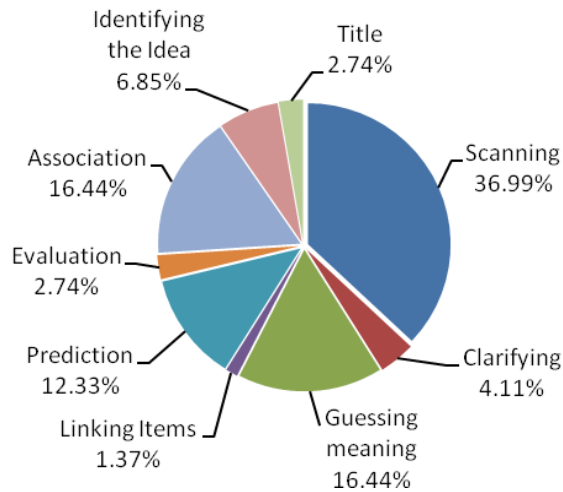
Figure 4.11 Secondary 9 L2 Reading

Secondary 1 Textbook

At this stage the four skills Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing are practised into two sequential books, 'Skills Book A' and 'Skills Book B'. There is a variety of reading material presented in these textbooks: timetables, narratives (jokes, short stories), articles, tourist guides, newspapers, magazines, messages (letters, e-mails, faxes, notes) and scientific articles (graphs, tables, charts, questionnaires).

A very rich list of activities can be noticed in these two books presented for this stage: highlighting similarities/ differences between texts, discussing the reading material, comparing answers with partners, predicting the content, developing lists, describing pictures, drawing charts, developing beginnings or endings for texts, underlining words of certain characteristics, asking the teacher, labelling pictures and shapes, guessing words' meaning, completing forms and tables, solving puzzles, matching items, filling in gaps and completing summaries, selecting from choices , and forming sentences of special grammatical features

The questions in this textbook are based on the reading material (identifying information within the reading material), questions about prior knowledge/ experience, and questions based on both (inferring, evaluating, expressing feelings/opinions/attitudes)

Skills A consists of twelve units. Eleven units address the four skills, unit twelve provides a review of what has been presented in the previous units.

The strategies, in Skills A, are explicitly addressed. The following strategies have been tackled: Association 6.02%, Guessing meaning 2.26%, Inferring 3.01%, Prediction 15.04%, Recalling 3.01%, Re-reading 3.01%, Restating 2.26%, Scanning 54.89%, Skimming 6.77%, Summarising 1.50%, Text type 2.26%.The following pie chart illustrates their frequency and hence the space provided for each strategy. Recalling and Re-reading are introduced only in this textbook. Text type identification is introduced for the first time in the textbooks. Recalling, Re-reading, and Text type identification constitute another three strategies that are found only in EFL reading textbooks.

Figure 4.12 Secondary 1 L2 Skills A

Units thirteen to twenty four are presented in this part of Skills B. Unit twenty four provides a review of what was presented in the previous units in book B, 13- 23.

The following strategies have been presented in this skills B: Association 7.14 %, Clarifying 0.79%, Evaluation 1.59%, Guessing meaning 18.25%, Inferring 0.79%, Morphology 0.79%, Prediction 0.79%, Responding 7.14%, Restating 0.79%, Scanning 52.38%, Skimming 2.38%, Text type 5.56%, Thesis statement 0.79%, and Title awareness 0.79%.

Secondary 1 L2 skills B
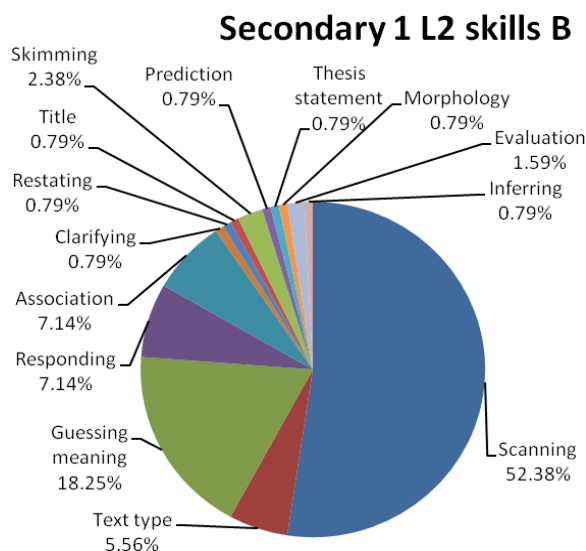
Figure 4.13 Secondary 1 L2 Skills B

Secondary 2 Textbook

As in the 1st year, the four skills are developed by using two textbooks; 'Skills Book A' and 'Skills Book B'. Unfortunately, the first part could not be checked, as it proved too difficult to obtain.

Skill B consists of 12 units. Unit '12' summarises what is introduced in the previous units. This textbook devotes a great deal of space to linking structures to uses i.e. 'Language usage'. This issue is very important to help the reader understand the text in that they help the reader by signalling the purpose through the structure. Most of the usages introduced are of close relationship to the purposes of the texts used.

The kind of material, the activities, and the questions used were similar to those used in Skills Book B prescribed for the 1st year and the material used is related to newspaper and magazine articles, graphs, charts, tables, short narratives, questionnaires and advertisements. This textbook contains a section concerned with language use. It emphasises the use of certain phrases for certain situations.

The activities used in this textbooks are completing tables, filling in gaps, asking partners questions, selecting the best answer, drawing charts, forming sentences with certain phrases, matching columns, labelling shapes, identifying text features.

The questions used are about tables, charts, graphs, or texts, about prior knowledge/ experience, and about both the reading material and the prior knowledge and experience.

79

Sixteen strategies were coded for the reading tasks. Another strategy found in this textbook and found only in EFL reading textbooks is *Language usage*. Association 5.88 %, Clarifying 0.65%, Evaluation 1.31%, Guessing meaning 15.03%, Inferring 0.65%, Morphology 0.65%, Prediction 0.65%, Responding 5.88%, Restating 0.65%, Scanning 40.52%, Skimming 1.96%, Text type 4.58%, Thesis statement 0.65%, Title 0.65%, and Language usage 20.26%.
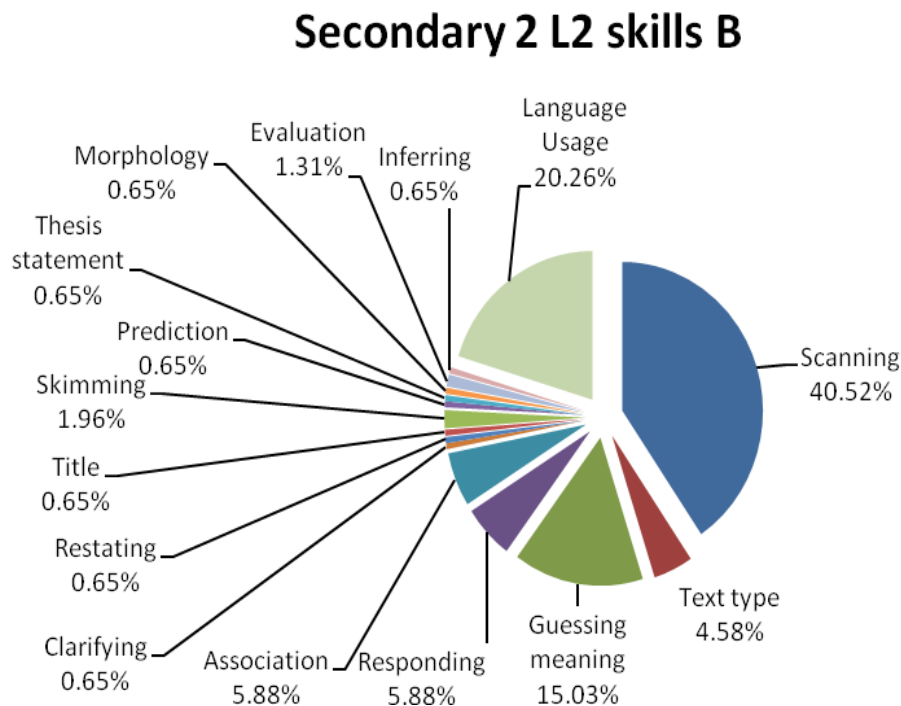
Figure 4.14 Secondary 2 L2 Skills B

Secondary 3 Textbook

As with the previously mentioned textbooks, the skills' textbook is divided into two parts; 'Skills Book A' and 'Skills Book B'. Both parts contain varieties of material: scientific articles, articles of newspapers and magazines, general articles, advertising leaflets, questionnaires, short stories and letters. As in the 2nd year textbook, it contains a section which emphasises the use of certain phrases in certain situations, i.e. language usage.

There are many activities that are introduced in the section devoted to reading: guessing unknown words and predicting the content by using titles and pictures, filling in gaps, selecting from choices, matching columns, headings and texts, deciding what is true and false, making lists, describing pictures, underlining certain items or information in the

text.

Some of the questions used require the reader to identify information within the reading material. Others require highlighting the idea, expressing attitudes toward the reading material, or making use of prior knowledge or experience relevant to the text.

Skills 3 A contains 12 units. The skills addressed in the first 11 units are revised in unit 12. In these 12 units, the following strategies are tackled: Association 22.50%, Evaluation 2.50%, Guessing meaning 7.50%, Inferring 2.50%, Prediction 6.25%, Scanning 21.25%, Skimming 3.75%, and Language usage 33.75%.
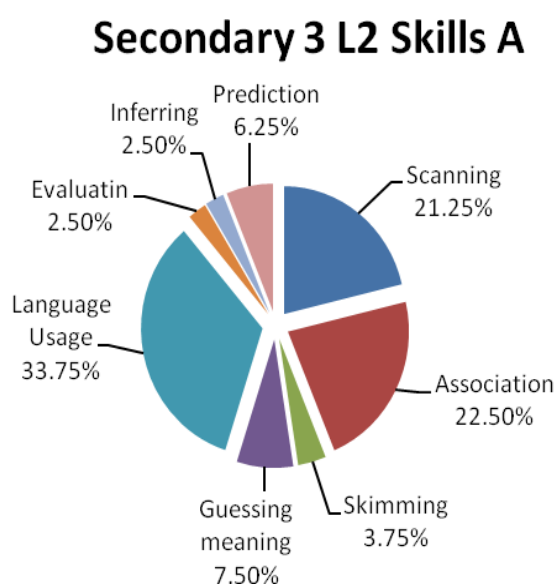
Figure 4.15 Secondary 3 L2 Skills A

In Skill B There are twelve units. The 12th unit revises the preceding units.

The following strategies which constituted the last group of the strategies were coded and categorised for reading tasks in the textbooks: Association 11.24%, Evaluation 3.37%, Guessing meaning 3.37%, Idea identification 1.12%, Inferring 6.74%, Morphology 1.12%, Prediction 4.49%, Responding 1.12%, Restating 1.12%, Scanning 21.35%, Skimming 2.25%, Syntax 3.37%, Thesis statement 1.12%, Topic sentence 1.12%, and Language usage 37.08%. The following pie chart provides details about their distribution.

Secondary 3 L2 Skills B

Topic sentence 1.12%

Thesis statement 1.12%

Syntax 3.37%

Morphology 1.12%

Responding 1.12%

Idea 1.12%

Skimming 2.25%

Evaluation 3.37%

Restating 1.12%

Prediction 4.49%

Guessing meaning 3.37%

Scanning 21.35%

Inferring 6.74%

Association 11.24%

Language Usage 37.08%
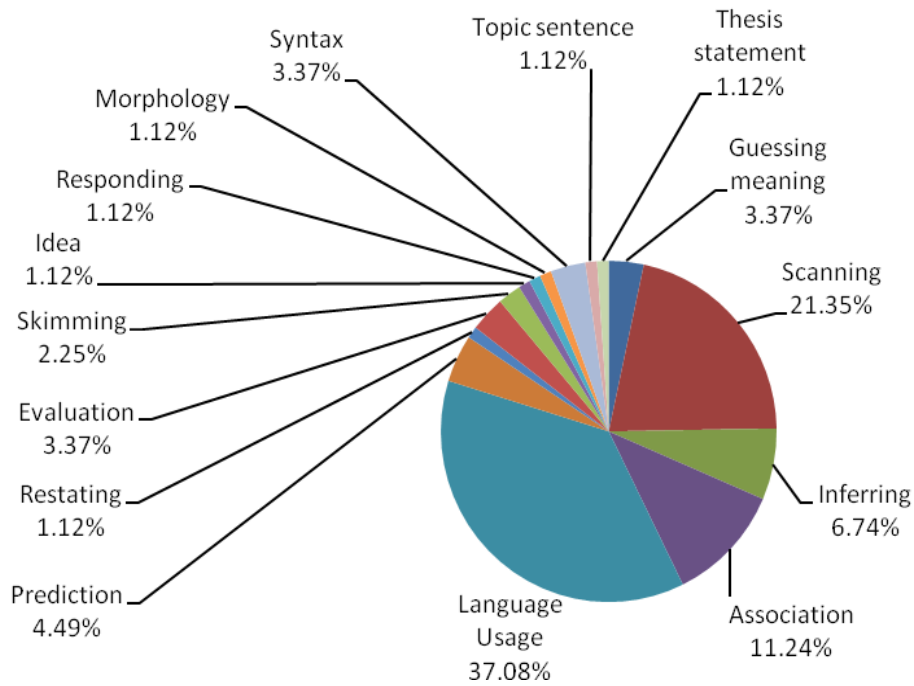
Figure 4.16 Secondary 3 L2 Skills B

The 'Topic sentence identification' constitutes the final strategy identified in the textbooks in general and in EFL reading textbooks.

The following table summarises the results of L2 reading textbooks.

Textbooks / Strategies	Basic 9	Secondary 1A	Secondary 1B	Secondary 2B	Secondary 3A	Secondary 3B
Association	12	8	9	9	18	10
Clarifying	3	-	1	1	-	-
Evaluation	2	-	2	2	2	3
Guessing meaning	12	3	23	23	6	3
Identifying the idea	5	-	-	-	-	1
Inferring	-	4	1	1	2	6
Language usage	-	-	-	31	27	33
Linking items	3	-	-	-	-	-
Morphology	-	-	1	1	-	1

82

Prediction	9	20	1	1	5	4
Recalling	-	4	-	-	-	-
Re-reading	-	4	-	-	-	-
Responding	-	-	9	9	-	1
Restating	-	3	1	1	-	1
Scanning	27	73	66	62	17	19
Skimming	-	9	3	3	3	2
Summarising	-	2	-	-	-	-
Syntax	-	-	-	-	-	3
Text Type Identification	-	3	7	7	-	-
Thesis Statement	-	-	1	1	-	1
Topic Sentence	-	-	-	-	-	2
Using the title	2	-	1	1	-	-

Table 4.5 Results of the analysis of L2 textbooks

4.1.5 Results

After applying these definitions to the reading questions and activities, the following strategies were identified in the textbooks as follows (for comparison reasons see the two tables above).

Arabic Textbooks:

1) Basic Education 3 Textbook: Association, Clarifying, Drawing conclusions, Evaluation, Guessing meaning, Inferring, Scanning, and Title related strategy.

2) Basic Education 4 Textbook: Association, Clarifying, Drawing conclusions, Inferring and Scanning.

3) Basic Education 5 Textbook: Linking items, Association, Clarifying, Drawing conclusions, Evaluation, Guessing meaning, Inferring, Scanning, and Skimming.

4) Basic Education 6 Textbook: Linking items, Association, Clarifying, Drawing conclusions, Evaluation, Inferring, Responding, Scanning, and Title awareness.

5) Basic Education 7 Textbook: Linking items, Association, Clarifying, Drawing conclusions, Evaluation, Inferring, Morphology, Responding, Restating, Scanning, Summarising, and Syntax.

6) Basic Education 8 Textbook: Linking items, Association, Clarifying, Evaluation, Guessing meaning, Inferring, Morphology, Responding, Scanning, Syntax, and Title awareness.

7) Basic Education 9 Textbook: Linking items, Association, Clarifying, Drawing conclusions, Evaluation, Guessing meaning, Idea identification, Inferring, Morphology, Responding, Restating, Scanning, Syntax, and Using dictionary.

8) Secondary Education 1 Textbook: Scanning, Clarifying, Inferring, Text structure, Evaluation.

9) Secondary Education 2 Textbook: Linking items, Association, Clarifying, Drawing conclusions, Evaluation, Guessing meaning, Idea identification, Inferring, Responding, Scanning, Syntax, Text type recognition.

10) Secondary Education 3 Textbook: Linking items, Clarifying, Evaluation, Guessing meaning, Inferring, Morphology, Responding, Restating, Scanning, Summarising, Syntax, Using dictionary.

English Textbooks:

1) Basic Education 9 Textbook: Linking items, Association, Clarifying, Evaluation, Guessing meaning, Idea identification, Prediction, Scanning, and Title awareness.

2) Secondary Education 1 Textbook:

   Skills A: Association, Guessing meaning, Inferring, Prediction, Recalling, Re-reading, Restating, Scanning, Skimming, Summarising, and Text type

   Skills B: Association, Clarifying, Evaluation, Guessing meaning, Inferring, Morphology, Prediction, Reading process, Responding, Restating, Scanning, Skimming, Text type, Thesis statement, and Title awareness.

3) Secondary Education 2 Textbook:

   Skills A: Unfortunately, this was unobtainable.

   Skills B: Association, Clarifying, Evaluation, Guessing meaning, Inferring, Morphology, Prediction, Reading process, Responding, Restating, Scanning, Skimming, Text type, Thesis statement, Title awareness and Language usage.

4) Secondary Education 3 Textbook:

   Skills A: Association, Evaluation, Guessing meaning, Inferring, Prediction, Scanning, Skimming, and Language usage.

   Skills B: Association, Evaluation, Guessing meaning, Idea identification, Inferring, Morphology, Prediction, Responding, Restating, Scanning, Skimming, Syntax, Thesis statement, Topic sentence, and Language usage.

4.1.6 Summary

These strategies can be categorised into three broad groups in line with the aims of the research questions, i.e. to discover the extent of the transferability of strategies:

1) Strategies found in L1 reading textbooks and EFL reading textbooks: Linking items, Association, Clarifying, Evaluation, Guessing meaning, Identifying the idea, Inferring, Morphology, Responding, Restating, Scanning, Summarising, Syntax, Using the title.

2) Strategies found only in L1 reading textbooks: Drawing Conclusions, Using Dictionary

3) Strategies found only in EFL reading textbooks: Prediction, Recalling, Re-reading, Skimming, Text Type Identification, Thesis Statement, Topic Sentence, Language usage

The second group and third group constitute the difference between the strategies presented in both languages reading textbooks. These strategies were used as basis for the

interviews which followed the Cloze test. Thus, if the students used any of group 2 strategies when carrying out EFL reading tasks, this may be because of transferring L1 reading strategies, and if the students used any of group 3 strategies when doing Arabic reading tasks, this may be a result of transferring EFL reading strategies.

A Cloze test and an interview will be the next instruments used in this study. The Cloze test will be used to provide the subjects with a reading environment in which they use reading strategies, and to test their reading performance. The interview will explore the strategies used by the subjects when doing the Cloze test, and when reading in other situations.

4.2 The Cloze Tests

The Cloze test was the first instrument administered to university students. Developing this test involved choosing the texts to be used and constructing the test. The Cloze test and the follow-up interview questions were piloted twice, in the Libyan secondary school in Newcastle upon Tyne (UK), and the College of Arts in Yefrin (Libya).

4.2.1 First piloting

This pilot study was conducted to signal the difficulty of the texts, to decide on the nature and number of spaces needed, the time required, to determine possible questions that may be useful in the interview, and to reveal any shortcomings regarding the instruments being used.

Choosing the text

Many formulas and graphs have been used to decide on the readability of English texts, e.g. the Winnetka Formula by Vogel and Washburne (1928), the Patty and Painter formula (1931), the Dale and Tyler Formula (1934), the Dale-Chall Formula (1948), the Flesch Reading Ease Formula (1951), and the Fry graph (1969). These instruments were tested against each other and were found to be highly correlated.

Attempting to use some of these mechanisms, the researcher noticed that they did not work for Arabic texts and produced illogical measurements, which were out of the range of the levels being tackled. This can be attributed to the fact that most readability tests, on English prose, used sentence length and word structure as measures of text difficulty. These features are not the same in Arabic and English. For example, most English sentences have a

verb element, which can be represented either explicitly or implicitly, while some Arabic sentences do not contain verbs at all and are nominal sentences. Developing similar instruments that work for both languages requires testing them against a sufficiently large and representative population, which was impossible because of time limitations.

Because of this complexity, students' age was used as a standard to choose both texts. The texts chosen were prescribed for second year secondary school students and for third year secondary school students.

Three of the six texts were written in Arabic and three were written in English. These texts were organised into three sets; each consisted of an Arabic text and an English text. The texts in each set shared a general theme.

Subjects' level, level of the texts and the amount of abstract material, and general knowledge, i.e. text relevance to students' specialisation affect readers' achievement and the strategies they use (Afflerbach, 1990; Ikeda and Takeuchi, 2006; Kletzien, 1991; Kozminsky and Kozminsky, 2001,were factors used to grade the three sets.

Because the subjects were third year secondary school students, it was reasonable to assume that they could cope with second year texts (of other specialisations) easily. Hence, the first and easiest set of texts was chosen from texts that were prescribed to 2nd year secondary school students majoring in engineering. The theme, shared between these texts, was physiology; the Arabic text was about melanin pigment, and the English one about cloning. The second and third sets were selected from texts prescribed to 3rd year secondary school students majoring in engineering. Second set texts were related to subjects' field (English language), i.e. language, and prescribed to students of the same age, i.e. third year secondary school students. The Arabic text was about views on varieties of Arabic, and the English text was about differences between some varieties of English. The final set contained abstract concepts, which aimed to contribute to text difficulty. These set texts were about time: the Arabic text was about Sufism (a mystic Muslim movement), and how its followers dedicated time for worshipping, while the English text described the relationship between time and everyday activities.

Developing the test

When the Cloze test instrument was developed by Taylor, it was meant to test text difficulty (Bensoussan and Ramraz, 1984, p 230). Afterwards it was used by many

researchers to test reading comprehension (Bormuth, 1969; Bensoussan & Ramraz, 1984; Carver, 1992; Koda, 1993; Taillefer & Pugh, 1998; Greene 2001; Pichette, Segalowitz & Connors, 2003; Ikeda & Takeuchi, 2006; Kolić-Vehovec & Bajšanski, 2007). It was also used and admired by many researchers as a tool for investigating and teaching reading strategies (Rye, 1982; Fyfe and Mitchell, 1983; Ahluwalia, 1992; Gunning, 1998; Brown, 2002; Steinman, 2002).

In the traditional Cloze test, every n^{th} word is deleted. However, researchers such as Klein-Braley (1981), Bachman (1982), and Levenston, Nir and Blum-Kula (1982) support the non-random version (in Bensoussan and Ramraz, 1984). In rational Cloze tests, researchers choose the words to be deleted to achieve certain goals.

Following Taylor's tradition, a random version, in which approximately every 5th word was deleted, was used in the first piloting test. The deleted words of each paragraph were jumbled together to form a word bank from which subjects could fill in the gaps.

After the test, a discussion session took place and a feedback form of eight questions was given to the subjects. To ensure that the participants understood the questions, the form and discussion session were conducted in Arabic. Questions in the form sought information about the clarity and difficulty of the texts used, the instructions, the time available, and any other comments about the whole session. In the discussion session interview, questions were discussed.

The tests were piloted with four third-year secondary school students, who had recently arrived in the UK and joined the Libyan secondary school in Newcastle upon Tyne. They were three females and one male.

The subjects' achievement in the Cloze tests highlighted the difficulty of the three sets. In fact, it emphasised the proposed difficulty sequence. Whereas the first set was easily answered and the second set was partially answered by the subjects, very few answers were given to the third set. The average percentage of the correct answers of each text was as follows:

1st Arabic Text 88%   *1st English Text 38%*

2nd Arabic Text 25%   *2nd English Text 36%*

3rd Arabic Text 1%   *3rd English Text 12%*

To avoid the two extremes i.e. the easiest texts, which might lead to automaticity (Afflerbach, 1990, p 33) and the most difficult texts, which might produce frustration (Lu, 2006, p 17), the second set of texts was selected as a main Cloze test for both languages, Arabic and English.

Within the Arabic text of the second set, the researcher noticed that out of the 75 spaces, 3 spaces were answered correctly by all subjects and 40 spaces were incorrectly answered. These 43 spaces were not used in the main Cloze test for the same reasons that the 1st and 3rd test sets were not used. This procedure and revision resulted into 31 spaces associated with choices, and 6 spaces in the penultimate paragraph without choices.

In the English text, out of the 61 spaces, 5 spaces were answered correctly by all subjects, and 19 spaces were answered incorrectly by all. These 24 spaces were not used in the second pilot Cloze test, for the same reasons mentioned previously. This procedure and revision resulted into 32 spaces associated with choices, and 8 spaces in the penultimate paragraph without choices. This procedure also helped to account for participants' comments in the feedback form about the large number of spaces.

Within the three sets presented, there were 306 spaces to be filled within 75 minutes i.e. about 15 seconds per space. In the feedback form, the subjects pointed out that the time was not sufficient. Therefore, the time of the second piloting study test was extended.

During the discussion interview, questions were tried. It was noted that most subjects' answers to 'Why/ how did you choose this word for this space?' were 'because of its structure', 'because of its part of speech' and 'because of its grammatical function'. These answers could be a result of not using choices of the same part of speech for each space, or of not recognising the text as a whole. Thus, the second piloting of the Cloze test, choices of each space were of the same part of speech in order to reduce the effect of local context and to generate different processes and reasons for each choice.

4.2.2 Second Piloting

The second piloting was designed to find out about the efficiency of the amendments made in both the Cloze test and the questions of the interview. It was also conducted to test its layout and to make a final decision about the time needed.

Constructing the final test and interview

A logical Cloze test in which choices are provided was very useful for the researcher because it enabled him control the information supplied. The test consisted of two texts, one of which was written in Arabic, and the other in English. The spaces used in this test were based on the first piloting.

Thirty-seven spaces were in the Arabic text; each of the first 31 spaces supplied 3 choices (one correct answer and two distractors). The other six spaces did not contain choices. On the other hand, the English text contained forty spaces of which the first thirty two spaces supplied three choices (one correct answer and two distractors) but the other eight spaces were not provided with choices. Distractors shared the same part of speech as their correct counterpart. Some distractors collocated with either the preceding or the following context. Choosing the correct answer required the subject to account for elements within the sentence, within the paragraph, within the passage, or, sometimes, to resort to previous background knowledge. At the end of each passage, the participants were required to supply a title for the text in order to concentrate their ideas.

The sheets of the Cloze test consisted of three pages; the first was the consent form, the second was the Arabic text, and the final page was the English text. The Arabic text was conducted before the English text in that it might be easier to handle for the students who were not accustomed to Cloze tests.

Interview questions were grouped into two groups; one group was about the strategies constituting the differences between L1 reading textbooks and EFL reading textbooks, while the other group sought justification to students' answers to the Cloze test.

The test and interview questions were piloted to seven subjects: five females and two males. They were studying in the first year in the English Department at the College of Arts in Yefren. They volunteered to do the test. These subjects were excluded from the main Cloze test, which was conducted later in the same college.

To avoid confusion and misunderstanding, Arabic was the main medium of communication between the researcher and the participants. It was used to make sure that the subjects were aware of the purpose of the study, in general, and the test, more specifically, and to find out about subjects' reaction and possible improvements that could be made to facilitate the test and interview administration.

In one of the classrooms, the second pilot was conducted. The purposes of the study

in general and the piloting in particular were explained to the subjects. They were informed that they could withdraw when they wished. The test was given to the students and then they were asked to read the consent form and put a tick beside each point.

After finishing the tests, the students were asked about the layout and difficulty of the test. They were also asked about justifications to some of their choices in the test and about their reading habits. Notes of students' comments and oral answers were written down.

Pilot Testing Results and Conclusion:

The results of the second pilot refined and improved the results of the first pilot study. Students expressed the opinion that the lines in each text were too close to each other, i.e. too condensed. They also pointed out that the choices needed to be visually distinguished from the rest of the text. After the first pilot study, the number of spaces was changed (see above). Hence, the time needed for the test was also checked again. One hour proved to be sufficient to complete the Cloze test. Ideas used to develop the distractors proved to be successful because when the subjects were asked to justify their choices, aspects other than the structure emerged.

On the basis of the results, changes were made to the layout of the test; spaces between the lines were increased, and the choices were printed in bold type. These changes also helped the researcher mark the test quickly. Interview questions proved to be efficient and seemed fruitful.

4.2.3 The main Cloze test

The study was conducted in two universities: 7th of April University and Al-Jabel Al-Gharby University. Three colleges were targeted two in 7th of April University (Sabrata College and Zawia College) and one in Al-Jabel Al-Gharby (Yefrin College). Each of the three colleges has an English language Department.

The first year students in English departments in these three colleges constituted the sample of Cloze test; 221 students. Their ages ranged from eighteen to twenty. Yefrin Subjects were 70 students out of the 82 first year students. Seven of them (five females and two males) participated in the pilot study and sixty three students (fifty two females and eleven males) participated in the main study. Sabrata Subjects were 87 students (sixty six females and twenty one males), of the 93 first year students. Zawia subjects were 71 students

(35 females and 18 males), out of the 83 first year students.

Those students had studied Arabic in Basic Education School for at least nine years and in secondary school for at least three years. For the first three years in Basic Education School, students should have been introduced, in their literacy book, to the alphabet, to simple sentences and to some ditties. In the next 6 years of Basic Education School and 3 years of secondary school, students were introduced to specific language issues, reading, writing, grammar, and poetry.

They studied general English in the last three years in Basic Education School, namely years 7, 8 and 9. In the English course, students should have been introduced to the four skills i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In their three-year secondary school course, they studied specific English courses related to writing, reading, listening, speaking, grammar, and lab. Hence, the participants were expected to have good experience in reading in both languages.

Procedure

In both Cloze tests (Arabic and English), there were choices, and blanks needed to be filled in. In the choices, only the correct word was considered a right answer but in the blanks without choices synonyms were also considered correct.

Because students' answer sheets would be used in the interview, the researcher did not use the usual marking symbols i.e. ticks and crosses to highlight the answers. Instead, three different signs were used; a circle for the right answer, a triangle for the incorrect answer and an oval shape for unanswered points. These signs were used in order not to distract or affect students' justifications i.e. they might be discouraged when they discovered that their answers were incorrect. This technique worked very well.

The day after the exam, all the papers of the subjects who expressed their willingness to be interviewed were corrected and their results were entered in a previously prepared Excel sheet in the Excel sheet, the marks entered in the following way: '1' for the correct answers, '0' for the incorrect answers and 's' for those were not answered. This helped the researcher to perform some simple formulas such as sum, mean, max, and formulas.

If a student answered all the points correctly, he/ she would gain 77 points for both tests (Arabic and English). Subjects were categorised according to their achievement in Cloze test, into three groups: 0-39, 40-49 and 50-77. Two of these categories were targeted for the

interviews: 0-39 who were considered the least successful subjects in the Cloze test and 50-77 who were considered the most successful subjects in the Cloze test.

After the Cloze test four students (the 2 least successful and the 2 most successful) were selected from each college to be interviewed. The students were selected according to two criteria subjects' achievement in the Cloze test and subjects' willingness to be interviewed. Willingness was expressed by the students' writing his/ her name on the last page of the Cloze test.

Yefrin college is one of the colleges in Aljabel Al-Gharby University. It has many departments one of which is the English language Department. This department has many staff members of different nationalities, e.g. Libyans, Egyptians, and Indians. The subjects had been approached through the Head of the English Department and the Head of the Arabic Department. The researcher contacted both of them by phone to make an appointment. In this appointment, the researcher explained the aim of the study, the procedure to be followed, the target subjects, and the time required for the test and the interviews. Samples of the test were shown to the heads of the departments. The Reading teacher was also asked about which students he expected to achieve good marks in this test and which he expected to do poorly. Brief notes and names were written down.

The Heads of the Departments agreed and suggested that the test could be conducted with all the subjects at the same time in a large class. They pointed out that it could be done the following week at the beginning of the Arabic lecture because all groups would be in this large class. To make best use of the time, just after the meeting, the Head of English Department asked some of first year students whether they wanted to try a reading test. Seven students expressed their acceptance, and the pilot test was conducted just a few minutes after the meeting. The researcher also contacted the reading teacher and showed him the test. He confirmed that the test suite5d students' level. However, he mentioned that he used other forms of question but not this form.

On the day agreed upon with the Heads of the Departments the students took the exam during the first hour of the Arabic language lecture. They were informed by their teacher about the purpose of the study, how the results would be used, and about their rights to withdraw at any point of the study. They were also informed that a few students would be interviewed the day after the next day, and that whoever wanted to participate in the interview

needed to write their names on the Cloze test form. After the explanations, three students left stating that they did not want to take the test. In addition, 9 students were absent from the beginning.

During the test, the students were supervised by their teacher and assisted by the researcher if there were any queries. After the test, each answer sheet was assigned a code. This code consisted of the first letter of the college name i.e. 'Y'efrin, and a unique number. After that, the papers were divided into two groups according to whether the subject wanted to be interviewed or not. Papers of the subjects who wanted to be interviewed were the first to be corrected. Of the names mentioned by the teacher, only one female student wanted to be interviewed.

Sabrata College is one of the colleges in 7th of April University. It consists of many departments one of which is the English Department. The research was conducted by one of the staff members in this Department. Staff members were from different nationalities: Libyans, Indians, and Filipinos.The subjects in this college were approached through the person in charge of exams in the Department. The researcher contacted him by phone and arranged for a meeting to discuss the details. In addition, the teacher of the reading course was invited to the meeting. During the meeting, samples of the test were presented to the Head of Exams and to the teacher. The purpose of the study and the procedure were explained to them. They expressed their agreement and the teacher offered her help. She pointed out that students were divided into four groups. She suggested conducting the test the following week.

On the first day, two groups took the test during their reading lecture. The teacher and the researcher explained to the students the purpose of the study and the way the results would be used. The consent form was explained to them too. They were also informed about the interview. After the second group finished the test, each answer sheet was assigned a code as mentioned above: the first letter of the college name 'S'abrata, and a unique number. Then the papers were divided into two groups according to whether the subject wanted to be interviewed or not.

The next day the other two groups took the test and the same procedure was applied. The four groups were informed that the interview would take place the following day.

Zawia College is also one of the colleges of 7th of April. It has an English Department.

Staff members are of different nationalities e.g. Libyans, Indians, and Filipinos. When doing the test in Sabrata College the researcher visited Zawia College and met the Head of the Department and reading course teachers. The two reading teachers offered their help. They suggested that the test could be conducted during the reading lecture. On the agreed day, the sheets were handed to the teachers to give to the students during the lecture because the groups were taking the course simultaneously. The teachers were informed about the procedure to be followed. The researcher joined the teachers and answered subjects' queries during the test. The subjects were informed that an interview would be conducted the following day.

After the test, the sheets were assigned codes as above: the first letter of the college 'Z'awia and a unique number. They were also grouped into two groups according to subjects' willingness to participate in the interview. The test of the group who agreed to be interviewed was corrected on the same day in order to categorise and select potential interviewees.

Results

The Cloze test results were:

25 students were the most successful; i.e. achieved 50-77
131 students were the least successful; i.e. achieved less than 40
65 students achieved 41-49

The following table presents the results:

Category		N.	L 1		EFL		Total	
			Mean	STD	Mean	STD	Mean	STD
Yefrin	> 40	41	15.3	4.2	11.9	4.9	27.2	6.8
	40-49	18	22.6	3.4	23	2.8	45.6	3.3
	< 49	4	26	1.4	29.5	1.7	55.5	1.7
Sabrata	> 40	56	16.9	3.6	15.6	4.1	32.5	5.1
	40-49	24	21.4	2.8	22.5	2.4	44	2.3
	< 49	7	25.1	2	26.4	2.1	51.6	1.5
Zawia	> 40	34	16.8	3.7	12.7	5.3	29.5	6.8
	40-49	23	21.3	2.9	22	3.3	43.3	2.9
	< 49	14	25.8	2.9	29.1	3.7	54.9	4.7

Table 4.6 Results of Cloze test

These subjects were the target population of the interview. Two of the good readers and two of the poor readers were interviewed in each of the three colleges.

As soon as Cloze tests were corrected, the interviews were conducted. Conducting the interviews immediately after the Cloze test was an important factor because the more time that passed between the reading task and the interviews, the greater was the possibility of forgetting what strategies were used.

4.3 The interviews

The twelve of Cloze test participants selected through stratified sampling and random sampling (see 4.3.1) and were asked two groups of questions: (1) what strategies the students used when doing Cloze tests, and (2) what strategies they might use in certain hypothetical reading situations.

Subjects who had agreed to be interviewed after doing the Cloze test were informed that a few of them would be selected randomly. Interviewees were informed again about the research, and their participation. The same consent form used in the Cloze test was used in the interview. This consent form had been checked by the responsible body in the School of Education.

The questions used in the interview considered the level of the respondents in order to avoid ambiguity. Vague words were not used in order to reduce any confusion. Emotional words that might affect subjects' responses were not used either; the language used was neutral. Moreover, leading questions or comments about the Cloze test answers were avoided in order to encourage the respondents to express their own strategies rather than feeling that something was right or wrong. The researcher tried to be neutral and objective, i.e. not expressing any verbal or nonverbal reactions that might affect interviewees' answers.

To encourage the interviewees and reduce any embarrassment and anxiety the researcher tried to establish a relationship with them. However this step was controlled in order not to affect interviewing time, as suggested by Bryman (2001, pp 114, 115).

An interview guide written by the researcher controlled the course of the interview. This guide contained questions that sought justifications to Cloze test choices and questions based on hypothetical situations and related to the results of textbook analysis. The two groups of questions sought possible strategies. To preserve the meaning attributed to the

different reading strategies during textbook analysis, the second group of questions were worded in a way that captured the definition of the strategy developed in textbook analysis, i.e. definition statements were transferred into interrogative questions. These questions can be found in the appendix. The general aim of the first group of questions was to find out what the interviewees did or thought when they selected a word to fill the gap. They were also asked to justify their choices if they did not mention this.

Subjects' Cloze test forms were used as prompts to enable subjects to remember and reveal their actual reading strategies during the Cloze test. This was to reduce the effect of time between doing the Cloze test and participating in the interview.

Prompts were used to probe for more information (Neuman, 2007, p 192). These prompts ranged from other questions to body gestures and sometimes silence. To minimise the effect of external factors, the researcher tried to interview each respondent alone; however, one of the female subjects asked the researcher to allow her colleague to be with her in the same place, during the interview. This seemed to be because of something related to Islamic practice. Her colleague attended in the same room, but she was at a distance so that she could not hear the interview. Concerns about the effects of ethnic-racial group (Neuman, 2007) were not applicable as the researcher and the participants were of the same origin. The time allocated to each interview depended on the time need to answer the questions and the subject's interest and ranged from 17-40 minutes, with an average of around 30 minutes.

A digital voice recorder was used to record the interviews, and written notes of interviewees' attitude, feelings, and relevant nonverbal signs were taken. Although the author offered to send the subjects information about the results, they did not express interest in obtaining such information.

4.3.1 Participants selection

Sampling for the interview depended on the results of Cloze test. After the Cloze test was marked, two sampling stages were applied. In the first stage, stratified sampling was used. In this sampling process, the Cloze test subjects who agreed to be interviewed were grouped according to their achievement, in the Cloze test, into three groups: 0-39 group, 40-49 group, and 50-77 group. 0-39 group subjects were considered poor Cloze test achievers, but 50-77 group subjects were considered good Cloze test achievers. To create a reasonable gap between poor achievers group and good achievers group 40-49 group subjects were

excluded from the interview.

In the second stage, random sampling was used. Four participants (2 poor achievers and 2 good achievers) from each college were selected randomly. Hence, 12 subjects were interviewed. To avoid withdrawal problems and any other circumstances, four subjects were chosen from each group whenever it was possible. The first two in each nominee's list were the potential interviewees.

4.3.2 Coding and categorising

As mentioned above, two groups of questions were asked in the interview. In one group, justifications were sought to subjects' choices in the Cloze test. The other group of questions explored subjects' reading habits and strategies on the basis of the results of textbooks analysis. Hence, the codes were guided in one group by the previous work but they emerged from the data in the other.

Because the interviews targeted different level readers (poor and good), to obtain more information, Arabic was used in the interview. These interviews were transcribed into written form and then they were translated into English. To be used whenever needed, the transcribed Arabic answers and their English translation were available in the same document during the coding and categorisation processes.

The target units of analysis were mainly the meaningful units that were usually sentences. Because the aim was to find out about strategies, the definition of strategy mentioned in literature review was used to decide which units of meaning were important (the systematic ways that are consciously used by the readers to guide and enhance their reading processes).

Comments in Microsoft Word were used to apply codes to the answers. Answers were also highlighted in three different colours: yellow for correct choices and acceptable justifications, red for incorrect choices, and grey for correct choices but improper justifications. After applying this procedure, many codes emerged. Some codes where revised after checking other subjects' interviews. Whenever a new code emerged, the previous interviews were checked again against this code and it was applied to them. The final codes were grouped into three main categories: tools or items used to achieve goals, activities performed, and descriptions. Hence, the first two categories were strategies whereas the last category provided description of the characteristics of good and poor readers.

In the first category, 'Linguistic Items' was one of the codes used. It was applied when only linguistic items guided subjects' choices. These linguistic elements ranged from words to whole paragraphs. Some of these linguistic items were either before or after the choices. 'Dictionary' was used to code interviewees' reference to using a dictionary. 'Language Use' highlighted using the relationship between grammar and meaning.

The code 'Identifying the Idea' was applied when a subject said that he/ she obtained the answer on basis of the idea or the theme of the paragraph/ text. 'Read and understood' was used to code justifications based on subject's understanding of parts of the text. When a subject said that the choice was because of the writer's attitude, the code 'Writer's Attitude' was used. 'Grammar' was used to refer to using the morphological level and the syntactic level in the Cloze test, and awareness of the linguistic context. In textbook analysis these two levels were identified separately, i.e. 'morphology' and 'syntax'. They were separated because each level was so productive in the textbooks. Misusing these levels or failure to notice them was referred to as 'Unawareness of Grammar'.

'Association' highlighted subjects' use of general knowledge, previous knowledge, and experience. General knowledge meant to refer to using what is known by non-specialists whereas previous knowledge about reading material i.e. what is usually acquired through formal learning or training such as geography, vocabulary, collocations, terminology, and grammatical rules. 'Resorting to Feeling' was used when interviewees pointed out that they felt attracted or liked this or that choice. Some justifications were unreasonable and not related to the text such responses were coded as 'Personal Interpretation'. 'First Language' (translating and linking L1 and L2 similar features) is self-explanatory.

All of the aforementioned elements were used not only to make choices but also to exclude what was considered inappropriate to the context, and to revise what had been chosen randomly.

The second category of codes was concerned with the activities performed by the subjects. 'Linking Items' used to code anaphoric, cataphoric and meaning relationships. Whenever an interviewee mentioned that he/ she intended to do something, the code 'Planning' was used.

Whereas some subjects resorted to random guesses when they did not have knowledge and information, others skipped the difficult items and avoided them. Hence,

respectively, 'Guessing', 'Skipping' and 'Avoiding' codes were used. 'Moving Back and Forth' is self-explanatory. The code 'Judging Appropriateness' was used to code answers in which the interviewee dealt with appropriateness or relevance of a choice to the context. When exclusion was the first step to the answer, the 'Excluding' code was used.

When they were not sure, subjects made initial selections then they revised them and tried either to adjust them or to find support for them. These processes were coded by 'Revising', 'Adjusting', and 'Seeking Support'. Some subjects sought help from others, these situations were coded as 'Seeking Help'. It was noticed that subjects restated, paraphrased, or clarified the resulting sequence when they justified their choices, and this was coded as such. Although most subjects used a variety of strategies, a few of them used only one or two strategies, which were mostly based on using linguistic items. 'One Strategy' was used to code such cases. 'Inferring Unknown Words', 'Identifying Text Types', 'Recalling', 'Predicting', and identifying 'Topic Sentence and Thesis Statement' were identified and defined in Textbook Analysis chapter.

The third group was about the characteristics of readers. Because these codes are descriptive, they are self explanatory: 'Expressing Doubt', 'Missing The Goal', 'Forgetting Plans', 'Forgetting Easily', 'Unawareness of Grammar' (incomplete rule, functions of some words, the effect of gender, 'ed' as a past-forming morpheme, derivations and verb forms, concord between structures, conjunctions, question words, prepositions, and the role of punctuation marks.), 'Lack Of Confidence', 'Trusting Others' and 'Lack Of Vocabulary' (including linguistic terms).

The following table summarises the categories and their associated codes:

Tools used	Activities	Description
Grammar	Adjusting	Trusting others
Dictionary	Avoiding	Forgetting easily
Read and understood	Clarifying	Expressing doubt
Writer's attitude	Excluding	Lack of vocabulary
First language	Guessing	Missing the goal
Personal interpretation	Identifying text types	Forgetting plans
Association	Inferring unknown words	Unawareness of grammar
Feeling	Judging appropriateness	Lack of confidence
Linguistic items	Linking items	
Identifying the idea	Moving back and forth	
Language use	One strategy	

	Paraphrasing	
	Personal interpretation	
	Planning	
	Predicting	
	Recalling	
	Restating	
	Revising	
	Seeking help	
	Seeking support	
	Skipping	
	Topic sentence and thesis statement	

Table 4.7 The categorisation of the codes used in the analysis of the interviews

When the codes developed, they were applied to the interview transcripts to find out about reading strategies. The following sections will provide description of the interviews conducted. This description will be organised into main groups named after the colleges and subgroups and according to Cloze test achievement. This categorisation is used to facilitate the comparison of results and because of the methodology followed where triangulation is employed.

Forty nine students agreed to be interviewed; sixteen achieved more than 50, twenty one achieved from 40-49, and twelve achieved less than 40 (out of 77). Six students, from each of the targeted groups (more than 50 group and less than 40 group), were selected randomly to be interviewed.

The more than 50 group consisted of:

Y1 had 57 points: 32 in English and 25 in Arabic

Y2 had 54 points: 29 in English and 25 in Arabic

S1 achieved 50 points: 28 in English and 22 in Arabic

S3 achieved 52 points: 29 in English and 23 in Arabic

Z2 achieved 68 points: 39 in English and 29 in Arabic

Z54 achieved 52 points: 28 in English and 24 in Arabic

The less than 40 group consisted of:

Y30 had 29 points: 14 in English and 15 in Arabic

Y37 had 30 points: 16 in English and 14 in Arabic

100

S2 achieved 31 points: 10 in English and 21 in Arabic

S8 achieved 27 points: 15 in English and 12 in Arabic

Z55 achieved 19 points: 7 in English and 12 in Arabic

Z56 achieved 39 points: 15 in English and 24 in Arabic

Good readers

Y1

This subject was chosen after applying stratified sampling and random sampling respectively. For interview purposes, the researcher contacted this subject through reading teacher. Y1 is a female student. She was 19 when she was interviewed. All the courses she followed were in state sector institutions i.e. she did not follow any private courses. In Arabic Cloze test, she achieved 25 points out of the 37, and 32 points out of the 40 points in English test. Reading teacher praised her performance in the reading course. She agreed to be interviewed by writing her name on her Cloze test answer sheet. Moreover, she agreed verbally that her answers could be recorded. She was very enthusiastic and cooperative during the interview.

The interview was conducted in one of the classrooms. No other people attended the interview. Before starting the interview, the subject received her Cloze test answer sheet to have a look over it. Then she was informed that the interview would be recorded. The subject agreed immediately. Before starting recording, the subject asked about the type of questions to be asked. The researcher explained that she would be asked to provide justifications for her choices if any, and that she would be asked about her reading habits. This interview took 28 minutes.

- *Questions about L1 Cloze test:*

When the student was asked about the reason which led her to choose 'هذا', which means 'this' [it refers to close masculine singular] in number 1, she pointed out that 'this' fits with the context of the sentence i.e. with what comes before and what comes after the spaces. Then she added that the following word 'التقريب', which means 'bridging the gap' and refers to a masculine singular entity, affected her choice.

The first part of the answer shows that the subject was aware of the role of the

context. On the other hand, the second part of her answer shows that the she knew about Arabic sensitivity to gender.

She chose 'الفصحى', which means 'standard' [it refers to standard Arabic] in number 2. She pointed out that uneducated people could easily understand the vernacular. Thus, they needed the standard dialect to be simplified for them. The student here used general knowledge; standard Arabic is more difficult than everyday language. She linked this knowledge to what was presented in the text.

In number 6, the student chose 'ببعض', which means 'with some' [a preposition is attached to some as one word]. The student mentioned that the preceding word 'بغير', which means 'without' [a preposition attached to 'other']. She did not notice that there was a coordinator between these two words, which were attached to prepositions. This coordinator is 'او', which means 'or'. Because of her high achievement in the Cloze test, her lack of awareness may be attributed to automaticity, i.e. using the rule unconsciously.

The student chose one of the distractors in number 7: 'اضافة', which means 'to add'. She stated that it mentioned that standard Arabic needed to be facilitated for uneducated people, hence adding the vernacular to the standard Arabic supported the idea. She added that the presence of 'uneducated' people in the preceding paragraph goes with this choice. Here the student did not notice the message intended by the writer who does not support using the vernacular and favours the standard version of Arabic.

The student did not answer number 8, because she considered it 'vague'. However, she planned to answer it later. She skipped what was difficult/ 'vague'.

In number 10, the student chose 'منهم', which means 'some of them'. She pointed out that this word referred to 'there are people who...' in a previous sentence. In this sense, the student linked between an anaphora and its reference. This is an indication of the student's knowledge of the relationships that may exist within the text.

Previous knowledge played a role in her choice in number 13. She stated that she selected 'Latin' because she knew that it is one of the old languages. She also expressed more of her previous knowledge to support her choice when she pointed out that the languages following the space were related to Latin. In addition to using previous knowledge, the student demonstrated that she looked for support for her answers.

The student used her personal criterion in number 14; she pointed out that her choice

of 'Romanian' was because it was well known. She used the same criterion to exclude 'Chinese' because it was not well known. Although the choice was right, the justification was not appropriate. The answer should be based on previous knowledge about the relationship between 'Romanian' and the languages of the same family mentioned before the space.

In number 18, her choice 'الاخرى', which means 'the other', was a result of the preceding phrase 'one of the dialects over'. This choice indicates student's use of the adjacent linguistic items to make her choices.

She used her knowledge of how some words collocate with each other to choose 'العلوم', which means 'sciences' in number 23. It was because 'sciences' collocates with the following word 'arts'.

In number 25, she chose 'متفرقة', which means 'scattered'. She stated that she did not understand the question; she resorted to a random guess. This choice is likely to have been related to general knowledge of the characteristics of dialects.

'المعيشة', which means 'living' [what people do to earn the money they need], was her choice in number 29. Her choice was because of the word preceding it, 'the market'. She explained that these two words could be associated. This demonstrates students relying on the preceding linguistic items rather than on the surrounding context: the preceding and the following linguistic items. In this choice, the following word has a role to play too.

She pointed out that the completely blank spaces were more difficult than the choices. She commented that she read the text again and tried to use what she read previously. Her response revealed that she used re-reading and what was read to understand the following material.

She used 'يبطلون', which means 'nullify' in number 33. Her answer was affected by the previous phrase 'not nullify the vernacular'. This response is not appropriate.

In 34, the student chose 'في', which means 'in'. The context was the factor affected her choice. She used the context effectively in this point.

When the student was asked about which text she considered easier she stated that the English text was easier than Arabic text. She attributed that to her school background knowledge of English. She assumed that she had less background knowledge of standard Arabic.

- *Questions about L2 Cloze test:*

In number 1, the student chose 'people'. She mentioned that the following non-adjacent phrase 'need to communicate' guided her choice. She linked the necessity to communicate and people. The student went beyond the adjacent linguistic items and looked for semantic relationships within the material she read.

'Language' was her choice in number 2. She linked this word to the preceding word 'world'. She also excluded 'dialect' in that it could not be 'world dialect'. However, she did not notice the contribution of what followed the space, i.e. 'this language', and its anaphoric relationship with the choice.

In number 3, she chose 'is'. In her justification, she demonstrated awareness of grammar while reading. She pointed out that it was preceded by 'language' which is singular, and that present tense was needed. This explanation showed knowledge of the grammatical rule and of the right context in which to apply it.

She chose 'international' in number 4. She stated that the following word 'organisations' affected her choice. She used the following linguistic item. This item also helped her exclude the other two choices, 'local' and 'foreign'.

The student used what she had read to make her choice in point 8. She pointed out that she chose 'English' because the previous sentences were about the number and percentage of people who speak English.

Previous knowledge of varieties of English helped the student choose 'varieties' in number 9. She linked her previous knowledge to what was presented in the text.

'South African' was her choice in number 10. She used her previous knowledge of which countries speak English to exclude 'Libyan' and 'Russian 'English.

Pronunciation similarity between first language and L2 affected her choice in number 11. She pointed out that she linked 'Britain' to the name applied to the states in Arabic 'britania'. This choice should have been linked to previous knowledge, and to what was presented after the choices: 'British English'.

In number 12, the student resorted to a random guess 'good'. This revealed that she did not know the term used to describe the formal language.

Although the student perceived that there was a contrast between the sentences before

and after the choices, she chose the wrong word 'whereas' in number 14. This can be attributed to an incomplete knowledge of the grammatical rule.

The student translated the choices into Arabic then she used her knowledge of the use and context of the bracketed words to choose 'that' and exclude 'whose' and 'whom' in number 16.

She chose 'British' in number 18. She pointed out that her choice was affected by the theme of previous sentences i.e. 'British English', 'varieties of English' and 'Britain'. This choice required previous knowledge of which variety is taught in European countries.

In number 21, she chose 'between'. She mentioned that the preceding linguistic items affected her choice. Her justification shows knowledge of the use and function of some words; using 'between' after 'differences'.

She chose 'pronunciation' in number 22 because of the following linguistic items 'silent r'. She linked these items to 'pronunciation' because they shared the same theme.

'Misunderstanding' was her choice in number 26. The student used what she had read i.e. she related 'misunderstanding' to her wrong choice 'pronunciation' in 25. There were examples about vocabulary differences, which could provide a clue about the right choice in 25.

She used 'it' in 33. She stated that 'it' refers to 'language'. She showed knowledge of using anaphors to refer to certain references.

She resorted to translation into Arabic in order to infer number 34, 'most'. She pointed out that after the translation she noticed that it was the most appropriate choice. Here the student used L1 translation to assist her reading, to judge the appropriate choice, and to exclude the inappropriate ones.

The student used 'reason' in 37 after she read the paragraph and inferred the relationships between the sentences i.e. the change in the number of words used in English.

- *Questions related to the strategies used in the textbook*

She pointed out that while reading, she looks for the main idea, which can be found in the beginning, in the end and in the title. She tries to extract meanings of difficult words from the context and to figure out the most appropriate meaning. If she cannot think of the meaning, she consults the dictionary. She learned how to use an English dictionary when she

started high school. Although she learned how to use an Arabic dictionary in school in the ninth grade she was not taught how to use an English dictionary in school courses. In secondary school, colleagues and family helped her use it.

Sometimes she can predict the topic through the title or the pictures associated with the article. This can be applied to both languages: Arabic and English.

After reading, she tries to recall topics that could be easily remembered. For example, after she did this test, she tried to remember it. She stated that difficult topics are difficult to remember. When reading she first tries to get a general idea about the topic.

She learned skimming in Arabic and she can tell the type of the text after she skims the article. She uses her knowledge about text type to understand it. She commented that this helps her read easily.

She stated that the beginnings of paragraphs and essays provide clues about the topic, whereas their endings provide a summary of the topic. Details are introduced in the body of the article. She thinks of grammar when she reads because it affects meaning. She provided an example about how grammar affects meaning: in the Holy Quran if a diacritic mark changes, the meaning changes.

Y2

As with the previous subject, this subject was chosen after applying stratified sampling and random sampling respectively. For interview purposes, the researcher contacted this subject through Reading teacher. Y2 is a female student. She was 19 when she was interviewed. She did not receive any supplementary courses other than school courses.

In the Cloze test, she achieved 25 points out of the 37 points of the Arabic test, and achieved 29 points out of the 40 points of the English test. Her Arabic teacher pointed out that she is a nice, quiet student.

She agreed to be interviewed by writing her name on her Cloze test answer sheet. Moreover, she agreed verbally that her answers could be recorded. She was a little bit timid before starting the interview but during the interview, she was cooperative and asked for more explanation whenever she did not understand the question.

The interview was conducted in the Department office during lectures, i.e. none of the staff was there. However, the student asked the researcher to let one of her friends stay with

her. Thus, one of her female friends sat in the same room but she was a little bit away from the table used for the interview. Before starting the interview, the subject checked her Cloze test answers to remember the reasons underlying her choices. Then she was asked if the interview could be recorded. The subject asked whether that was necessary. After a brief explanation, she agreed to record her answers. She was informed about the type of questions that she would be asked. This interview took 23 minutes.

- *Questions about L1 Cloze test*

When the student was asked about the reason led her to choose 'هذا' [it refers to close masculine singular] in number 1, she pointed out that 'this' refers to 'التقريب' which is a masculine entity and means 'bridging the gap'. In her justification she showed knowledge of the effect of gender, and linked a cataphora to the noun it referred to.

The student pointed out that she chose 'الفاظ', which means 'words', in number 4 because of the preceding phrase 'مفردات نافعة', which means 'useful, vocabulary'. She used the preceding linguistic items.

In number 5 the student chose 'المفردات', which means 'vocabulary'. She stated that her choice was because what proceeded it was about two languages [classical and colloquial Arabic], and vocabulary differences were the most common between them. In this justification, she used what had already been read, and used her previous knowledge of the differences between classic/ standard Arabic and colloquial Arabic.

Two reasons led the student to choose 'بتغليب', which means 'to prevail', in number 7; the first was the preposition 'على', which means 'over', which led her to exclude 'to leave', the second reason was 'between' which helped her exclude 'to add'. In her explanation, she used two linguistic items in the context to exclude the two distractors.

'العامية', which means 'vernacular', was her choice in number 8. Her choice was because it coordinated with choice 7. She stated that in number 7 the aim was to prevail over vernacular over standard Arabic. The student used the idea that had already been mentioned before the choice. Meaning was the main factor that affected her choice.

In number 10 she chose 'منهم', which means 'some of them', because as she stated, it suited 'who depends on' which refers to some people. Student's justification showed that she used the following linguistic items and paraphrased the resulted meaning to support her answer.

She chose 'يستشهد', which means 'exemplify', in number 12. She pointed out that this word was used to introduce examples and demonstration. She added that what followed the space was an example. The student was aware of the function and context in which this word was used.

Her previous knowledge guided her choice to 'Latin' in number 13. She stated that her choice was based on previous knowledge. She added that this language is rarely used.

The student chose 'Romanian' through a random answer in number 14. She resorted to this randomness because of her lack of previous knowledge.

In number 15, she chose 'بتطور', which means 'evolution/ development'. She pointed out that she chose this word because of the context and the word 'modern'. She used the context and a clue found in the non-adjacent word 'modern'. However, this choice requires previous knowledge of the characteristics of language in general and European languages in particular.

In number 16 she chose 'الغاء', which means 'to cancel' because, as she stated, this word suited the preceding phrase 'to prevail the vernacular'. The student used linguistic items. However, the actual cause is rooted in the idea presented before i.e. the vernacular prevailing over the standard Arabic.

She chose 'الاخرى', which means 'the other' in number 18 because of the preceding phrase 'one of the dialects over'. She also pointed out that this phrase helped her exclude 'standard' and 'vernacular', in order to avoid repetition.

Her choice to 'الشعوب', which means the nations/ people in number 23, was guided by the preceding word. The student did not recognise the collocation between the following word 'arts' which usually collocates with the correct choice 'sciences'. Thus, this choice should be based on the following adjacent word.

The student used her knowledge of the characteristics of dialects. This knowledge helped her choose 'متفرقة', which means 'scattered' in number 25. She also employed this knowledge to exclude the other two options 'abandoned' and 'united' because they are not applicable to dialects.

In number 29, she chose 'الدروس', which means 'lessons', because of the preceding phrase 'science books and market dialect'. The student did not check what came after the

space 'daily' which collocates with the right choice 'living'.

In the space 34 she used 'in'. She stated that it is the appropriate preposition to the context. The student showed knowledge of the function and the context in which this preposition is used. Finally, she stated that the English test was easier because English is simple (compared to Arabic). This shows a positive attitude toward the language.

- *Questions about L2 Cloze test:*

The student pointed out that the following phrase 'from different parts of the world' guided her choice to 'people' in number 1. The student used the following linguistic items. She did not link her choice to meaning. The actual cause here is the phrase that follows 'need to communicate'.

In number 2, she chose 'language'. She stated that her choice was affected by the topic of the article, which was about language. Although she did not know the meaning of the distractor 'dialect', she insisted on the same choice. This choice could be decided through a linguistic clue in the following phrase 'and this language'.

In number 7 she chose 'world's' because of the preceding phrase namely 'around third of the'. Then she commented that it would be 'third of the world's'. She used the preceding linguistic items. In this part, the subject needed background knowledge to decide whether it was 'third of the world's/ countries or cities'. Therefore, it was not a matter of a preceding linguistic item; it was a matter of background knowledge.

She chose 'English' in number 8 because she knew that the English language is more widespread. She used her previous knowledge.

She chose 'varieties' in number 9 because British English and American English are different types of English. The student demonstrated use of previous knowledge.

Again, in number 10 she used her background knowledge. She pointed out that she chose 'South African' because she knew that English is spoken there.

She did not answer number 14 because she forgot to do so. She stated that if she had remembered it, at least a random choice would have been used. The student planned to resort to a random answer when she did not know the answer.

In number 18, she chose 'British' on basis of her background knowledge. She mentioned that British English was taught in schools and it was the Standard English.

Students' justification was about British + English. She did not refer to the geographical domain of British English, i.e. European countries compared to the geographical domain of American English, i.e. East Asia.

The student chose 'while' in number 19 because it fitted the context, and linked what was before and after the choices. The student used her knowledge of the function and the context of this word, i.e. linking two different sentences.

In number 20, she chose 'more'. She pointed out that it was because of her previous choice in number 19: 'while'. She restated the resulting sequence 'more common'. The student used 'while' because this clause was a part of the sentences linked by 'while'.

Her choice of 'vocabulary' in number 25 was because of her choice in 26. The student read the next part to facilitate her current choice.

She chose 'misunderstanding' in 26 because misunderstanding can be due to pronunciation or to grammar. She excluded the other two choices 'understanding' and 'disagreement' because they were not appropriate in the context. 'Misunderstanding' was more appropriate in this context because of 'vocabulary'.

She used the preceding linguistic items in 33 to find out the appropriate word i.e. 'it'. She inferred that a pronoun that referred to 'language' was needed and could be inserted in this space. She showed knowledge of using anaphors to refer to references.

She used parts of the paragraph to guess what was appropriate to number 35. In the paragraph, she found '800000 words'; she then concluded that 'words' was appropriate.

- *Questions related to the strategies used in the textbook:*

She can discover the message of the writer when she skims the article, looking for words like numbers or proper nouns. She does not read the details unless she has skimmed the text. She uses skimming to discover the writers' message. She is aware of the items that are targeted when skimming. She uses skimming as the first step of her reading then she resorts to scanning

She tries to infer the meanings of difficult words from the context or the content of the article. If she does not succeed, she consults the dictionary, particularly when it is an English word. Although it was not part of the course, she learned to use English dictionary in the seventh grade when her teacher explained to the class how to use it. On the other hand, she

was taught, in the ninth grade, how to use Arabic dictionaries. The student has a two-step plan to deal with difficult words: using the context, then consulting the dictionary.

She tries to anticipate the subject matter through its title, pictures, or graphics; otherwise, she cannot do so. This reveals knowledge of the appropriate items of the text that can be used for prediction.

She can remember the topics that she has understood. She likes to read and can understand properly when reading for purposes other than the exam. If she reads for an exam, her understanding will be limited to that goal. Her degree of recalling coincides with understanding.

She rereads many times when she is preparing for an exam otherwise she does not reread. She usually skims to find out numbers, names or proper nouns that may help her get an idea about the text, particularly in English language texts. When she reads carefully, she can distinguish the kinds of texts.

She pointed out that the beginning and end of the text contain important information. This information can help the reader understand the text. This rule is applicable to articles and paragraphs because the writer introduces the idea then he/ she clarifies it. She is aware of the topic sentence and thesis statement and their importance. She is aware that grammar affects meaning, particularly when the standard dialect is used. Sentences need to be produced correctly whether they are in the past or the present tense.

S1

This subject was chosen after applying stratified sampling and random sampling respectively. The subject was approached through Reading teacher. S1 is a female student. She was 19 when she was interviewed. All the courses she took were in the State sector.

In Cloze test, she obtained 22 points out of the 37 points of the Arabic test, and 28 points out of the 40 points of the English test. She agreed to be interviewed by writing her name on her Cloze test answer sheet. Moreover, she agreed verbally that her answers could be recorded. During the interview, she was very cooperative.

The interview was conducted in the Department. No other people attended the interview. She was given her answer sheet before starting the interview, and she was informed about the questions to be asked. This interview took 21 minutes.

When she was asked to justify her choice 'هذا', which means 'this' in number 1, she pointed out that it was because 'effects' is masculine. When she was asked about the effect of 'bridging the gap', she pointed out that they both have the same effect. She used the preceding word. She is aware of the effect of gender. However, she was not accurate about the directionality of gender effect. The demonstrative pronoun is affected by what comes after it not what comes before it.

She chose 'الفصحى', which means 'standard' in number 2 because of the following word 'uneducated' (people). She commented that uneducated people need the standard being simplified for them. She used the following word then she paraphrased the resulting sequence.

In number 4, she chose 'الفاظ', which means 'words/ vocabulary' because it is more common to say 'cultured words' than to say 'cultured sentences' or 'cultured phrases'. She used previous knowledge about collocations to judge choices.

In number 5 she pointed out that she chose ' المفردات ', which means 'vocabulary' because they are the words of eloquence. She paraphrased the resulting sequence. Although the choice was correct, the justification was not appropriate. Actually, space 4 and the 'useful vocabulary' which preceded this point are the main items that affect this choice.

In number 7, her choice was 'بتغليب', which means 'to prevail'. Her choice was because the vernacular is usually used. She used her previous knowledge. However, this choice could be justified by the main idea of what was presented before the space.

She chose 'الفصحى', which means 'standard' in number 8 because it was relevant to the previous spaces; if people do not use standard Arabic, they use the vernacular. She used what had already been read, and imposed her personal interpretations. The right choice is 'العامية', which means 'vernacular'. This can be inferred from the following sentences.

'Latin' was her choice in number 13. She pointed out that the Latin language is familiar to her inform English courses. She used her previous knowledge.

She chose 'Arabic' in number 14 because Arabic follows the same processes of the other languages mentioned before the choices (but when the researcher read the previous sentence, which contains Latin, she realised her mistake and commented that she had not

noticed the relationship between the sentences). She used the previous linguistic items within the same sentence to obtain the meaning. She did not refer to the wider context and previous knowledge.

In number 15, she chose 'بتطور', which means 'evolution/ development'. When she was asked about her justification, she commented that it was because of the phrase 'languages evolution/ development'. She restated the resulting sequence. This choice can be justified on the basis of previous knowledge of the characteristics of languages.

Her choice in number 17 was 'بعض', which means 'some'. She pointed out that it was because they [people] might use the specific language [standard Arabic] for other purposes, and that was why she did not choose 'all'. She also excluded irrelevant information. She resorted to her personal judgements without considering the message of the writer. The writer's attitude is the determining factor, and the right choice is 'جميع', which means 'all'.

In number 18, her choice was 'الفصحى', which means 'standard'. She pointed out that her choice was because of the phrase 'one of the dialects', which was the standard. She excluded irrelevant information. She commented that she chose this word after excluding the other two options 'the other' and 'vernacular'. Although she referred to the preceding linguistic items that affected the choice, she could not decide on the right one, 'الاخرى', which means 'the other'.

She chose 'الفصحى', which means 'standard' in number 19 because of the phrase 'to prevail the vernacular' before the choices. She used the preceding linguistics items, but she resorted to a random answer in number 22; she chose 'الضخمة', which means 'huge'.

She chose 'الشعوب', which means 'people/ nation' in number 23 because it is preceded by 'culture'. She commented that it is 'nation's/ people's culture'. She used the preceding word, and restated the resulting sequence to prove her choice. The right choice is 'العلوم', which means 'sciences'; it collocates with the following word 'arts'.

She resorted to a random answer in number 24. She chose 'الحضارات', which means 'civilisations'. The right choice is 'لهجة', which means 'dialect'. This could be inferred from the following phrase 'temporary dialect'.

In number 25, she chose 'متفرقة', which means 'scattered'. Her choice was affected by the preceding word 'temporary', which refers to a certain time. She remarked that after it (the vernacular) was unified, it became scattered.

113

In number 29, she chose 'المعيشة', which means 'living' (what people do to earn the money they need). She attributed her choice to the preceding word 'the market', and to the following word 'daily'. She commented that it was 'the market and daily living'. Hence, she used the surrounding context and restated the resulting sequence.

Her choice in number 31 was 'استطاع', which means 'could'. She mentioned that it was because of the phrase 'the educated', which preceded the choices. She commented that it was the 'educated' that 'could solve the problem' (afterwards the student noticed that it was 'uneducated' and commented that she thought that it was 'educated'). In her justification, she referred to the preceding linguistic items, and paraphrased the resulting sequence. Although her choice was correct, the justification was not accurate. The appropriate justification should be related to the meaning of the paragraph and the verb 'could' before number 30.

She used 'مستخدموا', which means 'users' in number 32. She pointed out that it was because of the following word 'standard'. She commented that they are the speakers of standard Arabic. This space could be filled by 'انصار', which means 'supporters' or any other synonym. It can be got through the message of the writer.

In number 33, she used 'يمانعون', which means 'oppose'. She pointed out that it was because of the negation before the choice 'do not refute', and because of the coordination (using and). She used the preceding linguistic items, and expressed awareness of the function and the context of the coordinator.

She used 'من', which means 'from' in number 34 because of the following word 'the purposes'. She commented that it was 'from the purposes'. She used the following linguistic word, and restated the resulting sequence. This point requires knowledge of the prepositions and the context in which they occur.

- *Question about L2 Cloze test:*

In number 1, she chose 'people' because of the following phrase 'from different parts of the world'. She pointed out that it is about people in general. She commented that it could not be 'newspapers' because there are not general. In this justification, she used the following linguistic items, and imposed her personal interpretations, which have nothing to do with this text.

Although this choice was successful, justifying it was not appropriate. It could be related to the following non-adjacent phrase 'need to communicate'.

114

She chose 'language' in number 2 because it was preceded by 'world'. She restated the resulting sequence 'English world language'. This choice could be inferred from the following non-adjacent phrase 'and this language'.

Her choice in number 3 was 'is'. She pointed out that her choice was because of 'usually' and the present simple tense. In her answer, she demonstrated awareness of grammar and of the function and context of the frequency adverb 'usually'.

'International', her choice in number 4, was selected because of the following word 'organisation'. She restated the resulting sequence 'international organisations'. It was also noticed that the student translated the resulting sequence. When she was asked about that, she mentioned that she usually does that internally.

In number 5, she chose 'one'. She attributed her answer to the following phrase 'of their working languages'. After that, she restated the resulting sequence. This choice entails using both what comes before and what comes after the choice.

'English' was her choice in number 8. She attributed her it to what was read, and to the meaning grasped through the preceding sentences.

In number 9, she chose 'books'. She pointed out that her choice was because of the preceding phrase 'hundreds of'. She commented that books are used to educate. She used the preceding linguistic items, and imposed her personal interpretation. The appropriate choice is 'varieties' which can be inferred from the phrase 'including British English, American English'.

She resorted to a random answer in number 10; this was 'Russian'. The right choice is 'South African'. This choice entails previous knowledge of the countries that speak English.

She chose 'Britain' in number 11. She pointed out that her choice was affected by the following phrase 'there is one variety that is regarded as'. She excluded 'England' because both words [Britain and England] refer to the same thing. Although the choice was successful, its justification was not the appropriate one. It could be justified by referring to previous knowledge and the following sentences where 'British' is used.

In number 15, she chose 'world'. The preceding phrase 'in other parts of' determined her choice. She explained that it is about some parts of the world, and not about other parts. She used the preceding linguistic items, and tried to clarify the resulting sequence. However,

the forthcoming sentences in the paragraph could help her infer this choice.

She chose 'politics' in number 17 because she thought that the sentence was about using English as a means of interaction. She used her personal interpretation, but did not take into account the meaning of the forthcoming sentences within the paragraph. The correct choice is 'geography' .General knowledge could be helpful in selecting this choice.

'British' in number 18 was her choice. She stated that British English is the most widely used language in most schools. She used her previous knowledge.

'Difference' which precedes the choices in number 21 helped her choose 'between'. She used the preceding word and pointed out that it was used to demonstrate a difference between two things.

In number 22, she selected 'pronunciation'. Her choice was based on previous knowledge; American English and British English differ in pronunciation.

She selected 'English' in number 23 because it was followed by 'silent r'. She used the following linguistic items. This choice could be based on previous knowledge and on the forthcoming sentences.

In number 24, she selected 'but' because contrasting, regarding the pronunciation of r, was after the choices and before them. The student showed awareness of the function and context of 'but'. She used the meaning of the surrounding context.

She selected 'pronunciation' in number 25. She used what she had already understood. She pointed out that there are differences in pronunciation. The appropriate choice is 'vocabulary'. It could be inferred from the meaning of the forthcoming sentences, which were about differences in vocabulary.

In number 26, she used 'misunderstanding'. She pointed out that pronunciation causes misunderstanding. She linked it to her incorrect choice in number 25, and used what had already been understood. Although her choice was appropriate, her justification was not. The meanings of the preceding and following sentences were the factors that could affect this choice.

In space number 33, she used 'it'. She attributed her choice to the preceding non-adjacent word 'language'. She identified a reference 'language' and the anaphora 'it'.

She inserted 'British' in space 34. She pointed out that her choice was because of the

following nonadjacent phrase 'use maximum'. The right word was 'most' and could be inferred through general knowledge.

- *Questions related to the strategies used in the textbook*

When she reads a text, particularly those attract her attention; she stores its summary in her mind. When she finds a difficult word, she tries to infer its meaning from the context. If she cannot, she resorts to the dictionary. She extends her experience about the Arabic dictionary, such as using the alphabetical sequence to find words, to English dictionaries.

She tries to remember what she reads, particularly in exams. Exams are the determining factor for her to use recall, and she uses re-reading to achieve understanding. Again, interest contributes positively to her re-reading because she does not re-read things which are boring.

In English, she uses skimming as the first step in reading then she reads in detail, and she can tell the topic through its content and pictures. On the other hand, she reads in detail from the beginning in Arabic.

She is aware of text types and some of the tools that can be helpful in achieving this, such as words and pictures. In addition, she is aware of thesis statement and its content. She knows that paragraphs within the same article are of varying importance. In addition, she is aware of the structure of the text, and aware of the importance and role of the topic sentence

She is aware of language usage i.e. the relationship between grammar and meaning.

S3

After applying stratified sampling and random sampling respectively, the researcher contacted this subject through Reading teacher. S3 is a female student. She was 18 when she was interviewed. All the courses she took were in mainstream education.

In Cloze test, she got 23 points out of the 37 of the standard Arabic test, and 29 points out of the 40 points of the English test. Reading teacher praised her performance in the reading course. She wrote her name on her Cloze test answer sheet in order to be interviewed. She agreed verbally that her answers could be recorded. She was very enthusiastic and cooperative during the interview.

The interview was conducted in the Department. No one else attended the interview. Before starting the interview, the subject received her Cloze test answer sheet to have a look

over it. Before starting recording the researcher informed the subject that she would be asked to provide justifications for her choices and that she would be asked about her reading habits. This interview took 33 minutes.

- *Questions about L1 Cloze test:*

She chose 'هذا', which means 'this' (it refers to close singular masculine). She pointed out that her choice was due to its meaning in the sentence; the writer referred to 'bridging the gap' in the first paragraph, 'this' refers to 'bridging the gap'. Meaning was the factor determined her choice. She used the idea that already had been acquired to judge the appropriate word.

In number 2, she chose 'القوالب', which means 'forms'. She stated that 'forms' represented both standard and vernacular Arabic. She used personal interpretations about the content.

The appropriate choice is 'الفصحى', which means standard. It is because of the surrounding context, which means simplifying standard Arabic for uneducated people.

Her choice in number 3 was 'من', which means 'from'. Her choice was because of the following phrase 'standard useful vocabulary from'. She clarified her choice saying, 'we want to borrow from standard (Arabic)'.

The appropriate choice is 'في', which means 'in'. This choice can be inferred from what has already been read, and through awareness of the use and function of the prepositions presented in brackets.

In number 4, she selected 'عبارات', which means phrases. Her choice was based on randomness and personal feeling i.e. guessing.

The appropriate word is 'ألفاظ', which means 'words/ vocabulary'. It can be inferred from the preceding phrase 'useful vocabulary'.

'الاساليب', which means 'style', was her choice in number 5. She pointed out that her choice was because of the following word 'eloquence', and the preceding word 'path'. She restated the resulting sequence 'eloquence style'. She commented that it was a more appropriate word than 'eloquence'. She used the surrounding linguistic items, and excluded inappropriate choices. The appropriate choice is 'المفردات', which means 'words/ vocabulary'. It can be understood from space 4 and the phrase 'useful vocabulary' which precedes this

choice; number 5.

In number 6, she selected 'ببعض', which means 'with some'. She pointed out that her choice was guided by the preceding phrase 'without adjustment' and the following word 'adjustment'. She commented that she based her answer on what come before and after it in order to obtain the right sequence.

In number 7, she selected 'بتغليب', which means 'to prevail' because of the following phrase 'vernacular over standard'. She excluded 'to add' because the preposition 'to' is not there. Moreover, some people want the vernacular to prevail over standard Arabic. She used the initial message of the writer and the following linguistic items as guide, after that she excluded one of the options.

Her choice in number 8 was 'العامية', which means 'vernacular'. It was on basis of her previous choice in No. 7. She pointed out that the previous sentence helped her choose 'vernacular'. She used both what had already been read and the preceding linguistic items, in the previous adjacent sentence.

'بما', which means 'with what', was her choice in number 9. It was because of the meaning of the previous line. She used the meaning that she had already grasped. This choice requires knowledge of how relative pronouns are used in standard Arabic.

Her choice in number 10 was 'منهم', which means 'some of them'. She linked her choice to the following phrase 'who depends' in the same sentence. She commented that it means that they are certain people. She used the following linguistic items to infer the right word and she paraphrased the resulting sequence.

She chose Latin in number 13 because it is a historical language. She added that she had learned in her English course that many English words were of Latin origin. The student used and linked her personal interpretations to her experience in school. This choice requires previous knowledge about Latin and the languages that are derived from it.

She selected 'Romanian' in number 14 because many people use it. She became sure that her choice was correct when she found the phrase 'Roman children' in the penultimate paragraph. She used her own justification, which was not related to the text, later she used the forthcoming linguistic clues to check her uncertain choice. As in the previous point, this choice requires knowledge about Latin and the other languages that generate from it.

In number 15, she chose 'باهمال', which means 'to neglect' randomly. She resorted to a random answer because of lack of knowledge. The appropriate choice is 'بتطور', which means 'evolution/ development'. This choice requires previous knowledge about the characteristics of languages.

She chose 'الغاء', which means 'cancelling' in number 16, because the writer emphasised the vernacular prevailing over standard Arabic or just using the vernacular; she needed a negative meaning. This led her to exclude the other choices 'encouraging' and 'raising', which she considered positive ones. She used what had already been read and what attitudes there were. Then she made exclusion based on the previous steps.

In number 18, she chose 'الاخرى', which means 'the other' because of the preceding phrase 'one of the dialects'. She pointed out that this phrase either referred to the vernacular or referred to the standard; hence, both cannot be repeated. The only choice left was 'the other'. Hence she used the preceding linguistic items and thought of the meaning of the phrase. Based on the previous steps, she excluded irrelevant words and confirmed the correct choice.

She chose 'الفصحى', which means 'standard' (Arabic), in number 19 because the text was about language. She used the general theme to guide her choice. However, the preceding phrase 'to prevail over the vernacular' could give a clue about this choice.

She selected 'في', which means 'in' in number 20 because of the following phrase 'speech and writing'. She commented that this preposition was appropriate to this context.

In number 21, she selected 'من', which means 'from' because of the preceding context. This choice requires knowledge of how prepositions are used and in which context.

Her choice in number 22 was 'الضخمة', which means 'the huge' because this issue (vernacular and standard relationship) is a big and important concern. She used her interpretation, which did not take into account the writer's attitude. The appropriate choice is 'الخطيرة', which means 'dangerous' because the writer does not support 'the vernacular prevailing over the standard'.

She chose 'العلوم', which means 'sciences' in number 23 because it was followed by 'arts'. She used the following word because 'sciences' collocate with 'arts'.

In number 24 'اللهجة', which means 'dialect' was her selection because the topic was

about dialects. This choice could also be inferred from the following phrase 'temporary dialect'.

Her choice in number 25 was 'متفرقة', which means 'scattered' because people's language is not unified; people speak differently. She used her previous knowledge about the characteristics of languages and dialects, and paraphrased the resulting sequence.

She resorted to a random answer in number 27. She chose 'في', which means 'in'. This choice requires knowledge of the prepositions and their context.

She chose 'المعيشة', which means 'living' (what people do to earn money) in number 29 because it is followed by 'daily'. She used the following word. This word can be inferred through reference to the surrounding context.

When she was asked about which part was more difficult: the spaces or choices, she commented that the spaces were more difficult than the choices. She pointed out that she tried them but she could not answer them because specific words were needed.

- *Question about the L2 Cloze test:*

She chose 'people' in number 1 because what follows was about people who want to communicate. She pointed out that the following word 'communicate' affected her choice. She used a non-adjacent following word and clarified the resulting sequence.

Her choice in number 2 was 'language'. She pointed out it was the most important choice and that language is needed for the world. Moreover, the text was about language. This choice can also be inferred from the following non-adjacent phrase 'and this language'.

In number 3, she chose 'is'. She pointed out that her choice was based mainly on grammar; the text is about the present.

In number 4, she selected 'international'. She attributed her choice to the fact that most world organisations use English whereas this is not practical locally. She used her previous knowledge to make choices and exclusions.

She pointed out that she chose 'and' in number 6 because what follows the choices was an addition to what precedes them. She used the surrounding context and her knowledge of the function and context of 'and' as a coordinator.

She selected 'world's' in number 7. She pointed out that it was about a general issue.

She used what had already been understood. This choice could be inferred on basis of general knowledge about how much English is spread. When she chose 'English' in number 8, she used what she understood and used her previous knowledge.

In number 9, she chose 'varieties' because it means different kinds; it is appropriate to what comes after the choices i.e. 'British English' and 'American English'. After that, she paraphrased the resulting sequences.

Her choice in number 10 was 'South African' because they speak English in South Africa. She used her previous knowledge.

In number 11, she selected 'Britain' randomly at the beginning, but she became sure, when she found 'British newspapers' after the choices. She used the forthcoming linguistic clues to support her random choices.

She chose 'standard' in number 12 because she considered it as a type of English. She used her previous knowledge. This choice needs to be based on knowledge of the terms used i.e. 'standard'.

'Whereas' was her choice in number 14. She pointed out that the writer moved from something positive to something else, which was the opposite. She used an incomplete grammatical rule. The right choice is 'however' because it can be attached to one clause.

In number 15, she chose 'world' because the context was about something that was general and because of the preceding phrase 'parts of' i.e. another part is using another thing. She used the meaning of the surrounding context and paraphrased the resulting sequence.

'That' was her choice in number 16 because it refers to English, and it is followed by 'people'. She pointed out that it was unlikely for that the other two choices, 'whose' and 'whom', would be appropriate. She linked an anaphor to its reference and excluded irrelevant options.

She did not answer number 17. She planned to go back and answer it, even randomly, but she forgot to do so. She skipped an unknown answer. The appropriate choice is 'geography'. It can be inferred from the meaning of the forthcoming sentences within the paragraph or general knowledge.

In number 18, she chose 'British' because she knew that British English was taught all over the world. She chose 'Nigerian' at first because she thought that it was about teaching

Nigerian to the world. She made choices then adjusted them.

She chose 'while' in number 19 because the writer moved from writing about British English to American English. She used her previous knowledge of the function and context of connectives.

In number 20, she chose 'less'. She was not sure of her answer. She resorted to a random answer. The appropriate answer is 'more'. It could be inferred on the basis of previous knowledge i.e. knowledge of the geographical domains of English varieties.

Her choice of 'between' in number 21 was based on the preceding word 'differences'. She pointed out that the context was about 'differences'. She used the meaning of the preceding word.

'Pronunciation' was her choice in number 22. She pointed out that her choice was because everyone has his/ her own language. She imposed her personal interpretations. This choice can be justified by referring to the forthcoming sentences or using general knowledge.

She used 'vocabulary' in number 23 because it was followed by 'has a silent r in words like far and here'. She commented that in British pronunciation there is a silent r. She used the following linguistic items, and expressed awareness of the characteristics of the British 'r'. The appropriate choice is 'English'. It can be captured from the forthcoming sentences and by resorting to general knowledge.

She pointed out that she chose 'but' in number 24 because the writer moved from not pronouncing r to pronouncing r. She showed awareness of the function and context of 'but' as a coordinator.

In number 26, she chose 'misunderstanding' because of her choice in 25 'grammar'. She used the preceding linguistic items without considering what came next. This led her to impose false interpretations. Hence, this choice needs to consider the surrounding context.

Her choice 'tense' in number 28 was based on the preceding words 'present perfect'. She used her previous knowledge of grammatical terms, and used the preceding linguistic items.

She pointed out that she chose 'less' in number 29 because it was followed by 'preferring the past tense'. She added that preferring the past tense meant that they use the other tense less. She used the following linguistic items, and paraphrased the resulting

sequence.

In number 30, she chose 'other' because the context was about people. She used what had been understood in the sentence.

She chose 'should' in number 31 because it is a polite way to say that, because it was preceded by 'everyone'. In number 32, she chose 'can' because of the following phrase 'learn easily'. She used the following linguistic items, and in space 33 she used 'there'. She stated that there is always growth/ development in languages. She used the following linguistic items, and restated the resulting sequence. The appropriate word is 'it'. Inferring this word requires knowledge of anaphors and their references.

In 34, she used 'most'. She commented that most people use a certain number of words. She used the surrounding context then she restated the meaning of the resulting sequence. This point requires the use of general knowledge about English language users.

- *Questions related to the strategies used in the textbook:*

When she reads an article, she tries to understand it. This usually happens to topics that she considers important such as topics that she may use in everyday life or for exams.

Whatever the language she reads i.e. whether standard Arabic or English, after reading, she memorizes parts that she considers important. Although she learned how to use an Arabic dictionary in school, she did not use it. She did not learn how to use English dictionary in school courses. Usually she uses the context to find out the meaning of difficult words. She tries not to use the dictionary because many meanings are there and she needs to decide which one is more appropriate. When she uses the dictionary, she goes back to the context to decide which meaning is the most appropriate. She follows this procedure in English only. She does not use the dictionary when she finds a difficult word in Arabic.

She tries to anticipate the content of a text through its title and its pictures. She is aware of the items that can be used for prediction. She also tries to recall what she reads. When she does not understand an Arabic text, she re-reads it once or twice then after that, she becomes frustrated. In English, she re-reads until she understands.

Sometimes, when she reads, she skims the text first to find out about the main points through certain words or terms. She is aware of the items that are targeted when skimming, and she skims in both languages, Arabic and English.

She can decide the type of the text through its terms and style and any other criteria that distinguish one text type from the other.

In both languages, the beginning of the written material introduces the topic and its end summarises it. She is aware of the function of topic sentence, thesis statement, and conclusions and she understands that grammar affects the meaning. She has a good awareness of this relationship in English.

Z2

Z2 is a female student. She was 19 when she was interviewed. All the courses she took were in State sector education. After being chosen through stratified sampling and random sampling respectively, Z2 was approached through the Head of Study and Exams.

In the Cloze test, she achieved 29 points out of the 37 points of the standard Arabic test, and 39 points out of the 40 points of English test. Reading teacher praised her performance in the reading course.

She agreed to be interviewed by writing her name on the Cloze test answer sheet, and she agreed verbally to record her answers. She was cooperative during the interview.

The interview was conducted in a small room within the Department. Staff members were in a nearby room. Before starting the interview, the subject received her Cloze test answer sheet to have a look over it. She was also informed about the type of questions that she would be asked. This interview took 34 minutes.

- *Questions about L1 Cloze test:*

In number 1, she selected 'هذا', which means 'this'. She stated that 'هذا' refers to 'bridging the gap', which is masculine. She linked a cataphora to its reference. She showed awareness of the effect of gender in standard Arabic.

Her choice in number 2 was 'الفصحى', which means 'standard'. She pointed out that she chose 'standard' because the topic was about 'standard and vernacular', and because the vernacular is used to facilitate understanding standard Arabic. She commented that this could be noticed in the above part 'no doubt bridging the gap between standard (Arabic) and the vernacular...' It referred to the reason for using the vernacular.

In her justification, she used the preceding paragraph and the main idea. Then she paraphrased the resulting sequence, and identified the parts that support her choice.

In number 3, she chose 'على', which means (in this context) 'to'. She pointed out that her choice was because of the preceding word 'to enter' and the following phrase 'the standard useful vocabulary'. She used the surrounding linguistic environment. She showed unawareness of the use of some prepositions. The appropriate preposition is 'في', which means 'in/ into' because the Arabic verb 'يدخل' (in this context) means 'to insert' not 'to enter'.

In number 4, she selected 'عبارات', which means 'phrases'. She stated that her choice was because of the preceding phrase 'useful vocabulary from'. She used the preceding linguistic items, and showed unawareness of the reference relationship between the words used within the same sentence.

The appropriate word is 'ألفاظ', which means 'words/ vocabulary' because of its reference to the preceding phrase 'useful vocabulary'.

She chose 'مفردات', which means 'vocabulary', in number 5. She pointed out that vernacular vocabularies were added to the standard (Arabic). She employed what she had previously understood to understand the current question.

In number 6 she chose 'ببعض', which means 'with some' because of the preceding word 'بغير', which means 'without' [in Arabic = with + other]. She pointed out that a similar structure was needed i.e. a word and a preposition. She used the preceding word and showed awareness of concord between structures

In number 7 she chose 'بتغليب', which means 'to prevail', because of the next phrase 'or just using the vernacular' which implies 'prevailing the vernacular'. She commented that her choice was also because the verb 'to prevail' is appropriate to the following phrase 'vernacular over standard'.

She used the non-adjacent and following linguistic items to infer the meaning of what she was reading. She also sought concord within the sentence.

Her choice in number 8 was 'بالعامية', which means 'with the vernacular'. She chose it because it was linked to what comes before it 'to prevail the vernacular' by the coordinator 'or'. She used the preceding linguistic items and expressed awareness of the function and context of the coordinator 'or'.

She chose 'بما', which means 'with what' in number 9. She pointed out that her choice

was because of the surrounding context. She used the context to determining the right choice. This choice was based on knowledge of the context of relative pronouns in standard Arabic.

In number 10, she chose 'منهم', which means 'some of them'. She excluded the other two options then she chose this word. She excluded 'but they' because it required a contrasting context, and excluded 'is/ are' because it was not appropriate to the following words.

She chose 'Latin' in number 13. Her choice was based on her previous knowledge that Italian, French, and Spanish were derived from Latin. She also used her previous knowledge to choose 'Romanian' in number 14. She commented that her choice was because Romanian is a language which originated from Latin.

Her choice in number 15 was 'يتطور', which means 'evolution/ development'. She stated that European dialects developed, and this development led to the disappearance of Latin. She commented that it was unlikely to be 'to neglect' because dialects are used rather than being neglected, they also become prominent. She used her previous knowledge and excluded the inappropriate choices.

In number 16, she chose 'الغاء', which means 'cancelling/ to cancel'. She pointed out that her choice was because of the context, which was about the dominance of the vernacular over the standard, and because of the example used about Latin and the other languages. She used the surrounding context, and the meaning of what she had already read; this was the main idea which guided her choice.

The preceding phrase 'prevailing over one of the dialects' helped her choose 'الاخرى', which means 'the other' in number 18.

She chose 'الفصحى', which means 'standard' in number 19 because the text was about two things namely vernacular and standard. She commented that the text was not about 'its users' or 'Italian' (the distractors). She used the theme of the text to make the choice and to exclude the irrelevant choices.

In number 22, she chose 'الخطيرة', which means 'dangerous' because the writer was against this movement: the vernacular prevailing over the standard. She understood and used the message intended by the writer. She was aware of the writer's attitude.

She chose 'العلوم', which means 'sciences' in number 23 because of the following

word 'arts'. She used the following word because these two words collocate together.

In number 24, she selected 'اللهجة', which means 'dialect' because of the following non-adjacent linguistic items: 'people's' and 'temporary dialect'.

She selected 'متفرقة', which means 'scattered' in number 25 because dialects are 'scattered'. They are not 'abandoned' because people do not abandon them, and they are not 'unified' because there are many different dialects. She used her general knowledge of the features of dialects then she excluded inapplicable or irrelevant adjectives.

She chose 'فمن', which means 'who' in number 28 because it refers to people. She used her knowledge of the function and the context of relative pronouns in standard Arabic

She selected 'المعيشة' , which means 'living' (what people do to earn money) in number 29 because of the preceding phrase 'books of science and dialect of market and'. She used the preceding linguistic items.

In number 31 her choice was 'استطاع', which means 'could' because of the phrase between points 29 and 30 'however (he) could'. She commented that it was the appropriate choice for this context rather than 'could not' or 'avoided'. She used non-adjacent preceding linguistic items. Then she judged the appropriateness and excluded irrelevant choices.

She used 'يرفضون', which means 'reject' in number 33 because standard (language) users 'neither nullify the vernacular nor reject'. She stated that her choice was also because of the coordination 'neither ....nor'. She used the coordinators to find out what relationships might assist guessing appropriate words for filling in the gap.

- *Question about L2 Cloze test*

In number 1, she chose 'people' because of the following phrase 'need to communicate'. She linked the meaning of the following linguistic items to her choice.

She used the general theme to make her choice 'language' in number 2. She stated that she chose it because the article was about international language but not about 'dialect' or 'foreign'. She also used the theme to excluding the irrelevant choices.

She chose the preceding word 'language' and her knowledge of grammar to choose 'is' in number 3. She stated that 'language' is singular and we are dealing with a fact, so the right choice is the present form. Her knowledge of grammar helped her exclude 'was' and 'were'.

128

She chose 'international' in number 4 on bases of her previous knowledge. She commented that she did not think that it was 'foreign' or 'local'. The same thought was used to exclude irrelevant choices.

She selected 'one' in number 5. When she was asked about the reasons, she commented that it meant 'as one of their'. She restated the resulting sequence to prove its appropriateness. This choice could be inferred from the surrounding context.

In number 6 she chose 'and' because 'but' is used for contrasting, whereas 'so' is used for results. She stated that 'international organisations' and 'international books' had the same meaning, in this sequence. She attributed her choice, exclusions, and justification to her knowledge of grammar.

Her choice to 'world's' in number 7 was based on what already had been understood. She pointed out that the topic was about the international language, it was appropriate to speak about international books. She commented that she linked it to what was introduced before.

After that, she explained her general plan; she first grasped the idea in the first paragraph then used it to make her choices. She noticed that the topic was about English as an international language.

In her justification, she emphasised the role of the beginning of the paragraph in order to understand the topic, i.e. establishing a frame of the general theme. Then explained how this understanding was set in a whole plan.

In number 8, she selected 'English'. She attributed her choice to her previous comments about English as an international language. She used the general theme to make her choice.

Her choice in number 9 was 'varieties' because the article was about language but not about 'magazines' or 'books'. She pointed out that the following phrase 'British English and American English' supported that. The general theme guided her.

Her previous knowledge of English language domain helped her choose 'South African' in number 10. It also helped her exclude irrelevant choices because there was no 'Russian English' or 'Libyan English'.

In number 11, she chose 'Britain' because the context was about standard and British

English, which are found in Britain. She used both the theme of the paragraph and her previous knowledge. She used her previous knowledge of the terms used to choose 'standard' in number 12.

She pointed out that she chose 'however' in number 14 because there was a contrast between two sentences. She used her knowledge of the function and context of connectors.

In number 15, she chose 'world' because the article was about English as an international language but not about a certain place; she used the general theme.

She chose 'that' in number 16 because it refers to things whereas 'whose' is used for possessives, and 'whom' is used for people as the object of a sentence; she used her knowledge of the functions and the context of relative pronouns.

She used her knowledge of the factors that mostly affect language to choose 'geography' in number 17.

In number 18, she chose 'British' because she knew that British English was taught in schools. She commented that Hawaiian English was not standard; Hawaiians add their own vocabulary to English. She used her previous knowledge to make exclusions, and then she restated the resulting sequence.

'While' was her choice in number 19 because there was a contrasting context in the sentence. She used her knowledge of the functions and context of connectors. She chose 'more' in number 20 because American English was more common in the world. She used her general knowledge.

In number 21, she used 'between' because of the following phrase 'the varieties' and the whole sentence was about differences. She used her previous knowledge, which was acquired in school, in number 22 to choose 'pronunciation'. She also used the preceding phrase 'most noticeable differences'.

She used the idea that had already been grasped to make her choice in number 23 'British'. She pointed out that the text was about British English. She chose 'but' in number 24 because there was a contrast concerning the pronunciation of 'r'.

In number 25, she chose 'vocabulary' because she knew that vocabulary differences could cause 'misunderstanding'. She used previous knowledge and provided an example; 1st floor and ground floor are used differently in American English and in British English; such

differences can cause misunderstanding.

In number 22, she chose 'pronunciation' because what followed it was about the pronunciation of 'r'. She used the following sentence to make her selection.

She used knowledge of the function and context of 'whereas' to make her choice in number 27. She commented that it was because of the contrasting context. In number 28, she chose 'tense' because of the preceding phrase 'present perfect'.

She chose 'other' in number 30. Her choice was because of the meaning of preceding context. She translated the resulting sequence into Arabic; they understand each other.

She chose 'should' in number 31 after translating it into standard Arabic. She pointed out that it means 'yajib' (should/ must). She commented that she understood it in this way. She resorted to 1st language equivalent to justify and judge her choice.

Her choice of 'can' in number 32 was because of the following phrase 'learn easily'. She commented that he/ she 'can learn it easily', but not 'must learn it easily'. She used the following linguistic items and restated the resulting sequences to make her choice and exclusions.

She used 'many' in number 34 because she wanted to refer to the number of English speakers. She showed knowledge of the functions and context of 'many'.

She used the linguistic clues to guess the appropriate word in number 35. It was 'words'. She pointed out that her guess was affected by the following phrase '800000 words'.

She used her own personal judgement to choose 'has' in number 36. She stated that she wanted to use a part of the verb 'to have'.

Because space 37 introduces a justification to the previous sentence i.e. why there were 800000 words in English, she used 'reason'. Her choice was guided by the preceding linguistic items.

She used 'and' in number 39 because it adds to what comes before it. She used her knowledge of the function and of the context of 'and'.

- *Questions related to the strategies used in the textbook:*

She tries to understand the theme of the text i.e. setting it as her goal.

She tries to infer difficult words through the surrounding words. If she cannot, she

goes further in the text looking for clues that may help her. If she cannot find any clues, she uses the dictionary. She learned how to use Arabic dictionaries in school whereas she did not receive lessons about English dictionaries. She learned about the English dictionary (such as the importance of alphabetic order) from other people.

She anticipates the topic of a text through using the keywords and the title. Sometimes pictures are helpful too. She is aware of the items that may be used to make predictions.

She tries to recall what is read when it is needed, such as in exams.

She re-reads texts and translates difficult English words to achieve understanding. Re-reading is applicable to both languages. She claimed that she never has problems with difficult words in Arabic. She reads in details and carefully from the beginning.

She can distinguish between types of texts through their introductions, the words used, and the style used in both languages: Arabic and English.

She concentrates on the beginning of the articles because the main idea is there then an explanation follows and a summary ends the article. She showed knowledge of the place and function of the thesis statement, and of the structure of a written material.

She indicated that sentences within the paragraph are of the same importance (she appeared to be becoming tired at this point).

She is aware of the relationship between grammar and meaning. She pointed out that grammar facilitate grasping the meaning. This relationship can be found both languages.

Z54

As with the previous subjects, Z54 was chosen after applying stratified sampling and random sampling respectively. Z54 is a male student. The researcher contacted this subject through his Reading teacher. He was 19 when he was interviewed. All the courses he took were in State sector institutions i.e. he did not take any private courses.

In Cloze test, he achieved 24 points out of the 37 of the standard Arabic test, and 28 points out of the 40 points of the English test. His Reading teacher praised his performance in the reading course.

He agreed to be interviewed by writing his name on his Cloze test answer sheet. Moreover, he agreed verbally that his answers could be recorded. He was enthusiastic and

cooperative during the interview.

The interview was conducted in a small room within the Department. Staff members were in a nearby room. Before starting the interview, the subject received his Cloze test answer sheet to help him remember the reasons underlying his answers. Before starting recording, the subject asked about the type of question to be asked. The researcher explained that he would be asked to provide justifications for his choices, and that he would be asked about his reading habits. The interview took 20 minutes.

- *Questions about L1 Cloze test:*

He pointed out that he chose 'هذا', which means 'this' in number 1 because of the following phrase 'bridging the gap'. When he was asked to clarify his justification, he pointed out that a rule might be there that made it the more appropriate.

He used the following word. He was unaware of the rule used i.e. the effect of gender. This unawareness can be attributed to automaticity in which the strategy becomes a skill (see above strategies vs. skills).

In number 2, he selected 'الفصحى', which means 'standard' Arabic. He stated that his choice was because standard language is simplified for uneducated people. He also commented that all sentences were linked together.

He paraphrased the resulting sequence and showed awareness of the relationship between sentences.

He chose 'في', which means 'in' in number 3 because of the following phrase 'standard useful vocabulary'. Again, he pointed out that the sentences were interrelated.

He used the following linguistic items, and expressed his awareness of the relationships between sentences. This choice could be inferred through what has already been read and awareness of the use and function of the prepositions presented into the brackets.

He resorted to a random choice in number 4. He selected 'الفاظ', which means 'vocabulary/ words'.

In number 7, he chose 'باضافة', which means 'to add', because of the following phrase 'vernacular over standard'. He also mentioned that it could be 'to prevail', but he preferred 'to add'. This point can be based on what is presented before the choices i.e. 'the main idea'. He used the following linguistic items, and expressed his doubt. He also imposed his personal

opinion.

He selected 'Latin' in number 13. He commented that it was clear; these languages were derived from Latin. He used his previous knowledge. In number 14, he selected 'Romanian' because of his previous knowledge that Romanian was related to these languages.

He used his previous knowledge of the characteristics of language to make his choice in number 15. He chose 'بتطور', which means 'evolution/ development'. He pointed out that he knew that dialects in the modern European languages were developing; what was in the dialect was added to the language and hence vernacular became dominant. He also clarified the resulting sequence.

His choice in number 17 was 'جميع', which means 'all' because the vernacular was to dominate the standard. He used what had already been understood. He also used his previous knowledge of the relationship between the vernacular and the standard dialect.

He selected 'الاخرى', which means 'the other' in number 18 because the sentence was about one of the dialects prevailing over another; hence, 'the other' should be the right choice. He used what had already been understood to make a reasonable guess.

In number 19, he chose 'الفصحى', which means 'standard' because it was the most appropriate to the preceding phrase 'to prevail over the vernacular'. He used the preceding linguistic items and judged the appropriateness of the resulting sequence.

In number 22, he was guided by his personal judgement rather than adhering to writer's view. He chose 'الحضارية', which means 'civilised'. He commented that this movement (supporting the vernacular) is civilised. The appropriate choice is 'الخطيرة', which means 'dangerous'. Choosing this word entails awareness of the attitude of the writer.

In number 25, he chose 'متفرقة', which means 'scattered' because dialects differed from one place to the other. He used his previous knowledge.

His choice in number 23 was 'العلوم', which means 'sciences' because it was followed by 'arts'. He pointed out that it suits the context. He used the following word and judged its appropriateness to the context.

He used the following word 'daily' to make his choice in number 29. He chose 'المعيشة', which means 'living' (what people do to earn money). He commented that 'books'

and 'lessons' were not appropriate here. He excluded the inappropriate choices.

He chose 'استطاع', which means 'could' in number 31. He pointed out that 'who could unify terms that were tangible to uneducated people' could 'solve the problems' rather being 'unable' to solve them. He paraphrased the resulting sequence and made exclusion on basis of the resulting meaning.

He used 'متكلموا', which means 'speakers' in number 32? He pointed out that it was the most appropriate, although many words could be used here. He used his personal judgement and expressed the possibility of using other words. The appropriate word is 'انصار', which means 'supporters'. This word should be based on the message intended by the writer.

In 33, he used 'يستطيعون', which means 'they can'. He stated that he did not examine it in the context. Then he commented that if he had tested it, he would have come up with another word. He resorted to a random answer. The appropriate word is 'لا ينكرون', which means 'do not deny/ refuse'. This word should be selected on bases of knowledge of coordination and the meaning of the whole paragraph. Although he re-read before filling the spaces, he did not use it to check the answers.

- *Question about L2 Cloze test:*

In number 1, he selected 'people' because of the following phrase 'from different parts'. He pointed out that he did not know the meaning of 'varieties'. He used the following linguistic items. Although this choice was appropriate, its justification was not. This choice could be inferred from the following phrase 'need to communicate'. It was noticed that he read before and after the brackets to justify his answer.

He chose 'language' in number 2 because of the preceding word 'world' and the following phrase 'is needed'. He commented, 'You need it'. He used the surrounding context, and paraphrased the resulting sequence.

Rather than being inferred from these linguistic items, it could be inferred from the following non-adjacent phrase 'and this language' because it referred to the word used in this space.

In number 8, he chose 'English' because most books are written in English. He used his previous knowledge. Although it had not been mentioned, the meaning of the paragraph could also be helpful in choosing this word.

135

He chose 'Britain' in number 11 because of the following clause 'there is no one variety'. He thought that 'England' was the country, but 'Britain' represented English. He used the following linguistic items and made his personal links and interpretations. This choice can be inferred either through previous knowledge or by using the following sentences where the adjective 'British' is used.

He resorted to a random answer in number 12 where he chose 'standard'. This choice needed previous knowledge of the terms used.

He selected 'world' in number 15 because it referred to 'other parts of', which preceded the choices. Then he restated the resulting sequence; it is 'parts of the world'. This choice could be inferred through using general knowledge or using the forthcoming sentences in the paragraph

In number 16 he chose 'whose' because of the following phrase 'people use'. He used the following linguistic items. The appropriate word is 'that'. This choice entails knowledge of the function and use of relative pronouns in English.

'Nigerian' was his choice in number 18. He commented that the writer might want to point out that education in Nigeria was better than in Asia. He used his personal interpretation. His answer showed some doubt. The appropriate answer is 'British' which requires general knowledge in order to be inferred.

He chose 'more' in number 20. He stated that the way he understood the previous sentence affected this choice. He indicated that 'more' was related to Nigerian; it was not 'less'. He used what had already been read. Then he developed personal links and interpretations. This answer entails knowledge of the geographical distribution of English language varieties.

The meaning of the following sentence helped him determine his choice in number 22. His choice was 'pronunciation'. He stated that his choice was because of the following sentence, which was about the pronunciation of r.

He selected 'English' in number 23 because it was the most appropriate. It referred to the whole language and not just 'grammar' or 'vocabulary'. He used his general knowledge to judge the appropriateness of the choice and to make reasonable inferences. The forthcoming sentences could also be helpful.

'Grammar' was his choice in number 25. He pointed out that there were variations/ differences in grammar. Later he admitted that it was almost a random choice. He resorted to a random choice.

In number 26, he selected 'misunderstanding' because Britain and South Africa have different words. He used the following sentence to make the choice.

He resorted to his personal experience to make choices in number 29. He chose 'less' because he had noticed in movies that Americans use this tense (present perfect) less.

He pointed out that the spaces were not difficult, but he could not find the appropriate words within the time available.

- *Questions related to the strategies used in the textbook:*

He tries to recall and grasp what he reads. He recalls the texts he likes or prefers. When he encounters a difficult word, he either asks others or uses the dictionary. He learned how to use an English dictionary in secondary school. His teachers advised him to get his own dictionary.

He tries to anticipate the content of texts through reading the first sentence. He stated that familiar topics are easier to anticipate than the unfamiliar ones. He showed awareness of the items that may help prediction, such as titles and pictures. He tries to remember/ recall articles that contain useful information whether they are for exams or not.

When he reads an article in English, he tries to find the meaning of difficult words in the dictionary. This requires him to read the article twice. Reading once is enough for him when he reads in Arabic texts because he does not have to use the dictionary. Hence, he re-reads only English texts.

He uses skimming as a first step in reading and then he reads in detail. He commented that he thinks that most people do it the same way. He also can distinguish different text types. He is aware of the features that may distinguish one text from the other such as vocabulary used and the structure of the text.

He pointed out that paragraphs have varying importance regardless of their place. This was also applicable to the sentences of the same paragraph. Content for him determines importance. He is not aware of the structure of written material where place plays an important role.

He stated that grammar affects meaning in both languages (Arabic and English). Whenever he does not understand a sentence, he resorts to grammar. He thinks of this relationship whenever he uses the language.

Poor readers

Y30

As with the other subjects, this subject was chosen after applying stratified sampling and random sampling respectively. The subject was approached through the Head of the Department. Y30 is a female student. She was 19 when she was interviewed. All the courses she received were in State sector institutions i.e. she did not receive any private courses.

In the Cloze test, she achieved 14 points out of the 37 of the standard Arabic test, and achieved 15 points out of the 40 points of the English test.

She agreed to be interviewed by writing her name on her Cloze test answer sheet. Moreover, she agreed verbally that her answers could be recorded. She was cooperative during the interview. The interview was conducted in the Department. No other people attended the interview. She was given her answer sheet before starting the interview and was asked if the interview could be recorded. The subject agreed to the recording process. Before starting the recording, the subject was informed that two groups of questions would be asked; the first group was to seek justifications to her choices while the other group was to explore her reading experience. This interview was 21 minutes long.

- *Questions about L1 Cloze test:*

The student chose 'هذه', which means 'this' (it refers to close feminine singular) in number 1. She stated that her choice was because of what came before and after it including space number 2. The student's justification showed unawareness of the effect of gender in standard Arabic, at least in writing, because she could not decide the exact word that affected her choice. This student mispronounced some of the words that she read aloud while she was explaining.

The appropriate choice is 'هذا', which means 'this', and is used to refer to close singular masculine entities. The word following the choices 'التقريب', which means 'bridging the gap', determines this choice.

In number 2, the student chose 'العامية', which means 'vernacular'. She stated that her

138

choice was because of the following phrase 'غير المتعلمين', which means 'uneducated'. She linked uneducated people to the vernacular. She did not refer to the meaning of the wider context (easing standard to uneducated people) which entails using 'الفصحى', which means 'standard' Arabic.

She pointed out that she chose 'في', which means 'in', in number 3, because it is appropriate to what comes after the choices. Although her choice was correct, her justification was not the appropriate one. This choice requires understanding what has already been read and awareness of the use and function of the prepositions presented into the brackets.

The student selected 'عبارات', which means 'phrases' in number 4 because of the following phrase 'using it as'. Neither her choice nor justification was correct. The student did not pronounce some of the words correctly when she was reading. The right choice is 'الفاظ', which means 'words/ vocabulary', and the reason for this choice is the preceding phrase 'useful vocabulary'.

In number 8, she chose 'بكلاهما', which means 'with both'. She pointed out that her choice was because of the phrase 'speech and writing' which follows the brackets. The student might link the pronoun which is used for duality (in Arabic) with the two nouns. The right choice is 'الفصحى', which means 'standard' Arabic because of what is presented before the choices i.e. the main idea.

'منهم', which means 'of them', was her choice in number 10. The student did not provide any justification.

The student selected 'Latin' in number 13. She stated that she knew that Latin is different from Chinese and Greek, and that it is closer to Italian, and French. She used her previous knowledge.

In number 14, again her previous knowledge guided her choice to 'Romanian'. She pointed out that this language is related to the languages mentioned before the space.

In number 15, she pointed out that she chose 'بتطور', which means 'development/ evolution', because of the words that came before and after it, i.e. the surrounding context. She commented that it is appropriate for this context. Although her choice was correct, her justification was not appropriate. This choice should have been made because of previous knowledge about the European dialects and their development.

Her choice of 'بتشجيع', which means 'encouragement', in number 16 was not correct. She pointed out that her choice was affected by her choice in number 15, i.e. 'development'. The right choice is 'الغاء', which means 'to cancel'; it is because of the idea presented in the preceding sentences.

In number 17, she chose 'جميع', which means 'whole'. She stated that her choice was because of the preceding phrase 'prevailing the vernacular'. Although her choice was correct, her justification was not appropriate. This choice should have been inferred from understanding writer's attitude, which is implied in the previous sentences and paragraphs, towards the vernacular and standard Arabic.

The student chose 'الفصحى', which means 'standard' Arabic in number 19 because not all people speak standard [Arabic]. When she was asked for clarification, she pointed out that the phrase 'prevailing the vernacular', which comes after the choices, affected her choice. In the first part of her answer, she imposed an interpretation which was not related to the text. In the second part of the answer, she used the following phrase as a justification for her answer. This choice should have been inferred from what was read, and from the preceding phrase 'to prevail over the vernacular'.

'الخطيرة', which means 'dangerous' in number 22, was her choice. She used the following linguistic items 'huge claim' as a guide to her decision. It is the right answer, but it should have been understood from the attitude of the writer presented previously.

She chose 'العلوم', which means 'sciences', in number 23. She pointed out that she chose it because of the following word 'arts'.

In number 29, she chose 'كتب', which means 'books'. She stated that the words 'dialect' before it and 'daily' after it guided her choice. Then she commented that books are checked daily. The student based her choice on the surrounding context, and forced her personal interpretation to justify the choice. The appropriate choice is 'المعيشة', which means 'living' [what people do to earn money]. This choice is based on the adjacent linguistic items.

In space number 34, the student used 'من', which means 'from', because it is appropriate to the following phrase 'domestic purposes'. She used the following linguistic items.

When she was asked about the difficulty of the texts, she mentioned that the Arabic text was easier than the English text.

140

- *Questions about L2 Cloze test:*

The student chose 'people' in number 1. She chose it because of the phrase 'from different parts of the world' that followed the choices, 'newspapers' could also be appropriate. Although the choice is correct, the justification does not reflect student's account of the wider context and meaning. This choice could be justified through reference to the main verb of the sentence and the complement, i.e. 'needs to communicate'.

She chose 'is' in number 3 because of 'usually English', which follows the choices. She stated that 'was' could also be used because it has the same meaning. She pointed out that she did not use 'was' because it is the past tense form, and 'were' because it is the past participle. The student used her knowledge of the grammatical structures and the following linguistic items. In her justification she showed knowledge of verb derivation although she did not identify 'were' properly. She did not refer to the effect of the subject.

In number 5, she chose 'one' because of the phrase 'of their working' which follows the choices and because of the preceding word 'as'. The student used surrounding context.

She chose 'country's' in number 7. She claimed that it is appropriate to 'around a third of the world' that comes before the choices. She pointed out that she excluded the other two choices because 'books', after the choices, is not appropriate for them. The student used the preceding linguistic items and excluded what she considered irrelevant. The correct choice is 'world's' and can be understand through resorting to previous knowledge and using what is read in the previous sentences.

In number 8, she selected 'English'. She judged the choices by whether they were well known or not. She pointed out that 'English' is a well-known language, unlike French and Spanish. This choice should be selected on basis of general knowledge and the meaning of the paragraph is not based on its familiarity to people in general.

She selected 'magazines' in number 9 because she knew its meaning. She considered it more appropriate than 'books'. She did not use 'varieties' because she did not know its meaning. When she was asked to justify the appropriateness of 'magazines', she stated that most of her answers were random. It seems that the student mostly resorted to randomness in her choices. The appropriate choice is 'varieties' because of the following phrases 'including British English, American English'.

In number 10, she chose 'Russian'. She pointed out that she chose 'Libyan' but when

her friend told her that it was Russian, she underlined 'Russian'. The correct answer is 'South African'. Selecting this choice requires previous knowledge.

In number 11, the student chose 'Britain' randomly because she did not have enough information. This choice can be understood through previous knowledge and the following sentences where the adjective 'British' is used.

When she was asked about her choice 'used' in number 13, she pointed out that it was because of the following phrase 'in British newspapers'. When the student was asked about the meaning of the other two options 'avoided' and 'neglected', she did not know them. Although this choice was correct, its justification was not appropriate. It should be related to the meaning of the first part of the sentence.

In number 15, she chose 'continent' although she did not know its meaning. She pointed out that she chose it because of the preceding phrase; 'parts of'. She based her choice on the preceding linguistic items. The correct answer is 'world'; it can be inferred on the basis of general knowledge or the forthcoming sentences in the paragraph.

She chose 'whom' in number 16. She mentioned that it is appropriate to 'people', which comes after the choices. She referred to the preceding linguistic items. The right answer is 'that'. This choice requires knowledge of relative pronouns in English.

She chose 'history' in number 17. She used the preceding word 'depends' as a justification and reference to her choice. She commented that the text was about history. She also excluded 'geography' because the text was not about geography. When she was asked about 'politics', she pointed out that she did not know the meaning of this word. She used the linguistic items, thought of the general theme of the text, and excluded irrelevant choices. Neither the choice nor the justification was correct. The right choice is 'geography' and can be inferred from the meaning of the forthcoming sentences within the paragraph or through triggering general knowledge.

She chose 'British' in number 18 because she did not know the other two options. She excluded the unknown words i.e. 'Hawaiian' and 'Nigerian'. This choice can be obtained by using previous knowledge.

In number 21, she chose 'between' because of the preceding word 'differences' and the following word 'varieties'. The main reason for this choice can be attributed to the preceding word 'differences'.

142

In number 25, she chose 'grammar' because it did not fit the other words within the brackets. The student missed the goal and started judging only the words in the brackets. The appropriate choice, 'vocabulary', can be attained through knowledge of the terms used and the meaning of the forthcoming sentences.

In number 26, she chose 'misunderstanding' because it is appropriate for 'South Africa'. She used the following linguistic items of the following sentence. This choice should be selected because of the meaning of the preceding and following sentences rather than being related to a country's name.

She chose 'other' in number 30 because of the preceding word 'each'. The preceding word can also be related to any of the distractors. This choice should be based on knowledge of the meaning of the whole sentence and the words that collocate together.

In number 33, she used 'it' because this pronoun refers to 'language'. She could define and use anaphoric expressions.

In number 35, she resorted to her colleague. She used 'words'. This word can be understood from the following phrase '800,000 words'.

- *Questions related to the strategies used in the textbook*

When the student was asked about her reading habits and experience in both languages, she indicated that she understands the topic after reading the whole text. The words that draw her attention are considered important. She indicated that some parts of the text are more important than the others. She uses content as a criterion to decide which parts are important.

She uses skimming to anticipate the subject matter of the text. She can tell the kind of text from the language used and the pictures associated with the text. She is aware of the items that distinguish one text from the other.

While reading she focus on the details from the beginning. She uses this technique to achieve understanding. She also resorts to re-reading when she does not understand. When she does not know a word, she resorts to either a dictionary or a computer. Although she was taught in school, in the ninth grade, how to use an Arabic dictionary, she did not receive similar lessons about the English dictionary in school. Her peers showed her how to use an English dictionary.

She tries to recall some of the topics and can remember topics that she reads carefully. However, it is difficult for her to recall the entire text.

She indicated that there is a minor relationship between grammar and meaning in Arabic while there was no such relationship in English.

Y37

Choosing this subject was a result of applying stratified sampling and random sampling respectively. The subject was approached through Reading teacher. Y30 is a female student. She was 20 when she was interviewed. All the courses she took were in State sector institutions, i.e. she did not take any private courses.

In the Cloze test, she obtained 14 points out of the 37 points of the standard Arabic test, and 16 points out of the 40 points of English test.

She agreed to be interviewed by writing her name on her Cloze test answer sheet and agreed verbally to record her answers. She was cooperative during the interview.

The interview was conducted in the Arabic Department. No other people attended the interview. Before starting the interview, she was given her Cloze test answer sheet, and she was informed about the questions to be asked. The interview was 22 minutes long.

- *Questions about L1 Cloze test*

The student chose 'هذه', which means 'this', (it refers to close feminine singular) in number 1. She pointed out that her choice was because this word either referred to the standard (Arabic) or referred to the vernacular, which were bracketed in number 2. Choosing this word implies unawareness of the effect of gender in adjacent words in writing.

The correct answer is 'هذا', which is used to refer to masculine entities in Arabic. This choice is affected by the following word 'bridging the gap' which in standard Arabic is assigned to a masculine entity.

She pointed out that she chose 'العامية', which means 'the vernacular', in number 2 because it was the language we spoke every day. Despite several attempts, the subject did not provide another justification for her selection. She imposed her personal interpretation without thinking of the text. The correct answer is 'الفصحى', which means 'standard' Arabic. This choice is rationalized by the meaning of the surrounding context (simplify standard for uneducated people).

144

In number 3, she chose 'في', which means 'in', because of the preceding verb 'enter'. She indicated that this verb requires this preposition. The student showed awareness of the function and the context of this preposition.

Her choice in number 4 was 'الفاظ', which means 'vocabulary'. She indicated that she chose this word because of the preceding phrase 'useful words/vocabulary'. She used the preceding linguistic item to infer the appropriate choice.

She chose 'بكلاهما', which means 'both' in number 8. She stated that her choice was affected by the following phrase 'speech and writing'. She resorted to the following linguistic items to make her decision. The student might link the pronoun used for duality (in Arabic) 'both', with these two nouns 'speech and writing'. Neither the choice nor the reason was appropriate. The suitable word is 'العامية', which means the vernacular. This choice is supported by what was presented previously in the text, i.e. 'the main idea'.

In number 10, she selected 'لكنهم', which means 'but they'. She stated that she chose it because it is a complement to what comes before it 'what they call 'people's language'. She used the preceding linguistic items. The appropriate choice is 'منهم', which means 'some of them'. This choice is affected by the phrase 'who call' at the beginning of the paragraph. The choice refers back to this phrase. Although she chose the appropriate answer, 'Latin', in number 13, she could not remember and commented that it was something in the text led her to this choice. Answering this point needs knowledge of the relationship between Latin and the languages that evolved from it.

She chose Romanian in number 14 because it belongs to the dialects preceding the choices. The student used the preceding linguistic items and her background knowledge.

In number 15, she chose 'بتطور', which means 'development', because she knows that languages develop. Then she restated the resulting sequence 'evolution/ development of dialects'. She added that in this process words could be added to the language, as happens in English.

She resorted to her background knowledge and tried to support her answer by restating the resulting sequence and clarifying through using examples.

She selected 'العامية', which means 'the vernacular' in number 18. Her choice was affected by the preceding word 'prevail'. She also added that she did not choose 'standard' (Arabic) because people do not speak it. She resorted to a preceding nonadjacent word and

made her own interpretation to make exclusions. The appropriate choice is 'الاخرى', which means 'the other'. The preceding and adjacent words bring up this choice.

She was affected by the preceding word 'culture' when she chose 'الشعوب', which means 'people/ nation', in number 23. However, the appropriate choice is 'العلوم', which means 'sciences'. It is correct because it collocates with the following word 'arts'.

In number 34, she used 'في', which means 'in'. She pointed out that her choice was because of the following word 'purposes'. This should be used on basis of the surrounding linguistic items.

When she was asked about how difficult the Arabic text and the English text, she pointed out that they are the same.

- *Question about L2 Cloze test:*

In number 1 she chose 'people' because she did not know the meaning of 'varieties', and because of the word 'from' which followed the space. She also commented that people use different languages.

She used the following word, avoided unknown words, and imposed her personal interpretation. Although the choice was correct, the justification was not appropriate. This choice is appropriate because of the following non-adjacent clause 'need to communicate'.

In number 8, she chose 'English'. She stated that she chose it because of the preceding clause 'books are published', and because it is an essential language that is used everywhere. It was also because the student studied English a long time ago, but she had begun studying French only this year. Moreover, she had never studied Spanish

In her explanation, she used the preceding linguistic items. She also imposed personal interpretations without reference to the text. Finally, she linked what she read to her experience. Although her choice was appropriate, her justification was not the right one. This choice can be based on previous knowledge and the meaning of the paragraph.

She stated that she chose 'books' in number 9 because they are usually used whereas magazines are rarely used. She used her own interpretations and criteria to make choices and exclusions. The correct answer is 'varieties' and this can be understood from the following phrases, which are about varieties of English 'including British English, American English'.

She chose 'South African' in number 10 because she knows that English is used there.

She used her previous knowledge.

When she tried to justify her choice 'Britain' in number 11, she linked it to 'local' in the previous sentence. She added that this word refers to British society. The student resorted to a previous non-adjacent word, which actually does not help decide the appropriate choice, and imposed her personal interpretation. This choice should be based on previous knowledge in addition to the following sentences where 'British' is used.

In number 16, she chose 'that' because it was followed by 'people'. The student used her knowledge of the function and the context of relative pronouns.

She pointed out that she chose 'British' in number 18 because it was followed by 'English is taught in most schools'. She commented that the writer provided an example. Although the answer was correct, linking it to linguistic items was not the appropriate justification. This choice should be a result of background knowledge about English varieties and their geographical domains.

In number 20, she chose 'more' because 'American English' has many rumours, which sounds odd. [The researcher thinks this was because the Arabic equivalent of 'more' to some extent shares most sounds and letters of the equivalent of 'rumour']. Her justification showed her lack of vocabulary. Moreover, she tried to force her interpretations into the text.

She chose 'vocabulary' in 25. She commented that her first selection was 'pronunciation' and then she chose 'vocabulary'. When she was asked about the difference between vocabulary and pronunciation she stated that vocabulary refers to the way sounds are pronounced such as 's' when pronounced / z / whereas pronunciation deals with the sounds and the way they are written. The student indicated that she revised her reading. This choice requires knowledge of the terms used and the meaning of the forthcoming sentences. The student did not mention any of these reasons

- *Questions related to the strategies used in the textbook:*

When she was asked about the texts, she pointed out that the Arabic text compared standard Arabic and vernacular Arabic, but the English text was about British English. The student seems have grasped part of the idea presented in both texts.

In a situation other than an exam, when she does not know a word she uses the dictionary. Her sister (an Arabic teacher) helped her to use the dictionary. She was introduced

to the Arabic dictionary in school during ninth grade.

She needs to read the text in order to be able to anticipate its content properly. She has the ability to anticipate the text but she did not mention any of the cues that may help anticipation. She can remember texts that she read carefully. It is very hard for her to remember all the details. She has the ability to recall what is read carefully, but she is unable to recall details. She resorts to re-reading to help her understand i.e. to achieve comprehension.

She does not skim but she reads in detail from the beginning. She expressed awareness of text types and their differences. She pointed out that texts can be of different types because of the language and pictures used, and that there are parts of the text that are more important than the others. The content can decide whether a part is important or not. She is not aware of the place of those parts that are more important than others.

She indicated that there is a minor relationship between grammar and meaning in English, but there is no such relationship in standard Arabic. This reveals the unawareness of the relationship between grammar and meaning.

S2

This subject was chosen after applying stratified sampling and random sampling respectively. For interview purposes, the researcher contacted this subject through his Reading teacher. S2 is a male student. He was 20 when he was interviewed. All the courses he took were in State sector institutions i.e. he did not take any extra courses.

In Cloze test, he achieved 21 points out of the 37 points of the Arabic test, and 10 points out of the 40 points of the English test. His Reading teacher pointed out that he was not a good reader. He agreed to be interviewed by writing his name on the Cloze test answer sheet. Moreover, he agreed verbally that his answers could be recorded. He was cooperative during the interview.

The interview was conducted in one of the rooms of the Department. Before starting the interview, he received his Cloze test answer sheet to have a look over it. The researcher informed him that he would be asked to provide justifications for his choices if there were any, and that he would be asked about his reading experience. This interview took 24 minutes.

In number 1, he selected 'هذا', which means 'this' (it refers to close singular masculine). He pointed out that 'effects' which precedes the choices guided his choice. He commented that it was obvious and clear. The student used the preceding word. Although his choice was appropriate, his justification did not address the actual factor. This was because of the following word 'bridging the gap'.

He selected 'الفصحى', which means 'standard' in number 2. He referred that this choice was because of 'bridging the gap' and 'uneducated people'. He used the surrounding linguistic items. He pointed out that it was stated in the text.

In number 3, he chose 'في', which means 'in'. His choice was because of the preceding word 'enter'. He pointed out that it was the appropriate choice.

In number 4, he selected 'عبارات', which means 'phrases'. He indicated that the phrase ''useful vocabulary' encouraged him. He used the preceding linguistic items, and resorted to personal feeling generated by these linguistic items. The right choice is 'ألفاظ', which means 'vocabulary/ words'. It can be inferred from the phrase 'useful vocabulary'.

'مفردات', which means 'vocabulary / words', was his choice in number 5. His choice was affected by the following word 'eloquence'. He pointed out that the other two choices cannot be used with 'eloquence'. Although his choice was appropriate, its justification was not. This choice can be justified on basis of space 4 and the phrase 'useful vocabulary' which preceded this choice.

In number 7, he selected 'يترك', which means, 'to abandon'. He stated that his choice was because of the preceding phrase 'call for' and the following phrase 'vernacular over standard (Arabic)'. He mentioned that he excluded the other two choices for the same reason. Although he chose 'vernacular' at the beginning, he pointed out that later he chose 'الفصحى', which means 'standard' in number 8 because of the following phrase 'speech and writing' and because 'standard' is used in writing. In his justification he used the following linguistic items, revised what he read and imposed personal interpretations. The appropriate choice is 'vernacular'. It can be inferred through what is read before i.e. the main idea.

In number 10, he chose 'منهم', which means 'some of them' because of its pronunciation (which is strange) and because of the following phrase 'who depends on'. He used the following linguistic items and the spoken form of the word to make his choice. The

spoken form has nothing to do with its choice i.e. it is not an effective factor. He forgot to answer number 12.

He chose Latin in number 13 because it is a famous language. He pointed out that he did not choose 'Chinese' because he would choose it in the following point. Although the choice was appropriate, he did not provide a reasonable justification. He imposed personal judgments. Choosing the right word in this point requires previous knowledge. It is not a matter of random guesses.

He chose Chinese in number 14 because he had guessed that either in 13 or in 14 'Chinese' would be the right choice. He made a random guess that is not based on the content of the text. The appropriate choice is 'Romanian'. It should be based on previous knowledge.

He forgot to answer number 15 although he planned to answer it later. In number 16, he chose 'الغاء', which means 'cancelling', because of the following phrase 'prevailing the vernacular', and because of writer's advice; not to use the vernacular. He used the following linguistic items and used what was understood.

He chose 'الخطيرة', which means dangerous, in number 22 because of the following word 'the huge'. In this point, he used the following word to infer the answer. Although the choice was appropriate, its justification was not. This choice should be based on the attitude of the writer, which can be understood from the previous paragraphs.

In number 23, he chose 'الشعوب', which means 'people/ nation'. He pointed out that people need language. In his justification, he imposed his personal interpretations. The right word is 'العلوم', which means 'sciences' because it collocates with the following word 'arts'.

'اللهجة', which means 'dialect', was his choice in 24. He attributed his choice to the following word 'people's'. He commented that it is 'people's dialect'. He used the following word and restated the resulting sequence.

He chose 'مهجورة', which means 'abandoned', in number 25 because of the following phrase 'living requirements'. The right word is 'متفرقة', which means 'scattered'. It requires general knowledge about dialects. He used the following linguistic items (which are not sufficient to infer the correct answer).

In number 29, he chose 'المعيشة', which means 'living' (what people do to earn the money they need). His choice was affected by the following word 'daily'. He used the

following word to infer the appropriate choice. All the surrounding linguistic items contributed to this choice.

In number 32 he used the following phrase 'do not nullify the vernacular' to infer the appropriate word 'جاهلوا', which means 'those who are Ignorant'. His choice was based on the following linguistic items. The right word is 'انصار', which means 'supporters'. This word cannot be inferred unless the reader has understood the message intended by the writer.

- *Question about L2 Cloze test:*

In number 1, he pointed out that he chose 'varieties' because of the following phrase 'different parts'. He used of the following linguistic items. Neither the choice nor the justification was appropriate. The right choice is 'people' which can be inferred from the following nonadjacent phrase 'need to communicate'.

He chose media in number 2 because it was followed by 'is needed'. He commented that it is needed for the language. In his justification, he used the following non-adjacent linguistic items. He imposed his personal interpretations although nothing was mentioned about that in the text. The appropriate choice is 'language' which can be inferred from the following phrase 'and this language'.

In number 3, he chose 'was' because of the following word 'usually'. This choice and justification shows that the student is unaware of the grammatical rule and the function of 'usually'. The appropriate choice is 'is' because the sentence is present, and the subject is singular.

'English' was his choice in number 8 because it is a well-known language than the other two languages i.e. 'Spanish' and 'French'. He resorted to his personal interpretations. Although the choice was correct, its interpretation was not. This answer can be inferred through using general knowledge and the meaning of the paragraph.

He chose 'magazines' in number 9. His choice was based on the following phrase 'British English, and American English'. He resorted to non-adjacent linguistic items. The appropriate choice is 'varieties' and it can be inferred from the same phrase that he used.

In number 10, he resorted to a superficial relationship between the chosen word 'South African' and the following word 'Nigerian'. He used his previous knowledge to exclude 'Libya' because of the following word 'English'. 'South African' is the appropriate

151

choice not because it is linked to another African country, it is appropriate because it is one of English varieties.

He chose 'England' in number 11 because of the following non-adjacent phrase 'is regarded'. He pointed out that it was in the past. When he was asked about the relationship between them, he pointed out that he did not know. In his justification, he used the following linguistic items, and showed knowledge of 'ed' as a past forming morpheme. However, his grammatical knowledge had not been expressed in a wider context such as the structure of the phrase 'is regarded'. It seems that he resorted to a random choice. The right word is 'Britain' which can be inferred by resorting to previous knowledge and the following sentences where the adjective 'British' is used.

In number 18, he selected 'Nigerian' because of the following phrase 'is taught'. He indicated that he did not know what relationship there was.

His choice in number 21 was 'between'. He indicated that this was because of the preceding word 'differences'.

He selected 'grammar' in number 23 because it was followed by 'silent r'. In his explanation, he used the following linguistic items. He also expressed a lack of knowledge of the scope of grammar. The correct choice is 'English'. It can be understood on basis of the meaning of the forthcoming sentences or because of general knowledge about the features of British English.

His choice in number 25 was 'grammar'. He indicated that it was because he chose the same word in number 23. He did not mention any kind of relationship. The right choice is 'vocabulary'. It can be inferred on basis of knowledge of the terms used and the meaning of the forthcoming sentences.

His choice of 'understanding' in number 26 was affected by the following non-adjacent word, 'example'. He commented that examples facilitate understanding. He imposed his personal interpretation and tried to clarify the resulting sequence. The appropriate choice is 'misunderstanding'. It can be inferred on basis of the meaning of the preceding and following sentences.

In number 28, he selected 'tense' because of the preceding phrase 'present perfect'. He commented that it refers to a tense. He used his previous knowledge of the terms used in grammar. He pointed out that he could not fill the spaces because they were difficult.

152

He summarises texts that he considers important. When he encounters a difficult word, he resorts to others. He uses the dictionary as a second option to find the meaning of words.

He can anticipate the topic through the sentences and phrases of the text. He lacks awareness of the strategies that may help predict the content of the text.

He re-reads up to three times when he does not understand a text then he abandons it; he lacks persistence. The importance of the text to him determines the way he reads it. He skims articles that he considers unimportant, but the important ones he reads in detail from the beginning.

He can differentiate between text types through content, and he is aware of the issues that differentiate one text from the other such as the words, the sentences, and the structures used.

He said out that paragraphs of the same article and the sentences of the same paragraph have the same importance. This reveals a lack of knowledge of the structure of written material. Because he is not aware of this structure, he reads certain paragraphs or sentences without considering their location. He does not use thesis statements or topic sentences. He is unaware of the relationship between grammar and meaning. He indicated that grammar does not affect the meaning, but it affects the tense.

S8

This subject was chosen after applying stratified sampling and random sampling respectively. For interview purposes, the researcher contacted this subject through his Reading teacher. S8 is a male student. He was 19 when he was interviewed. All the courses he took were in State sector institutions i.e. he did not take any private courses.

In Cloze test, he achieved 12 points out of the 37 points of the Arabic test, and 15 points out of the 40 points of the English test. He agreed to be interviewed by writing his name on the Cloze test answer sheet and he agreed verbally that his answers could be recorded. He was cooperative during the interview.

The interview was conducted in one of the rooms of the Department. No one else attended the interview. Before starting the interview, the subject received his Cloze test

answer sheet. The researcher explained to the interviewee that he would be asked to provide justifications for his choices, and would be asked about his reading habits. This interview was 18 minutes long.

- *Questions about L1 Cloze test*

In number 1, he selected 'تلك', which means 'that' (it is used to refer to distant feminine singular and plural). He pointed out that he considered it as the most appropriate choice because it completes the meaning of 'effects'. He used the preceding word and imposed his personal judgment. The appropriate choice is 'هذا', which means 'this'. It refers to 'bridging the gap' which is a singular masculine entity.

In number 2, he chose 'القوالب', which means 'forms' randomly. The appropriate answer is 'الفصحى', which means 'standard' Arabic. It is appropriate because of the surrounding context.

His choice in number 3 was 'على', which means 'on'. He pointed out that his choice was affected by the following phrase 'standard useful vocabulary' and because of the preceding word 'enter'. He resorted to the surrounding context. The appropriate choice is 'في', which means 'in'. It can be inferred from what has already been read. This choice entails awareness of the use and function of the prepositions presented into the brackets.

He chose 'مجريات', which means 'paths' in number 5 because of the preceding word 'path'. He used the preceding word. Neither the choice nor the justification is appropriate. The appropriate choice is 'المفردات', which means 'words/ vocabulary' because of space 4, and the preceding phrase 'useful vocabulary'.

His choice in number 7 was 'باضافة', which means 'to add'. His choice was affected by the preceding phrase 'who calls'. He indicated that when he read the sentence he found 'to add' appropriate. He used the preceding linguistic items and imposed his personal feelings and judgments. The appropriate choice is 'بتغليب'. It can be inferred from what is read before i.e. 'the main idea.

In number 10, he chose 'منهم', which means 'some of them'. His choice was guided by the preceding phrase 'people's language' and the following phrase 'who depends'. He used the surrounding linguistic context to make his choice.

He chose 'على', which means 'on' in number 11. He chose it because of the following

phrase 'historical events'. He pointed out that it was more appropriate than the other two choices. He used the following linguistic items, and excluded the inappropriate choices. Although the choice was appropriate, the justification was not. Choosing this preposition should be because of 'who depend'; this verb entails this preposition.

In number 13, he selected 'Latin' because he preferred it. He stated that there was no other reason. He used his personal feeling as basis for the choice. Choosing this word needs previous knowledge.

He pointed that his choice of 'Arabic' in number '14' was random. The appropriate choice is 'الرومانية', which means 'Romanian'. This answer needs to be based on previous knowledge about the languages originating from Latin.

He chose 'باهمال', which means 'to neglect', in number 15 because of the following phrase 'dialects of the modern European languages'. He commented that when the standard (language) is abandoned, the vernacular would be used. He used the following linguistic items and linked them to personal interpretations. The appropriate choice is 'بتطور', which means 'development/ evolution'. Inferring this choice requires previous knowledge of language characteristics.

His choice in number 16 was 'تشجيع', which means 'to encourage', because it was preceded by 'heading toward'. He indicated that the other two choices could not be used. He used the preceding linguistic items and excluded the other choices. The right choice is 'إلغاء', which means 'to cancel'. It could be understood from the main idea.

In number 20, he chose 'في', which means 'in'. His choice was because of the following word 'speech'. This choice should be based on the surrounding environment i.e. what follows the spaces.

He chose 'العلوم', which means 'sciences' in 23 because it is preceded by 'culture'. He pointed out that it is 'sciences and arts'. He used his knowledge of the words that collocate together and used the preceding word.

In number 24, he chose 'الحضارات', which means 'civilisations' in number 24 because it was preceded by 'continuing generations'. He commented that every civilisation has its own dialect. He used the preceding linguistic items and made a personal interpretation to justify his choice.

He chose two words 'المعيشة' and 'الدروس' which mean respectively 'living' and 'lessons' in number 29. He pointed out that he chose them because each of them could be the right one. He used more than one option. The appropriate choice is 'المعيشة', which means 'living'. This choice could be inferred through referring to the surrounding context.

'اللغة', which means 'language', was his choice in number 32. He attributed his choice to the preceding phrase 'if it was' and the following word 'standard'. He used the surrounding context but he was unaware of gender requirement. The phrase 'if it was' entails a masculine entity whereas 'language' is a feminine entity. The right word is 'انصار', which means 'supporters' or any other synonym. Inferring this word entails capturing the message of the writer.

- *Question about L2 Cloze test:*

He chose 'people' in number 1 because it was preceded by 'language'. He commented that people are the speakers of the language. He used the preceding word and provided personal interpretations. It was the appropriate choice but it was not the right justification. This choice could be understood from the phrase 'need to communicate'.

In number 2, he chose 'language' and 'media' randomly. 'Language' was the appropriate answer. It could be inferred from the following non-adjacent phrase 'and this language'.

His choice was 'is' in number 3. He pointed out that his choice was due to the preceding phrase 'this language'. He commented that he did not use 'was' because of '85%'. He used two linguistic items. Only the first, 'this language', is an effective factor. In his comment about not excluding 'was', '85%' was in another sentence and could not affect verb choice.

In number 7, he selected 'world's'. His choice was guided by the preceding word 'around'. Although the choice was appropriate, linking it to the preceding word was not appropriate. This choice could be made on basis of general knowledge.

He used his previous knowledge in number 8. He chose 'English'. He commented that most books are written in English.

In number 10, he resorted to a superficial relationship between the chosen word 'South African' and the following word 'Nigerian'. 'South African' was the appropriate

156

choice but not because it was linked to another African country, it was appropriate because it was one of English varieties.

In number 11, he chose 'England' randomly. The right word is 'Britain' which can be inferred by resorting to previous knowledge and the following sentences where 'British' is used.

He chose 'good' in number 12 because of the following word 'English' and the preceding word 'regarded'. He attributed his choice to the surrounding context. The right choice is 'standard'. This choice needs knowledge of the terms used.

His choice in number 18 was 'British'. He stated that it is the English language used in Britain. He used his previous knowledge, and clarified the answer.

He chose 'in' in number 21 because of the following word 'varieties' and the preceding word 'differences'. He commented that it was more appropriate. He used the surrounding context and judged the appropriateness of his choice. He showed unawareness of the function and context of prepositions. The appropriate choice is 'between' because of the preceding word 'differences'.

In number 22, he chose 'pronunciation' because of the word 'differences' before space 21. He commented that pronunciation was different among languages. He used the preceding sentence to guess the answer. He used his previous knowledge of the characteristics of language. This answer also could be inferred from the meaning of the forthcoming sentences

In number 23, he chose 'vocabulary' because of the following word 'silent'. Neither the choice nor the justification was appropriate. The appropriate choice is 'English'. It can be inferred through general knowledge and the forthcoming sentences.

He chose 'pronunciation' in number 25 because of the preceding word 'differences'. He commented that 'differences' refers to variation. The appropriate choice is 'vocabulary'. It can be understood by using knowledge of the terms used and the meaning of the forthcoming sentences. Although he provided the appropriate choice 'misunderstanding' in number 26, he did not provide any justifications. This choice could be inferred from the meaning of the preceding and following sentences.

In number 27, he chose 'whereas' because of the preceding phrase 'just now means'. He identified 'now' as 'new'. He commented that it referred to the new meanings. He used

157

the preceding linguistic items. It seems that he lacks concentration/ attention. The appropriate choice is 'whereas'. This choice requires knowledge of the function and context of connectives.

He pointed out that he did not fill in the gaps because he did not have enough time. [When the researcher suggested him filling the gaps during the interview, he said no, which would appear to indicate that it was not a matter of time.]

- *Questions related to the strategies used in the textbook:*

In Arabic, he usually tries to grasp the main idea from the text. He rarely looks for the main idea in English. He did not learn how to use the dictionary in school. He learned this at home. He uses an English dictionary to find difficult words. He does not try to anticipate the topic although he knows the items, such as sentences and pictures, which help him make predictions.

He tries to recall what is read in L1 and L2. He re-reads to achieve understanding. He usually re-reads in English because Arabic is easier. He also re-reads topics that attract him. He skims to find out whether the material is attractive or not. If it attracts him, he will read it in detail.

He can distinguish text types through vocabulary and sentences, and the way paragraphs are organised. He is aware of the criteria used to define text types. He knows that some sentences and paragraphs are more important than the others. These important paragraphs and sentences can be found anywhere. He is unaware of topic sentence and thesis statement, and the structure of the written material.

He is aware of the relationship between grammar and meaning. It seems that this knowledge is related to tense.

Z55

This subject was chosen after applying stratified sampling and random sampling respectively. For interview purposes, the researcher contacted this subject through the Head of Study and Exams. Z55 is a female student. She was 19 when she was interviewed. All the courses she took were in Public Education.

In the Cloze test, she achieved 12 points out of the 37 of the Arabic test, and 7 points out of the 40 points of the English test. She agreed to be interviewed by writing her name on

her Cloze test answer sheet. Moreover, she agreed verbally that her answers could be recorded.

The interview was conducted in a small room within the Department. Staff members were in a nearby room. Before starting the interview, the subject received her Cloze test answer sheet in order to refresh her memory about the strategies she used when she answered the test. Before starting the recording, the researcher explained to the student that she would be asked to provide justifications for her choices if any, and that she would be asked about her reading habits. This interview took 24 minutes.

- *Questions about L1 Cloze test:*

In number 1, she selected 'هذا', which means 'this' (it refers to close masculine singular). She pointed out that 'effects' which precedes the choices helped her because it is a masculine word. She used the preceding word, and expressed awareness of the effect of gender. Although her choice and part of her justification were appropriate, she did not notice the direction of gender effect. The word that affected the choice was 'التقريب', which means 'bridging the gap'.

She chose 'العامية', which means 'vernacular' in number 2 because of the following phrase 'uneducated people'. She pointed out that they (uneducated people) understand the vernacular. She used the following linguistic items and imposed her personal interpretations. The appropriate choice was 'standard'. It could be understood from the surrounding context. Standard Arabic would be simplified for uneducated people.

In number 3, she chose 'في', which means 'in' because it was followed by 'standard useful vocabulary'. She used the following linguistic items. This choice could be inferred from what was read. It also required awareness of the use and function of the prepositions presented into the brackets.

In number 4, she chose 'الفاظ', which means 'words/vocabulary' because it was followed by 'civilisation'. She used the following word. This choice can be inferred from the preceding phrase 'useful vocabulary' and not from the following word. She skipped number 5 because she could not answer it.

In number 6, she selected 'ببعض', which means 'with some', because it was followed by 'adjustment'. She used the following word as basis to her answer. This choice could be inferred from 'without' and the coordinator 'or'. She skipped number 7 because she could not

answer it.

'الفصحى', which means 'standard' was her choice in number 8 because it was followed by 'speech and writing'. She used the following linguistic items. The appropriate word is 'بالعامية', which means 'vernacular'. It could be inferred from what was read, i.e. 'the main idea'.

In number 9, she chose 'بالذي', which means 'who is' (one word in Arabic), because it was followed by 'they call it popularising people's language'. She used the following linguistic items. The appropriate choice is 'بما', which means 'what is'. Selecting this word entailed knowledge of relative pronouns in standard Arabic.

She chose 'ولكنهم', which means 'but they' in number 10 because it was followed by 'who depends on'. She resorted to the following linguistic items. The correct choice was 'منهم', which means 'some of them' and could be inferred from 'who call' at the beginning of the paragraph and 'who depend' after the space.

In number 11, she selected 'في', which means 'in' because it was followed by 'historical events'. She used the following linguistic items. The appropriate choice was 'على', which means 'on' because of the preceding phrase 'who depend'.

She selected 'يعتمد', which means 'depend', in number 12 because it was followed by 'on language destiny'. She used the following linguistic items. The appropriate word is 'يستشهد', which means 'exemplify' because it introduced examples. Choosing this word entailed knowledge of using certain words in certain contexts.

She selected 'Latin' in number 13 because of the phrase 'using Latin here as an example' which was located in the penultimate paragraph. She used the following paragraphs to discover clues that might help her make her choices. This choice could also be inferred by using previous knowledge about languages. She skipped number 5 because she could not answer it.

In number 15, she chose 'بتطور', which means 'with development' because it was followed by 'dialects of modern European languages'. She used the following linguistic items. This choice requires previous knowledge about the features of languages.

'ابراز', which means 'raising' was her choice in number 16. She indicated that the following phrase 'standard and prevailing over the vernacular' helped her choose it. She used

the following linguistic items. The appropriate word is 'إلغاء', which means 'cancelling', because of what presented before: the main idea.

In number 17, she selected 'هذه', which means 'these' because it was followed by 'purposes'. When she was asked whether she usually concentrates on what comes after the choices, she confirmed that. The right choice is 'جميع', which means 'all/ whole'. It can be understood from the writer's attitude, which is implied in the previous paragraphs.

She chose 'الاخرى', which means 'the other' in number 18 because of the following phrase 'particularly prevailing the vernacular'. She used the following linguistic items. At this point, the student was asked whether the preceding context had an effect on this point. She confirmed that the following phrase was the factor affected her choice. This choice should be generated by the preceding phrase 'one of the dialects over'.

In number 19 she selected 'مستخدميها', which means 'its users' because of the following non-adjacent phrase 'or just using the vernacular'. She used the following and non-adjacent linguistic items. The right choice was 'الفصحى', which means 'standard'. This choice could be inferred from what was read, and from the preceding phrase 'to prevail over the vernacular'.

In number 20 she selected 'في', which means 'in' because it was preceded by 'or just using the vernacular'. She used the preceding linguistic items. The surrounding linguistic items affected her choice.

She resorted to a random answer in number 21: 'على' which means 'over'. The appropriate choice is 'من', which means 'than'. It can be inferred through knowledge of how prepositions are used in this context. Because she could not answer number 22, she skipped it.

She pointed out that her choice 'الشعوب', which means 'nations/ people' in number 23 was because of the following nonadjacent phrase 'place extension and generations change'. When the student was asked whether she read to this point, she commented that she read before she chose. The appropriate choice is 'العلوم', which means 'sciences'. This selection entails knowledge of collocations.

'اللهجة', which means 'dialect', was her choice in number 24. She pointed out that she knew that it was the first thing we use in speech. She showed previous knowledge which had nothing to do with the choice. Although the choice was appropriate, its justification was not. This choice should be inferred from the following non-adjacent phrase 'temporary dialect'.

She selected 'متفرقة', which means 'scattered' in number 25 because it was followed by 'daily living needs/ requirements'. She used the following linguistic items. This choice requires knowledge of the features of dialects. She skipped number 26 because she could not answer it.

She made a random guess in number 27. It was 'حول', which means 'about'. The appropriate choice is 'في', which means 'in'. It can be understood from the surrounding context.

She selected 'فمن', which means 'who' in number 28, because it was followed by 'could unite the styles'. She used the following linguistic items. This choice could be inferred through knowledge of the relative pronouns in standard Arabic and their context.

Her choice 'المعيشة', which means 'living' (what people do to earn money) in number 29, was because of the following word 'daily' and a similar phrase in the penultimate paragraph. She used the following linguistic items and the following paragraphs. The surrounding context can help her infer this choice.

She pointed out that she chose 'تجنب', which means 'to avoid', in number 31 because it was followed by 'solve the problem'. She used the following linguistic items. The appropriate word is 'استطاع', which means 'could'. It can be understood from the meaning of the paragraph, and from 'could' before number 30. She stated that she could not fill the gaps.

- *Question about L2 Cloze test:*

She chose 'varieties' in number 1 randomly. The appropriate choice was 'people'. It could be inferred from the following phrase 'need to communicate'.

In number 2, she selected 'language'. The phrase 'parts of the world need to communicate' guided her choice. She commented that language is used for communication. She used the meaning of the preceding linguistic items and personal interpretations to make guesses. This word could be inferred from the following non-adjacent phrase 'and this language'.

She selected 'were' in number 3 because it was followed by 'usually English'. This justification showed a lack of knowledge of grammar. 'Is' was the appropriate word and it could be inferred through knowledge of grammar.

She skipped number 4 because it was difficult. The appropriate answer is

'international'. It can be inferred through previous knowledge.

In number 5, she chose 'most' because it was preceded by 'English'. She did not provide any justification. The appropriate choice is 'one'. It can be understood from the surrounding context.

She pointed out that she chose 'so' in number 6 randomly. The appropriate choice is 'and'. It entails knowledge of the function and context of the coordinators.

She selected 'city's' in number 7 because of the following phrase 'books are published'. This phrase cannot justify this choice. The appropriate word is 'world's'. Inferring this choice entails general knowledge.

She pointed out that she chose 'English' in number 8 because of the phrase 'there are hundreds' in the following paragraph. This choice entails understanding the paragraph and general knowledge.

She linked her choice 'books' in number 9 to the following non-adjacent word 'American'. The appropriate choice is 'varieties'. It can be inferred from the following phrase 'including British English, American English'.

In number 10, she selected 'South African' because it was followed by 'English and Nigerian English'. She said that Nigeria is in South Africa. She used her own interpretations and the following linguistic items to link the choice. Although the choice was successful, its justification was not. The selection of this word needed be based on previous knowledge of the varieties of English.

She resorted to a random answer in number 11. She chose 'Ireland'. The appropriate choice is 'Britain'. This choice requires previous knowledge about Standard English. The following adjective 'British' can also be used to infer this answer.

She skipped number 12 because she did not know it. The appropriate choice was 'standard'. It entails knowledge of the terms used to describe language varieties.

She pointed out that she chose 'used' in number 13 because magazines are used in Britain (she pointed to 'British newspapers'). She imposed her personal interpretations, which had nothing to do with the context. This choice entails understanding the meaning of the first part of the sentence.

She used the following clause 'there is no international standard' to infer her choice

'moreover' in number 14. The appropriate word is 'however'. Choosing this word entails knowledge of the function and context of the bracketed connectors.

She chose 'continent' in number 15 randomly although she did not know its meaning. The appropriate choice is 'world'. It can be understood from general knowledge about the factors that affect the distribution of varieties of English. It can also be grasped from the forthcoming sentences in the paragraph.

She resorted to the following word 'people'' to help her choose 'whom' in number 16. She commented that 'whom' is used with people. She employed an incomplete grammatical rule. The appropriate choice is 'that' because it is preceded by 'English'. This choice entails knowledge of the way relative pronouns in English are used.

In number 17, she chose 'history' because of the following phrase 'in European countries'. She used the first phrase in the following sentence. This choice entails knowledge of the meaning of the forthcoming sentences within the paragraph or general knowledge of the factors that determine dialects distribution. The appropriate choice is 'geography'.

She pointed out that she chose 'Nigerian' in number 18 because it was the most appropriate choice in this context. She used personal judgement about appropriateness to the context. The appropriate choice is 'British'. It requires knowledge the distribution of varieties of English.

Her choice of 'furthermore' in number 19 was determined by the following phrase 'in East Asia'. Neither her choice nor justification was correct. The appropriate choice is 'while'. This choice entails knowledge of the meaning of the surrounding context and the function of the bracketed connectors. She chose 'less' in number 20 randomly.

She chose 'between' in number 21 because it was preceded by 'differences'.

She pointed out that she chose 'grammar' in number 22 because of the following non-adjacent phrase 'standard English'. She used the following linguistic items. The right choice is 'pronunciation'. It can be understood from the meaning of the forthcoming sentences or from general knowledge.

She chose 'grammar' in number 23 randomly. The appropriate choice is 'English'. It can be understood through general knowledge of the features of British English, and through the forthcoming sentences.

She pointed out that she chose 'and' in number 24 because it was used between sentences. She commented that it was appropriate here. She showed unawareness of the function and the context of coordinators and imposed personal judgements about appropriateness. The correct coordinator is 'but'. It can be inferred through the meaning of the surrounding context and knowledge of the function of the bracketed words.

Although her choice 'vocabulary' in number 25 was appropriate, it was selected randomly. This choice needs to be based on knowledge of the terms used and the meaning of the forthcoming sentences.

She chose 'understanding' in number 26 because understanding was the most important thing. She commented that understanding was necessary to get the right answer. She used her personal interpretations, which had nothing to do with the text. The appropriate choice is 'misunderstanding'. It can be inferred through understanding the meaning of the preceding and following sentences.

In number 27 she selected 'and' because of the following clause 'Britain means now' i.e. British meanings. She used the following linguistic items. Her answer showed that she thought that 'means' was plural. She showed a lack of vocabulary. The appropriate choice is 'whereas'. This choice can be inferred through understanding the surrounding context, and through knowledge of the function of the bracketed words.

She based her choice of 'time' in number 28 on her previous knowledge. She commented that it was the right time. She used inappropriate previous knowledge. The right choice is 'tense'. This choice requires knowledge of the terms used in grammar.

'More' was her choice in number 29 because it was followed by 'than'. She excluded 'less' because she did not know its meaning. General knowledge or the meaning of the rest of the sentence can help her infer the appropriate choice 'less'.

She chose 'one' in number 30 because it was preceded by 'English speakers can understand each'. She commented that she chose it because it was the only language. She used the preceding linguistic items accompanied by personal interpretations, which were irrelevant to the text. The appropriate choice is 'other'. It can be understood through knowledge of the meaning of the sentence and words that collocate together.

In number, 31 she chose 'should'. She commented that she chose because it suited the following phrase 'agree to use one standard'. She judged the appropriateness through using

the following linguistic items.

She chose 'must' in number 32 because it was followed by 'learn easily'. She commented that languages ought to be learned. She used the following linguistic items and personal interpretations. The appropriate choice is 'can'. It can be understood through the phrase 'learn easily'. She pointed out that the open blanks were more difficult than the choices.

She randomly used 'right' in space number 38. The appropriate word is 'world's'. It can be inferred through using general knowledge about the languages used in sciences.

- *Questions related to the strategies used in the textbook:*

Sometimes she recalls what is read. She pointed out that her recall is affected by time, i.e. the more time passes the less successful is the recalling. She resorts to asking others to when she does not understand. She claimed that she does her best to understand. This is applicable to both languages (Arabic and English).

She uses a dictionary to translate unknown English words whereas she asks others about difficult words in Arabic. She learned how to use the dictionary in preparatory school.

She can anticipate the content of an article that is about a familiar topic. She is unaware of the clues that can be used in prediction. She uses re-reading to achieve understanding in both languages: Arabic and English. She pointed out that in Arabic and English she re-reads up to 15 times when she does not understand. She reads in detail from the beginning; she does not skim.

She is aware of text types and the features that differentiate them such as words used and any pictures. She commented that she could not decide the type of the text unless she read it. She mentioned that she thinks paragraphs and sentences of the same article are of the same importance, and that place does not affect their importance. She showed unawareness of topic sentence and thesis statement, and the structure of written material.

She pointed out that grammar in English affects meaning but standard Arabic grammar has less effect on meaning. She showed awareness of the relationship between grammar and meaning in English and less awareness in standard Arabic.

Z56

Z56 is a female student. She was 19 when interviewed. She achieved 24 points out of

the 37 of the Arabic Cloze test, and 15 points out of the 40 points of the English Cloze test. The interviewee was asked two groups of questions; the first group sought justifications for students' choices, while the other group was concerned with the strategies that constituted the differences between Arabic Reading Textbooks and English Reading Textbooks in Libyan schools.

The interview took place in one of the rooms of the Department. The student was informed about the questions to be asked. She received her Cloze test answers to help her remember the reasons underlying her choices. This interview took 40 minutes.

- *Questions about L1 Cloze test:*

She chose 'هذا', which means 'this' in number 1, because it was preceded by 'effects', which is masculine. She used the preceding linguistic items and expressed awareness of the role of gender in Arabic. However, she was unaware of the direction in which gender effect applies. The word affects this choice is the following word 'التقريب', which means 'bridging the gap'.

In number 2, she chose 'الفصحى', which means 'standard' because it was followed by 'uneducated people'. She pointed out that they need to learn the standard because they had already learned the vernacular. She used the following linguistic items, and clarified the resulting sequence.

In number 3, she selected 'في', which means 'in' because it was followed by 'standard', and it was more appropriate than the other choices, 'from' and 'on'. She used the following word. She also judged the appropriateness. Then she excluded inappropriate choices.

She selected 'الفاظ', which means 'vocabulary/ words' in number 4, because it was followed by 'civilisations'. She commented that words are shorter than phrases and sentences, and everything in the language consists of words. She used the following word, and imposed personal interpretations. Although this choice was appropriate, its justification was not. This choice can be inferred from the preceding phrase 'useful vocabulary'.

She selected 'المفردات', which means 'vocabulary/ words' in number 5 because it was followed by 'eloquent'. She pointed out that there was no 'eloquent style' or 'eloquent paths'. She used the following word and excluded the other choices on basis of her general knowledge. Her choice was appropriate but its justification was not. This choice can be

167

understood from space 4 and the 'useful vocabulary' which precede this choice.

In number 6, she selected 'بعض', which means 'some' because it was preceded by 'without'. She commented that it was unlikely that 'all' would be used. She added that she did not use 'with some' because it is ungrammatical to use a preposition after 'or'. She used the preceding word, and then she made exclusions. She referred to a grammatical rule, which does not exist. The appropriate choice is 'ببعض', which means 'with some'. It can be inferred from 'بغير', which means 'without' which, in Arabic, consists of a preposition with + other.

She chose 'بتغليب', which means 'to prevail' in number 7, because it was unlikely to be the other two options. She pointed out that at the beginning she used 'to abandon' and 'to add' then she excluded them because all people understand the vernacular and they want it to prevail over the standard (Arabic) in order to be able to understand each other. She resorted to what was read in order to exclude irrelevant choices.

In number 8, she selected 'بالعامية', which means 'vernacular' because it was preceded by 'just using'. She commented that all people understand the vernacular. Although she referred to the preceding word, she mentioned that there was nothing in the text supporting her choice. She attributed her choice to her previous knowledge. This choice can be inferred from what is read, the idea.

She chose 'بما', which means 'what' in number 9 because it was appropriate to the following 'call it popularising the vernacular'. She stated that the other two choices were not appropriate to this context. She used the following linguistic items. She judged the appropriateness and made exclusions on basis of this judgement.

In number 10, she selected 'منهم', which means 'some of them', because it meant 'of people'. She used previous knowledge and the meaning of the text. This choice can be understood of the phrase 'who call' at the beginning of the paragraph and the phrase 'who depends' after the space.

She excluded the inappropriate choices in number 11 'from' and 'in' to avoid repetition because they were already mentioned before the choices. She used 'على', which means 'on'. Her exclusion was based on the surrounding context. This choice can also be based on the preceding phrase 'who depends'

In number 12, she selected 'يستشهد', which means 'exemplify' because an example was following. She used her knowledge of word's function and context.

She pointed out that she chose 'Latin' in number 13 because it was used more than the other two languages, Greek and Chinese. She used her personal judgement. This choice entails previous knowledge of this language and the languages originating from it.

Her previous knowledge guided her choice to 'Romanian' in number 14. She pointed out that Romanian is related to the languages mentioned before.

In number 15, she selected 'يتطور', which means 'development/ evolution' because she knew that most European dialects were developing/ growing. She used her previous knowledge.

She chose 'الغاء', which means 'cancelling / to cancel' in number 16 because it was followed by 'to prevail the vernacular'. 'To prevail' fits with 'cancelling'. She used the following linguistic items. She also used her personal judgement about appropriateness. This choice can be understood from what is presented before, the idea.

In number 18, she selected 'الفصحى', which means 'standard' because it was preceded by 'prevailing over one of the dialects'. She resorted to the preceding linguistic items. The appropriate choice is 'الأخرى', which means 'the other'. It can be inferred from the preceding phrase 'one of the dialects over'.

She selected 'مستخدميها', which means 'its users', in number 19 because it provided clearer meaning than the other two choices. She judged the meaning generated. The appropriate choice is 'الفصحى', which means 'standard'. It can be understood from what is read and from the preceding phrase 'to prevail over the vernacular'.

She selected 'الضخمة', which means 'huge' in number 22 because it was followed by 'big/large'. She used the following word. Neither her choice nor its justification was appropriate. The appropriate choice is 'الخطيرة', which means 'dangerous'. It can be inferred through understanding the attitude of the writer.

In number 23, she pointed out that her selection of 'العلوم', which means 'sciences', was because of the following word 'arts'.

She used the preceding linguistic items 'generations change' in number 24 to select 'اللهجة', which means 'dialect'. She commented that it was impossible to use the other two choices 'civilisations' and 'inventions' because language emerged before them. She made exclusions that were based on her personal interpretations. Although the choice was

169

appropriate, the justification was not. This choice can be inferred through the following phrase 'temporary dialect'.

She used her previous knowledge to answer number 25. She selected 'متفرقة', which means 'scattered'. She pointed out that people have more than one dialect; every nation has its own dialect. Then she restated the resulting sequence; it is scattered.

Her choice in number 28 was 'فمن', which means 'who', because it was followed by 'could''. She commented that 'who' clarifies the meaning more than the other choices. She used the following word and used her personal judgement to make exclusions. This choice entails knowledge of using the relative pronouns in standard Arabic.

In number 29 she selected 'المعيشة', which means 'living', (what people do to earn money) because it was followed by 'daily'. She pointed out that to write or study daily were unlikely. She used the following word then she excluded inappropriate words on basis of personal interpretations.

The following clause 'unify terms that are easily understood by uneducated people' and preceding word 'could' guided her choice to 'استطاع', which means 'could' in number 31. She used the surrounding context. The meaning of the paragraph could help to infer this choice.

She indicated that she used 'متكلمي', which means 'speakers' in number 32 because it suited 'standard' after the space. She commented that they want to nullify the vernacular. She used the following word and tried to impose her personal interpretations. The appropriate word is 'انصار', which means 'supporters'. It can be understood through capturing the message of the writer.

She used the preceding word 'do not nullify' to help her answer to 33. She inserted 'لايودون', which means 'do not want'. She added that it suited 'do not nullify'. The appropriate choice is 'do not deny'. It could be understood through knowledge of coordination and the meaning of the paragraph.

- *Question about L2 Cloze test:*

In number 1 she selected 'newspapers' because it was preceded by 'has more than 800'. She used the preceding linguistic items. The appropriate choice is 'people' because of the following non-adjacent phrase 'need to communicate'.

170

Her choice in number 2 was 'language'. She pointed out that her choice was affected the preceding non-adjacent word 'communicate'. She commented that communication was fulfilled by the language. She added that she knew the meaning of 'language' but did not know the meaning of the other choices, 'media' and 'dialect'.

In her answer, she referred to her use of the following word then she clarified the resulting meaning. She also attributed her choice to her knowledge of the meaning of the chosen word and to her avoidance to the unknown words. This choice can also be inferred from the following non-adjacent phrase 'and this language'.

She selected 'is' in number 3 because it was related to 'English'. She commented that this was because of grammar. She used the preceding word and expressed awareness of the role of grammar and context in reading.

She resorted to randomness when she selected 'local' in number 4. The appropriate answer is 'international'. This choice requires previous knowledge about English language use

In number 5, she selected 'one' because of the preceding phrase 'use English as'. She pointed out that it was one of the languages. She used the preceding linguistic items, and clarified the resulting meaning.

She could not answer number 6. She skipped a difficult item. The appropriate answer is 'and'. This choice entails knowledge of the function and context of coordinators.

She used appropriateness as a criterion to choose in number 7. She selected 'country's'. She also used this criterion to exclude the other two options. The appropriate choice is 'world's'. Selecting this choice entails general knowledge of English use in book publishing.

She pointed out that her choice of 'English' in number 8 was guided by her knowledge about the importance and spread of English and the other bracketed languages.

In number 9, she selected 'books'. She commented that books are more important than 'magazines' because magazines are concerned with daily issues but books are concerned with historical events. The student mentioned that she did not use anything outside the brackets. When she was asked about the meaning of 'varieties', she did not know it.

In her justification, she resorted to her personal interpretations and judgments, which

171

had nothing to do with the meaning presented in the text. She also avoided the unknown word. The appropriate answer is 'varieties', and it can be inferred from the following phrase 'including British English, American English'.

She selected 'South African' in number 10 because of 'Nigerian', as she thought Nigeria was in South Africa. She used a following non-adjacent word that was based on false interpretation and inappropriate previous knowledge. Although the choice was correct, its justification was not appropriate. This choice should have been based on knowledge of the varieties of English.

The presence of 'Britain' in the previous sentence helped her choose 'Britain' in number 11. She used the preceding non-adjacent word. This choice can also be inferred through previous knowledge of the varieties used in the UK, and through the following sentences where the adjective 'British' was used.

In number 12, she selected 'good', i.e. they would speak good English. She resorted to personal interpretations. She also showed lack of knowledge of the terms used to describe language varieties. The appropriate term is 'standard'.

She randomly chose 'used' in number 13. This choice should be inferred using the meaning of the first part of the sentence.

She indicated that her choice of 'however', in number 14, was because of its function as a question word. She added that 'however' was more appropriate than 'moreover' and 'whereas'. In her justification, she showed a lack of knowledge of conjunctions, question words, and the role of punctuation marks. She also made judgments and exclusions. Although this choice was correct, its justification was not. This choice should have been based on knowledge of the connectors and the context in which they function.

She randomly selected 'world' in number 15. It should have been inferred through general knowledge or the forthcoming sentences in the paragraph.

In number 16 she selected 'whose' because of the following phrase 'people use'. She commented that she thought that it was appropriate. Hence, the following linguistic items helped her make her choice and judged the appropriateness. Neither the choice nor the judgment was correct. The right choice is 'that'. It can be understood through knowledge of English relative pronouns.

She attributed her choice of 'history' in number 17 to its relevance to people. She commented that every nation has its own history. She based her answer on her personal guess. The right choice is 'geography', and it can be inferred through the meaning of the forthcoming sentences within the paragraph, or through general knowledge.

She attributed her choice of 'British' in number 18 to the following word 'English'. She added that English is more important and wide spread than the other two languages in the brackets. She used the following word and her previous knowledge. She forgot to answer number 19 and number 20.

In number 21, she selected 'between' because of the preceding word 'differences'. She restated the resulting sequence; it is 'differences between'.

She resorted to her previous knowledge when she chose 'pronunciation' in number 22. She stated that she knew that languages had different sounds and that the same word could be pronounced differently.

She pointed out that she excluded 'vocabulary' and 'grammar' in number 23 because they were no appropriate to the following context.

In number 24, she selected 'so'. She indicated that her choice was because 'so' introduces a cause/ reason. Her justification implies a lack of knowledge about the function and use of coordinators. The appropriate choice is 'but'. This choice entailed knowledge of the meaning of the surrounding context and the function of coordinators.

Her choice in number 25 was 'pronunciation' because most differences can be found in sounds. She commented that she had just mentioned that. She used what she grasped from the text but she did not refer to what followed. The appropriate word is 'vocabulary' and it can be inferred through knowledge of the terms used and through the meaning of the forthcoming sentences.

In number 26, she selected 'understanding'. She stated that every language needed to be understood. She commented that her choice was affected by the previous answers. She resorted to her personal interpretations, which had nothing to do with the text. The appropriate choice is 'misunderstanding'. It can be inferred from the meaning of the preceding and following sentences.

Her understanding of the surrounding context helped her choose 'and' in number 27.

173

She commented that 'and' adds what comes before it to what comes after it. Her interpretation showed misunderstanding of the surrounding context. The appropriate choice is 'whereas' because there is contrast between what comes and what comes after the choices.

She used the preceding linguistic items and imposed her personal interpretations in number 28 to select 'time'. She pointed out that there would be a definite time. She also attributed her choice to the preceding phrase 'Americans dislike'. Then she commented that not all Americans like the present perfect. The appropriate choice is 'tense' because of the preceding phrase 'present perfect'.

Randomness was her means of choosing 'better' in number 29. The appropriate choice is 'less'. It can be inferred from the meaning of the rest of the sentence or through general knowledge about tense use in America.

In number 30, too, she resorted to a random answer. She selected 'other'. The appropriate choice is 'other'. It can be inferred through knowledge of the meaning of the sentence and words that collocate together.

She selected 'would' in number 31 because of the preceding clause 'It has been suggested that everyone'. Neither her choice nor her justification was appropriate. The appropriate choice is 'should'. It entails knowledge of language use.

She judged the appropriateness in number 32 and selected 'can'. She stated that it suited what came before it. Although the choice was appropriate, it was justified incorrectly. This word should have been selected on basis of the following phrase 'learn easily'. She could not find the right words to fill in the gaps for 33-40.

- *Questions related to the strategies used in the textbook:*

When she was asked about her reading habits she pointed out that she tries to summarise and recall what she considers important. She stated that she usually does this in Arabic more than English.

She learned to use an Arabic dictionary in school courses, but she learned to use an English dictionary from her friends and colleagues. When she encounters a difficult word, she tries to use the surrounding context. When she does not have enough time, she may ask others. She uses the dictionary when she has enough time.

She pointed out that she anticipates the topic and content through its title, pictures, or

structures, such as interrogatives. She expressed awareness of the features that may distinguish one text from the other. Moreover, she tries to remember the details that she considers important. Important details for her are helpful to achieve goals. Such details may contain similar circumstances she experienced, or exam material.

When she does not understand a topic, she may re-read it many times if it is Arabic, but if it is English, she may re-read it 2-3 times. If re-reading does not help her, she resorts to asking others for help.

She reads articles quickly then she reads them again in detail. When reading quickly she looks for prominent clues. Hence, she uses skimming as a starting point when reading then she reads in detail in the second stage. She showed knowledge of items that need to be skimmed.

She can decide the type of topic through vocabulary and structure. She stated that in a mathematical article, numbers would be there, but if it is geography, continents' names may be there. She showed awareness of the features that may distinguish one text type from the other.

She is aware of the structure of the written material. She pointed out that the focus of a topic could usually be seen in the beginning and the end. This is applicable to Arabic and English. However, she stated that paragraphs and sentences of the same topic are of the same importance. Attributing the same importance to the elements of the article shows unawareness of the topic sentence and thesis statement. She is also aware of the contribution of grammar to meaning in both languages i.e. standard Arabic and English.

In the interviews, the subjects provided justifications for their choices in the Cloze tests. They also revealed what reading strategies they used when making their choices. When some hypothetical reading situations were mentioned to the interviewees, they revealed some of the reading strategies that they might use in such situations.

Chapter 5 Data Analysis

As mentioned previously, there were two groups of questions in the interview; the first investigated the reasons underlying students' choices in Cloze test, while the second investigated the strategies that constituted the differences between L1 reading textbook and L2 reading textbooks.

5.1 Part One

This section will answer the question of the first group i.e. What reading strategies does a representative sample of first year university students use in an L1 reading comprehension test and in an L2 reading comprehension test?

5.1.1 Good readers

Y1

After applying the codes to the subject's answers, it was noticed that the subject used a variety of strategies while she was answering Arabic Cloze test. Resorting to 'linguistic items' is the dominant strategy in student's responses. It constituted 26.32% of the answers. Then comes 'association' which constituted 15.79%. 'Judging apropriateness', and 'linking items' constituted 10.53% each. 'Moving back and forth', resorting to 'personal interpretation', using what is 'read and understood', 'seeking support', 'skipping' difficult questions, using 'grammar', and 'guessing' each accounted for 5.26% of student's answers. The following pie chart summarises the distribution of these strategies.
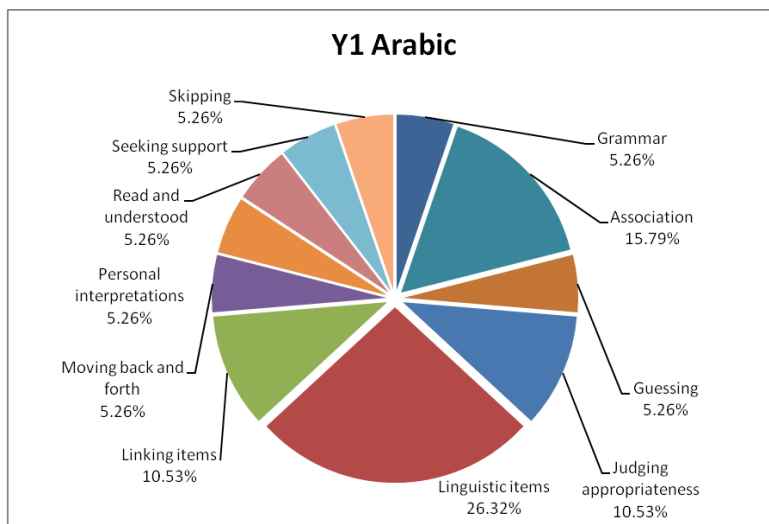
Figure 5.1 Y1 L1 Cloze test

When the codes were applied to the student's answers about her justification of L2 Cloze test choices, the following list of strategies emerged: Using 'linguistic items' was the most dominant reason underlying student's choices, constituting 22.73%. 'Linking items' constituted 18.18%, using what was 'read and understood' and 'excluding irrelevant items' took 13.64%, using 'first language' and association constituted 9.09% each, while 'judging appropriateness', 'guessing' and 'grammar' each accounted for 4.55%. The following pie chart shows the the destribution. However she also showed some unawareness of grammar.

Y1 English

Grammar 4.55%
Excluding 13.64%
Association 9.09%
Guessing 4.55%
Judging appropriateness 4.55%
First language 9.09%
Linguistic items 22.73%
Linking items 18.18%
Read and understood 13.64%
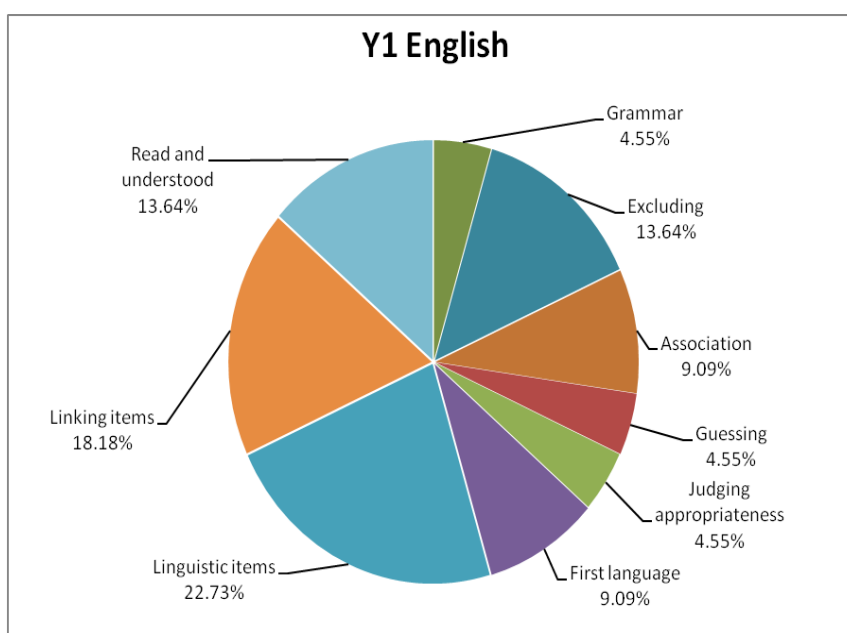
Figure 5.2 Y1 L2 Cloze test

When comparing the strategies used in both languages, it can be seen that some strategies received the same emphasis: using grammar, guessing and using linguistic items. Some strategies emerged only in L1: moving back and forth, resorting to personal interpretations, seeking support and skipping. Some strategies emerged only in L2: excluding and using first language (L1 twice). Association and judging appropriateness were used in L1 more than L2. Finally, linking items and using what is read and understood were used in L2 more than L1. This can be clearly seen in the following chart.
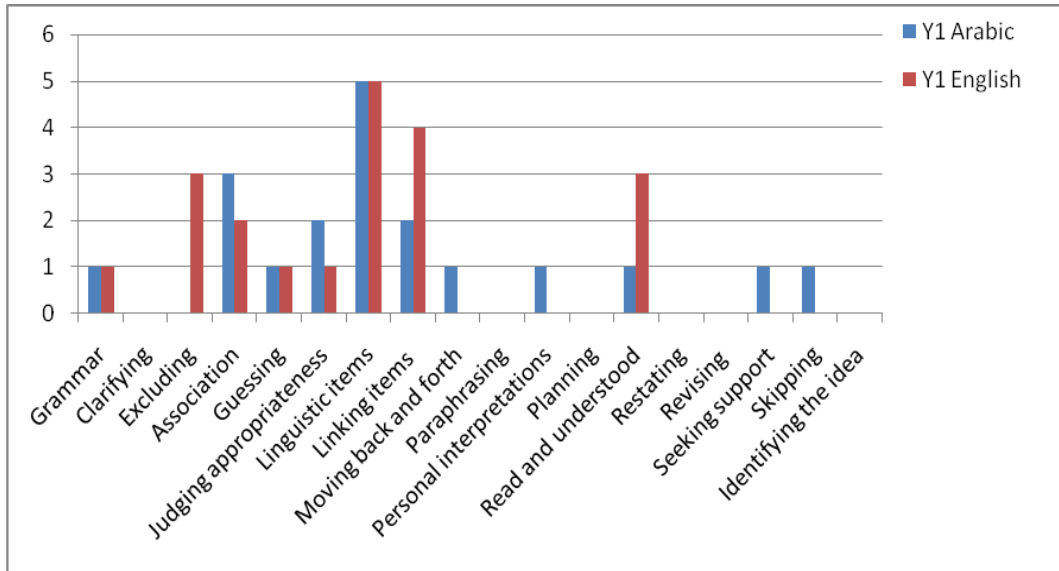
Figure 5.3 Comparison of Y1 strategies

Y2

Using the linguistic items, when justifying Arabic Cloze test choices, was the dominant strategy used by Y2. It constituted 40.91% of the strategies used. Excluding irrelevant items took 18.18%. Half of this percentage, i.e. 9.09% was the share of using association and using grammar. Moving back and forth, paraphrasing, using what is read and understood, guessing, and judging appropriateness each accounted for 4.55%.
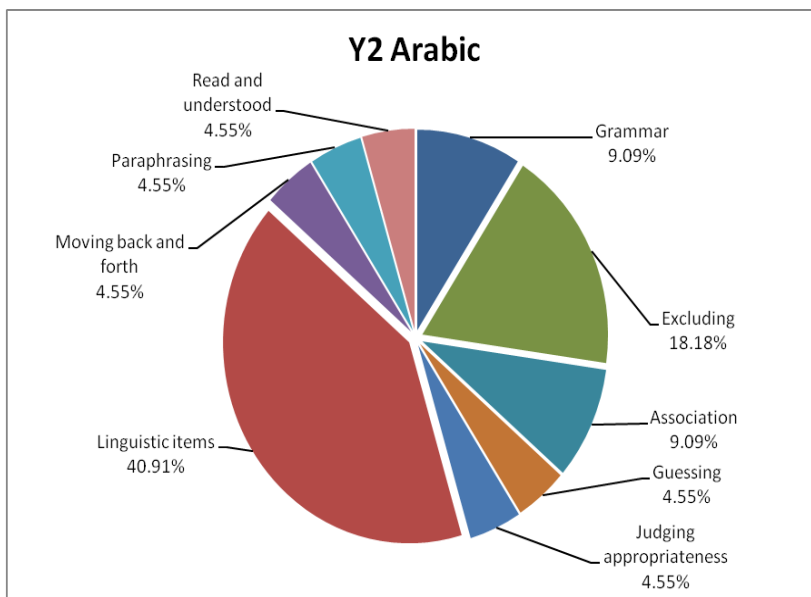

Figure 5.4 Y2 L1 Cloze test

When the codes were applied to the answers to the interview questions of Y2, about the English Cloze test, the following strategies emerged: association was the most frequently

used strategy accounting for 26.32% of the strategies used, in the English Cloze test. 'Linguistic items' constituted 21.05% of the strategies used. Knowledge of grammar took 10.53% of the strategies used. Excluding irrelevant items, guessing, judging appropriateness, linking items, moving back and forth, using what is read and understood, restating, and identifying the idea constituted 5.26% each. The following pie chart demonstrates that.
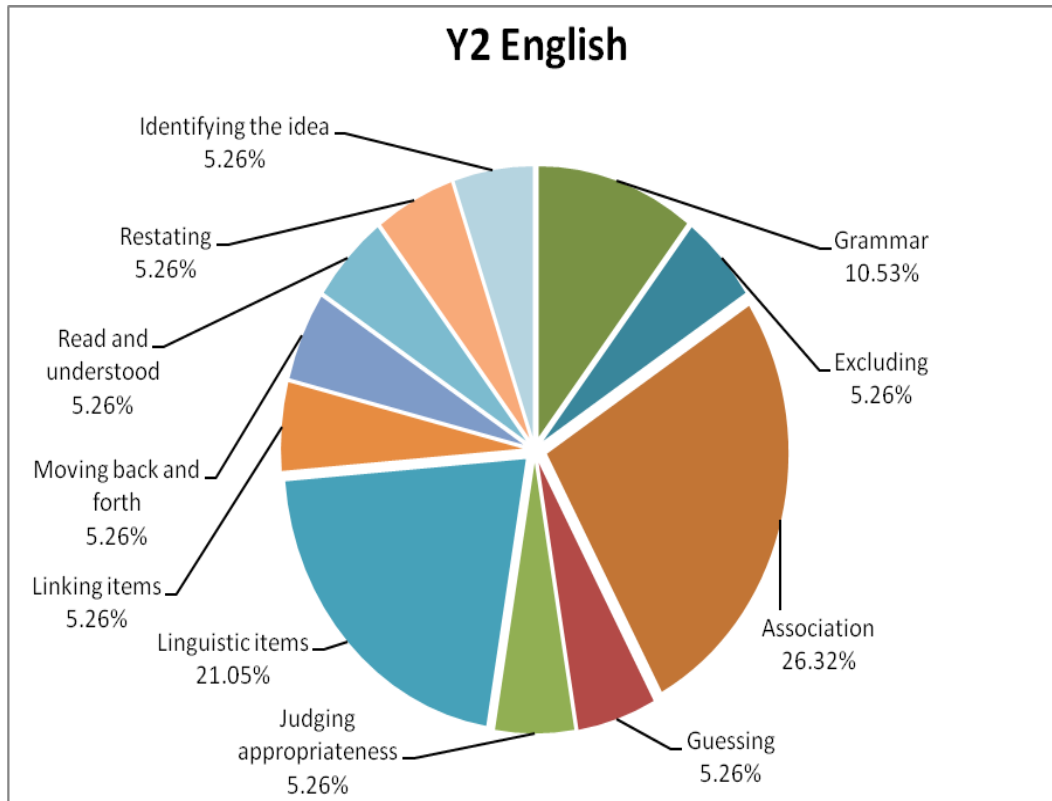

Figure 5.5 Y2 L2 Cloze test

The strategies that emerged in both Cloze tests can be grouped into five groups according to their distribution. Using grammar, guessing, judging appropriateness, moving back and forth, and using what was read and understood were used simliarly in both languages.

Paraphrasing was used only in L1. Excluding and using linguistic items were used in L1 more than in L2. Linking items, restating, and using theme and idea were used only in L2. Finally, association was used more in L2 than in L1. This can be clearly seen in the following chart.
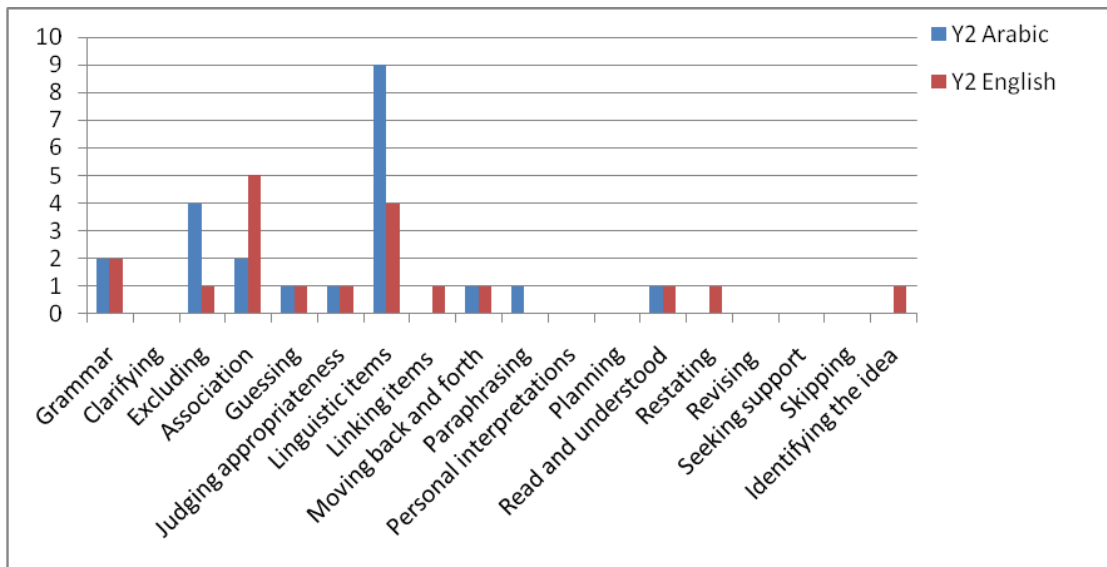
Figure 5.6 Comparison of Y2 strategies

S1

In justifying her answers of the Arabic Cloze test, S1 indicated that she used a variety of strategies. Using linguistic items directed 35.48% of her choices. Paraphrasing constituted 12.90% of her strategy use. Personal interpretations, restating, and association each took 9.68%. Resorting to grammar, excluding irrelevant items, and guessing each accounted for 6.45%. Finally, using what was read and was understood constituted 3.23% of the strategies used.
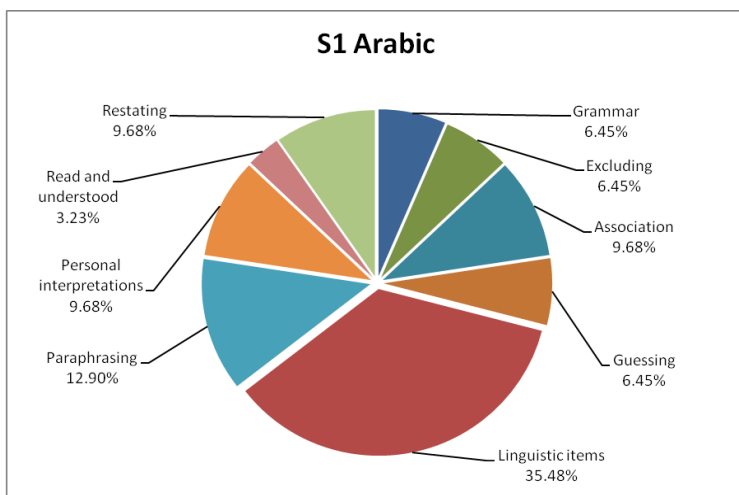

Figure 5.7 S1 L1 Cloze test

S1 used linguistic items to help her make choices in the English Cloze test. This constituted 35.71% of the strategies used. Personal interpretations took 14.29% of the strategies used. Restating the resuting sequence made up 10.71% of the justifications of

180

English Cloze test. Grammar, clarifying, association, and using what was read and understood each accounted for 7.14%. Guessing, linking items, and excluding irrelevant items each constituted 3.57%.
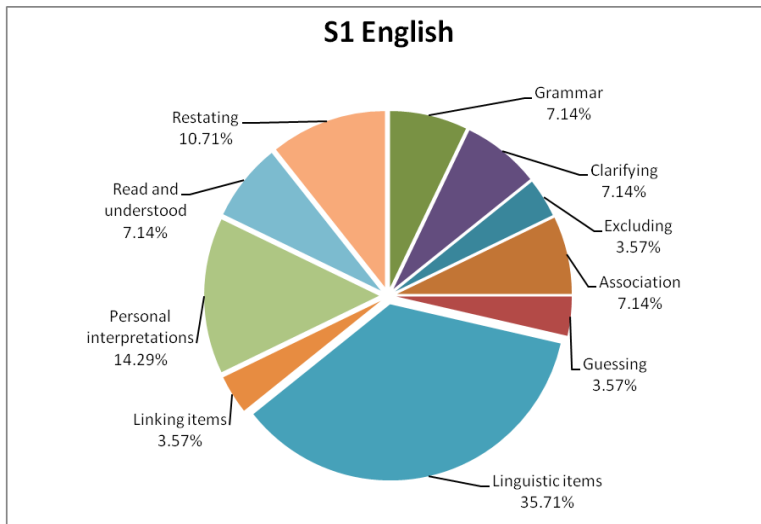

Figure 5.8 S1 L2 Cloze test

S1 used the same number of some strategies in both Arabic Cloze test and English Cloze test: using grammar and restating.

Paraphrasing was used only in the Arabic Cloze test. Association, excluding and using linguistic items were used more in the Arabic Cloze test.

Clarifying and linking items were used only in the L2 Cloze test. Resorting to personal interpretations and using what is read and understood were used more in L2 Cloze test.
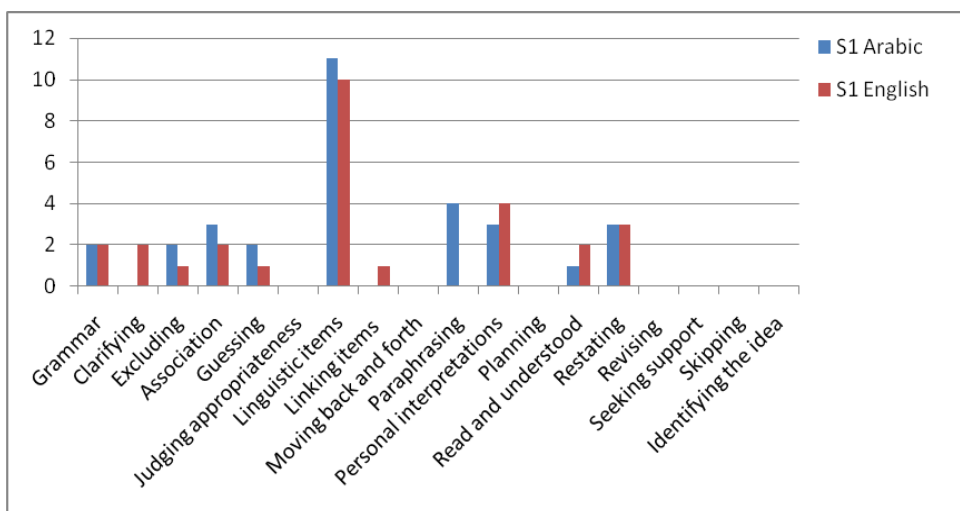

Figure 5.9 Comparison of S1 strategies

S3

In the interview, S3 showed evidence of using a wide range of strategies. Using linguistic items formed 24.39% of the strategies used. Resorting to personal interpretations formed 14.63% of these strategies. Excluding irrelevant items and identifying the idea, each took 9.76%. 7.32 % was the percentage for both guessing and using what was read and understood. Paraphrasing, association, and restating the resulting sequence, each constituted 4.88%. Resorting to feeling, judging appropriateness, linking items, seeking support, and writer's attitude each accounted for 2.44%.
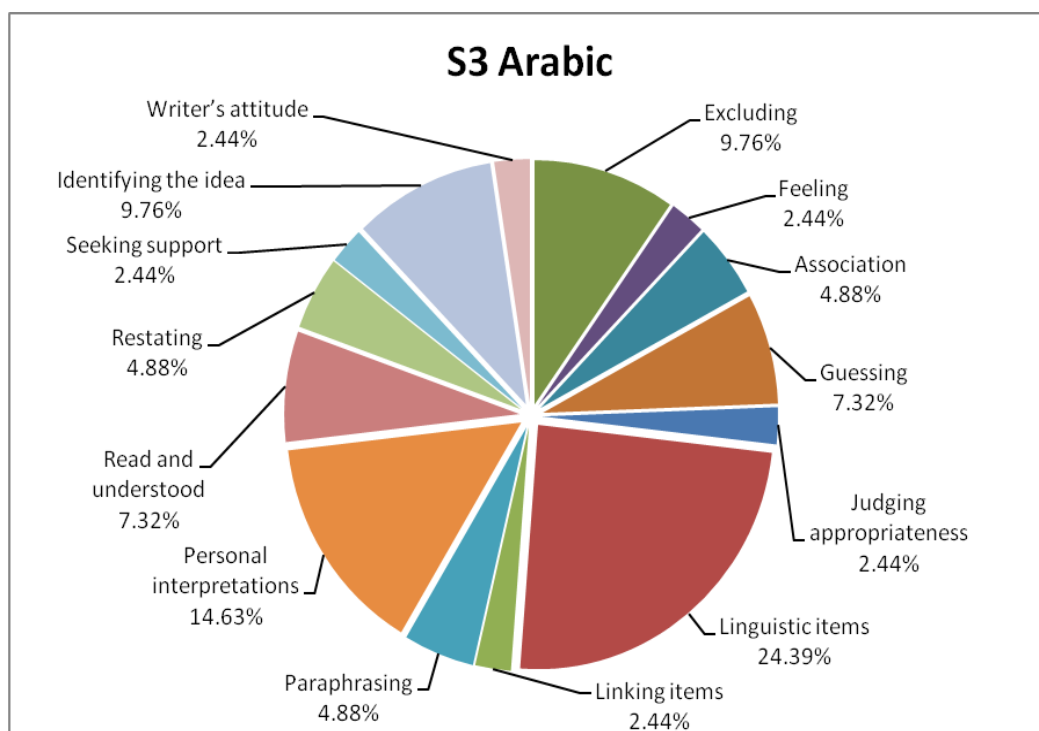

Figure 5.10 S3 L1 Cloze test

A larger range of strategies was shown when the strategies used in the English Cloze test were investigated. As in the previous group of startegies, using liguistic items constituted 31.82% of the strategies used. Grammar, personal interpretations, and using what was read and understood took 6.82% each. Excluding, language use, paraphrasing, and restating constituted 4.55% each. Finally, adjusting choices, clarifying, guessing, judging appropriateness, linking items, planning, seeking support, skipping, and identifying the idea each accounted for 2.27%, of the strategies used.
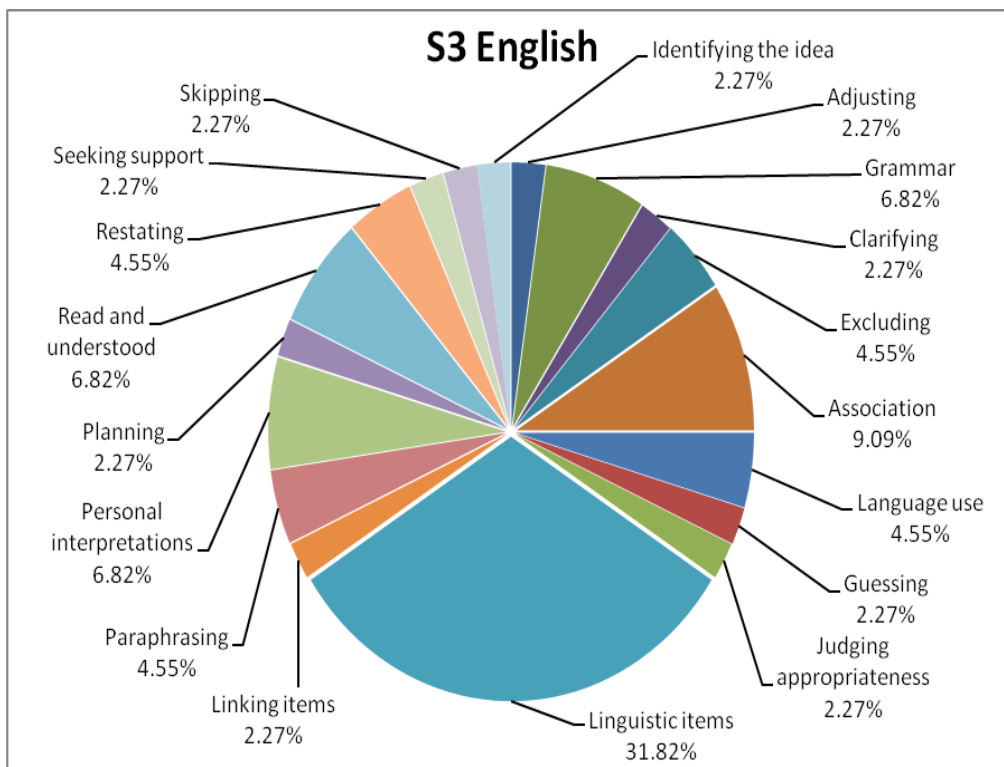
Figure 5.11 S3 L2 Cloze test

S3 showed forgetfulness of plans, a lack of confidence, and unawareness of English grammar.

Comparing the strategies in both Cloze tests: the Arabic version and the English version, some startegies were used similarly: judging appropriateness, linking items, paraphrasing, using what is read and understood, restating, and seeking support. Resorting to feeling and thinking of writer's attitude were used only in L1.

Excluding, guessing, resorting to personal interpretations, and identifying the idea were used more in the L1 Cloze test.

Some strategies were used only in the L2 Cloze test; adjusting choices, using grammar, clarifying, language use, planning and skipping difficult items. Association and using linguistic items were used more in the L2 Cloze test.
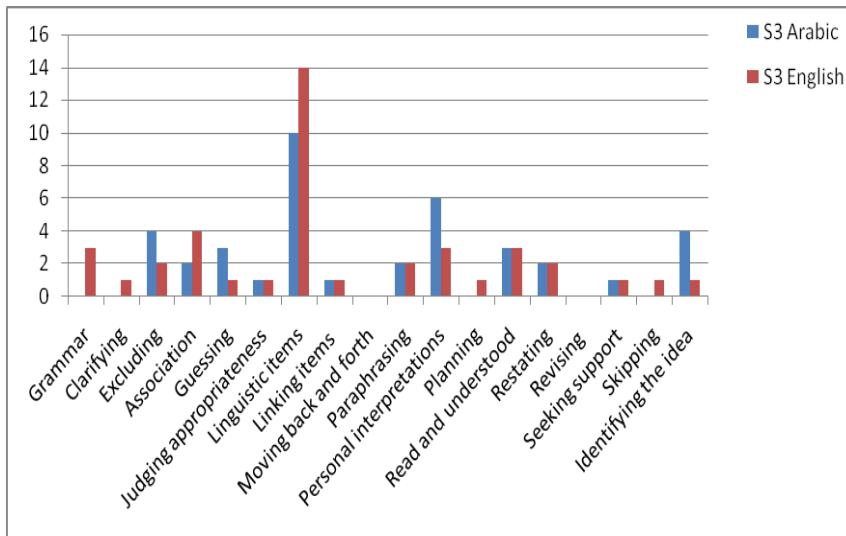
Figure 5.12 Comparison of S3 strategies

Z2

Z2 used a variety of strategies. Using linguistic item constituted 31.58% of strategy use. Using grammar took 15.79%. Excluding irrelevant/ inappropriate items accounted for 13.16% of the strategies used. Association took 10.53%. Judging appropriateness constituted 7.89%. Using what is read and understood and identifying the idea accounted for 5.26% of the strategies used. Linking items, paraphrasing, seeking support, and writer's attitude constituted 2.63% each.
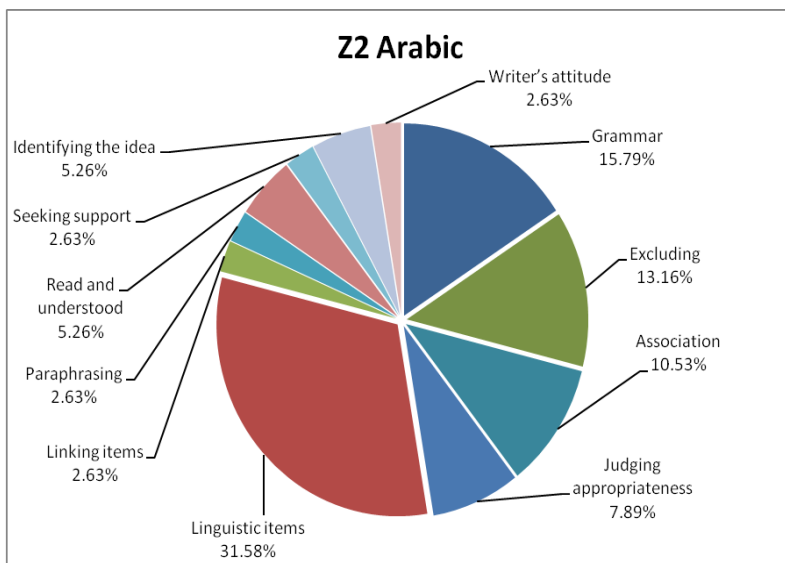

Figure 5.13 Z2 L1 Cloze test

In Arabic Z2 showed an unawareness of grammar.

184

In English Z2 used a wide range of strategies. Linking items was the most used strategy, with 18.64%. Using grammar to guide choices constituted 15.25%. Association accounted for 15%. Using linguistic items and identifying the idea took 11.86% each. Excluding inappropriate/ irrelevant items constituted 8.47%. Restating the resulting sequence took 5.08%. Calling first language made 3.39%. Finally, seeking support, read and understood, planning, judging appropriateness, guessing, and language use each accounted for 1.69%, of the strategies used.
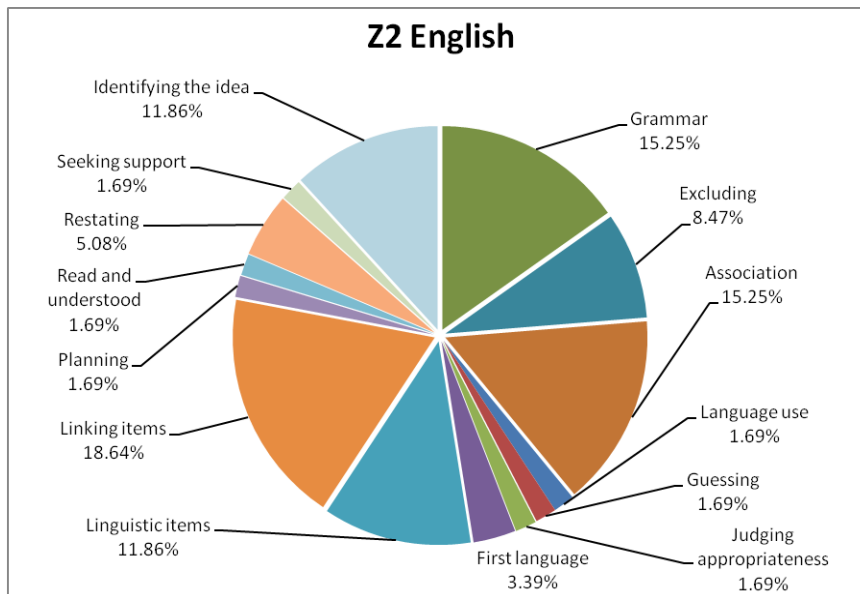
Figure 5.14 Z2 L2 Cloze test

Z2 used two strategies the same way in the Arabic Cloze test and in the English Cloze test: excluding, and seeking support. Using linguistic items and using what is read and understood were used more in the Arabic Cloze test than in the English Cloze test. Paraphrasing and using writer's attitude (1) were used only in the Arabic Cloze test.

Guessing, language use (once), first language (twice), restating the resulting sequence, and planning were used only in the L2 Cloze test. Using grammar, association, linking linguistic items, and identifying the idea were used more in the L2 Cloze test.

The following pie chart illustrates this.
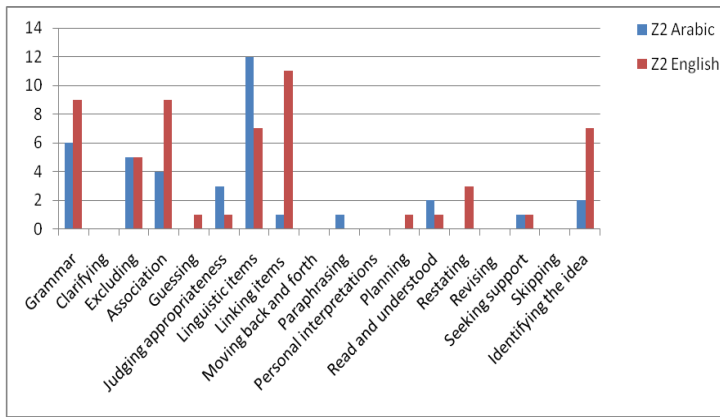
Figure 5.15 Comparison of Z2 strategies

Z54

In the Arabic Cloze test, Z54 used linguistic items. This constituted 23.08% of the strategies used. Association took 19.23%. Guessing and judging appropriateness were each accounted for 11.54%. Excluding inappropriate items, linking items, and paraphrasing constituted 7.69% each. Clarifying, resorting to personal interpretations, and using what is read and understood took 3.85% each.
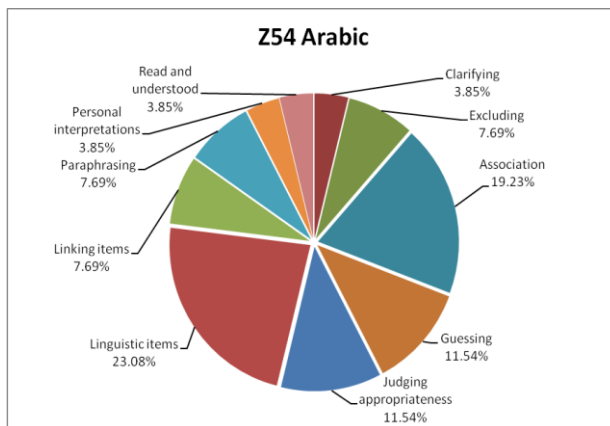
Figure 5.16 Z54 L1 Cloze test

In Arabic, Z54 showed unawareness of grammar.

In the English Cloze test, Z54 used many strategies. Using linguistic items to guide choices made up 35.29% of the strategies used. 17.65% of strategy use was related to using personal interpretations. Guessing and association accounted for 11.76% each. Judging appropriateness, paraphrasing, using what was read and understood, and restating each accounted for 5.88%.
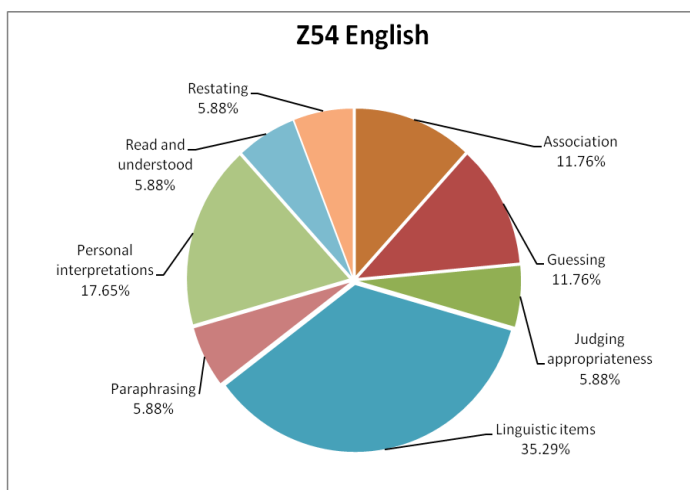
Figure 5.17 Z54 L2 Cloze test

In English, Z54 expressed doubt.

Using linguistic items and using what was read and understood were used in the same way in both Cloze tests. Clarifying, excluding, and linking items were used only in the L1 Cloze test. Association, guessing, judging appropriateness, and paraphrasing were used more in the L1 Cloze test.

Restating the resulting sequence was used only in the L2 Cloze test. Finally, resorting to personal interpretations was used more in the L2 Cloze test.
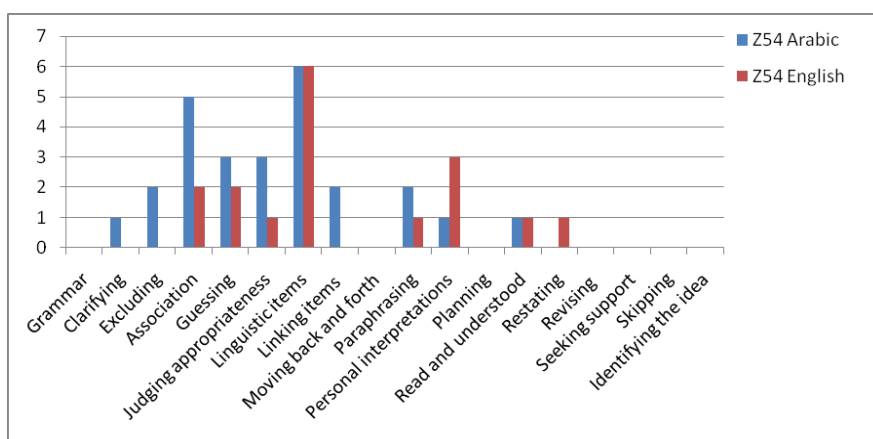
Figure 5.18 Comparison of Z54 strategies

5.1.2 Poor readers

Y30

In the Arabic Cloze test, Y30 used linguistic items. This use constituted 52.1% of strategy use. 17.39 % of strategy use was devoted to judging items appropriateness. Resorting

to personal interpretations and association took 8.70% each. Finally, 4.35% was dedicated to using what was read and understood, excluding, and guessing. The following pie chart demonstrates this.
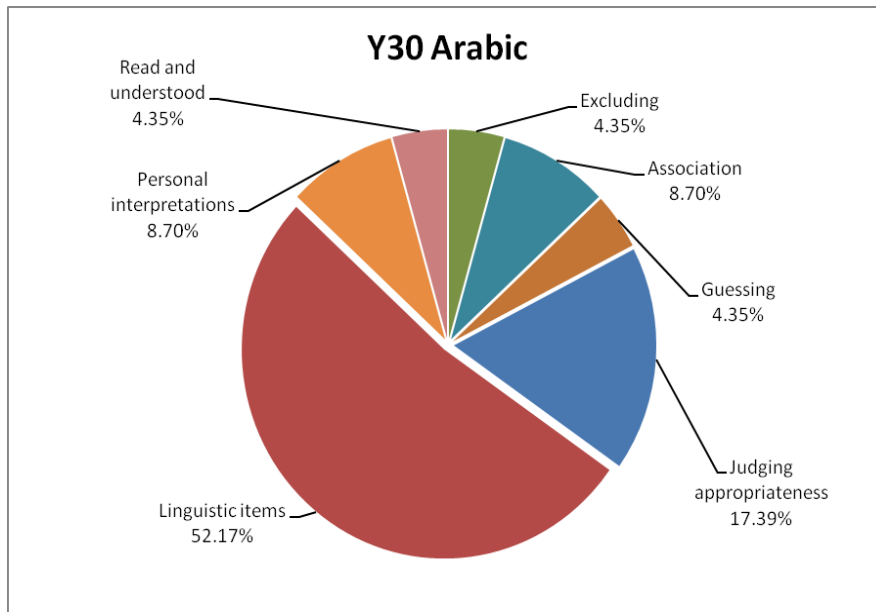
Figure 5.19 Y30 L1 Cloze test

Y30 also showed an unawareness of grammar.

Using linguistic items was dominant in English Cloze test too, with 39.13%. Guessing, judging appropriateness, and resorting to personal interpretations each took 8.70%. Avoiding difficult words, using grammar, clarifying, excluding, association, linking items, seeking help, and identifying the idea each accounted for 4.35%. These percentages can be seen in the following pie chart.
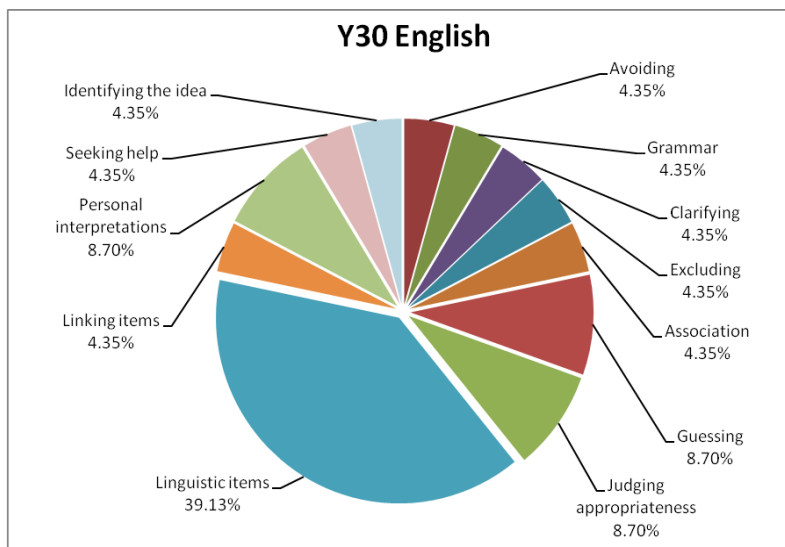
Figure 5.20 Y30 L2 Cloze test

Although the Y30 used grammar, she showed an unawareness of grammar. Moreover, she missed the aim and relied on others. She also showed a certain lack of confidence.

When compared to each other, the strategies used can be grouped into five groups. Some strategies were used the same in both languages: excluding and using personal interpretations. Using what was read and understood was used only in L1. Association, judging appropriateness, and using linguistic items were used in L1 more than in L2. Using grammar, clarifying, linking items, avoiding (1), seeking help (1), and identifying the idea were used only in L2. Finally, guessing was used in L2.

The following chart illustrates this distribution.
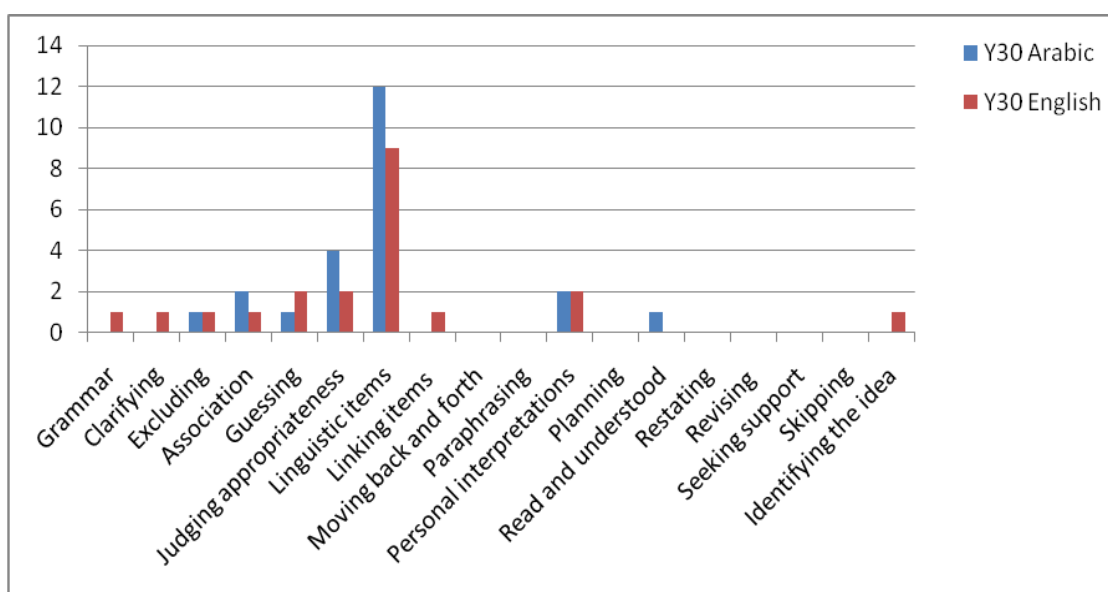
Figure 5.21 Comparison of Y30 strategies

Y37

In answering questions about the Arabic Cloze test, Y37 showed that she used linguistic items to guide her answers. This constituted 40% of strategy use. 13.33 % of strategy use was given to resorting to personal interpretations and association. Restating, using grammar, clarifying, excluding, and guessing each took 6.67%. Unawareness of grammar was shown when grammar was used.
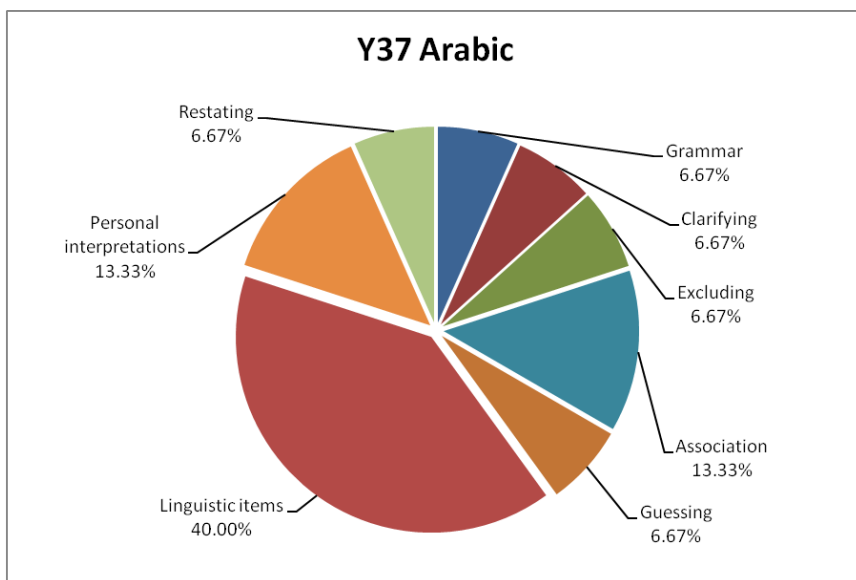
Figure 5.22 Y37 L1 Cloze test

In answering questions about the English Cloze test, personal interpretations was the most used technique, constituting 33.33%. Using linguistic items had the second highest percenage: 26.67%. Using grammar constituted and association took 13.33% each. Avoiding unknown words and revising answers each accounted for 6.67%.
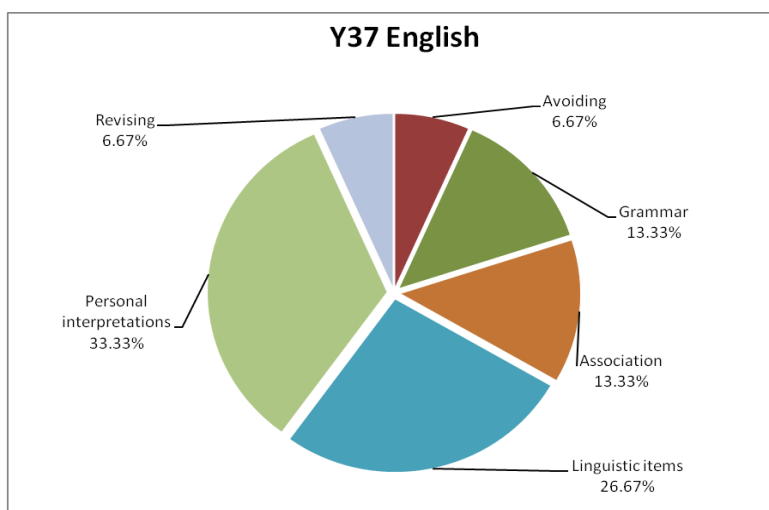
Figure 5.23 Y37 L2 Cloze test

Y37 also showed a lack of vocabulary in the English Cloze test.

Association was used similarly in both languages. Some strategies were used only in the Arabic Cloze test: clarifying, excluding, guessing, and restating. Linguistic Items was used in the Arabic Cloze test more than in the English Cloze test. Avoiding (once) and revising were used only in the L2 Cloze test. Using grammar and resorting to personal interpretations were used more in the L2 Cloze test than in the L1 Cloze test. The following

190

chart clarifies this.

Figure 5.24 Comparison of Y37 strategies

Four subjects were selected for interview purposes: S1, S3, S2 and S8. S1 and S3 were considered good achievers while S2 and S8 were considered poor achievers.

S2

More than half of the strategy use was related to using linguistic items. This accounted for 51.72%. The rest of the strategies used were distributed as follows; excluding irrelevant, resorting to feeling, resorting to personal interpretations, planning, using what was read ad understood, and revising 6.90% each, guessing and restating 3.45% each.
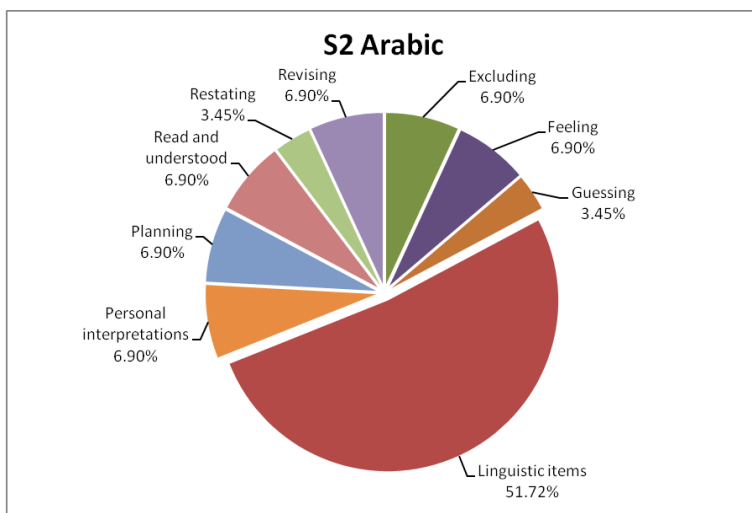
Figure 5.25 S2 L1 Cloze test

Although S2 planned, he omitted to fulfill those plans. Moreover he expressed doubt.

In the English Cloze test, linguistic items use made up 64.71% of strategy use. Personal interpretations constituted 17% of strategy use. Clarifying, excluding irrelevant

items, and guessing took 5.88% each.
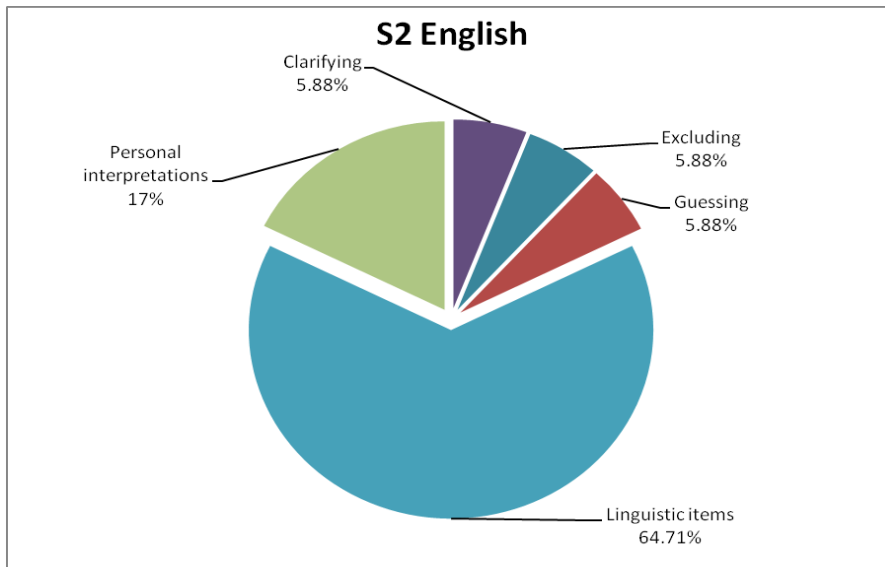
Figure 5.26 S2 L2 Cloze test

He showed an unawareness of English grammar.

Guessing took up the same space in the Arabic Cloze test and in the English Cloze test. Planning, using what is read and understood, resorting to feeling, restating and revising were used only in L1. Excluding and using linguistic items were used more in L1 Cloze test.

Clarifying was used only in the L2 Cloze test. Resorting to personal interpretations was used more in the L2 Cloze test.
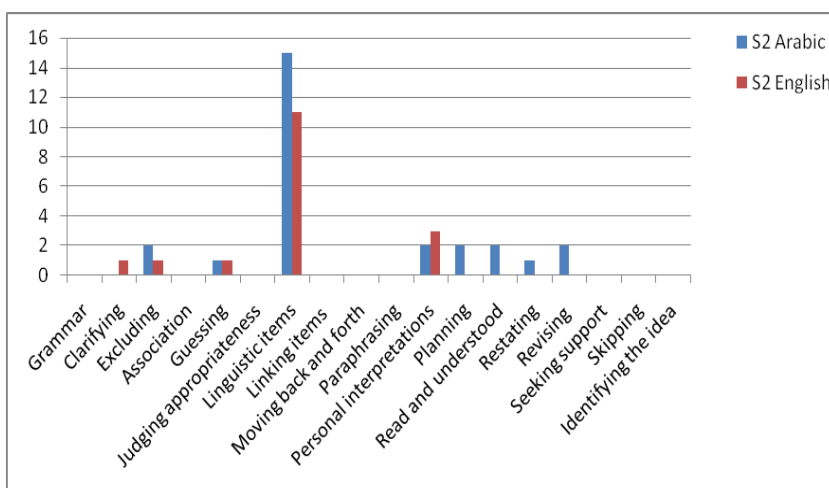
Figure 5.27 Comparison of S2 strategies

S8

S8 resorted to linguistic items in Arabic Cloze test. This use accounted for 50% of strategy use. 12.50% of strategy use was devoted to judging appropriateness. The rest of the

strategies were distributed as follows; excluding, personal interpretations and guessing 8.33% each, and feeling, association and restating 4.17% each.
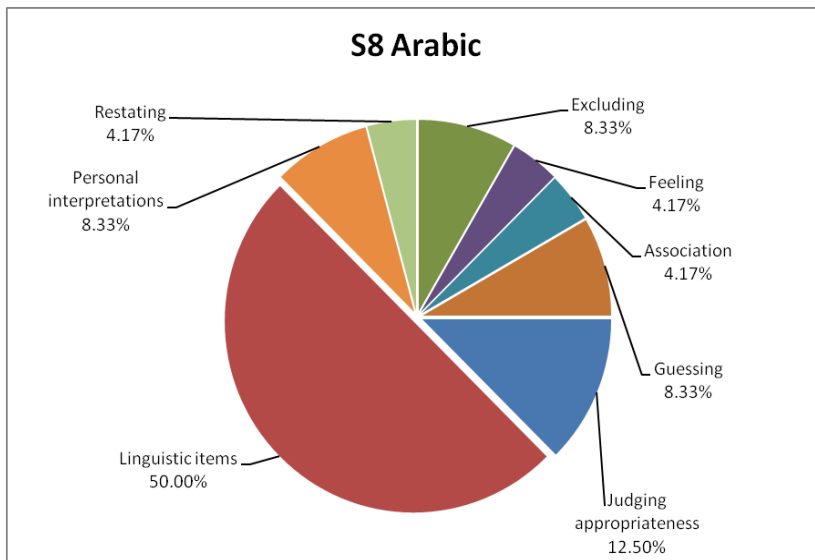
Figure 5.28 S8 L1 Cloze test

In Arabic S8 showed a lack of confidence and unawareness of grammar.

In the English Cloze test, S8 resorted to linguistic items. They formed 52.38% of strategy use. Guessing and personal interpretations constituted 14.29% each. Association made up 9.52%. Finally, clarifying and judging appropriateness formed 4.76% each.
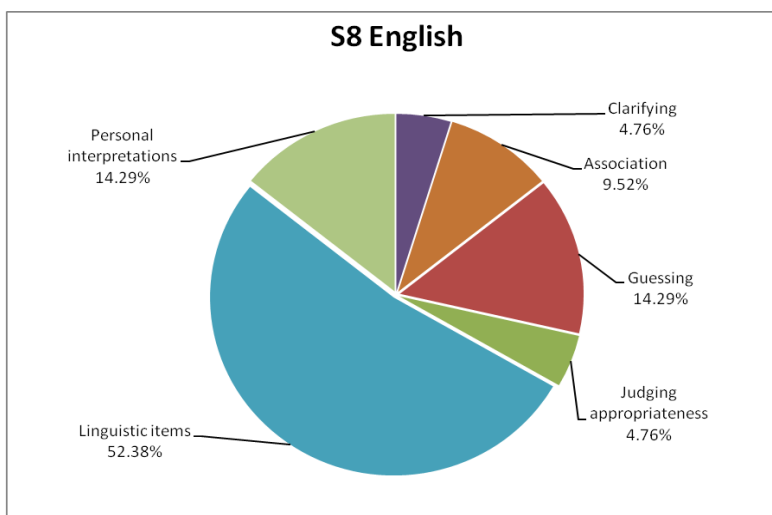
Figure 5.29 S8 L2 Cloze test

In the English Cloze test, he showed a lack of vocabulary and an unawareness of grammar.

Excluding, resorting to feeling and restating were used only in L1. Judging appropriateness and using linguistic items were used more in the L1 Cloze test. Clarifying

was used only in the L2 Cloze test. Association, guessing, and resorting to personal interpretations were used more in the L2 Cloze test.
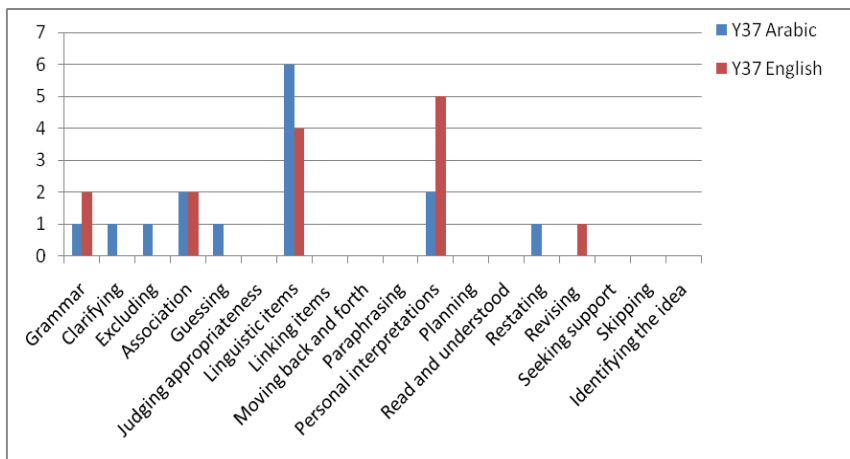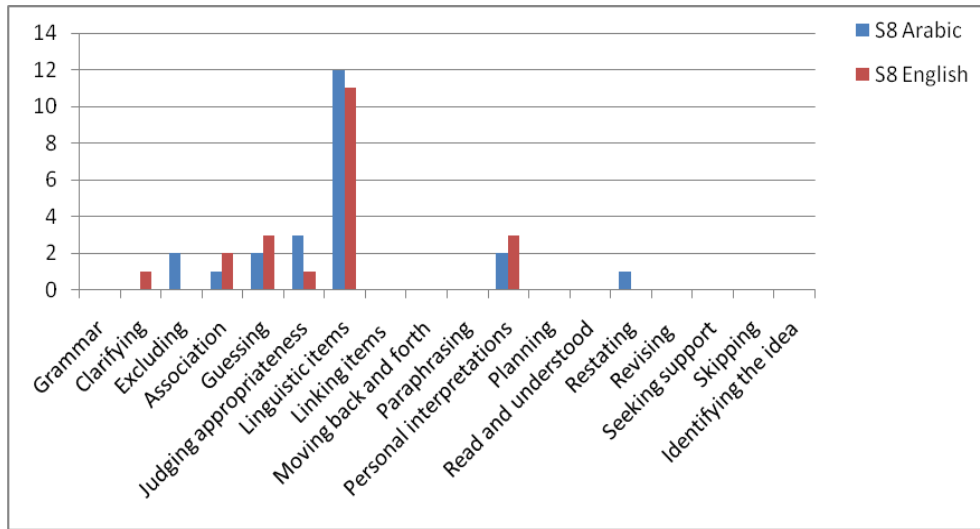

Figure 5.30 Comparison of S8 strategies

Four subjects were selected for interview purposes: Z2, Z54, Z55 and Z56. Z2 and Z54 were considered good achievers while Z55 and Z56 were considered poor achievers.

Z55

In the Arabic Cloze test, Z55 used linguistic items to help her make choices. This constituted 51.11% of the strategies used. Personal interpretations accounted for 26.67% of the strategies used. Skipping difficult items took 11.11%. Guessing took 5%. Finally, grammar, association, and moving back and forth accounted for 2.22% each.

194
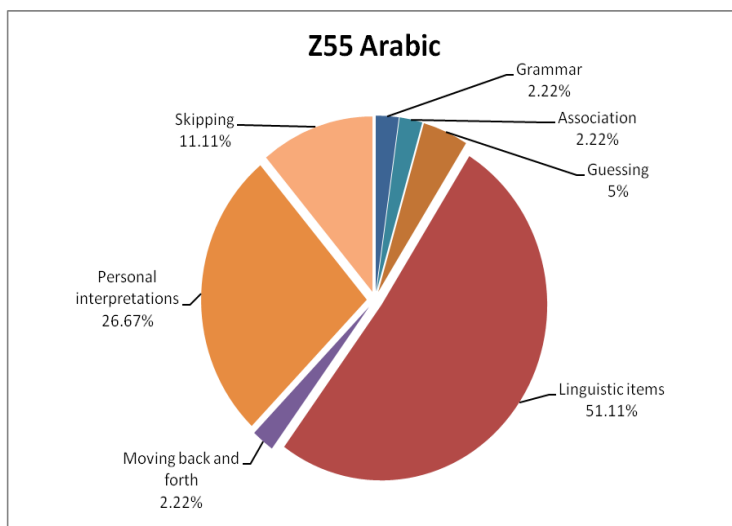
Figure 5.31 Z55 L1 Cloze test

When using linguistic items, she resorted to one direction.

Using linguistic items also dominated her English Cloze test. It occupied 46.15% of her strategy use. Guessing constituted 20%. Personal interpretations constituted 12.82%. Judging appropriateness formed 7.69%. Skipping difficult items was 5.13%, while Association and restating accounted for 2.56% each. Finally, excluding inappropriate/ irrelevant items was 2%.

Z55 English
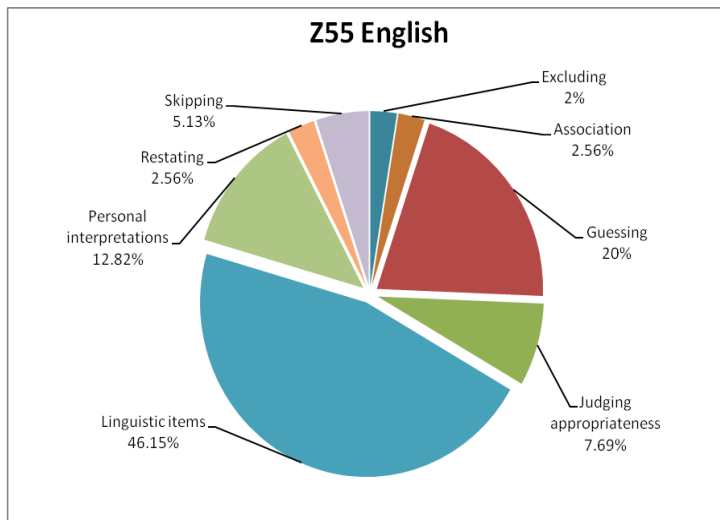
Figure 5.32 Z55 L2 Cloze test

Z55 also showed a lack of vocabulary and unawareness of grammar in the English Cloze test.

Association was the only strategy that received the same attention in both the Arabic Cloze test and in the English Cloze test. Using grammar and moving back and forth were used only in the Arabic Cloze test. Using linguistic items, resorting to personal interpretations, and skipping difficult items were used in the L1 Cloze test more than in the L2 Cloze test.

Excluding irrelevant/inappropriate items, judging appropriateness and restating were used only in the L2 Cloze test. Guessing was used more in the L2 Cloze test than in the L1 Cloze test.
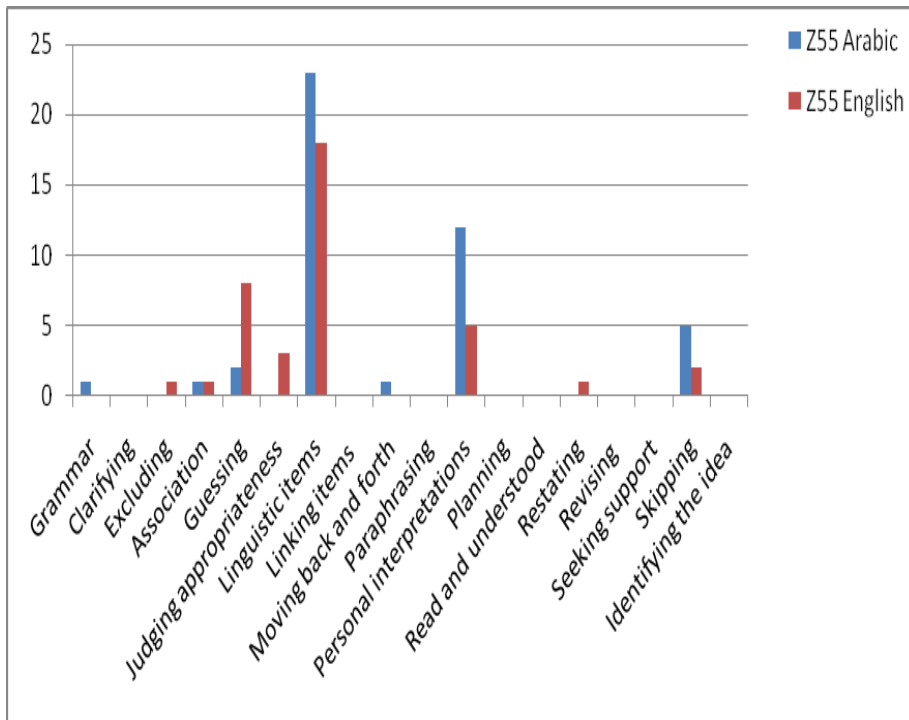
Figure 5.33 Comparison of Z55 strategies

Z56

The dominant technique is using linguistic items. It accounted for 38.30% of the strategies used. Excluding irrelevant items and judging appropriateness took 14.89% each. 12.77% was the share of association. 8.51% was assigned to resorting to personal interpretations. Grammar took 4.26%. Finally, clarifying, restating and revising constituted 2.13% each.
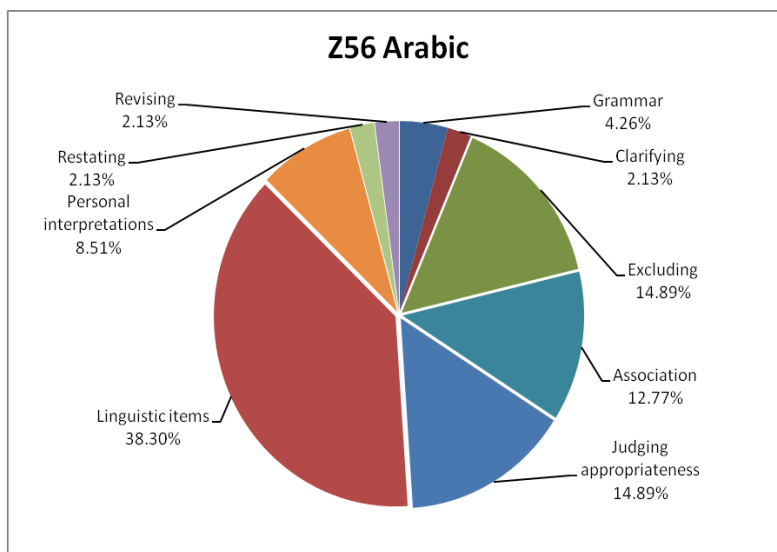
Figure 5.34 Z56 L1 Cloze test

In the English Cloze test, using linguistic items was 32%. Guessing and resorting to personal interpretations took 12% each. 10% was the space located to association. Each of the following strategies took 5%: avoiding difficult words, using grammar, clarifying the resulting sequence, excluding irrelevant items, and judging appropriateness. Using what was read and understood, restating the resulting sequence, and skipping difficult questions constituted 2.5% each.
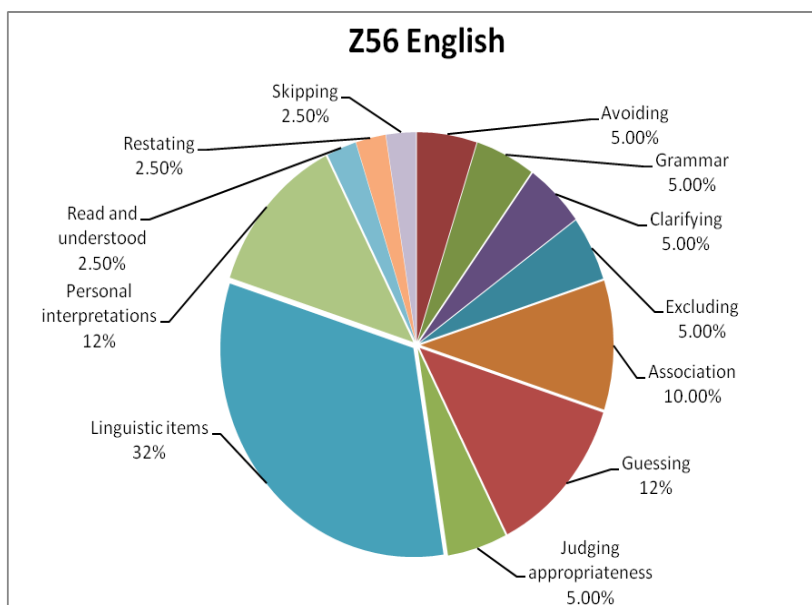
Figure 5.35 Z56 L2 Cloze test

In English, Z56 showed a lack of vocabulary and unawareness of grammar.

It was noticed that grammar and restating the resulting sequence were used in the same way in the L1 Cloze test and in the L2 Cloze test.

Revising was used only in the L1 Cloze test. Excluding items, association, judging appropriateness, and using linguistic items were used in the L1 Cloze test more than in the L2 Cloze test.

Avoiding difficult words (twice), guessing, using what is read and understood and skipping difficult items were used only in the L2 Cloze test. Clarifying and resorting to personal interpretations were used in the L2 Cloze test more than in the L1 Cloze test.

197
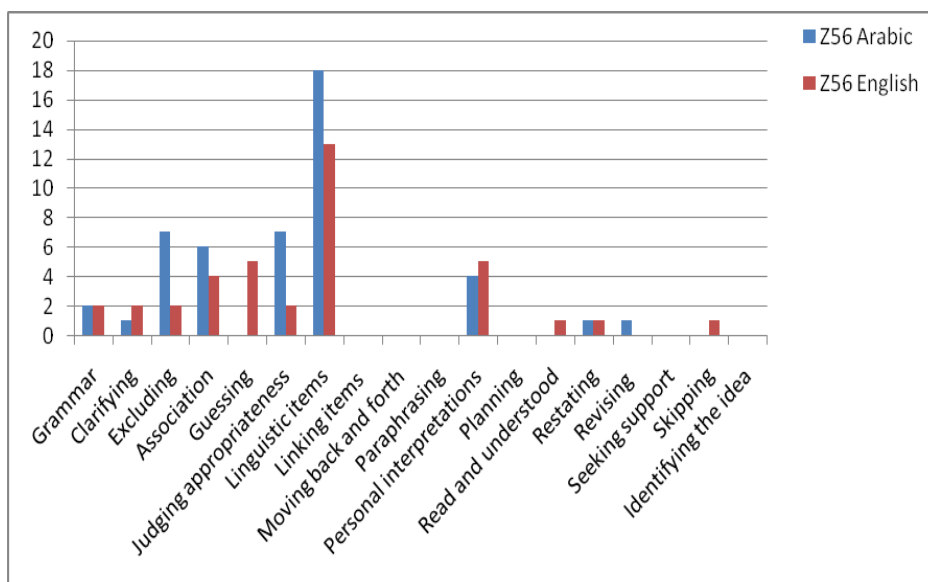
Figure 5.36 Comparison of Z56 strategies

5.1.3 Results

The research question 'What reading strategies does a representative sample of first year university students use in an L1 reading comprehension test and in an L2 reading comprehension test?' can now be answered by classifying the strategies that emerged into two major groups: the strategies that emerged in Arabic and the strategies that emerged in English.

Arabic

Within each group, the strategies can be divided according to readers' achievement. Whereas some strategies were shared by good and poor readers, others were used either only by good readers or only by poor readers.

These strategies were used by both good and poor readers; using grammar, clarifying the resulting sequence, excluding inappropriate/irrelevant items, resorting to feeling, guessing, judging appropriateness, using linguistic items, moving back and forth, resorting to personal interpretations, association, using what was read and understood, restating, skipping difficult items.

Good readers used: linking items, paraphrasing, seeking support, identifying the idea, and thinking of the writer's attitude.

Poor readers used: planning, revising.

English

The same categorisation can be applied to the strategies that emerged in the English Cloze test.

Good readers and poor readers shared the following strategies; using grammar, clarifying, excluding irrelevant/ inappropriate items, guessing, judging appropriateness, using linguistic items, linking items, resorting to personal interpretations, association, using what was read and understood, restating, skipping difficult items, and identifying the idea,

Good readers were characterised by the following strategies: adjusting choices, thinking of language use, resorting to first language, moving back and forth, paraphrasing, planning, and seeking support to choices.

Poor readers used the following strategies: avoiding, revising, and seeking help.

Similar textbook strategies

Some of the strategies that emerged when answering this question were similar to the strategies found in the textbooks. These strategies were grammar (morphology and syntax), clarifying, guessing, linking items, association, restating, and identifying the idea.

5.2 Part Two

This section will answer the questions devoted to the second group, which investigated the strategies constituting the differences between Arabic reading textbooks and English reading textbooks. These questions are:

Do they (the subjects investigated) transfer any reading strategies from L1 to L2 or vice versa? If so,

What L1 reading strategies do they transfer to L2 reading comprehension?

What L2 reading strategies do they transfer to L1 reading comprehension?

The strategies differentiating Arabic reading textbooks and English reading textbooks were as follows:

Strategies found only in L1 reading textbooks were drawing conclusions and using dictionary. In this research, these strategies were defined as:

(L1) Drawing conclusions is to define what morals, knowledge or lessons are learnt

or acquired after reading the text.

(L1) Using Dictionary is to consult a dictionary to find the meaning of a word or phrase.

Strategies found only in L2 reading textbooks: prediction, recalling, re-reading, skimming, text type identification, thesis statement and topic sentence identification, and Language usage. In this study, these strategies were defined as:

(L2) Prediction is to seek what is coming in the text based on what is already known.

(L2) Recalling is to repeat a text or a part of a text without referring to the text.

(L2) Re-reading is to read more than once. This re-reading is either to test or to emphasise comprehension.)

(L2) in **Skimming** the reader tries to find out definite information from the text through surveying general points.

(L2) Defining text type/ structure is to use the linguistic features in the text and the way in which its elements are put together.

(L2) I**dentifying the thesis statement and topic sentence** requires signalling the exact linguistic items that contain the idea.

(L2) Language usage is to define the relationships between a certain word, phrase or syntactic structure and the situation, function and/or meaning intended to convey.

5.2.1 Good readers

Y1

Y1 linked Drawing conclusions to the main idea and indicated that it can be found somewhere in the text or in the title. She did not link drawing conclusion to just one language.

She uses an English dictionary when she cannot find the meanings of difficult words from the context. She did not refer to using an Arabic dictionary. She attributed her knowledge to colleagues and friends.

She predicts the topic in both languages: Arabic and English. She knows what elements can be used to predict the topic.

She tries to recall topics that can be easily remembered. She tried to recall the Cloze test.

She uses skimming as the first step in reading then she re-reads in detail. She learned skimming in Arabic.

She can define the type of the text after she skims it and she knows that her knowledge of text type can help her understand it.

She is aware of topic sentence and thesis statement role and their usual position: at the beginnings of paragraphs and essays.

She thinks of grammar when she reads and she knows that it affects meaning. She provided an example in Arabic.

Y2

She can draw conclusions and understand the message of the writer.

To achieve this, she uses skimming. She can draw conclusion when she understands the message of the writer.

Skimming is her first step in reading and then comes reading in detail.

She uses an English dictionary when she cannot infer the meaning of difficult words. She has a two-step plan to deal with difficult words: using the context, then consulting the dictionary.

She anticipates the topic through the text's title, pictures, or graphics.

She can recall the topics she understands. Recalling is linked to understanding. This can happen in exams. She considers this exam situation as a limited goal situation.

She re-reads only when preparing for exams otherwise she does not re-read.

She can distinguish the kinds of texts when she read them carefully.

She is aware of the topic sentence and thesis statement and their importance.

She recognises the relationship between grammar and meaning.

S1

She draws conclusions from interesting topics.

She uses the context to infer difficult words and uses dictionary as a secondary resource. She extends her experience about Arabic dictionary, such as using the alphabetical sequence to find words, to English dictionaries.

Exams are the determining factor for her to use recalling.

She uses re-reading to achieve understanding. She also re-reads interesting topics.

She can predict the topic through its content and pictures.

In English, skimming is her first step in reading and reading in detail is the second. In Arabic, on the other hand, reading in detail is the only step.

She is aware of text types and some of the features that can be helpful to determine them, such as words and pictures.

She is aware of the place and role of the topic sentence i.e. it provides a general idea about the topic. She is also aware of thesis statement and its content. She is aware of the structure of a text.

She is aware of the relationship between grammar and meaning.

S3

When she reads an article, she tries to understand it. This usually happens in important topics that she may use in everyday life or for exams.

In Arabic and English, she memorizes parts of these important topics.

In Arabic, she does not use the dictionary. She uses the context to find out the meaning of difficult words. In English, she usually avoids using the dictionary because it gives many meanings and she needs the context to determine the most appropriate one. That is why she mostly resorts to the context.

She tries to anticipate the topic through its title and it pictures.

She tries to recall what she reads.

In Arabic, she re-reads it once or twice when she does not understand a text. In English, she re-reads more (to the extent she understands).

Sometimes she skims the text first to find out about the main points. She is aware of the items that are targeted when skimming. She uses skimming in both languages: Arabic and

English.

She can decide the type of the text through its terms and style. She is aware of the criteria that distinguish one text type from the other.

She is aware of the place and function of topic sentence, thesis statement. She is also aware of common structure of the written material.

She is aware of the relationship between grammar and meaning, particularly in English.

Z2

She tries to understand the theme of the text in order to draw conclusion.

She uses the dictionary to find difficult words when she cannot infer them through the surrounding words or any clues in the text. She learned to use an English dictionary from other people.

She anticipates the topic of a text through the use of pictures, keywords, and title.

She recalls what is read when she needs to such as in exams.

She re-reads and translates difficult words to achieve understanding. Whereas translating is applicable to English, re-reading is applicable to both languages although she never has difficulty in Arabic.

She does not skim, she reads carefully and in details from the beginning.

She can distinguish different types of texts through their introductions, the words used and the style used in both languages, Arabic and English.

She showed knowledge of the place and function of topic sentence and thesis statement, and of the structure of written material.

She indicated that sentences within the paragraph are of the same importance (she student appeared tired by this point).

She is aware of the relationship between grammar and meaning in both languages, and how grammar can facilitate grasping the meaning.

Z54

He tries to recall and understand interesting texts that contain useful information

whether they are for exams or not.

He either asks others or uses the dictionary when he encounters a difficult word. He tries to anticipate the content of a text through titles and pictures. It is easier for him to anticipate familiar topics.

In English, he reads twice. In the first reading, he tries to find the meaning of difficult words in the dictionary, whereas in the second he reads to understand the text. When reading Arabic, reading once is enough.

When reading, he skims the material and then he reads it in detail.

He can distinguish different text types, and knows the features that may distinguish one text from another, such as the vocabulary used and the structure of the text.

He is not aware of the structure of the written material where place plays an important role. In addition, he is unaware of the place and role of thesis statement and topic sentence.

He is aware of the relationship between grammar and meaning. He thinks of this relationship whenever he uses the language.

5.2.2 Poor readers

Y30

She linked drawing conclusions to understanding the text. Understanding is achieved after reading the whole text.

She is not aware of the place or role of topic sentence and thesis statement.

She skims written material just to anticipate its topic. When reading, she focuses on details from the beginning to achieve understanding.

She can identify the type of text and knows the appropriate elements help her do that.

She resorts to re-reading when she does not understand.

She resorts either to a dictionary or to a computer when she does not know a word. Her colleagues showed her how to use an English dictionary.

She tries to recall and can remember some of the topics that she reads carefully. However, she cannot recall the entire text.

She is not aware of the contribution of grammar to meaning either in Arabic or in English.

Y37

She can grasp the main idea and can draw conclusions. She applied this ability to the Arabic Cloze test and the English Cloze test.

In situations other than exams, she uses the dictionary. Her sister (an Arabic teacher) helped her to use an English dictionary.

She cannot anticipate the content appropriately. She did not mention any of the cues that may help anticipation.

She has the ability to recall what she reads carefully, and inability to recall details. She resorts to re-reading to help her understand, i.e. to achieve comprehension.

She does not skim but she reads in detail from the beginning.

She is aware of text types and their difference. She knows that texts can be of different types because of their language and pictures used.

She is aware of neither the role nor the place of topic sentence and thesis statement.

She is unaware of the relationship between grammar and meaning.

S2

He links drawing conclusions to what he considers important. He summarises texts that he considers important.

He usually resorts to asking others to find the meaning of difficult words. He uses the dictionary as a second option.

He anticipates the topic through its sentences and phrases. He is unaware of other features that may help predict the content of the text.

He re-reads up to three times, when he does not understand a text, he abandons it.

He skims articles that he considers unimportant, but he reads the important ones in detail from the beginning.

He can differentiate between text types through their words, sentences, and structures.

He is unaware of the role and place of topic sentence and thesis statement.

He is unaware of the relationship between grammar and meaning.

S8

This subject linked drawing conclusion to the main idea. In Arabic, he usually tries to grasp the main idea from the text but, in English, he rarely does this.

He uses an English dictionary to find difficult words.

Although he knows the items that help him make predictions such as sentences and pictures, he does not anticipate the topic.

He tries to recall what is read in L1 and L2.

He uses re-reading to achieve understanding. He re-reads in English rather than Arabic because Arabic is easier. He also re-reads topics that attract him.

He skims to find out whether the material is interesting or not. If it attracts him, he will read it in detail.

He can distinguish text types through vocabulary and sentences, and the way paragraphs are organised.

He is unaware of topic sentence and thesis statement, and the structure of the written material.

He is aware of the relationship between grammar and meaning.

Z55

She links drawing conclusions to understanding. She resorts to others to help her understand. This is applicable to both languages (Arabic and English).

She recalls what is read but her recalling diminishes over time; the more time passes, the less successful is her recall.

She uses a dictionary to translate unknown English words but she asks others about difficult words in Arabic.

She can anticipate the content of an article that is about familiar topics, but she is unaware of the clues that can be used in prediction.

In Arabic and English, she re-reads many times to achieve understanding.

She reads in detail from the beginning. She does not skim.

She is aware of text types and the features that differentiate one text from another: words and pictures.

She showed unawareness of the function and place of topic sentence and thesis statement, and the structure of written material.

She showed awareness of the relationship between grammar and meaning in English and less awareness in Arabic.

Z56

Drawing conclusion was linked to summarising. She summarises and recalls what she considers important: relevant to experience or to exam material. She usually does this in Arabic more than English.

She learned to use an English dictionary from her friends and colleagues. She uses an English dictionary when she has time, otherwise she may ask others. She also uses the surrounding context to infer difficult words.

She anticipates the topic and content through the title, pictures, or structures: as in interrogatives.

She may re-read many times when she does not understand a topic. In Arabic, she can re-read many times before becoming frustrated, but in English, she becomes frustrated after a few attempts and then she resorts to others for help.

She skims the articles looking for clues then she reads in details in the second stage. She showed knowledge of items that need to be skimmed.

She can decide the type of the topic through its vocabulary and structure.

She is aware of the structure of the written material. However, she showed unawareness of the usual place of topic sentence and thesis statement.

She is aware of the relationship of grammar and meaning in both languages i.e. Arabic and English.

5.2.3 Results

It can be seen that all subjects shared the following strategies: drawing conclusions

from Arabic texts, using dictionary and re-reading in English, and recalling and identifying text type in both languages.

Other than the strategies shared with poor readers, good readers in the three universities shared the following strategies: drawing conclusion in English, predicting the topic, and using the relationship between grammar and meaning in both languages.

Poor readers share a lack of awareness of the place and role of topic sentence and thesis statement.

5.3 Transferability

Many of the strategies presented in reading textbooks were used in the Cloze tests. Answers to the first group of questions in the interview revealed that good readers and poor readers used the following strategies, in both languages: grammar (morphology and syntax), clarifying, guessing, association, and restating. In addition, both good readers and poor readers linked items and identified the idea in the English Cloze test. This result reveals that there is no direct relationship between strategy transfer or strategy type, and reader's achievement in a reading test. This similarity between good readers and poor readers contradicts with the 'Short circuit hypothesis' proposed by Clarke (1980), in which 'limited control over language 'short circuits' the good reader's system, causing him/ her to revert to poor reader strategies when confronted with a difficult or confusing task in the second language'.

However, this similarity between good readers and poor readers agree to some extent with Olshavsky (1976/1977) when it was noticed that both readers used the same strategies and the only difference was the frequency of strategy use.

Although both kinds of readers used, in many instances, the same strategies, the Cloze test results show that good readers' strategy use was more efficient. This observation coincides with Hosenfeld (1977) and Kavale and Schreiner (1979), who noticed that good readers were strategic and used strategies more efficiently.

None of the strategies that constituted the difference between L1 reading textbooks and L2 reading textbooks was shown when answering questions for either Cloze test. The second group of interview questions, which asked direct questions about these strategies in hypothetical situations, revealed that poor readers and good readers used a dictionary in English reading. This strategy was introduced only in Arabic reading textbooks. However,

using a dictionary seems to be an essential technique in a foreign language. On the other hand recalling and identifying text type, which were introduced in English reading textbooks, were exhibited by good readers and poor readers in Arabic reading. Again, this result confirms that there is no direct relationship between strategy transfer and reader's achievement in a reading test, which disagrees with Clarke's (1980) finding.

Good readers mentioned that they drew conclusions, predicted the topic, and used the relationship between grammar and meaning in both languages. Although they had learned to draw conclusions in Arabic reading textbooks, they used this in English too. On the other hand, although they learned prediction and use of the relationship between grammar and meaning in English reading textbooks, they used them in Arabic too. Poor readers did not share any strategies; on the contrary, the only thing they shared was unawareness of the place and role of topic sentence and thesis statement.

It can be concluded that strategies were transferred from one language to the other. This transferability was not affected by how much the readers achieved in the Cloze test. It is worth mentioning here that results showed that it was not a matter of strategy use. On the contrary, it was a matter of when, how and what strategy was being used.

5.4 Summary of Findings

Previous studies have pointed out that L1 reading processes transfer to FL (Devine et al., 1987) and that readers of sufficient L2 knowledge transfer L1 reading strategy more than readers of insufficient L2 knowledge (Kong, 2006).

The reading strategies found in the Arabic reading textbooks were contrasted against the reading strategies found in English reading textbooks to discover the difference between these two sets of textbooks. Most of the strategies presented in the Arabic reading textbooks and the English reading textbooks were similar. However, Drawing Conclusions and Using Dictionary were introduced only in first language reading textbooks; Prediction, Recalling, Re-reading, Skimming, Text Type Identification, Thesis Statement, Topic Sentence, and Language usage were introduced only in English reading textbooks. These strategies, which constituted differences, together with the Cloze tests, guided the interviews which were conducted, later with first year university students who had just joined the university.

After analysing the textbooks, two Cloze tests (an Arabic Cloze test and an English Cloze test) were administered to first year university students of three different colleges.

According to the subjects' achievement in Cloze test, twelve students from the Cloze test participants were interviewed to find out what strategies they used when doing each of the Cloze tests, and about their reading habits. Six of these students were considered good achievers and the other six were considered poor achievers.

Interview questions about the Cloze tests revealed that good readers and poor readers shared the following strategies in both Cloze tests (Arabic and English) using grammar, clarifying, excluding irrelevant/inappropriate items, guessing, judging appropriateness, using linguistic items, resorting to personal interpretations, association, using what was read and understood, restating, and skipping difficult items. They also shared identifying the idea, and linking items in the English Cloze test, and shared resorting to feeling, and moving back and forth in the Arabic Cloze test.

It was also revealed that good readers shared the following strategies in both Cloze tests (Arabic and English): paraphrasing and seeking support to choices. They also shared Linking items, identifying the idea, and thinking of the writer's attitude in the Arabic Cloze test. In the English Cloze test, they shared adjusting choices, thinking of language use, resorting to first language, moving back and forth, and planning.

Finally, poor readers shared 'revising' in both Cloze tests, 'planning' in the Arabic Cloze test, and avoiding difficult items and seeking help in the English Cloze test.

Some of the strategies which the subjects used in the Cloze tests were presented in reading textbooks, i.e. grammar (morphology and syntax), clarifying, guessing, linking items, association, restating, and identifying the idea. None of these strategies constituted the differences used in either of the Cloze tests.

However, some of these strategies were not prescribed either in Basic Education reading textbooks or in Intermediate Education reading textbooks: adjusting choices, avoiding, excluding inappropriate/irrelevant items, judging appropriateness, linking items, moving back and forth, paraphrasing, planning, resorting to feeling, resorting to first language, resorting to personal interpretations, revising, seeking help, seeking support, skipping difficult items, thinking of language use, thinking of writer's attitude, using linguistic items, and using what was read and understood. Using strategies other than those presented in the textbooks implies the presence of other sources that may provide readers with other strategies; for instance, other textbooks, courses, magazines, newspapers, etc.

On the other hand, when the interviewees were asked questions about certain hypothetical reading situations, which were based on the strategies that constituted the difference between Arabic reading textbooks and English reading textbooks, they showed some of these strategies. Although using a dictionary was presented only in first language reading textbooks, it was also used in English. All subjects transferred this technique and its practices into English reading. Moreover, all subjects used recalling and identifying text type in Arabic reading although they were introduced only in English reading textbooks. The similarity among readers in using these strategies contradicts with the 'short circuit hypothesis' proposed by Clarke (1980, in Kong, 2006)) in which 'limited control over language 'short circuits' the good reader's system, causing him/her to revert to poor reader strategies when confronted with a difficult or confusing task in the second language'. Poor readers shared unawareness of the role or place of topic sentence and thesis statement.

Although drawing conclusions was introduced only in Arabic reading textbooks, good readers used it in English too. In contrast, predicting the topic and using the relationship between grammar and meaning were introduced in English reading textbooks, but good readers used them in Arabic reading. The transfer of these strategies by one category of readers can imply that threshold (which suggests that a certain level of the target language needs to be maintained by the learner in order to be able to read and use what has been learned in that language in other situations) plays a role in transferability. Transferring a strategy from the foreign language (English) to the first language (Arabic) reveals that transferability can be bi-directional rather than being mono-directional.

This contradiction may imply that not only threshold is an effective factor in strategy transfer but also the kind of strategy has a role to play. Whereas using dictionary, which was transferred to L2 is local, i.e. usually relevant to one word, drawing conclusions, which was transferred to L2 too, entails the reader to go further than word and sentence boundaries. In addition, recalling and identifying text type, which were transferred to L1, are usually local in that they do not require going further than the boundaries of the sentence. On the other hand, predicting the topic and linking grammar to meaning, which were transferred to L1 too, usually entail a holistic perspective toward the reading material. Such a relationship between strategy type and transferability can be investigated more through conducting further studies.

The main findings of this research are:

1) Strategies learned in one language can be transferred to another language

2) Strategies can be transferred from the former language to the later language or vice versa

3) The level of subjects' knowledge in the later language does not affect transferability

4) The type of strategy may play a role in its transferability from one language to the other

5) Using strategies efficiently is an important factor that affects achievement

6) There are other sources that help develop reading strategies other than reading textbooks

Chapter 6 Conclusion

This thesis studied the relationship between reading strategies in first language, which is Arabic, and the reading strategies of the foreign language, which is English. In order to discover what reading strategies were addressed, the researcher used content analysis to explore reading textbooks of both languages (Arabic and English) prescribed to Libyan students of Basic Education and Intermediate/ Secondary Education.

Although this study is restricted to the context where it was conducted (first-year students in three colleges at two universities), its results can be generalised to similar contexts. The results of this study highlighted issues that may be tackled in future studies: the relationship between the role of strategy type and transferability, the relationship between subjects' level and transferability, and the possible sources of acquiring reading strategies, other than textbooks.

The previous studies investigated the relationship between first language and second/ foreign language reading strategies. This study investigated this relatioship through an environment which is different. Though reading textbooks shape reading experience of the learners, the previous studies which were explored investigated the strategies without looking back at the textbooks which the subjects studied. In this study L1 (Arabic) and L2 (English) reading textbooks which the subjects had studied befor conducting this investigation were explored and contrasted using content analysis. Tracing transferability of reading strategies was enlighted by the results of contrasting reading textbooks. Considering reading textbooks and using content analysis adds to litrature and fills this gap. This study has accounted to one of the factors that contribute to reading strategies development. Results of this study showed that subjects also used reading strategies other than those presented in the textbooks. These results opens doors for possible future research.

In the literature consulted individual textbooks were targeted for analysis and to highlight issues other than reading strategies. In this study a large scale of textbooks were used to find out about reading strategies. Using content analysis and the procedure used can help other researchers trace elements other than reading strategies. (2) novel use of textbook analysis to shed light on reading strategies

Because facilities needed to record subjects' verbalised thoughts were not there,

213

thinking protocol techniques were not used. This lack of facilities and the limited resources restricted the instruments used to one, i.e. the interview. To account for the shortcoming of using one instrument and to validate this instrument, place triangulation was used.

Although almost all the target population participated in the Cloze tests, few of the low achievers expressed their willingness to be interviewed. This situation limited the number of the potential interviewees of this group.

Results have shown that reading strategies have been transferred between L1 and L2. These results can help authorities in education (where textbooks are prescribed by these authorities) to make decisions about what items to include in the reading syllabus. L1 and L2 reading textbooks can be developed in a way that ease direct collaboration between L1 and L2 reading teachers. Through this collaboration and at early stages, L2 reading teachers can employ the techniques used in L1 reading textbooks to develop L2 reading.

These results can also help to raise the awareness of textbook writers and curriculum developers to the importance of taking into account the relationship between L1 textbooks and FL textbooks. Where textbooks are prescribed, education authorities can account for this relationship between L1 and L2 reading strategies. Whenever possible, including explicit instructions in L2 reading textbooks that refer students back to L1 reading textbooks can help them make shortcuts to learning L2 reading. In countries where teachers can choose their own textbooks, general instructions that address the relationship between L1 and L2 reading strategies can be helpful in deciding which textbooks can make shortcuts and enhance L2 reading.

Results have also shown that subjects used strategies other than those found in reading textbooks. This opens doors for future research that investigates what other sources that may help develop reading strategies. These sources can be other textbooks, media, or everyday experiences. I was also noticed that the strategies transferred by good and poor readers were different. The strategies transferred by good readers were relevant to the whole reading material while the strategies transferred by poor readers were mostly relevant to words and clauses. This result triggers the need to conducted deep investigations for the relationship between strategies transfer and strategies type.

References

Abbott, M. L. (2006) 'ESL Reading Strategies: Differences in Arabic and Mandarin Speaker Test Performance', *Language Learning*, *56(4), 633-670.*

Abd-Alhamied, A. A. (2008) *Aldirasat Aladabia: Year 1 Secondary Education*, Tripoli: Matbat Alsharouk Alhaditha.

Afflerbach, P. P. (1990) 'The Influence of Prior Knowledge on Expert Readers' Main Idea Construction Strategies', *Reading Research Quarterly*, *25(1), 31-46.*

Ahluwalia, N. (1993) 'Major Issues in the Cloze Procedure', *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 19 (1), 81-96.

Ahmad, B., Mohamed, A., Alhady, A., Mohamed, J., Souliman, A., AlAbid, A., Hossain, J., Mahmoud, S., Milad, A., AlMabrouk, M. and Aisa, S. (2004) The Development of Education in Great Jamahiria: National Report Presented to the International Conference on Education Session (47), Tripoli: UNESCO

Ahtineva, A. (2005) 'Textbook Analysis in the Service of Chemistry Teaching', *Universitas Scientiarum*, 10, 25-33, available: *http://www.javeriana.edu.co*/universitas_scien tiarum/universitas_docs/vol10esp/3-V10TEXTBOOK.pdf [accessed 07/9/2008].

Ajaj, A. M. and Ramadan, S. S. (2008) *Aldirasat Aladabia: Year 3 Secondary Education*, Tripoli: Dar *Alkabis.*

Al-Baghdady, S. A.-A. and Mohammed, M. S. (2008) *Aldirasat Aladabia: Year 2 Secondary Education*, Tripoli: Alsharika Alkhadra Lil Tibaa Wa Alnashir.

Alderman, G. H. (1926) 'Improving Comprehension Ability in Silent Reading', *Journal of Educational Research*, 13 (1), 11-21.

Alderson, J. C. (1984) 'Reading in a Foreign Language: A Reading Problem or a Language Problem?' in Alderson, J. C. and Urquhart, A. H., eds., *Reading in a Foreign Language*, London: Longman, 1-24.

Alderson, J. C. (2000) *Assessing Reading, The Cambridge Language Assessment Series,* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Alexander, P. A. and Fox, E. (2004) 'A Historical Perspective on Reading Research and Practice' in Ruddell, R. B. and Unrau, N. J., eds., *Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading*, 5th ed., Newark: International Reading Association, Inc., 33-68.

Alhadi, R., Mansour, M., Mohammed, A., Abdullah, K., Ahmad, A. and Alarabi, M. (2004) *Alquiera Wa Altabier*: Year 7 Basic Education, Tripoli: Almatbaa Alkhadhra.

Alhadi, R., Mansour, M., Mohammed, A., Ahmad, A., Abdullah, K. and Alarabi, M. (2005) *Alquiera Wa Altabier*: Year 9 Basic Education, Alkhomis: Matabie Asr Aljamahier.

Ali-Hassan, H. (2005) 'Theories Used in Is Research Information Processing Theory', [online], available: http://www.istheory.yorku.ca/informationprocessingtheory.htm [accessed 31/10/2008].

Allington, R. L. (1980) 'Teacher Interruption Behaviors During Primary-Grade Oral Reading', *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 71(3), 371-377.

Anderson, J. R. (1983) *The Architecture of Cognition, Cambridge*, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Anderson, J. R. (1985) *Cognitive Psychology and Its Impli*cations, 2nd ed., New York: W. H. Freeman.

Anderson, R. C. (1977) 'The Notion of Schemata and the Educational Enterprise' in Anderson, R. C., Spiro, R. J. and Montague, W. E., eds., *Schooling and the Acquisition of Knowledge*, Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, 415-431.

Anderson, R. C., & Pearson, P. D. (1984). 'A schema-theoretic view of basic processes in reading' in P. D. Pearson, ed., Handbook of reading research (Vol. 1, pp. 185–224). New York: Longman.

Andreassen, R. and Bråten, I. (2010) 'Examining the Prediction of Reading Comprehension on Different Multiple-Choice Tests', *Journal of Research in Reading*, 33(3), 263-283.

Asfaha, Y. M., Beckman, D., Kurvers, J. and Kroon, S. (2009) 'L2 Reading in Multilingual Eritrea: The Influences of L1 Reading and English Proficiency', *Journal of Research in Reading*, 32(4), 351-365.

Bachman, L. F. (1982) 'The Trait Structure of Cloze Test Scores', *TESOL Quarterly*, 16(1), 61-70.

Baker, L. and Brown, A. L. (1984) 'Cognitive Monitoring in Reading' in Flood, J., ed. *Understanding Reading Comprehension: Cognition, Language, and the Structure of Prose*, Newark: International Reading Association, Inc., 21-44.

Barnett, M. (1988) 'Reading through Context: How Real and Perceived Strategy Use Affects L2 Comprehension', *Modern Language Journal*, 72 (2), 150-160.

Barrett, T. C. (1972) *Taxonomy of Reading Comprehension. Reading 360 Monograph*, Lexington, MA: Ginn & Co.

Barry, S. and Lazarte, A. A. (1998) 'Evidence for Mental Models: How Do Prior Knowledge, Syntactic Complexity, and Reading Topic Affect Inference Generation in a Recall Task for Non-native Readers of Spanish?' *The Modern Language Journal*, 82 (2), 176-193.

Beck, I. L. and McKeown, M. G. (1986) 'Instructional Research in Reading' in Orasanu, J., ed. *Reading Comprehension from Research to Practice*, London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 113-134.

Bell, J. S. (1995) 'The Relationship between L1 and L2 Literacy: Some Complicating Factors', *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(4), 687-704.

Bensoussan, M. and Ramraz, R. (1984) 'Testing Efl Reading Comprehension Using a Multiple-Choice Rational Cloze', *The Modern Language Journal*, 68(3), 230-239.

Bernhardt, E. B. (1991) *Reading Development in a Second Language*, Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Bernhardt, E. B. and Kamil, M. L. (1995) 'Interpreting Relationships between L1 and L2 Reading: Consolidating the Linguistic Threshold and the Linguistic Interdependence Hypotheses', *Applied Linguistics*, 16(1), 15-34.

Birch, B. M. (2004) *English L2 Reading: Getting to the Bottom*, 2nd ed., Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Block, E. (1986) 'The Comprehension Strategies of Second Language Readers', *TESOL Journal*, 20(3), 463-494.

Block, E. L. (1992) 'See How They Read: Comprehension Monitoring of L1 and L2 Readers', *TESOL Quarterly*, 26(2), 319-343.

Boring, E. G. (1951) 'Gestalt Psychology: Its Nature and Significance', *Psychological Bulletin*, 48(2), 177-180.

Bormuth, J. R. (1965) 'Comparisons among Cloze Test Scoring Methods' in Figurel, J. A., ed. *Reading and Inquiry*, Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 283-286.

Bormuth, J. R. (1969) 'Factor Validity of Cloze Tests as Measures of Reading Comprehension Ability', *Reading Research Quarterly*, 4(3), 358-365.

Bower, G. H. and Hilgard, E. R. (1981) *Theories of Learning*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bradshaw, J. (1975) 'Three Interrelated Problems in Reading: A Review', *Memory and Cognition*, 3(2), 123-134.

Brantmeier, C. (2002) 'Second Language Reading Strategy Research at the Secondary and University Levels: Variations, Disparities, and Generalizability', *The Reading Matrix*, 2(3), 1-14.

Brown, A. L., Armbruster, B. B. and Baker, L. (1986) 'The Role of Metacognition in Reading and Studying' in Orasanu, J., ed. *Reading Comprehension from Research to Practice*, London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 49-75.

Brown, H. D. (1994) *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*, 3rd ed., Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall Regents Prentice Hall, Inc.

Brown, H. D. (2001) *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*, 2nd ed., White Plains: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.

Brown, J. D. (1998) 'Cloze Tests and Optimum Test Length', *JALT Testing & Evaluation SIG Newsletter*, 2(1), 18-21.

Brown, J. D. (2002) 'Do Cloze Tests Work? Or, Is It Just an Illusion? ' *Second Language Studies*, 21(1), 79-125.

Bryman, A. (2001) *Social Research Methods*, New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

Cajkler, W. and Addelman, R. (2000) *The Practice of Foreign Language Teaching*, 2nd ed., UK: David Fulton Publishers.

Carpenter, P. A. and Just, M. A. (1986) 'Cognitive Processes in Reading' in Orasanu, J., ed. *Reading Comprehension from Research to Practice*, London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 11-29.

Carrell, P. (1983) 'Some Issues in Studying the Role of Schemata , or Background Knowledge, in Second Language Comprehension', *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 1 (2), 81-92.

Carrell, P. (1987) 'Fostering Interactive Second-Language Reading' in Berns, S. S. a. M., ed. *Initiative in Communicative Language Teaching, Reading,* Mass: Addison-Wesley, 145-169.

Carrell, P. L. (1985) 'Facilitating ESL Reading by Teaching Text Structure', *TESOL Quarterly*, 19 (4), 727-752.

Carrell, P. L., Garson, J. G. and Zhe, D. (1993) 'First and Second Language Reading Strategies: Evidence from Cloze', *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 10(1), 953-965.

Carroll, P. (1927) *An Experimental Study of Comprehension in Reading*, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Carver, R. P. (1992) 'What Do Standardized Tests of Reading Comprehension Measure in Terms of Efficiency, Accuracy, and Rate?' *Reading Research Quarterly*, 27(4), 346-359.

Chamot, A. U. (2004) 'Issues in Language Learning Strategy Research and Teaching', *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 1(1), 14-26.

Chapman, C. A. (1973-1974) 'A Test of a Hierarchical Theory of Reading Comprehension (Abstract)', *Reading Research Quarterly*, 9(2), 232-234.

Chou, S. K. (1930) 'Gestalt in Reading Chinese Characters', *Psychological Review*, 37(1), 54-70.

Clarke, M. A. (1980) 'The Short Circuit Hypothesis of ESL Reading¾ or When Language Competence Interferes with Reading Performance', *Modern Language Journal*, 64 (2), 203-209.

Cohen, A. D. (1986) 'Mentalistic Measures in Reading Strategy Research: Some Recent Findings', *English for Specific Purposes*, 5(2), 131-145.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2007) *Research Methods in Education*, 6th ed., London: Routledge.

Commissaire, E., Duncan, L. G. and Casalis, S. (2011) 'Cross-Language Transfer of Orthographic Processing Skills: A Study of French Children Who Learn English at School', *Journal of Research in Reading*, 34(1), 59-76.

Corder, S. P. (1981) *Error Analysis and Interlanguage*, Hong Kong: Oxford University Press.

Corder, S. P. (1992) 'A Role for the Mother Tongue' in Gass, S. M. and Selinker, L., eds., *Language Transfer in Language Learning*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 18-31.

Coulthard, M. (1994) 'On Analysing and Evaluating Written Text' in Coulthard, M., ed. *Advances in Written Text Analysis*, London: Routledge, 1-11.

Cummins, J. (1979) 'Linguistic Interdependence and the Educational Development of Bilingual Children', *Review of Educational Research*, 49(2), 222-251.

Cunningham, J. W. and Fitzgerald, J. (1996) 'Epistemology and Reading', *Reading Research Quarterly*, 31(1), 36-60.

Dale, E. and Chall, J. (1948) 'A Formula for Predicting Readability'*, Educational Research Bulletin*, 27 (1), 11-20.

Dale, E. and Tyler, R. W. (1934) 'A Study of the Factors Influencing the Difficulty of Reading Materials for Adults of Limited Reading Ability', *Library Quarterly*, 4 (3), 384-412.

Daneman, M. and Carpenter, P. A. (1980) ' Individual Differences in Working Memory and Reading', *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 19 (4), 450-466.

Davis, F. B. (1941) *Fundamental Factors of Comprehension in Reading*, unpublished thesis Haward University.

Davis, F. B. (1968) 'Research in Comprehension in Reading', *Reading Research Quarterly*, 3(4), 499-545.

Davis, F. B. (1972) 'Psychometric Research on Comprehension in Reading', *Reading Research Quarterly*, 7(4), 628-678.

Davis, J. N. and Bistodeau, L. (1993) 'How Do L1 and L2 Reading Differ? Evidence from Think Aloud Protocols', *The Modern Language Journal*, 77(4), 459-472.

De Angelis, G. (2005) 'Interlanguage Transfer of Function Words', *Language Learning*, 55(3), 379–414.

Devine, J., Carrell, P. L. and Eskey, D. E., eds. (1987) *Research in Reading in English as a Second Language*, Washington, D.C: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

Drake, C. (2008) *From Conception to the Press: Considerations for Publishing an Emergent Reader Series*, unpublished thesis Simon Fraser University.

DuBay, W. H. (2004) 'The Principles of Readability', [online], available: http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICDocs/data/ericdocs2sql/content_storage_01/0000019b/80/1b/bf/46.pdf [accessed 27/ 8.2008].

Duke, N. K. and Pearson, P. D. (2002) 'Effective Practices for Developing Reading Comprehension' in Farstrup, A. E. and Samuels, S. J., eds., *What Research Has to Say About Reading Instruction*, 3rd ed., Newark: The International Reading Association, Inc, 205-242.

Dulay, H., Burt, M. and Krashen, S. (1982) *Language Two*, New York: Oxford University Press.

Ehri, L. C. (1995) 'Phases of Development in Learning to Read Words by Sight', *Journal of Research in Reading*, 18(2), 116-125.

Ehri, L. C. (1999) 'Phases of Development in Learning to Read Words' in Oakhill, J. and Beard, R., eds., *Reading Development and the Teaching of Reading: A Psychological Perspective*, Published by Blackwell Publishing, 79-108.

Ellis, R. (1986) *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Eraut, M. (1994) *Developing Professional Knowledge and Competence*, London: Falmer Press.

Ericsson, K. A. and Simon, H. A. (1999) *Protocol Analysis: Verbal Reports as Data*, Massachusetts: MIT Press.

Exams Division (2009a) 'Exams Selector', Reading [online], available: http://www.imtihanat.com/OnlineExaminations/ExamPdfDocs/ExamQuestionsFile-0396.pdf [accessed 08/02/2011].

Exams Division (2009b) 'Exams Selector', Speaking [online], available: http://www.imtihanat.com/OnlineExaminations/ExamPdfDocs/ExamQuestionsFile-0396.pdf [accessed 08/02/2011].

Fareed, A. A. (1971) 'Interpretive Responses in Reading History and Biology: An Exploratory Study', *Reading Research Quarterly*, 6(4), 493-532.

Farr, R., Carey, R. and Tone, B. (1986) 'Recent Theory and Research into the Reading Process: Implications for Reading Assessment' in Orasanu, J., ed. *Reading Comprehension: From Research to Practice*, London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 135-149.

Fecteau, M. L. (1999) 'First -and Second- Language Reading Comprehension of Literary Texts', *The Modern Language Journal*, 83(4), 475-493.

Field, J. (2004) *Psycholinguistics: The Key Concepts*, London: Routledge.

Fischer, S. R. (2003) *A History of Reading*, London: Reaktion Books Ltd.

Fishman, J. A. and Galguera, T. (2003) *Introduction to Test Construction in the Social and Behavioral Sciences: A Practical Guide*, USA: Roman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.

Flesch, R. (1951) *The Art of Clear Thinking*, New York: Harper.

Frederiksen, J. R. (1981) 'Sources of Process Interactions in Reading' in Perfetti, A. M. L. C. A., ed. *Interactive Processes in Reading*, Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 361-386.

Friedman, M. I. and Rowls, M. D. (1980) *Teaching Reading and Thinking Skills*, New York: Longman.

Fry, E. B. (1969) 'The Readability Graph Validated at Primary Levels', *The reading teacher*, 22 (6), 534-538.

Fyfe, R. and Mitchell, E. (1983) 'Formative Assessment of Reading Strategies in Secondary Schools', *Teaching English*, 17(2), 9-11.

Gamage, G. H. (2003) 'Issues in Strategy Classifications in Language Learning: A Framework for Kanji Learning Strategy Research', *ASAA e-journal*, 2-14, available: http://ro.uow.edu.au/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1069&context=artspapers [accessed 5/11/2008].

Gass, S. M. and Selinker, L., eds., *Language Transfer in Language Learning*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Gilliland, J. (1972) *Readability*, 2nd ed., London: Unwin Brothers Limited.

Golinkoff, R. M. (1975-1976) 'A Comparison of Reading Comprehension Processes in Good and Poor Comprehenders', *Reading Research Quarterly*, 11(4), 623-659.

Goodman, K. (1967) ' Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game', *Literacy research and instruction*, 6 (4), 126-135.

Goodman, K. S. (1970) 'Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game' in Ruddell, H. S. R. B., ed. *Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading*, Newark, Del: International Reading Association, 259-272.

Gough, P. B., Hoover, W. A. and Peterson, C. L. (1996) 'Some Observations on a Simple View of Reading' in Cornoldi, C. and Oakhill, J., eds., *Reading Comprehension Difficulties: Process and Intervention*, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 1-13.

Grabe, W. and Stoller, F. L. (2002) *Teaching and Researching Reading*, London: Pearson Education.

Graham, J. and Kelly, A., eds. (2008) *Reading under Control : Teaching Reading in the Primary School*, 3rd ed., London ; New York: Routledge.

Green, J. M. and Oxford, R. (1995) 'A Closer Look at Learning Strategies, L2 Proficiency, and Gender', *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(2), 261-297.

Greene, B., Jr. (2001) 'Testing Reading Comprehension of Theoretical Discourse with Cloze', *Journal of Research in Reading*, 24(1), 82-98.

Griffiths, C. (2004) 'Language Learning Strategies: Theory and Research', [online], available: http://www.crie.org.nz/research_paper/c_griffiths_op1.pdf. [accessed 5/11/2008].

Griffiths, C. and Parr, J. M. (2001) 'Language-Learning Strategies: Theory and Perception', *ELT Journal*, 55(3), 247-254.

Gunning, T. G. (1998) *Assessing and Correcting: Reading and Writing Difficulties*, Needham Heights: Allyn & Bacon.

Hall, W. S., White, T. G. and Guthrie, L. (1986) 'Skilled Reading and Language Development: Some Key Issues ' in Orasanu, J., ed. *Reading Comprehension from Research to Practice*, London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers, 89-111.

Hamada, M. and Koda, K. (2008) 'Influence of First Language Orthographic Experience on Second Language Decoding and Word Learning', *Language Learning*, 58(1), 1-31.

Hammadou, J. (1991) 'Interrelationships among Prior Knowledge, Inference, and Language Proficiency in Foreign Language Reading', *Modern Language Journal*, 75 (1), 27-37.

Hamp-Lyons, L. (1985) 'Two Approaches to Teaching Reading: A Classroom-Based Study', *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 3 (1), 363-373.

Harley, T. A. (2008) *The Psychology of Language from Data to Theory*, Third Edition ed., Hove and New York: Psychology Press.

Harris, T. L. and Hodges, R. E., eds. (1981) *A Dictionary of Reading and Related Terms*, Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Harrison, C. (2004) *Understanding Reading Development*, London: SEGA Publications.

Hismanoglu, M. (2000) 'Language Learning Strategies in Foreign Language Learning and Teaching', TESL Journal, 6 (8), 1-8.

Hoey, M. (1994) 'Signalling in Discourse: A Functional Analysis of a Common Discourse Pattern in Written and Spoken English' in Coulthard, M., ed. *Advances in Written Text Analysis*, London: Routldge, 26-45.

Holmes, V. M. (2009) 'Bottom-up Processing and Reading Comprehension in Experienced Adult Readers', *Journal of Research in Reading*, 32(3), 309-326.

Hosenfeld, C. (1977) 'A Preliminary Investigation of the Reading Strategies of Successful and Non-successful Second Language Learners', *System*, 5(2), 110-123.

Huang, S.-c. (2006) 'Reading English for Academic Purposes - What Situational Factors May Motivate Learners to Read?' *System*, 34(3), 371-383.

Hudson, T. (1982) 'The Effects of Induced Schemata on The 'Short Circuit' In L2 Reading: Non-Decoding Factors in L2 Reading Performance', *Language Learning*, 32 (1), 1-31.

Hudson, T. (2007) *Teaching Second Language Reading*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Huitt, W. G. (2000) 'Information Processing', [online], available: http://hsc.csu.edu.au/pro_dev/teaching_online/how_we_learn/information.html [accessed 5/11/2009].

Huitt, W. G. (2003) 'The Information Processing Approach to Cognition', [online], available: http://chiron.valdosta.edu/whuitt/col/cogsys/infoproc.html [accessed 5/11/2009]

Huus, H. (1968) 'Innovations in Reading Instruction: At Later Levels' in Robinson, H. M., ed. *Innovation and Change in Reading Instruction: The Sixty-Seventh Year- Book of the National Society of the Study of Education*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 126-158.

Ikeda, M. and Takeuchi, O. (2006) 'Clarifying the Differences in Learning EFL Reading Strategies: An Analysis of Portfolios', *System*, 34(3), 384-398.

Irion, T. W. H. (1925) *Comprehension Difficulties of Ninth-Grade Students in the Study of Literature*, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Jarvis, S. and Pavlenko, A. (2008) *Crosslinguistic Influence in Language and Cognition*, New York: Routledge.

Jiang, N. (2004) 'Semantic Transfer and Its Implications for Vocabulary Teaching in a Second Language', *The Modern Language Journal*, 88(3), 416-432.

Johnson, A. P. (1998) 'What Exactly Are Comprehension Skills and How Do I Teach Them?' *Literacy*, 32(2), 22-26.

Johnston, P. (1983) *Assessing Reading Comprehension*, Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Judith, O. (1986) *Reading Comprehension: From Research to Practice*, L. Erlbaum Associates.

Karbalaei, A. (2010) 'A Comparison of the Metacognitive Reading Strategies Used by Efl and ESL Readers', *The Reading Matrix*, 10(2), 165-180.

Kavale, K. and Schreiner, R. (1979) 'The Reading Processes of above Average and Average Readers: A Comparison of the Use of Reasoning Strategies in Responding to Standardized Comprehension Measures', *Reading Research Quarterly*, 15(1), 102-128.

Kern, R. (1989) 'Second Language Reading Strategy Instruction: Its Effects on Comprehension and Word Inference Ability', *Modern Language Journal*, 73 (2), 135-149.

Kibby, M. W. (1975) 'The Proper Study of Readability: A Reaction to Carver's 'Measuring Prose Difficulty Using the Rauding Scale'', *Reading Research Quarterly*, 11(4), 686-705.

Kintsch, W., Rawson, K. A. and Hulme, C., eds. (2005) *Comprehension*, UK: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Kleiman, G. M. (1982) *Comparing Good and Poor Readers: A Critique of the Research*, Illinois Univ., Urbana. Center for the Study of Reading.; Bolt, Beranek and Newman, Inc., Cambridge, MA.

Klein-Barley, C. (1981) *Empirical Investigation of Cloze Tests*, unpublished thesis (Ph.D.), University of Duisburg.

Kletzien, S. B. (1991) 'Strategy Use by Good and Poor Comprehender Reading Expository Text of Differing Levels', *Reading Research Quarterly*, 26 (1), 67-86.

Kliebard, H. M. (1995) *The Struggle for the American Curriculum*, New York: Routledge.

Koda, K. (1993) 'Transferred L1 Strategies and L2 Syntactic Structure in L2 Sentence Comprehension', *The Modern Language Journal*, 77(4), 490-500.

Koffka, K. (1936) *Principles of Gestalt Psychology,* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company.

Kolić-Vehovec, S. and Bajšanski, I. (2007) 'Comprehension Monitoring and Reading Comprehension in Bilingual Students', *Journal of Research in Reading*, 30 (2), 198-211.

Kong, A. (2006) 'Connections between L1 and L2 Readings: Reading Strategies Used by Four Chinese Adult Readers', *The Reading Matrix*, 6(2), 19-44.

Kozminsky, E. and Kozminsky, L. (2001) 'How Do General Knowledge and Reading Strategies Ability Relate to Reading Comprehension of High School Students at Different Educational Levels?' *Journal of Research in Reading*, 24(2), 187-204.

Krippendorp, K. (2004) *Content Analysis: An Introduction to Its Methodology*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Kucan, L. and Beck, I. L. (1997) 'Thinking Aloud and Reading Comprehension Research: Inquiry, Instruction, and Social Interaction', *Review of Educational Research*, 67(3), 271-299.

Kumar, R. (2005) *Research Methodology a Step-by Step Guide for Beginners*, 2nd ed., London: SEGA Publications Ltd.

Kvale, S. (1996) *Interviews*, London: Sage.

Lau, K.-L. (2006) 'Reading Strategy Use between Chinese Good Readers and Poor Readers: A Think-Aloud Study', *Journal of Research in Reading*, 29(4), 383-399.

Lau, K.-L. and Chan, D. W. (2003) 'Reading Strategy Use and Motivation among Chinese Good and Poor Readers in Hong Kong', *Journal of Research in Reading*, 26(2), 177-190.

Laufer, B. (2005) 'Focus on Form in Second Language Vocabulary Learning', *EUROSLA Yearbook*, 5(1), 223-250.

Leberman, S., Mcdonald, L. and Doyle, S. (2006) *The Transfer of Learning Participants' Perspectives of Adult Education and Training*, Hampshire: Gower Publishing Limited.

Lee, J.-W. and Schallert, D. L. (1997) 'The Relative Contribution of L2 Language Proficiency and L1 Reading Ability to L2 Reading Performance: A Test of the Threshold Hypothesis in an EFL Context', *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(4), 713-739.

Lesgold, A. M. and Perfetti, C. A., eds. (1981) *Interactive Processes in Reading*, London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Levenston, E., Nir, R. and Blum-Kulka, S. (1982) 'Discourse Analysis and the Testing of Reading Comprehension by Doze Techniques', in *The International Symposium on LSP*, Eindhoven, Netherlands,

LoCastro, V. (1994) 'Learning Strategies and Learning Environments', *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(2), 409-414.

Lu, G. (2006) Cloze *Tests and Reading Strategies in English Language Teaching* in China, unpublished thesis The Western Cape.

Lu, S. (1999) *An Investigation into EFL Reading Processes: Reading Effectiveness, Inference Construction, Metacognitive Strategy*, unpublished thesis Zhejiang University.

Lundeberg, M. (1987) 'Metacognitive Aspects of Reading Comprehension: Studying Understanding in Legal Case Analysis', *Reading Research Quarterly*, 22 (4), 407-432.

Macaro, E. (2001) *Learning Strategies in Foreign and Second Language Classrooms*, London: CONTINUUM.

Mansour, M., Alhadi, R., Mohammed, A., Abdullah, K., Alarabi, M. and Mohammed, A. (2004) *Alquiera Wa Almahfoudhat Wa Atabier: Year 6 Basic Education*, Caliri: Editar.

Mansour, M., Alhadi, R., Mohammed, A., Abdullah, K., Alarabi, M. and Mohammed, A. (2007) *Alquiera Wa Almahfoudhat: Year 4 Basic Education,* Tripoli: Alsharika Alamma Lillwarak wa Altibaa.

Mansour, M., Alhadi, R., Mohammed, A., Ahmad, A., Abdullah, K. and Alarabi, M. (2003) *Alquiera Wa Altabier: Year 8 Basic Education*, Tripoli: Almatbaa Alkhathra.

Markham, P. L. (1985) 'Reading Comprehension Testing in German', *Die Unterrichtspraxis / Teaching German*, 18(2), 254-258.

Matras, Y. (2009) *Language Contact*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

McConkie, G. W. (1983) 'Eye Movement and Perception During Reading' in Rayner, K., ed. *Eye Movements in Reading: Perceptual and Language Processes*, New York: Academic Press, 65-96.

McGuinness, D. (2004) *Early Reading Instruction: What Science Really Tells Us about How to Teach Reading*, Cambridge: The MIT Press.

McLoughlin, D. (1997) 'Assessment of Adult Reading Skills' in Beech, J. R. and Singleton, C., eds., *The Psychological Assessment of Reading*, London and New York: Routledge, 224-237.

Meijer, P. C., Verloop, N. and Beijaard, D. (1999) 'Exploring Language Teachers' Practical Knowledge About Teaching Reading Comprehension', *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 15(1), 59-84.

Melby-Lervåg, M. and Lervåg, A. 'Cross-Linguistic Transfer of Oral Language, Decoding, Phonological Awareness and Reading Comprehension: A Meta-Analysis of the Correlational Evidence', *Journal of Research in Reading*, 34(1), 114-135.

Mikk, J. (2002) *Experimental Evaluation of Textbooks and Multimedia*, Educational Resources Information Center.

Millenson, J. R. (1967) *Principles of Behavioural Analysis*, New York: Macmillan.

Miller, G. A. (1956) 'The Magical Number Seven, Plus or Minus Two: Some Limits on Our Capacity for Processing Information', *The Psychological Review*, 63(2), 81-97.

Mohammed, A., Alhadi, R., Alarabi, M., Mohammed, A., Abdullah, K. and Mansour, M. (2003) *Alquiera Wa Almahfoudhat: Year 5 Basic Education*, Calire: Editar.

Mohammed, A., Alhadi, R. and Alhadi, A. (2007) *Alougha Alarabia: Year 3 Basic Education*, Tripoli: Alsharika Alkhadhra.

Morin, R. (2003) 'Derivational Morphological Analysis as a Strategy for Vocabulary Acquisition in Spanish', *The Modern Language Journal*, 87(2), 200-221.

Nassaji, H. (2003) 'Higher-Level and Lower-Level Text Processing Skills in Advanced ESL Reading Comprehension', *The Modern Language Journal*, 87, 261-276.

Nassaji, H. (2007) 'Schema Theory and Knowledge-Based Processes in Second Language Reading Comprehension: A Need for Alternative Perspectives', *Language Learning*, 57(1), 79–113.

Nation, K. (2005) 'Children's Reading Comprehension Difficulties' in Snowlin, M. J. and Hulme, C., eds., *The Science of Reading*, Oxford: Blackwell Publishing Ltd, 248-266.

Neuman, W. L. (2007) *Basic of Social Research: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*, 2nd ed., USA: Pearson Education, Inc.

Nicholls, J. (2003) 'Methods in School Textbook Research', *International Journal of Historical Learning, Teaching and Research*, 3(2), 1-17, available: http://centres.exeter.ac.uk/historyresource/journal6/6contents.htm [accessed 07/9/2008].

Nogova, M. and Huttova, J. (2005) 'Process of Development and Testing of Textbook Evaluation Criteria in Slovakia', in *The Eighth International Conference on Learning and Educational Media*, France, The international Association for Research on Textbooks and Educational Media, 333-340.

Nuttall, C. (1996) *Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language*, Oxford: Reed Educational and Professional Publishing Limited.

O'Malley, J. M. and Chamot, A. U. (1990) *Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition*, Cambridge: CUP.

O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Russo, R. P. and Kopper, L. (1985) 'Learning Strategy Applications with Students of English as a Second Language', *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(3), 557-584.

Odlin, T. (1989) *Language Transfer*, New York: Cambridge University Press.

Olshavsky, J. E. (1976/1977) 'Reading as Problem Solving: An Investigation of Strategies', *Reading Research Quarterly*, 12(4), 654-674.

Otman, W. and Karlberg, E. (2007) *The Libyan Economy: Economic Diversification and International Repositioning*, Springer-Verlag [online], available: [accessed 12/01/2010].

234

Oxford, R. L. (1990) *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know*, USA: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Palmer, W. S. (1981) 'Research: Reading Theories and Research: A Search for Similarities', *The English Journal*, 70(8), 63-66.

Pang, J. (2008) 'Research on Good and Poor Reader Characteristics: Implications for L2 Reading Research in China', *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 20(1), 1-18.

Paris, S. G. and Myers, M. I. (1981) 'Comprehension Monitoring, Memory, and Study Strategies of Good and Poor Readers', *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 13(1), 5-22.

Paris, S. G., Wixson, K. K. and Palincsar, A. S. (1986) 'Chapter 3: Instructional Approaches to Reading Comprehension', *Review of Research in Education*, 13(1), 91-128.

Parry, K. (1996) 'Culture, Literacy, and L2 Reading', *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(4), 665-692.

Pasquarella, A., Chen, X., Lam, K., Luo, Y. C. and Ramirez, G. (2011) 'Cross-Language Transfer of Morphological Awareness in Chinese–English Bilinguals', *Journal of Research in Reading*, 34(1), 23-42.

Patty, W. W. and Painter, W. I. (1931) 'A Technique for Measuring the Vocabulary Burden of Textbooks', *Journal of Educational Research*, 24 (2), 127-134.

Peacock, M. and Ho, B. (2003) 'Student Language Strategies across Eight Disciplines', *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 13(2), 179-200.

Perfetti, C. A. and Roth, S. (1981) 'Some of the Interactive Processes in Reading and Their Role in Reading Skill' in Lesgold, A. M. and Perfetti, C. A., eds., *Interactive Processes in Reading* (1981), London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 269-297.

Philips, T., Tankard, F., Philips, A., Lucantoni, P. and Tankard, A. (2006a) *English for Libya: Secondary 2 English Specialization Language and Communication Skills Book B*, Tripoli: Aldar Alalamia Liltibaa.

Philips, T., Tankard, F., Philips, A., Lucantoni, P. and Tankard, A. (2006b) *English for Libya: Secondary 3 English Specialization Language and Communication Skills Book B*, Musrata: Matabia Alezdihar.

Philips, T., Tankard, F., Philips, A., Lucantoni, P. and Tankard, A. (2007) *English for Libya: Secondary 3 English Specialization Language and Communication Skills Book A*, Musrata: Matabia Alezdihar.

Philips, T., Tankard, F., Philips, A., Lucantoni, P. and Tankard, A. (2008a) *English for Libya: Secondary 1 English Specialization Language and Communication Skills Book A*, Tripoli: Alzahf Alakhdhar.

Philips, T., Tankard, F., Philips, A., Lucantoni, P. and Tankard, A. (2008b) *English for Libya: Secondary 1 English Specialization Language and Communication Skills Book B*, Tripoli: Alzahf Alakhdhar.

Pichette, F., Segalowitz, N. and Connors, K. (2003) 'Impact of Maintaining L1 Reading Skills on L2 Reading Skill Development in Adults: Evidence from Speakers of Serbo-Croatian Learning French', *The Modern Language Journal*, 87(3), 391-403.

Pingel, F. (1999) *UNESCO Guidebook on Textbook Research and Textbook Revision*, Hannover: Verlag Hahnsche Buchhandlung.

Pollit, A. and Taylor, L. (2006) 'Cognitive Psychology and Reading Assessment' in Sainsbury, M., Harrison, C. and Watts, A., eds., *Assessing Reading from Theories to Classroom*, Slough: NFER, 38-49.

Pressley, M., El-Dinary, P. B., Gaskins, I., Schuder, T., Bergman, J. L., Almasi, J. and Brown, R. (1992) 'Beyond Direct Explanation: Transactional Instruction of Reading Comprehension Strategies', *The Elementary School Journal*, 92(5), 513 - 555.

Pressley, M., Harris, K. R. and Marks, M. B. (1992) 'But Good Strategy Instructors Are Constructivists!' *Educational Psychology Review*, 4(1), 3-3 1.

Pressley, M., Snyder, B. L. and Carglia-Bull (1987) 'How can good strategy use be taught to children? Evaluation of six alternative approaches' in Hagman, J. D. and Cormier, S. M., eds., *Transfer of Learning: Contemporary Research and Applications*, Toronto, Ontario: Academic Press, 81-119.

Punch, K. F. (2005) *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*, 2nd ed., London: SAGE Publications Inc.

Quintana, J. (2001) *English for Libya 3*, Garnet Publishing: Reading.

Rankin, E. F. (1959) 'The Cloze Procedure -Its Validity and Utility' in Causey, O. S. and Eller, W., eds., *Eighth Yearbook of the National Reading Conference*, Fort Worth: Texas Christian University Press, 131-144.

Rayner, K. (1978) 'Eye Movements in Reading and Information Processing', *Psychological Bulletin*, 85 (3), 618-660.

Rayner, K. and Pollatsek, A. (1989) *The Psychology of Reading*, Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Reutzel, D. R., Smith, J. A. and Fawson, P. C. (2005) 'An Evaluation of Two Approaches for Teaching Reading Comprehension Strategies in the Primary Years Using Science Information Texts', *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 20(3), 276-305.

Richards, J., Platt, J. and Weber, H. (1985) *A Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*, Longman: London.

Ringbom, H. (1992) 'On L1 Transfer in L2 Comprehension and L2 Production', *Language Learning*, 42(1), 85-112.

Robertson, L. H. (2002) 'Parallel Literacy Classes and Hidden Strengths: Learning to Read in English, Urdu and Classical Arabic', *Reading Literacy and Language*, 36 (3), 119-126.

Roller, C. M. (1988) 'Transfer of Cognitive Academic Competence and L2 Reading in a Rural Zimbabwean Primary School', *TESOL Quarterly*, 22(2), 303-318.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1968) *Literature as Exploration*, New York: D. Appleton-Century.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1969) 'Towards a Transactional Theory of Reading', *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 1 (1), 31-49.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1978) The *Reader the Text the Poem: The Transactional Theory of the Literary Work*, Carbondale and Edwardsville: Southern Illinois University Press.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1985a) 'The Transactional Theory of the Literary Work: Implications for Research' in Cooper, C., ed. *Researching Response to Literature and the Teaching of Literature*, Norwood, NJ: Ablex, 33-53.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1985b) 'Viewpoints: Transaction Versus Interaction-a Terminological Rescue Operation', *Research in the Teaching of English*, 19 (1), 96-107.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1993) 'The Transactional Theory: Against Dualisms', *College English*, 55 (4), 377-386.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1994) 'The Transactional Theory of Reading and Writing' in Ruddell, R. B., Ruddell, M. R. and Singer, H., eds., *Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading*, 4th ed., Newark, DE: International Reading Association, 1057-1092.

Rubin, J. (1975) 'What the Good Language Learner Can Teach Us', TESOL Quarterly, 9 (1), 41-51.

Rugg, G. and Petre, M. (2007) *A Gentle Guide to Research Methods*, 1st ed., Berkshire: Open University Press.

Rumelhart, D. E. (1977) 'Toward an Interactive Model of Reading' in Dornic, S., ed. *Attention and Performance*, Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 265-303.

Rumelhart, D. E. (1980) 'Schemata: The Building Blocks of Cognition' in Spiro, R. J., Bruce, B. C. and Brewer, W. F., eds., *Theoretical Issues in Reading Comprehension: Perspectives from Cognitive Psychology, Linguistics, Artificial Intelligence, and Education*, Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, 33-58.

Rumelhart, D. E. (1984) 'Understanding Understanding' in Flood, J., ed. *Understanding Reading Comprehension: Cognition, Language, and the Structure of Prose*, Newark: International Reading Association, Inc, 1-20.

Rye, J. (1982) *Cloze Procedure and the Teaching of Reading*, London: Heinemann.

Sainsbury, M. (2003) 'Thinking Aloud: Children's Interactions with Text', *Reading: literacy and language*, 37(3), 95-137.

Sainsbury, M. (2006) 'Validity and the Construct of Reading' in Sainsbury, M., Harrison, C. and Watts, A., eds*., Assessing Reading from Theories to Classrooms*, 1st ed., Berkshire: NFER, 8-21.

Samuels, S. J. (2002) 'Reading Fluency: Its Development and Assessment' in Farstrup, A. E. and Samuels, S. J., eds., *What Research Has to Say About Reading Instruction*, 3rd ed., Newark: International Reading Association, 166-183.

Sanders, P. and Liptrot, D. (1994) *An Incomplete Guide to Qualitative Research Methods for Counsellors*, Manchester: PCCS Books.

Sarig, G. (1987) 'High-Level Reading in the First and in the Foreign Language: Some Comparative Process Data' in Devine, J., Carrell, P. & Eskey, D., ed. *Research in Reading in English as a Second Language*, Washington: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 105-120.

Schachter, J. (1974) 'An Error in Error Analysis', *Language Learning*, 24 (2), 205 - 214.

Schlesinger, I. M. and Weiser, Z. (1970) 'A Facet Design for Tests of Reading Comprehension', *Reading Research Quarterly*, 5(4), 566-580.

Scott, J. (1990) *A Matter of Record, Documentary Sources in Social Research*, Cambridge: Polity Press.

Selinker, L. (1992) *Rediscovering Interlanguage*, London Longman.

Seng, G. H. and Hashim, F. (2006) 'Use of L1 in L2 Reading Comprehension among Tertiary ESL Learners', *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 18(1), 25, available: http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/ [accessed 23/02/2009].

Shiro, M. (1994) 'Interference in Discourse Comprehension' in Coulthard, M., ed. *Advances in Written Text Analysis*, London: Routledge, 167-178.

Smith, B. (2001) 'Arabic Speakers' in Swan, M. and Smith, B., eds., *Learner English: A Teacher's Guide to Interference and Other Problems*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 195-213.

Smith, F. (2004) *Understanding Reading*, 6th ed., London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Smith, N. B. (1965) *American Reading Instruction*, Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Smith, R. J. and Barrett, T. C. (1974) *Teaching Reading in the Middle Grades*, Philippines: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Snow, C. (2001) 'Learning to Read in an L2', *TESOL Quarterly*, 35(4), 599-601.

Sparks, R., Patton, J., Ganschow, L. and Humbach, N. (2009) 'Long-Term Crosslinguistic Transfer of Skills from L1 to L2', *Language Learning*, 59(1), 203-243.

Stanovich, K. E. (1980) 'Toward an Interactive-Compensatory Model of Individual Differences in the Development of Reading Fluency', *Reading Research Quarterly*, 16 (1), 32-71.

Stanovich, K. E., West, R. F. and Freeman, D. J. (1981) 'A Longitudinal Study of Sentence Context Effects in Second-Grade Children: Test of an Interactive-Compensatory Model', *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 32(2), 185-99.

Steinman, L. (2002) 'A Touch of Class!: Considering the Cloze', *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 59(2), 291-302.

Stern, H. H. (1992) *Issues and Options in Language Teaching*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Stowe, L. A. (2006) 'When Does the Neurological Basis of First and Second Language Processing Differ? Commentary on Indefrey', *Language Learning*, 56 (supplements 1), 305-311.

Suen, H. K. (1990) *Principles of Test Theories*, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Tadros, A. (1994) 'Predictive Categories in Expository Text' in Coulthard, M., ed. *Advances in Written Text Analysis*, London: Routldge, 69-82.

Taillefer, G. and Pugh, T. (1998) 'Strategies for Professional Reading in L1 and L2', *Journal of Research in Reading*, 21(2), 96-108.

Taylor, W. L. (1953) 'Cloze Procedure: A New Tool for Measuring Readability', *Journalism Quarterly*, 30 (NA), 415-433.

The General People's Committee of Education (2008) *The Development of Education: National Report of Libya Presented to the International Conference on Education Session* (48), Geneva: UNESCO.

Thorndike, E. L. (1917a) 'The Psychology of Thinking in the Case of Reading', *Psychological Review*, 24(3), 220-234.

Thorndike, E. L. (1917b) 'Reading as Reasoning: A Study of Mistakes in Paragraph Reading', *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 8(6), 323-332.

Thorndike, E. L. (1917c) 'The Understanding of Sentences: A Study of Errors in Reading', *The Elementary School Journal*, 18(2), 98-114.

Trayer, M. (1990) 'Applying Research in Reading to the Foreign Language Classroom', *Hispania*, 73(3), 829-832.

Tzeng, O. J. L. and Wang, W. S. Y. (1983) 'The First Two R's', *American Scientist*, 71(3), 238-243.

Vale, A. P. (2011) 'Orthographic Context Sensitivity in Vowel Decoding by Portuguese Monolingual and Portuguese–English Bilingual Children', *Journal of Research in Reading*, 34(1), 43-58.

Vaughn, S. and Linan-Thompson, S. (2004) *Research-based methods of reading instruction*, USA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Verhave, T. and Sherman, J. G. (1968) 'Principles of Textbook Analysis', *Journal of the Experimental Analysis of Behavior*, 11(5), 641-649.

Vincent, D. (1985) *Reading Tests in the Classroom: An Introduction*, Windsor: NFER-NELSON.

Vivaldo-Lima, J. (1997) 'Cognitive Style and Reading Comprehension in L1 and L2', in *Annual Meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages*, 11-15 March 1997,

Vogel, M. and Washburne, C. (1928) 'An Objective Method of Determining Grade Placement of Children's Reading Material', *Elementary school journal*, 28 (5), 373-381.

Walsh, W. B. (1989) *Tests and Measurements*, 4th ed., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Walter, C. (2004) 'Transfer of Reading Comprehension Skills to L2 Is Linked to Mental Representations of Text and to L2 Working Memory', *Applied Linguistics*, 25(3), 315-339.

Walter, C. (2007) 'First- to Second-Language Reading Comprehension: Not Transfer, but Access', *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 17(1), 14-37.

Weber, R. P. (1990) *Basic Content Analysis*, 2nd ed., Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Welman, C., Kruger, F. and Mitchell, B. (2005) *Research Methodology*, Third ed., Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Wenden, A. and Rubin, J. (1987) *Learner Strategies in Language Learning*, Englewood Cliffs, N.Y.: Prentice/Hall International.

Wilkinson, D., ed. (2000) *The Researchers Toolkit*, London: RoutledgeFalmer.

Appendix

Consent form

School of Education

Consent Form

Research Title: The Relationship between Reading Strategies in First Language and Reading

Strategies in English as a Foreign Language

Name of Researcher: Masoud A. Ghuma

Dear participant please read the following points and tick as appropriate.

I have been informed about the purpose of the study.	Yes ☐	No ☐
I have been informed about the purpose of the test.	Yes ☐	No ☐
I have been informed about the follow up interviews.	Yes ☐	No ☐
I have been informed about how the results will be used.	Yes ☐	No ☐
I have been informed that I can withdraw from the test and the interview at any time.	Yes ☐	No ☐
I give the researcher the right to use the results of the study.	Yes ☐	No ☐
I agree to participate in the study.	Yes ☐	No ☐
I confirm that I have understood all that is mentioned above.	Yes ☐	No ☐

Name of Participant: …………………………………

Date …………………………………………………..

Signature …………………………………………………..

Researcher …………………………………………………

Date: ……………………………………………………….

Signature: ……………………………………………………

Examples from Arabic reading textbooks

Association:

اين توجد المواد التالية: البروتينات – الفيتامينات- الدهون؟

أين تقضي الصيف؟

Clarification

ما الذي يجعلك تحكم بانتماء هذه القصيدة الى نوع القصيدة المركبة؟ وضح ذلك؟

Drawing conclusions:

ما العبرة التي نستخلصها من غزوة بدر؟

Evaluation

حلل القصيدة من حيث البنية القصية. ذاكرا رأيك فيها، معللاً فيها ما تقول.

Guessing meaning:

'قيد الأوابد', ما معنى هذا التعبير؟

Identifying the thesis statement and topic sentence:

حدد الافكار الاساسية التي يتالف منها الموضوع.

Inference:

لماذا كان الفم ضياء النفس والجسم معا؟

Morphology:

...... وما مفرد 'العبرات'؟

Relating Anaphors to their Antecedents:

من المقصود بالدخيل في العبارة؟

Respond:

عبر عما تحس به من آداب زيارة الأقارب.

Restating:

انثر ابيات القصيدة بأسلوبك.

Scanning:

246

بما شبه الشاعر داره عندما خلت من اولاده؟

Summarising:

لخص باسلوبك مافهمته من الدرس.

Syntax:

كذب المرجفون. المرجفون كذبوا. مااعراب 'المرجفون' في كلا التعبيرين؟

Awareness of the title:

اختر عنوانا آخر مناسبا للقصة.

Using Dictionary:

ابحث في معجمك عن معنى تعج.

The questions of the interview

The questions presented in number one will be asked to find out what strategies are used in EFL reading whereas questions presented in number two will be asked to find out what strategies are used in Arabic reading.

1) Strategies found only in L1 reading textbooks:

Drawing Conclusions (ability to highlight the message/s targeted by the writer, and learning something new)

How do you understand the message targeted by the writer? What do you do in order to grasp the message intended by the writer?

Using Dictionary (is to consult a dictionary to find out the meaning of a word or a phrase)

If you find a difficult word or phrase how do you usually account for that? What do you usually when you encounter a difficult word or phrase?

2) Strategies found only in EFL reading textbooks

Prediction (is to anticipate what is coming in the text based on what is grasped through skimming, titles, or any other means)

Have you ever tried to find out what the reading material is about? If yes, how?

Recalling (is to reproduce a similar version of the text without referring back to the text) How often do you try to memorise or reproduce the same version of what you read?

Rereading (is to read again to either test or emphasize comprehension)

Do you usually check your understanding of what you read? If yes, in which situations and how?

Skimming (is to seek general information that is clearly stated in the text)

Do you usually try to find out general information about what you read? If yes how?

Text Type Identification (ability to distinguish the text type on basis of its own characteristics)

Do you think texts are different? Do you consider that when reading? How do you

account for these differences?

Thesis Statement (is to define the linguistic body that conveys the message of the paragraph or text)

Topic Sentence (is to define the linguistic body that conveys the message of the paragraph or text)

Do you think that some sentences are more useful than the others? Which ones you consider more important when reading? Why is that?

Language usage (is to link a certain word, phrase or syntactic structure to a situation, function and/ meaning)

When reading, are you aware of the contribution of grammatical structures to meaning? If yes, please give examples.

Arabic Cloze Test

ضع خط تحت الكلمة المناسبة ثم اكمل الفراغات الموجودة في نهاية القطعة.

مما لا شك فيه أن التقريب بين الفصحى والعامية ممكن وأنه يزداد إمكاناً في العصر الحاضر بعد شيوع الصحافة والإذاعة والصور المتحركة وقوالب الحاكي المشهورة باسم الأسطوانات.

ومما يرجى في آثار (هذا، هذه، تلك) [1] التقريب أن ييسر فهم (الفصحى، العامية، القوالب) [2] لغير المتعلمين وأن يدخل (من، في، على) [3] الفصحى مفردات نافعة من (جمل، ألفاظ، عبارات) [4] الحضارة يمكن إجراؤها مجرى (المفردات، الأساليب، مجريات) [5] الفصيحة بغير تعديل أو (ببعض، بعض، كل) [6] التعديل.

وهناك من يدعو (بترك، بإضافة، بتغليب) [7] العامية على الفصحى أو الاكتفاء(بالعامية، بكلاهما، بالفصحى) [8] في الكلام والكتابة متعللا (بما، بالذي، بالتي) [9] يسميه تعميم اللغة الشعبية، و(لكنهم، منهم، يكون) [10] من يعتمد في ذلك (على، من، في) [11] السوابق التاريخية كما يراها، و(يستشهد، يعتمد، يعبر) [12] على ذلك بمصير اللغة (اللاتينية، اليونانية، الصينية) [13] وتفرع الإيطالية والفرنسية والاسبانية و(العربية، الرومانية، الصينية) [14] عليها أو يستشهد عليه (بتطور، بإهمال، باختفاء) [15] اللهجات في اللغات الأوربية الحديثة، ويحسب أنها تتمشى إلى (تشجيع، إلغاء، إبراز) [16] الخاصة وتغليب العامية في (جميع، بعض، هذه) [17] الأغراض.

يتباعد أصحاب الآراء والمواقف العلمية تباعداً واسعاً عند القول بتغليب إحدى اللهجتين على (ذاتها، الأخرى، غيرهما) [18] وبخاصة تغليب العامية على (مستخدميها، الفصحى، الايطالية) [19] عندنا أن الأسباب التي يستند إليها طلاب الاكتفاء بالعامية (على، من، في) [20] الكلام والكتابة أوهن جداً (على، من، بـ) [21] أن تسند تلك الدعوة (الخطيرة، الضخمة، الحضارية) [22] أو تلك الدعوة الكبيرة.

فان ثقافة (الشعوب، العلوم، اليوم) [23] والآداب لا تستغني عن لغة خاصة يلاحظ فيها طول الزمن وامتداد المكان وتعاقب الأجيال، و (اللهجة، الحضارات، الإبداعات) [24] الشعبية بطبيعتها لهجة موقوتة (مهجورة، متفرقة، موحدة) [25] وكِلت بمطالب المعيشة اليومية، لا تيسر للعالم أن يكتب بها علومه ومعارفه، وليس معقولاً (أن، ألاَّ، لا) [26] يتعلم الشعب كل شيء (في، حول، عن) [27] المدرسة إلا أداة الفهم ، فلا تستحق عنده كلفة التعليم والاطلاع ، وتبدو لنا أن التجربة العلمية غير محك لهذه الدعوة، (من،فمن، الذي) [28] استطاع أن يوحد بين الأساليب في كتب العلم ولهجة السوق و (المعيشة، الكتب، الدروس) [29] اليومية واستطاع مع ذلك (بأن، أن، ألاَّ) [30] يوحد المصطلحات التي يفهمها غير المتعلم على البداهة فقد (عجز، استطاع، تجنب) [31] أن يحل هذه المشكلة على وجه قويم.

ولا وجه للاستشهاد في هذا الصدد باللاتينية واللغات المتفرعة عليها إذ ليست لغات الطليان والفرنسيين والأسبان وأبناء رومانيا هي اللهجات العامة تقابلها اللاتينية الفصحى عند طبقةٍ خاصة، فقد كانت لأمة اللاتين لهجة عامية غير هذه اللغات. وما أن استقلت كل من هذه اللغات في وطنها حتى وجدت فيها اللهجة الخاصة بالثقافة والأدب والعلوم والى جانبها لغة السوق والبيت ، فلم يكن راسين وموليير وفولتير ودي فاليري يكتبون الفرنسية كما يتكلمونها في الأسواق والبيوت، ولم تتوحد لغة الأدب والثقافة ولغة المعيشة اليومية في أمة من تلك الأمم.

وقد عرفنا هؤلاء اللذين يحلون المشكلة في رأيهم بإلغاء الفصحى ولكننا لا نعرف في الجانب الأخر أحداً يحل المشكلة بمحو العامية أو إنكار صلاحها لأغراضها, كالتمثيل بها على المسرح و اللوحة البيضاء حيث تعبر عن بعض الأحوال التي لا تبقى مع الزمن ولا تعم سائر الأقطار.

إذا كان .... [32] الفصحى لا يبطلون العامية ولا .... [33] استخدامها بما تصلح له ...... [34] الأغراض المحلية والثقافية, فقد .... [35] الإشكال لمن يحرص على .... [36] الثقافة الباقية, ولا .... [37] المطالب اليومية, إلا أن يكون الإشكال الحقيقي مضمراً لا تعلن له أسباب ولا غايات, ولاجترئ على الظهور في ضوء النهار فلنعتصم منها إذاً بضوء النهار.

اكتب عنوانا مناسبا...

English Cloze Test

The six an a half billion people of the world live in about 200 countries and speak about 4,500 languages. Some countries have only one language, whereas others have many; India, for example, has more than 800 languages. When (people, newspapers, varieties) [1] from different parts of the world need to communicate, a world (language, media, dialect) [2] is needed, and this language (was, is, were) [3] usually English. 85% of (local, foreign, international) [4] organizations use English as (one, most, some) [5] of their working languages (and, but, so) [6] around a third of the (country's, world's, city's) [7] books are published in (French, English, Spanish) [8].

There are hundreds of (magazines, varieties, books) [9] of English, including British English, American English, (Russian, South African, Libyan) [10] English and Nigerian English. Within Britain, there are many local varieties too. In (Britain, England, Ireland) [11], there is one variety that is regarded as (standard, good, informal) [12] English, and this is normally (neglected, avoided, used) [13] in British newspapers and on television. (However, Whereas, Moreover) [14] there is no international standard. In other parts of the (world, country, continent) [15] the variety of English (that, whose, whom) [16] people use depends on (geography, politics, history) [17]. In European countries, for example (British, Hawaiian, Nigerian) [18] English is taught in most schools, (while, otherwise, furthermore) [19] in East Asia, American English is (more, less, not) [20] common.

The most noticeable differences (between, within, in) [21] the varieties are in (pronunciation, writing, grammar) [22]. For example, standard British (English, grammar, vocabulary) [23] has a silent 'r' in words like *far* and *here*, (but, and, so) [24] in many British and international varieties, the 'r' is pronounced strongly. There are some differences in (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation) [25] and these can cause (misunderstanding, understanding, disagreement) [26]. In South Africa, for example, I'll do it just now means I'll do it later, (and, whereas, otherwise) [27] in Britain means now.

Differences in grammar are few. An example is the American dislike of the present perfect (tense, time, use) [28]. American use this tense (more, less, better) [29] than British speakers, preferring the simple past tense.

However, despite all these differences, most English speakers can understand each (one, other, utterance) [30] without too much difficulty. It has been suggested that everyone

(should, would, might) **31** agree to use one standard variety of English, a simple form of English that everyone (can, must, should) **32** learn easily. But language is a living thing which nobody can control.

Because language is living, ...**33** is always growing. Although ....**34** English speakers use maximum of 10,000 ....**35** the English language now ....**36** more than 800,000 words. The main ....**37** for this is that 70% of the ....**38** scientists write in English, ...**39** each science has its own **40**

If anyone controls the English language, it is the people who use it. It has been estimated that about 1 billion people (a sixth of the world's population) speak English fluently, and another billion make use of it for purposes such as travel, work or study.

اكتب عنوانا مناسبا..

سيكون هناك مقابلة حول هذا الاختبار. اذا كانت لديك الرغبة يرجى كتابة اسمك في الفراغ:

....

Piloted Arabic Cloze Test

أكمل الفراغات التالية مستعينا بمجموعات الكلمات المبينة. بعد تعبئة الفراغات, نأمل منك تذكر سبب اختيارك بعض الكلمات لملء الفراغات.

يدرك الإنسان أن ألواننا لا دخل لنا فيها, وأنها لم .... [1] في عالم الإنسان والحيوان ...... [2] من خلال نظام وراثي , ... [3] هذا النظام قد جاء .... [4] ليكيّف جلودنا أو بشرتنا ..... [5] خاص يتمشى مع البيئة ..... [6] نعيش فيها.

فقد وهبنا الحماية من........ [7] الشمس – أو بالتحديد من.......... [8] فوق البنفسجية الحارقة ـ عن......... [9] مادة كيميائية محددة اسمها (........... [10]), وعلى حسب انتشار هذه.......... [11] في خلايا بشرتنا أو............. [12] نكتسب ألواننا.

وهذه المادة........ [13] إلا أكسدة كيميائية لواحد........ [14] الأحماض الأمينية التي تدخل........ [15] تكوين البروتينات, واسمه (تيروسين),........ [16] التحول لا يتم إلا .... [17] خميرة , والخميرة بمثابة مفتاح .... [18] جد دقيق, ليحور في .... [19] الجزيء , فيحذف منه ذرات , أو قد .... [20] أخرى , فتسري عمليات الحياة .... [21] حسب خطة محددة , ونظام .... [22] موجود في المورثات أو .... [23] الكامنة في نوى الخلايا.

إذا لم تشتغل هذه .... [24] جاء المخلوق أمهق أي .... [25] من الميلانين. وهذا المركب .... [26] بمثابة عملة كيميائية موحدة ...... [27] المخلوقات , لا يختلف في .... [28] الإنسان عن الحيوان, وهو ما ...... [29] على وحدة الخالق سبحانه و......... [30] التي تتراءى في وحدة .... [31]!

إذا لقد جاءت صبغة .... [32] أساسا كي تكون وسيلة .... [33] وسائل الحماية ضد نوع .... [34] من أشعة غير منظورة ,...... [35] لأن يستخدمها ضعاف العقول .... [36] البشر للتمييز العنصري , ووسيلة .... [37] بين بشر وبشر: فالكل .... [38] أمام قوانين الحياة, وليس لأحد فضل على احد فيما خلق الله تعالى.

اكتب عنوانا مناسبا...

---

a) تنتشر\ إلا\ وأن\ فينا\ بلون\ التي
b) المادة \ ميلانين \ أشعتها \ طريق \ جلودنا\ أشعة
c) كيميائي \ وهذا \ في \ ليست \ بوجود\ يضيف \ هندسة\ \ الكيميائية\ مقدر \الجينات\ من
d) الكيميائي \ ذلك \ محروما \بين \ تعالى \يدل \ مخلوقاته \ الخطة
e) للتفرقة \الكائنات \ من \ سواسية \الا \ امن \ خاص

254

أكمل الفراغات التالية مستعينا بمجموعات الكلمات المبينة. بعد تعبئة الفراغات, نأمل منك تذكر سبب اختيارك بعض الكلمات لملء الفراغات.

مما لا شك فيه أن التقريب بين الفصحى والعامية ممكن وأنه يزداد إمكاناً في العصر الحاضر بعد شيوع الصحافة والإذاعة والصور المتحركة وقوالب الحاكي المشهورة باسم الأسطوانات.

ومما يرجى في آثار ...... [1]التقريب أن ييسر فهم .... [2]غير المتعلمين وأن يدخل ...... [3]الفصحى مفردات نافعة من .... [4]الحضارة يمكن إجراؤها مجرى .... [5]الفصيحة بغير تعديل أو .... [6]التعديل.

وهناك من يدعو .... [7]العامية على الفصحى أو الاكتفاء .... [8]في الكلام والكتابة متعللا ...... [9]يسميه تعميم اللغة الشعبية, و........ [10]من يعتمد في ذلك .... [11]السوابق التاريخية كما يراها, و......... [12]على ذلك بمصير اللغة .... [13]وتقرع الإيطالية والفرنسية والاسبانية و............ [14]عليها أو يستشهد عليه .... [15]اللهجات في اللغات الأوربية .... [16], ويحسب أنها تتمشى إلى .... [17]الخاصة وتغليب العامية في .... [18]الأغراض.

يتباعد أصحاب الآراء و........... [19]العلمية تباعداً واسعاً عند .... [20]بتغليب إحدى اللهجتين على .... [21]وبخاصة تغليب العامية على .... [22].

عندنا أن الأسباب التي .... [23]إليها طلاب الاكتفاء بالعامية ...... [24]الكلام والكتابة أوهن جداً ...... [25]أن تسند تلك الدعوة .... [26]أو تلك الدعوة الكبيرة.

فان ثقافة .... [27]والآداب لا تستغني عن .... [28]خاصة يلاحظ فيها طول .... [29]وامتداد المكان وتعاقب الأجيال, ... [30]الشعبية بطبيعتها لهجة موقوتة .... [31]وكِلت بمطالب المعيشة اليومية, ... [32]تيسر للعالم أن يكتب ...... [33]علومه ومعارفه, وليس معقولاً .... [34]يتعلم الشعب كل شيء ...... [35]المدرسة إلا أداة الفهم , ... [36]تستحق عنده كلفة التعليم .... [37], وتبدو لنا أن التجربة .... [38]غير محك لهذه الدعوة, ... [39]استطاع أن يوحد بين الأساليب ...... [40]كتب العلم ولهجة السوق و .... [41]اليومية واستطاع مع ذلك ..... [42]يوحد المصطلحات التي يفهمها .... [43]المتعلم على البداهة فقد .... [44]أن يحل هذه المشكلة .... [45]وجه قويم.

ولا وجه للاستشهاد .... [46]هذا الصدد باللاتينية واللغات ...... [47]عليها. إذ ليست لغات ...... [48]والفرنسيين والأسبان وأبناء رومانيا ...... [49]اللهجات العامة تقابلها اللاتينية .... [50]عند طبقةٍ خاصةٍ, فقد .... [51]أمة اللاتين لهجة عامية .... [52]هذه اللغات. وما أن .... [53]كل من هذه اللغات .... [54]وطنها حتى وجدت فيها .... [55]الخاصة بالثقافة والأدب والعلوم و........ [56]جانبها لغة السوق والبيت , ... [57]يكن راسين وموليير وفولتير ودي فاليري .... [58]الفرنسية كما يتكلمونها في الأسواق والبيوت, ... [59]تتوحد لغة الأدب والثقافة ..... [60]المعيشة اليومية في أمة من .... [61]الأمم.

وقد عرفنا هؤلاء .... [62]يحلون المشكلة في رأيهم .... [63]الفصحى ولكننا لا نعرف في ...... [64]الأخر أحداً يحل المشكلة .... [65]العامية أو إنكار صلاحها .... [66], كالتمثيل بها على المسرح .... [67]البيضاء حيث تعبر عن .... [68]الأحوال التي لا تبقى مع ...... [69]ولا تعم سائر الأقطار.

إذا كان .... [70]الفصحى لا يطلبون العامية ولا ...... [71]استخدامها بما تصلح له ...... [72]الأغراض المحلية والثقافية, فقد .... [73]الإشكال لمن يحرص على .... [74]الثقافة الباقية, ولا .... [75]المطالب اليومية, إلا أن يكون

255

الإشكال الحقيقي مضمراً لا تعلن له أسباب ولا غايات, ولا يجترئ على الظهور في ضوء النهار فلنعتصم منها إذاً بضوء النهار .

اكتب عنوانا مناسبا..

a) الفصحى\ في \ هذا\المفردات\ ببعض\ ألفاظ

b) إلغاء \بتغليب \ بالعامية\الرومانية\اللاتينية \بتطور \الحديثة\ جميع \بما منهم\على \يستشهد\منهم\على

c) القول\ المواقف\ الأخرى \الفصحى

d) في \يستند \الخطيرة \ من

e) لغة \الزمن العلمية \فمن \استطاع \على \في او\اللهجة \متفرقة \الا \بها \أن \ العلوم \في \فلا او\والإطلاع \ \المعيشة \أن \غير

f) في \ هي \الفصحى \ في \اللهجة\ كانت \غير \المتفرعة \الطليان \استقلت \ إلى\فلم \ يكتبون \ولم \ولغة \تلك

g) الذين \بإلغاء \الجانب \واللوحة\بمحو \الأغراضها \بعض \الزمن

h) أنصار \يمنعون \في \زال \مطالب \يهمل

256

أكمل الفراغات التالية مستعينا بمجموعات الكلمات المبينة. بعد تعبئة الفراغات, نأمل منك تذكر سبب اختيارك بعض الكلمات لملء الفراغات.

يمكن أن يكون الزهد في أبسط معانيه اكتفاء من الدنيا بما يسد الرمق وأقام الأود وستر الجسد, ووقى من الحر والبرد, يصحب ذلك استحضار لعظمة ......[1] وذكر للموت والحساب في ......[2] لحظة وحين, واعتبار ماعدا ......[3] فضولاً زائداً وطمعاً لا ......[4] للإنسان أن يسعى إلى ......,[5] أما التصوف فيمكن أن ......[6] أيضا على انه يتضمن ......[7] معنى الزهد بالإضافة للمعاني ......[8] والوجدان الصافي والرقي في ......[9] الكمال والمشاهدة والكشف والجدب و......[10] ذلك من عوالم التصوف و......[11] مع التزام بشرع الله ......[12] لأوامر الله.

والزهد و......[13] بذالك المفهوم وجد قديما ....[14] الحضارة العربية الإسلامية, وكانا ......[15] متفاعلة مع الأحداث مستجيبة ....[16] العصر مع الجهاد في ......[17] الله ونشر دعوة الله.

غير ....[18] الزهد والتصوف اتخذا في ......[19] الانحطاط والانحدار معاني أخرى ......[20] إنحرافية لا تمت إلى ......[21] بصلة, ولا ترتبط مع المسلمين ....[22] فوجد من تسميَّ بالزاهد ......,[23] وهو برئ من كل ......[24]

والزهد والتصوف الصحيحان لا ....[25] إلى تواكل وبعد عن ......[26] الخير ودفع شر, وهما ......[27] ظاهرتان لا نتوقع أن ......[28] عند كل الناس وفي ......[29] نفسه نحول بينهما وبين ......[30] الناس وربما صح أن ......[31] الزهاد والمتصوفة بهواة كرة ......[32] على رأي احد الكتاب العرب؛ فليس ......[33] الممكن أن يتحول كل ......[34] بشبيه وشبابه نسائه ورجاله ......[35] وشيوخه إلى هواة كرة القدم أو ......[36] لعبة أخرى أو أن ......[37] جميعا في ظاهرة اجتماعية ......[38] معها فهذه أو تلك من ......[39] الاجتماعية في بعضها نفع ......[40] بعضها ضرر أو ربما ......[41] بعضها نفع كالضرر أو ضرر ......[42] فهذا الذي يضيع الوقت ......[43] مشاهدا من يؤدي فعلا ......[44] ربما كان تضييعه هنا ......[45] من تضييعه في النيل ......[46] عباد الله والطعن في ......[47] والتقول فيهم, أو ربما ......[48] وقته في ممارسة هذه ......[49] أو هذا النشاط خير ......[50] من تمضيته في التفكير ......[51] كيفية سرقة هذا والسطو ....[52] منزل ذاك أو مال أُولئك.

اكتب عنوانا مناسبا..................................

a) ينبغي \وتنفيذ\ عالم \غير \تحصيله\ الله \كل \ذلك \يفهم \بالضرورة \العميقة \الصوفية
b) حياة \الظروف \سبيل\ التصوف \في
c) وأشكالا \برابطة\ أن \عصور \المتصوف\ زهد\الإسلام
d) أيضا \ الوقت \ يدعوان \ عمل \كل \نشبه \القدم\يجتمعوا \معينة \ نجدهما \من \المجتمع \وأطفاله \أي \الظواهر \وفي \في \كالنفع \الطويل \اما \أجدى \من \سيرتهم\الظاهرة \له \في \على \أمضى

257

Piloted English Cloze Test

Complete the following passage using the words provided below. Please try to remember why you have chosen each word because you will be asked to justify your choices

Last year, when Dolly ....1 sheep first appeared scientists ....2 a step which will ....3 experimental research, in life ....4 forever. They successfully 'cloned' a ....5 Dolly was not born ....6 the normal way and she had only one ....7 she was, in fact, cloned ....8 another sheep. Scientists used a ....9 from a sheep's body to ....10 in identical sheep in the ....11 This means that Dolly's ....,12 and therefore her body ....13 her behaviour , are exactly the ....14 as the 'parent' sheep.

The scientists were delighted ....15 their success. They had, ...16 said, made a living animal ....17 the laboratory. 'Cloning has ....18 advantages.' stated one scientist. '.............19 the future we will ....20 have to depend on ....21 breeding. We will be ....22 to make hundreds of ....23 copies of the best ....24 It will be quicker ....25 more reliable'

However, other people were ....26 happy about this new ....27 'Cloning is a dangerous game.' ....28 one worried religious leader. '.............29 scientists can clone a sheep, then ....30 will soon try clone people. This is playing with evil.'

Write a suitable title……………………………………………….

took /sciences / the /sheep/and /same / in/change /parent /from /cell /build /laboratory/ genes

/great /in /not/and / with /they /in selective /able /exact /animals

less /they / stated /if /science

Complete the following passage using the words provided below. Please try to remember why you have chosen each word because you will be asked to justify your choices

The six an a half billion people of the world live in about 200 countries and speak about 4,500 languages. Some countries have only ....1 language, whereas others have ....2; India, for example, has ....3 than 800 languages. When ....4 from different parts of the ....5 need to communicate, a world ....6 is needed, and language ....7 usually English. 85% of ....8 organizations use English as ....9 of their working languages ....10 around a third of the ....11 books are published in 12

There are hundreds of ....13 of English, including British ....,14 American English, South African ....15 and Nigerian English. Within Britain, ...16 are many local varieties ....17 In Britain, there is ....18 variety that is regarded as ....19 English, and this is normally ....20 in British newspapers and on ....21 However, there is no ....22 standard. In other parts of the ....23 the variety of English ....24 people use depends on ....25 In European countries, for ....26 British English is taught in ....27 schools, while in East ....,28 American English is more 29

The most noticeable differences ....30 the varieties are in ....31 For example, standard British ....32 has a silent 'r' in words like far and here, ...33 in many British and international varieties, the 'r' is pronounced ....34 There are some differences in ....,35 and these can cause ....36 In South Africa, for example, I'll do it just now means I'll do it later, ...37 in Britain means now.

.............38 in grammar are few. ....39 example is the American ....40 of the present perfect ....41 American use this tense ....42 than British speakers, preferring ....43 simple past tense.

.............,44 despite all these differences, most ....45 speakers can understand each ....46 without too much difficulty. ....47 has been suggested that everyone ....48 agree to use one standard ....49 of English, a simple ....50 of English that everyone ....51 learn easily. But language ....52 a living thing which ....53 can control.

Because language is living, ...54 is always growing. Although 55

259

English speakers use maximum of 10,000 ....56 the English language now ....57 more than 800,000 words. The main ....58 for this is that 70% of the ....59 scientists write in English, ...60 each science has its own 61

If anyone controls the English language, it is the people who use it. It has been estimated that about 1 billion people (a sixth of the world's population) speak English fluently, and another billion make use of it for purposes such as travel , work or study.

Write a suitable title…………………………………………….

many/more/English / one /people /world / is /international /language /one /and /world's

English//used English / varieties /there /too/one /standard /television/international/Asia/common /world /that /geography/example /most

English / between / but /pronunciation /strongly/whereas /vocabulary/misunderstanding

English /the /however/can /is /nobody /differences /an /dislike /tense/less /other /it /should /variety /form

words / world's /and / it /most /vocabulary/contains /reason /

Complete the following passage using the words provided below. Please try to remember why you have chosen each word because you will be asked to justify your choices

The average young person today will spend more than 35,000 hours of his or her life eating. That is the equivalent of six ....1 of continuous eating (if the ....2 stops to sleep for 8 hours out of 24). ....3 that doesn't surprise you, ...4 the following facts, which ....5 in Britain have discovered. ....6 the time Mr or Mrs Average is 70 years old, ...7 or she will have ....8 five months waiting at ....9 traffic lights; the important ....10 of brushing his or ....11 teeth will have taken ....12 three months; and looking ....13 mirrors will have filled another eight 14

Some of these statistics are ....,15 but others are worrying. ....16 the most horrifying ....17 or all is this: ....18 and Mrs Average, aged ....,19 will have sat for nine years in ....20 of the television.

.............21 and sociologists are interested in ....22 of this sort because ....23 helps them to understand ....24 people live nowadays. The ....25 has practical uses, too. A ....26 at Britain's Marriage Research Centre ....,27 'This type of information ....28 help people to think ....29 and improve their relationships.' ....30 example, the average British married ....31 spend five minutes a day talking ....32 each other, which is ....33 than two days a ....,34 or about ten weeks of ....35 married lives. Parents and ....36 spend even less time ....37 to each other - one ....38 a day during the years ....39 the child leaves home, ...40 amounts to only to one week of ....41 lives.

When realize this, they ....42 themselves, 'Do I really want to ....43 less time talking to ....44 loved ones than brushing my teeth? ....45 do 1 really want to give nearly one-seventh of my waking life to the television?

Write a suitable title……………………………………………………

in /months /if /consider /researchers years /person /by /he /spent /red /task /her /about /70/amusing /statistic/perhaps /Mr. /front / information /scientist /says/can /psychologists /information /it /how / about for /couple /to / talking /minute /before /which /less /year/their /children / their/ spend /ask/and /my

Sample of the Coding and Categorising process

Subject Code: 1Y   Gender: F   Arabic achievement: 25   English achievement: 32   Total: 57

ماسبب اختيارك لـ

رقم 1 كلمة <u>هذا</u>؟ اخترت هذه الكلمة لانها تتناسب مع سياق الجملة ولوجود كلمة <u>التقريب</u> التي تشير الى مذكر.

Justify your choice.

No. 1 <u>this</u> (it refers to close singular masculine)? I chose <u>this</u> because it fits with the context of the sentence and the presence "bridging the gap", which refers to masculine entity.

Comment [n1]: Awareness of the context

Comment [n2]: Awareness of the effect of gender

رقم 2 كلمة <u>الفصحى</u>؟ اخترت هذه الكلمة لان العامية مفهومه لغير المتعلمين ولكن الفصحى تحتاج لتيسير فهمها <u>لغير المتعلمين</u> الموجودة بعد الفراغ.

No. 2 <u>standard</u> (it refers to standard Arabic)? I chose this word because the vernacular is easily understood to non-educated people but the standard dialect needs to be facilitated to them.

Comment [n3]: Using general knowledge

رقم 6 كلمة <u>ببعض</u>؟ اخترتها لوجود كلمة <u>بغير</u> قبلها (ولم تدرك الطالبة انه السبب وجود حرف الجر <u>بـ</u>وكذلك اداة الربط <u>او</u>. هنا قد يكون السبب هو الاستخدام الالي للغة الذي نقلها الى مرحلة المهارة).

No. 6 <u>with some</u> (a preposition is attached to some as one word)? I selected it because of the previous word without (the student did not realize that the reason is the coordinator "or" and the preposition attached to the word before and after it. It may be because of the automatic use of language).

Comment [N4]: Using the preceding word

Comment [n5]: Triggering automaticity

رقم 7 <u>باضافة</u>؟ لانه كما قلنا ان غير المتعلمين يحتاجون لتيسير الفصحى ومن ثم اضافة العامية للفصحى يدعم ذلك وكذلك وجود <u>غير المتعلمين</u> في الفقرة السابقة.

No. 7 <u>to add</u>? As we have said that non-educated people need the standard Arabic being facilitated, hence adding the vernacular to the standard Arabic supports the idea, moreover the presence of non-educated people in the preceding paragraph goes with this choice.

Comment [n6]: Using what has already been read to understand the next but not in the right way. The student did not take care of the near by text

رقم 8 لم يتم اجابته لاني وجدت فيها بعض الغموض فقررت ان اتركها لاخر الوقت ولكن لم افعل ذلك.

No. 8 I could not answer it because it is a little bit vague. Tough I decided to try it again later but I missed doing that.

Comment [n7]: Skipping obstacles

رقم 10 كلمة <u>منهم</u>؟ لانها عائدة الى <u>هناك من يدعو</u> التي ذكرت في جملة قبلها. فمنهم تشير الى جزء من هولاء الذين يدعون.

No. 10 <u>some of them</u> (it is as one word)? I chose it because it refers back to "there are people who..." in a previous sentence. Therefore, it refers to them.

Comment [n8]: Identifying anaphoras. Going back to link sentences.

262

رقم 13 كلمة اللاتينية؟ لاني اعرف انه اللاتينية من اقدم اللغات. واكدت اختياري عندما قرءت مابعد الفراغ وجدت انه هذه اللغات تعود للاتينية.

No. 13 Latin? I selected it because I know that it is one of the old languages. I became sure when I read what comes after the choices because these languages are related Latin.

رقم 14 كلمة الرومانية؟ اخترتها لانها لغة مشهورة والصينية ليست من هذه اللغات المشهورة.

No. 14 Romanian? I selected it because it is famous whereas Chinese is not.

رقم 18 كلمة الاخرى؟ بسبب ماقبلها احدى اللهجتين على.

No. 18, the other? I chose it because of the preceding phrase "one of the dialects".

رقم 23 كلمة العلوم؟ بسبب وجود كلمة الاداب بعدها ودائماً توجد هاتان الكلمتان مع بعضهما.

No. 23 science? I chose it because of the following word "Arts". These two words **always** go together.

رقم 25 كلمة متفرقة؟ اخترتها بالصدفة لاني لم افهم المقصود.

No. 25 scattered? I selected it by chance because I did not understand the question.

رقم 29 كلمة المعيشة؟ بسبب كلمة السوق قبلها وهي مرتبطة بها.

No. 29 living (what people do to earn money they need)? I chose it because of the word preceding it "the market". It is associated with it.

الفراغات كانت اصعب. ولقد حاولت ان استعين بما قرأته سابقا من النص في ملء الفراغات وأعدت قراءت النص املا مني ان اجد ما يساعدني .

Spaces were more difficult than the choices. To fill in the blanks, I tried to make use of what I previously read, and I read the text again.

رقم 33 استخدمت يبطلون؟ تأثراً بما قبلها لايبطلون العامية.

No. 33 nullify? My choice was affected by the previous phrase "not nullify the vernacular".

رقم 34 استخدمت في؟ لانه حرف الجر المناسب لسياق الجملة.

No. 34 in? I used it because it is the appropriate preposition to the context of the sentence.

نص اللغة الانجليزية اسهل من النص العربي لأننا درسنا مواضيع بسيطة في اللغة العربية ولم نتعمق فيها.

English text is easier than Arabic text because we have studied simple issues in Arabic (and we did not go deeper into it).

واكثر شي   need to communicate   ؟ لانه الجملة التي بعد الفراغ تحتوي.   people رقم 1 اخترت people هم الـ communicate.

No. 1 <u>people</u>? I chose it because the sentence after the choices has the phrase "need to communicate" and people who are communicating.

رقم 2 اخترت <u>language</u>؟ نظراً لوجود كلمة <u>world</u> قبلها اي لغة عالمية فمن المستبعد ان تكون لهجة عالمية.

No. 2 language? I chose this word because of the word before it "world", so it is world language. It is unlikely that it is world dialect.

رقم 3 اخترت <u>is</u>؟ لان <u>language</u> قبلها مفرد ولانه الجملة في حالة المضارع.

No. 3 is? I chose it because language (before it) is singular and present tense is needed.

رقم 4 اخترت <u>international</u> بسبب وجود كلمة <u>organisations</u> بعدها ومن غير الممكن ان تكون الاجنبية او المحلية.

No. 4 international? I chose it because of the following word "organisations". It is unlikely to be "local" or "foreign".

رقم 8 اخترت <u>English</u> لان ماسبق يتحدث عن عدد الاشخاص ونسبة المتحدثين باللغة الانجليزية بالتالي سيكون التالي

متعلق باللغة الانجليزية.

No. 8, English? I chose it because the previous sentences are about the number and percentage of people who speak English. Hence, it should be English.

رقم 9 اخترت <u>varieties</u> لاني عندما قرأت مابعدها وجدت <u>including British English and American</u>

<u>English</u> لانهم منقسمات الى <u>British</u> و <u>American</u>.

No. 9 varieties? I chose it when I read after the choices "including British English and American English"; they are divided into British English and American English.

رقم 10 اخترت <u>South African</u> ؟ لانه لايوجد انجليزي روسي فهي لغة مختلفة. لاني ربطت بينها وبين ماهو موجود

بعد الفراغ اي <u>Nigerian</u> فهي ما اكد لي ذلك.

No. 10, South African? I chose it because there is no Russian English. Moreover, it is a different language. I also linked South African to what comes after the choices namely "Nigerian".

رقم 11 اخترت <u>Britain</u> ؟ لاني ربطت بين الاسم المتداول باللغة العربية "بريطانيا"وهو يشير للدولة و كلمة<u>Britain</u>.

No. 11 Britain? I chose it because I linked the name used in Arabic "britania", which refers to the State and to the word "Britain".

رقم 12 اخترت <u>good</u> رغم اني الاحظ الان ان <u>standard</u> هي الانسب.

No. 12 good? I chose it though now I think "standard" is more appropriate.

رقم 14 اخترت <u>whereas</u>؟ لانه حسب علمي تستخدم لربط جملة ونقيضتها وذلك من خلال <u>this is normally used</u>

<u>there is no international standard</u> بينما <u>in British newspapers and on television</u>.

264

Comment [N25]: Using the following nonadjacent linguistic items

Comment [N26]: Using the preceding and adjacent linguistics elements. (meaning within the context has not been used, there is a reference to the language next to the space)

Comment [N27]: Excluding inappropriate choices

Comment [N28]: Awareness of grammar

Comment [N29]: Using the following and adjacent linguistic elements. (guessing based on understanding is needed)

Comment [N30]: Excluding inappropriate choices

Comment [N31]: Using what has already been read.

Comment [N32]: Using the following adjacent linguistic items.

Comment [N33]: previous knowledge

Comment [N34]: Using previous knowledge to exclude improper choices

Comment [N35]: Building possible relations between adjacent elements, based on previous knowledge of the world. Unfortunately it is not the right link here.

Comment [N36]: Making use of L1 pronunciation that may be close to EFL similar (misleading strategy)

Comment [N37]: Resorting to random answers

No. 14 whereas? I chose it because, **as I know**, it links two contrasting sentences "this is normally used in British newspapers and on television" and "there is no international standard".

رقم 16 اخترت <u>that</u> بعد لجؤي للمقابل العربي فلايمكن ان تكون <u>whose</u> لانها للملكية او <u>whom</u> التي للمفعول.

No. 16 that? After resorting to choices' equivalences in Arabic, I chose "that" because it can be neither whose, which is for possessive nor whom, which is used to refer to an object.

رقم 18 اخترت <u>British</u>؟ لانهم هنا يتكلمون عن <u>British English</u> و الـ <u>varieties of English</u> و كلامهم عن <u>Britain</u>.

No. 18 British? I chose it because the writer is speaking about "British English" and "varieties of English" and about Britain.

رقم 21 اخترت <u>between</u>؟ لانها between the varieties و بسبب وجود <u>the most noticeable differences</u>.

No. 21 between? I chose it because it is "between the varieties", and because of the preceding phrase "the most noticeable differences".

رقم 22 اخترت <u>pronunciation</u> لاني عندما قرأت ما بعدها مثل <u>silent r</u> وجدت ان لها علاقة بـ <u>pronunciation</u>.

No. 22 pronunciation? I chose it because when I read what follows, such as "silent r", I noticed that it could be related to pronunciation.

رقم 26 اخترت <u>misunderstanding</u> لان الفروق في <u>pronunciation</u> بينهم تسبب عدم الفهم.

No. 26 misunderstanding? I chose it because differences in pronunciation can cause misunderstanding.

رقم 33 استخدمت <u>it</u> لانها عائدة على الـ <u>language</u>.

No. 33 it? I used it because it refers back to language.

رقم 34 استخدمت <u>most of</u> لاني عندما ترجمتها بالعربي وجدتها الانسب.

No. 34 most of? When I translated into Arabic, I noticed that it is more appropriate than the other choices.

رقم 37 استخدمت <u>reason</u> لاني نظرت للجمل التي قبله <u>English speakers use maximum of 10000 words</u> .... <u>the English language now</u> لانه نريد ان نعرف سبب الزيادة في المفردات من 10000 الى اكثر من 800000 لاشك انه هناك سبب رائيسي لذلك.

Comment [N38]: Using incomplete knowledge of the rule. "Whereas" links two clauses within the same sentence.

Comment [N39]: Translating into first language to assist reading

Comment [N40]: Excluding irrelevant choices.

Comment [N41]: Using what has already been read. (lack of previous knowledge)

Comment [N42]: Using the preceding and adjacent linguistic elements.

Comment [N43]: Using the following linguistic items, and linking similar themes in the paragraph.

Comment [N44]: Using what has already been read (without realising the role of the forthcoming sentences and because of the wrong choice in 25. See English Cloze results.)

Comment [N45]: Using anaphoras that suit certain references

Comment [N46]: Translating into first language to assist reading

Comment [N47]: Judging the appropriateness and excluding the inappropriate

No. 37 reason? I looked at the sentences before the space "English speakers use maximum of 10000 words the English language now ...." then I noticed that we are after the reason of English vocabulary increase from 10000 to more than 800000. There is no doubt that there is a reason for this change.

………………

عند قراءتي ابحث عن الفكرة الاساسية التي قد اجدها في البداية وفي العنوان وفي نهاية النص.

When reading, I look for the main idea, which can be found in the beginning, in the end and in the title.

احاول استخلاص معاني الكلمات من سياق النص اقوم بالقراءة ومحاولة معرفة المعنى الانسب. اذا لم افلح التجي للقاموس. لم اتعلم استخدام القاموس الانجليزي من خلال حصص اللغة الانجليزية اما قاموس العربي فقد تعلمته من خلال المنهج في الصف التاسع. بدأت استخدام القاموس الخاص باللغة الانجليزية في المرحلة الثانوية بمجهود شخصي عندما تخصصت لغة انجليزية.

I try to extract meanings of difficult words from the context. I try to find out the most appropriate meaning. If I could not get the meaning, I consult the dictionary. When I joined High School, I started using English dictionary and learned how to use it. In school courses, I was not taught how to use English dictionary. However, I learned how to use Arabic dictionary in school, in the ninth grade.

احيانا يمكنني توقع الموضوع من خلال العنوان او الصور المصاحبة للموضوع وهذا قد يكون في اي لغة.

Sometimes I can predict the topic through the title or the pictures associated with the article. This can be applied to Arabic and English.

بعد ان اكمل القرأة اقوم باعادة القراءة واحاول استرجاع المواضيع السهلة ولاكن لا استطيع استرجاع المواضيع الصعبة. فمثلا بعد عمل هذا الامتحان حاولت تذكره.

After reading, I try to recall topics that can be easily remembered. Difficult topics are difficult to remember. For example, after I did this test, I tried remembering it.

عند القراءة امر على الموضوع بسرعة لمعرفة لمحة عن الموضوع و تعلمت skimming في اللغة العربية.

When reading I first try to get a general idea about the topic. I learned skimming in Arabic

استطيع ان اميز انواع النصوص بعد المرور عليها و يساعدني ذلك في القراءة.

When skimming an article, I can tell the type of the text. Knowing text type helps me read easily.

تعطي بداية النص سواءً كانت فقرة او جملة فكرة عن الموضوع في حين انه النهاية تعطي ملخص للموضوع اما الوسط فيقدم شرح.

The beginnings of paragraphs and essays provide an idea about the topic, whereas their endings

provide a summary of the topic. Details are introduced in the body of the article.

انا افكر في القواعد عندما اقرأ لانها تؤثر في المعنى وذلك واضح في القران الكريم لانه تغير حركة من الحركات او تغير

موقعها في الجملة يغير المعنى.

Whenever I read, I think of grammar because it affects meaning. This can be clearly noticed in the

Holy Quran if a diacritic mark changes, meaning changes.