South Valley University
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The Effect of A Suggested Program for Developing Some Basic Reading Skills of Primary Stage Prospective Teachers

A Thesis
Submitted as a requirement for The MA Degree in Education.

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2001
اقرأ باسم ربك الذي خلق. خلق الإنسان من علق. أقنِ
Court west of the ark. The one who created. Created the human. Let mankind
رسالة ماجستير

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Abstract

The present study was conducted to investigate the effect of using a suggested program in basic reading on developing the reading skills of second year English Majors of the Primary Division in Faculties of Education. Seventy-five students were treated as one experimental group. They were trained in the proposed reading program. Word identification skills; structural analysis and contextual analysis, were the only skills handled in the program.

Tools of the study included a questionnaire to determine the subskills of structural analysis and contextual analysis, a pre posttest in basic reading, the English Proficiency Exam for Egypt (EPEE), and the training program. Results revealed that the performance of the group on the post-test was significantly better than their pre-test performance. There were some gender differences, favoring the females, in achievement in the posttest of basic reading, and there was a positive correlation between subjects’ language proficiency and their achievement in basic reading. It was recommended that more studies should be conducted to investigate the needs of this sample of teachers.
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Table of Contents

Content | Page
--- | ---

**Chapter One: The problem and its Context.**

- Introduction | 2
- Problem of the study | 9
- Aims of the study | 10
- Hypotheses of the study | 11
- Significance of the study | 11
- Limitations of the study | 12
- Procedures of the study | 12
- Definition of terms | 14

**Chapter Two: Theoretical Background**

**Structural Analysis Clues**

- Morphemic clues | 19
- Syntactic clues | 23
- How Structural Analysis clues work. | 27
- What Structural Analysis clues depend on. | 29
- Advantages of Structural Analysis clues | 33
- Limitations of Structural Analysis clues | 35

**Contextual Analysis Clues**

- Explicit clues | 38
- Implicit clues | 41
- How Contextual Analysis clues work. | 46
- What Contextual Analysis clues depend on. | 47
- Advantages of Contextual Analysis clues. | 51
- Limitations of Contextual Analysis clues. | 52
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Three : Review of Literature</td>
<td>54-97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Background</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature related to preservice teacher training in reading.</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature related to gender differences in reading</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Remarks</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Four: Materials and Methodology</td>
<td>98-108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design of the Experiment</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variables</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tools of the study</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjects</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedures</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Five: Findings and Discussion</td>
<td>109-122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Findings</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Six: Recommendations</td>
<td>122-127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggestions for further research</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and Summary of the study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>References</td>
<td>129-145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendices</td>
<td>146-384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A) Tables</td>
<td>147-157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B) The training program</td>
<td>158-337</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Content

- Frame of the program
- Teachers’ Guide
- Students’ Book
- Jury Comments

C) The pre posttest in basic reading skills
D) The questionnaire
E) The English Proficiency Examination for Egypt (EPEE)

Arabic Summary

List of Tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T-test analysis for the age variable.</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T-test analysis for the group’s achievement in the pretest</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T-test analysis for the the group’s achievement in the (EPEE)</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T-test analysis for the the group’s achievement in the pretest and that in the posttest of basic reading.</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T-test analysis for the differences of the male and female subjects’ achievement in the posttest.</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>correlation coefficient analysis for the differences of the group’s achievement in the posttest of basic reading and the EPEE test.</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw scores of the students in the EPEE test</td>
<td>148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw scores of the male students in the EPEE test</td>
<td>149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw scores of the female students in the EPEE test</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw scores of the students in the pre test</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw scores of the male students in the pre test</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw scores of the female students in the pre test</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw scores of the students in the post test</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw scores of the male students in the post test</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw scores of the female students in the post test</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw scores of the students’ age before the experiment.</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter One

The Problem and Its Context
Chapter I: The Problem and Its Context

Research into reading in English as a second or a foreign language (Lewkowicz 1988, Hayes 1988, Norris 1988, Simons 1989, Anderson 1990, Carver 1992, Cornish 1992, Grant 1984, Moharam 1997) has shown that reading is not the step by step process of building up letters into words, relating written words to their spoken equivalents, joining words to form sentences. On the contrary, reading is a highly complex interaction between a reader and a text, in which the reader makes sense of the text using both textual and non-textual clues. Reading is, in Goodman’s words, “a psychological guessing game. It involves an interaction between thought and language” (1967:127).

Reading is an interactive skill. In this respect, the mental processes involved are similar to those employed while listening. In both, the students are engaged in decoding a message rather than encoding. Both require more than just a passive knowledge of the vocabulary and structure of the language. Reading, however, employs the visual sense while listening utilizes the auditory sense. (Grant, 1994) On the other hand, Nuttall (1982) believes that meaning cannot be passively absorbed. The reader often has to work hard to get the meaning out by active “interrogation of the text”.

Rivers (1985) and Al-Mutawa (1989) believe that reading is a skill when developed can be most easily maintained at a big level by the students themselves without further help from the teacher; as it involves linguistic aspects and cultural allusions, providing them with real life situations.

The overall purpose for teaching reading is to develop in the reader the attitudes, abilities, and skills needed for obtaining information and reacting to ideas, developing interests and, finally, deriving pleasure by reading through understanding. In Nuttall’s view one reason for reading is that we want to understand other people’s
ideas. The understanding may not be total, but the fact that we cannot get into the writer’s mind is no excuse for not doing our best to understand what he is trying to say. (Nuttall, 1982)

The reading process is hindered by the reader’s imperfect knowledge of the language being read. As a result the reader is often unable to make the necessary guesses or predictions; s/he will use the wrong clues, or make the wrong associations. It will be therefore the function of the reading program to make explicit the intrinsic linguistic knowledge as well as the strategies and techniques implicit in the reading skill.

Within the English Language curriculum the basic reading comprehension program can perform a number of roles. Williams (1984: 13) suggests four reasons for including reading comprehension in a language course:

“ 1- so that learners can have further practice of language that they have already met with through listening and speaking.

2-so that learners can learn how to make sense of texts, in order to extract the information they need from them.

3-so that learners can practice language in order to re-use it in writing.

4-so that learners can find enjoyment through reading.”

The role of reading comprehension within the curriculum will of course determine not only the type of reading materials used, but also the type of learning activities and teaching techniques that will occur in the classroom.
Basic reading comprehension is one of the basic reading skills to be acquired during the language course. It is indeed the one in which the students will have the greatest ability at the end of their language course – the one which can be a basis for individual learning about the country and its people, the one which can serve as a vehicle for entering into the literature of the country’s present and past civilization, the one which will stay with them longest, and the one which many students will have an opportunity to use.

Students seem to lack the basic reading skills necessary for reading and comprehension. Results of the English Proficiency Examination for Egypt (EPEE) have repeatedly shown very low scores for reading for faculties of Education. (CDELT Documents: 1985). Typical reading scores on the cloze test on entry into the first year were in the region of 15%. These rise to 20% for the end of first year and beginning of the second year and to 30% for the end of the second year. Similarly, typical results on the Reading Comprehension test on entry to the first year were in the region of 17%. These rise to 34% for the end of the first year and the beginning of the second year and to 47% for the end of the second year.

It is a matter of serious concern that at the end of the second year the average student in faculties of Education cannot attain a score of 50% on fairly elementary reading comprehension tasks. The only time any statistical valid measure has been applied in Upper Egypt was during the Curriculum Development Project in 1978 / 1982 when an earlier form of (EPEE) known as ASUPE (Ain Shams University.
Proficiency Exam) was applied*. Galal (1987 :5) reports the results of the reading subtest as follows: on the cloze test the mean was 21.8 %, and on the multiple choice (M/C) comprehension test the mean was 16%. These results and the above results indicate that students’ ability is low and their improvement is low as well.

Students in the Primary section in Faculties of Education face more difficulties in English courses in general and in basic reading in particular. This is due to the lack of qualification (two / or three years in stead of four) and the order of selection (usually on the basis of students’ scores in secondary stage general certificate examination of English). The results of a needs assessment inventory (conducted by the researcher and validated by a jury) as well as a polit study show a very low level in reading and a bad need for training in basic reading skills in particular.

This reading problem in turn raises even more serious questions as to how students really cope with the numerous unsimplified English language texts (including texts not in contemporary English) that they are required to read, especially in literature courses. It is unfortunately well known that students often do not read the texts, but have recourse to simplified versions, translations and lecturers’ notes.

To the knowledge of the researcher, as yet no detailed research findings are available about basic reading skills of students in the Primary Division in Faculties of Education, the findings of the

* Nowadays the Integrated English Language Program IELP II is performing some activities in the field of preservice teacher assessment i.e. ( Minia workshop on supervisory skills and primary education , 1999 and Assuit Program on assessing and developing the speaking skills of EFL preservice teachers ,2000)
questionnaire and the polit study lead us to believe the following to be the case:

1-Students do not use the structural analysis clues involved in the text.
   - They do not use knowledge of prefixes, suffixes, roots to unlock the meaning of a new word.
   - They do not use knowledge of sentences patterns, word markers, or punctuation clues to understand the meaning of new sentences and phrases.

2-Students do not use the contextual analysis clues involved in the text.
   - They do not use knowledge of synonyms, antonyms, or examples to know the meaning of a new word.
   - They do not use their linguistic sense of the sentence to unfold the meaning of a word in context, a phrase in context, or a widespread proverb or idiom.

The Ministry of Education conducted some short-term programs* for training Primary stage teachers of English. But this is not a comprehensive solution for the problem, a basic reading program is badly needed to develop the basic reading skills for the prospective teachers of English of the primary stage.

In Eskey’s words (1983:4) “it is a skill, not content, that a reading class should teach”. Once the learner-reader has acquired this skill (or set of skills) s/he will be able to apply it to any text. What is needed, 

* The most recent of these is the one entitled Teletutor developed and presented by the center for Adult and Continuing Education in the American University in Cairo CACE and the center for curriculum and Instructional Materials in the Ministry of Education CCIMD, 1999/2000
therefore, is “an approach that will help the students read the passage before them, and at the same time enable them to read with improved facility the text, which may be completely different or unrelated.” (Pett, 1982 :17 )

The fundamental objectives of reading may be met by a program that: (Badrawy ,1992 :17)

1-develops in each reader skills in

a. Recognizing many words at sight
b. Gaining the meaning of unknown words or expressions quickly by using one or a combination of the following:
   - analysis of structure
   - phonics
   - configuration of the graphic symbol
   - contextual analysis
   - the dictionary

c. Comprehending and interpreting the meaning of words, phrases, and sentences
d .Reading silently at speeds appropriate to the content and purpose
e .Reading orally with fluency, suitable speed, expression, correct pronunciation, and attention to enunciation
   - Evaluating the content of what is read
f. Using books efficiently: locating information, using the library, etc.
2-provides many opportunities for rich and varied experiences through reading;
3-develops a lasting interest in reading; and
4-fosters the resourceful and creative use of reading to meet particular needs and interests.

The suggested basic reading program is to be based on the skills required at each level of the basic reading process. The materials read are to be at a level to challenge but not to frustrate the learner-reader, to be tailored to the student’s interests, and to be plentiful. The skills taught are to be both linguistic and cultural, the linguistic covering the areas of syntax and vocabulary; the cultural, the areas of concepts and rhetorical organization.

The main purpose of the suggested program for Primary Stage prospective teachers includes:

1-to train students to use the appropriate structural analysis skills to handle to the task at hand.

2-to train students to use the skills of contextual analysis to clarify the meaning of new words or phrases in their reading texts.

Within this framework, the best learning environment is one in which “both teacher and students work together. With minimal teaching intervention, students are encouraged to use their own developing skills to solve their reading problems.” (Clark and Silberstein 1987: 137)

**Problem of the study**
Context of the problem:

The ability to read is recognized as one of the most important skills that a person can acquire. Reading is a tool of the acquisitive mind; it is the vehicle for obtaining ideas that cannot be transmitted verbally. Basic reading skills are very important for learning to read. “It is a mistake to think of reading as a subject, rather it is an introduction to critical and creative reading and an extension of knowledge.” (Moharam, 1997: 12)

As a teacher trainer of primary stage student teachers, the researcher noticed that student teachers of English lack the basic reading skills, particularly the decoding skills. They do not use structural devices, nor contextual devices in their readings. They seek to convey all the information of the text without making use of the necessary basic skills for this process. So, the researcher tries to investigate the effectiveness of a suggested program in reading for developing basic skills needed for these students.

Questions of the Study

The study attempted to answer these three questions:
1. Are there any statistically significant mean differences between the achievement of the subjects of the study in the pre test and that in the posttest of basic reading skills?

2. Are there any statistically significant mean differences between the achievement of the male subjects of the study and that of the female subjects in the posttest of basic reading skills?

3. Is there any statistically significant correlation coefficient value between the achievement of the subjects of the study in the proficiency test and that in the posttest of basic reading skills?

**Purpose of the Study**

The study aims at:

1. Measuring the effect of a suggested reading program on developing primary stage prospective teachers’ basic reading skills.

2. Measuring the difference, if any, between female and male subjects’ achievement in the test of basic reading skills.

3. Measuring the correlation, if any, between the language proficiency level of the subjects and their achievement level in the test of basic reading skills.

**Hypotheses of the study**

1- There are no statistically significant mean differences between the subjects’ achievement on the pre-test and that on the post-test.
2- There are no statistically significant mean differences between the male subjects’ achievement and the female subjects’ achievement on the post-test.

3- There is no statistically significant correlation between the achievement of the subjects on the proficiency test and on the posttest of basic reading.

**Significance of the study**

For Primary Stage prospective teachers of English, this study is of special importance for the following considerations:

1. The study Provides primary stage prospective teachers of English with practical guidelines for their present and future study.

2. The program utilized could facilitate the readings tasks in English for the students, such as (literature, linguistics, education, in a way that enhances their study skills

3. The study helps Primary stage prospective teachers of English establish the right reading habits, most essential of which are the basic reading skills, in order to teach them appropriately to their future students.

4. It is also hoped that this program will be a step in the development of training courses for teaching other reading skills to English majors in the faculties of Education.
Limitations of the study

The main skills treated in the present study are the skills of structural analysis and contextual analysis. These skills have been chosen because students in the primary Division in faculties of Education showed a very low level in basic reading skills. Results from a questionnaire for TEFL experts, and a pilot study emphasized the bad need for training these students on these skills.

Procedures of the study

Tools:
1. A needs assessment inventory to determine the skills and sub skills of structural analysis and contextual analysis.
2. A frame for the program of teaching basic reading skills.
3. The teaching program.
4. A pre-post test on basic reading skills.
5. EPEE (English Proficiency Examination for Egypt) for determining the subjects’ language proficiency before the experiment.

Steps:
1. Review of literature.
2. Designing the needs assessment inventory.
3. Choosing the sample from the second year primary stage English Majors in Qena Faculty of Education, South Valley University.
4. Determining the members of the experimental group on the following variables:
   a) Language proficiency   b) age   c) years of studying English
5. Designing the frame of the program.
6. Establishing the appropriacy and validity of the frame of the program by a jury of TEFL experts.
   7. Designing the teaching program.
   8. Establishing the appropriacy and validity of the reading program by the jury.
   9. Administering the pre-test.
10. Training the experimental group, using the suggested basic reading program.
11. Administering the post-test.
13. Reporting and discussion of results.
14. Conclusions, recommendations, and suggestions for further research.

**Definition of terms**

*Program:*

Abolyosr (1996: 9) defines a program as “a series of instructional activities which take place over a period of time”.

The researcher defines the *program* as a series of educational objectives, content areas, instructional activities, and evaluation tools, that aim at imparting certain skills on a certain group of students.

*Reading:*

There is much controversy among scientists on the definition of reading; Lapp and Flood (1978: 6) see that all definitions of reading
fall in two categories; first there are those who view reading primarily as a decoding process, a breaking of a visual code. In a second view, reading for meaning is emphasized from the very earliest stages of instruction, in this view, reading as a comprehension process is stressed. Mckeown (1975: 15) confirms that “reading consists basically in deciphering a code.”

The definition adopted in the present study is Lapp and Flood’s definition (1978: 90); “Reading is the process of perceiving, interpreting, and evaluating printed material. It is one of the four major tools of communication; listening, speaking, reading, and writing. It is usually silent, and it is receptive in nature. Reading requires the development of meaningful vocabulary and a multiplicity of skills. The reader must be able to perceive and recognize written symbols, and must be able to associate concepts with written symbols. He must be able to understand both concrete and abstract ideas as they are presented in written form.”

**Basic Reading Skills:**

The basic reading skills presented in this study are mainly word identification skills: structural analysis and contextual analysis.

**Structural Analysis:**

While Ives et al (1989: 254) see structural analysis as an “ambiguous term that some writers use to mean the identification of some pronunciation units and some meaning units in words”, they prefer to call it “word structure clues and define it as “Those correspondences between orthographic units and units of meaning and sound or pronunciation that enable readers to infer what written words
are by identifying their meaning and/or pronunciation component. Word structure clues include morphemic clues and phonic clues.”

On the other hand Helman et al (1998: 193 ) define it as “the investigation of unknown words for known meaningful parts, such as root words, compound words, contractions, prefixes and suffixes, plurals, past tense endings, and comparison endings.”

Anthony (1984:59) defines it as “the approach to word attack that is based on recognition of compounds made up of smaller words.” The present study adopts Helman’s definition.

**Contextual analysis:**

Anthony (1984: 55) sees it as “a method of word attack which is the most common means of determining word meaning, it is one in which students need guidance if they are to develop real proficiency.”

Ives et al (1989:248) define it as “the words and syntactic structures that surround a word or other language unit and that affect its meaning. Contextual clues refer to semantic and syntactic information that readers may use for identifying written words.” Graves et al (1998:335) refer to contextual analysis as “the words, phrases, and sentences that surround an unknown word and provide clues to its meaning.”

The present study adopts Graves et al’s definition.
Chapter Three
Theoretical Background


**Chapter II**
Theoretical Background of the Study

Word identification skills are among the basic reading skills readers of English, or any language, need to learn. In the present study word identification skills have been divided into structural analysis and contextual analysis skills. Although they are interrelated, they are divided here for study purposes. In the actual experience of reading, a reader makes use of all the available clues whether contextual or structural. However in the teaching process, it is advisable that we begin from the part to the whole, from the simple to the difficult, and form the concrete to the abstract. Many teaching aids have been designed for teaching basic reading and word identification skills through the use of simple readers or educational videos (for example *Learning to Read 1996,* & *Clues to Good Reading 1993*).

Structural analysis includes morphemic clues and syntactic clues, whereas contextual analysis includes explicit clues and implicit clues. (Flood and Lapp 1978, Graves et al 1998, Helman et al 1981,1998, Grellet 1983 and Ives et al 1989). For each kind of these subskills this chapter will focus on the nature of the clue, the various forms included in one skill, how they work, what each clue depends on, the advantages and the limitations of the clues.

**Structural Analysis Clues**

A cue is a prompt. It is something that is said that prompts someone, the next person, to say something. An example would be: "How are you?" This is the cue. The response would be either of the next responses: "Fine, thank you" "Not too well, thanks for asking" . A clue is used in both literature and grammar. In literature
Morphemic Clues:

The term morpheme is somewhat difficult to define. Different linguists define it differently. In general, it refers to the minimal spoken or written unit of meaning. In reading, morphemic analysis refers to finding, isolating and identifying such units (Hajjaj and Khrama, 1988)

Morphemes should not be confused with syllables. A morpheme is a unit in the grammatical and lexical system of language; it always represents meaning. A syllable does not represent meaning; it is a unit of pronunciation. (Ives et al, 1989: 93) Finding morphemes in words involves segmenting words into fragments and determining whether meaning can be assigned to them.

Kinds of Morphemic Clues:

The effective use of morphemic clues for word identification depends on readers’ familiarity with specific morpheme units. These include roots, prefixes, suffixes, and inflections. (Helman et al 1998: 218, Flood 1987: 152)

Roots:

The root of a word is that part of the word which is neither prefix nor suffix and which conveys the major portion of the word’s it is like a foreshadowing. The clue to how a story will work itself out was given somewhere previous in the story. Grammatically, a clue would be when one doesn't know what a word means (and doesn't want to look it up in a dictionary), the words around that word are clues to what the word could mean or even what part of speech the word is. Example: "Could you give me the shnarkle, I'm so hungry." Well, obviously, shnarkle is a food and also you will know it is a noun. (ElKholy, 2001)
meaning (Ives et al, 1989:107). Roots are also word parts to which prefixes, suffixes, or both can be added. (Meagher, L., & Thomas, G., 1984:89) A third definition of Root is that they are basic words which have been carried over into English. (Brownstone et al, 1999:269)

The term Root is used here because it is the term usually used in materials related to reading instruction, linguists, on the other hand, commonly use the term base. A root in English may be free or bound. Free roots are variously called word roots, morphemes or bases. They are always whole recognizable English words-the smallest English words to which affixes may be attached. Examples include pay in repay, comfort in comfortable and elephant in elephants. Bound roots are root units that cannot occur alone in English, but must be attached to other morphemes. They are variously called word roots, foreign word roots, parts, or particles. (Ives et al 1989: 109) Most of the English bound roots have been borrowed from other languages especially Latin, Greek and Old French. Some examples are \{fer\} in transfer (Latin) ,\{chron\} in chronology (Greek) and \{cour\} in courage (French).

**Prefixes**:  

Prefixes are bound morphemes since they are not independent units. They can occur only before roots and usually serves to modify the lexical meanings of those roots. Prefixes usually occur singly, but sometimes there are two of them in sequence at the beginning of a word. Each prefix also forms a separate syllable in the word. Ives et al (1989) notice that most prefixes are not separated from the roots to

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1For a complete list of some commonly used prefixes in English, refer to the students’ book, appendix (B)
which they are attached, but a few are sometimes separated by hyphens. This occurs when the lack of a hyphen would result in a sequence of letters that might be misleading as in the word co-worker (vs. the unhyphenated form coworker).

The use of prefixes for word identification purposes can probably best be taught when the root parts of word are recognized as individual English words. It is more difficult to use prefixes to identify words borrowed from other languages which were taken into English with prefixes already attached. In such words the roots are not clearly distinguishable as morphemes. However recognition of the prefix can be helpful in interpreting the words, although their identification may not be complete. Examples of such words are *translate and combine*. In these cases, the prefix *(trans)* {indicating cross} and *(com)* {indicating with or together} give readers a partial understanding of the words in which they appear.

John (1997) suggests that the most effective way to completely identify words through their prefixes is to combine the meanings of the prefixes with the meanings of the roots. This is best accomplished when roots are recognized as whole meaningful English words. A good teaching strategy is to present pairs of words, one with the prefix attached, and the other without the prefix, in order to illustrate the meaning function of the prefix. Examples are *pay*/*repay*, *like*/*unlike*, and *worker*/*co-worker.*(p.16)

### 3-Suffixes

²For a complete list of some commonly used suffixes in English, refer to the students’ book, appendix (B)
Suffixes are morphemes usually consisting of one, but in some instances, two syllables, that are added to the ends of roots. They are also called *derivational suffixes* to differentiate them from inflectional endings or inflectional suffixes. Like prefixes, they are bound morpheme units since they cannot exist independently.

Suffixes affect the meanings of the roots to which they are affixed. Although other aspects of meaning are involved as well, a primary function of derivational suffixes is to indicate part of speech or syntactic function. “English has four sets of such suffixes, one for each of the four major parts of speech; nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs.”(Ives et al, 1989:110)

Many suffixes influence lexical meaning, whether or not they affect syntax. For example the word *care* may be converted to *careless* or *careful* which are both adjectives but whose suffixes give them very different lexical meanings. They seem to develop meaning progressively. For example, from the basic root *act* (a noun or a verb) is made the word *active* (an adjective). From *active* are made the words *activity, activism* (both nouns) and *activate* (a verb).

**Syntactic Clues**

This is a word identification technique that relies on connected verbal text and uses the clues available from the syntax of the language. Syntactic clues are concerned with the relation rather than the referential aspects of language, that is, with how words are related to each other in sentences.
While syntactic clues can indicate the kinds of words that fit at a given point in a sentence, there are semantic constraints that help determine what those words can be. For example, in the sentence, “the pretty _____ sang a beautiful song,” syntactic clues indicate the presence of a noun. But just any noun is not semantically acceptable. Nouns like sky, dress, butterfly, and stone would not make sense in the light of other words in the sentence. Even man doesn’t fit comfortably in that slot since men are not usually described as being pretty. (Kristen 1998, 2)

**Kinds of Syntactic clues:**

The several kinds of syntactic clues are described below:

**Sentence Patterns and Forms:**

Every language has a limited number of common patterns by which the elements of the language may be arranged meaningfully. Readers can use this information for the identification of words. They can anticipate what kinds of words they can expect in certain positions in sentences if the sentence patterns are familiar to them. They can also use the same information to verify words identified through other techniques.

**Statement Sentence Patterns:** (Hajjaj and Khrama, 1989 : 98)

- S be Adv  
  John is there in the garden..
- S be C  
  John is kind. (adj)
  John is a doctor (n)
- S L V C  
  John looks sad.
- S In V  
  The boy laughs.
S Trv O1 The boy reads a lesson.
S Trv O1 Adj The boy puts the book in the desk.
S Trv O1 C They made him a leader.
S Trv O2 O1 She gave him a present.
There be S Adv There is a man at the door.
It be Adj That …. It is important that you come on time.

Where S means Subject                         Inv   means Intransitive verb
Tr means Transitive verb                     L V means linking verb
C means  Complement                          Adj means Adjective
Adv means Adverb                             O means Objective
O1 means Direct Objective                    O2 means Indirect Objective

**Question Sentence Patterns:**

Auxiliary / Subject/ Main Verb….Is Rita going home?
Interrogative Word /Auxiliary /Subject/Main Verb….Why is Rita
going home?
Interrogative Word as Subject /Auxiliary/Main Verb …Who is going
home?
Interrogative Word as Direct Object /Auxiliary/Subject Main Verb…
Whom did you see?

**Other sentence Patterns :**

. These three also occur frequently.

Command Pattern : Verb ..... *Stop !Go home !*
Request Pattern : Polite Word /Verb …Please leave now .
Instruction Pattern .Auxiliary /not/ Verb…Don’t go there.
**Word Order Sequences:**

In addition to whole sentence pattern, various kinds of word sequences within sentences can be used to identify word forms. Knowledge of common word sequences enables readers to predict what kinds of words will mostly precede or follow certain other words. Readers can look for familiar sequences as they read, and as long as they recognize the other words in that sequence, can supply the one they don’t know form their background knowledge. For example, word order provides clues as to what words might appear in the following blank spaces:

- The _______teacher
- Ran home __________
- Cute _______

The first blank requires an adjective such as *strict*, *knowledgeable*; the second, an adverb such as *quickly* or *slowly*, and the third, a noun such as *child*, *baby*, *puppy*. The most predictable English word order sequences include the following:

- **Adjective /noun**  
  - happy children
- **Verb/adverb**  
  - walked slowly
- **Adverb/verb**  
  - truthfully spoke
- **Article /noun**  
  - an egg
- **Article /adjective /noun**  
  - the handsome lad
- **Verb/complement**  
  - had many friends
- **Preposition/article /noun**  
  - over the hill
- **Qualifier/adjective or adverb**  
  - very tall, rather well
- **Possessive noun /noun**  
  - dog’s tail, God’s slaves
Punctuation and Typographic Devices:

The written forms of most languages use punctuation marks as signals to assist readers to comprehend spoken materials. “The punctuation system of written English however is far from complete representation of English intonation.” (Raimes, 1994: 245). The use of punctuation has developed from and is governed by editorial practice.

Punctuation marks and typographic devices provide clues to some aspects of intonation, and therefore can provide useful information in the identification of word forms. Ives et al (1989: 85) add that it should be noted that punctuation marks can serve either as visual configuration clues or syntactic clues.

How structural clues work:

Morphemic clues:

English morphemes are divided into two broad classes, free and bound. The dividing line between these two categories is not rigid, and the criteria for division should be regarded as general principles only. (Bander 1982: 89)

A free morpheme is one that can occur as an independent word. It can also appear attached to other morphemes with no appreciable change in meaning. For example water is a free morpheme meaning the liquid falling from the sky as rain and filling oceans, rivers, lakes and ponds. Water refers to the same

For a complete list of punctuation marks and their functions, refer to the students’ book appendix (B)
liquid in words like *watercress, waterfall, waterfast, and rewatering*.

Bound morphemes appear only attached to another morpheme, which may itself be bound or free. Bound morphemes include prefixes, derivational suffixes, inflectional endings, and some roots.

Another distinction to be made is between productive and nonproductive morphemes. A productive morpheme is simply one that is freely used to make new words. A nonproductive morpheme is one that is not so used. An example of a productive morpheme is the prefix *{anti}* meaning *against* as in *antiwar, antilibiral, anti-Communist, antilabor*, and so on. A nonproductive morpheme is the derivational suffix *{th}* used to form such abstract nouns as *health, wealth, and strength*. Although it comes from a very common Old English suffix, it is no longer used in making new words. (Graves et al, 1998:45)

If used in isolation, morphemic analysis is a slower, more tedious method of word identification than are whole word techniques. It is however, a fairly reliable technique which students can use independently. It helps readers build up their confidence and their competence in decoding writing. This is especially true when it is used with contextual and syntactic cues. If unfamiliar word forms are seen in the context of unknown words, it is often possible to infer what they are without identifying all of their parts.

*Syntactic clues:*
Since syntactic clues involve rational aspects of language, they are the clues that answer the reader’s question “does it sound right?” (Ives et al., 1989: 78) If the word identified sounds right to the readers in the context of the sentence, it probably fits a syntactic structure that is familiar to them. If it doesn’t sound right, the likelihood that the reader misidentified the word by substituting one of a different part of speech; that is, one serving a different grammatical function in the sentence than the one represented by the written word they were trying to identify.

Students who use syntactic clues are likely to substitute words of the same part of speech when they misidentify words in reading; those who don’t are likely to substitute words of different parts of speech. Even when they misidentify a word as a non-word or a nonsense word, the correct part of speech can frequently be associated with the nonsense word so that it sounds right grammatically even though it doesn’t make any sense in the sentence. Consider, for example the following sentence in which the nonsense word hoho is used: “we will have a picnic if the hoho stays fair.” Nonsense words in context may be acceptable syntactically although they are never acceptable semantically.

Students who read for meaning and who use syntactic and contextual clues as word identification techniques are usually aware of what doesn’t sound right and/or doesn’t make sense. On the other hand, students who concentrate their attention on within-word clues unrelated to sentence context (configuration, phonics, or morphemic clues), often don’t go back to correct their errors even though their reading may not make sense or sound right. They may not even realize
it when they misidentify words, since their attention is directed primarily to the naming of words and not to the acquisition of meaning.

**What Structural Analysis Clues depend on:**

**Morphemic clues**

1. To use morphemic clues, readers need to be aware that {1} words can consist of more than one morpheme, {2} morphemes are meaningful parts of words, {3} multimorphemic words can be divided into their individual morphemes, and {4} the meaning of the whole word is derived from the sum of its meaningful parts. They need to understand the concepts of root, prefix, suffix, inflectional ending and contraction. Moreover they need to recognize specific items in each of these categories. The more individual roots, prefixes, suffixes, inflectional endings and contractions that readers are familiar with, the more effectively they are able to use morphemic clues for word identification.

2. The effectiveness of this technique depends in part on the students’ reading vocabularies. Because all words contain roots, either free or bound, the more roots readers can recognize through configuration or phonic clues, for example, the more words they can identify in their derived and inflected forms. (Ives et al 1989: 79)

3. Knowing certain foreign languages may be helpful in the use of morphemic clues. Many prefixes, suffixes, and roots derive
from Latin, French and Greek. This technique may be especially useful to older students to whom English is a second or foreign language. (Spedding 1993)

**Syntactic Clues:**

1. There are some conditions that depend on the readers’ knowledge of language; these include their knowledge of how syntactic components of language are represented in writing, and readers’ reasoning abilities. The more they know about the components of language, such as sentence patterns, word order, or punctuation marks, the better prepared they are to use syntactic clues.

2. Older students are likely to be more successful than young beginning readers in using syntactic clues. The reason for their superiority is their more extensive experience with both oral and written language. Older readers also have an advantage over beginning readers because, generally, they have greater reasoning abilities.

3. There are some conditions that are related to the reading materials and readers’ interaction with them; these include the level of difficulty, the appeal of the material and the language being used. There are various variables that affect the level of difficulty. Syntactic complexity is one of these variables. For example, basic sentence meaning is expressed in the subject-verb relationship. These two components appear together at the beginning of simple sentences such as “the cat drank the milk.” If any word or words intervene between the subject and the verb,
understanding the sentence is usually made more difficult. For instance, one or more modifiers can occur between the subject and the verb, as in the sentence “the cat, thirty and hungry drank the milk.” The insertion of hungry and thirsty separates the subject cat from the verb drank, making the relationship between them less obvious. (Martin P, 2000)

4. It should be noted that the syntax of written material is usually more difficult to interpret than comparable syntax in speech. This is due to the fact that speakers can provide more clues to syntax than writers can. Speakers can use intonation, facial expression, and gestures. That is, they can use suprasegmental and paralinguistic clues that are not available to the readers. In writing, an equal amount of space separates words. It becomes the task of readers to group them meaningfully.

5. Dialects variations affect the use of syntactic clues. Since syntax is one dimension in which dialects differ, identifying word forms in standard written English through syntactic clues may be difficult, if not impossible for students who speak nonstandard dialects. One simply cannot anticipate or predict what one does not know.

6. Students for whom English is a second language may also experience some difficulty in using syntactic clues. The placement of syntactic structures in sentences often differ from one language to another. In Arabic, for example, adjectives usually follow the nouns they modify and always agree with them in number and gender. In English, adjectives
normally precede the nouns they modify and their forms are constant. In the English phrase “the white house”, the adjective *white* precedes the noun *house*. In the Arabic equivalent, “*Al bayt Al abyd*” the adjective *Al abyd* follows the noun *Al bayt*. (Hajjaj & Khrama 1989)

**Advantages of Structural Analysis Clues:**

**Morphemic clues**

1. The main advantage of morphemic clues is that their use enables readers to become independent in word identification. If readers use these clues correctly, they can be fairly certain that their identification of words is accurate. They don’t need external verification. Morphemic clues are particularly useful in identifying word forms that readers have not previously encountered in print.

2. Morphemic analysis not only enables students to identify word forms in their reading, but also helps to increase their vocabularies. As students learn new morphemes, they can combine them into meaningful sequences to construct new words.

3. Morphemic clues are not as sensitive to the difficulty and interest levels of instructional materials as are, for example, contextual clues. Since they are restricted to word components, they can be relatively independent of context. At times, though contextual clues are a necessary adjunct to morphemic clues in identifying words. For example, the syntactic clue provided by the pronouns *she and her is essential for the successful
identification of the word form \{dresses\} in the phrases *she dresses* and *her dresses*. The pronoun *she* indicates that *dresses* is a verb; the pronoun *her* indicates that it is a noun. (Ives et al, 1989)

**Syntactic Clues:**

1. The use of syntactic clues, together with contextual clues, enables the readers to identify words and word groups, more rapidly and efficiently than they can by using any other technique. The more familiar the syntax of the material is to the readers, the more rapidly they can identify the words.

2. Another advantage of this technique is that entire groups of words representing complete syntactic units may be identified without requiring the reader to examine individual words or their components. More words can be identified in a single eye fixation if they are in meaningful sequences within recognized syntactic structures than if the words are unrelated to each other in any meaningful way.

3. Syntactic structure is a source of information that readers can use to predict and infer the words in a sentence. The better their predictions, the less visual-orthographic information they need. In the sentence "*She is a very tall girl*", the word *tall* is obviously a modifier of *girl* (because of its position between *very* and *girl*). Words like *tell, till, tail, or ball* would be ruled out as possibilities with minimal, if any, visual or phonic clues. (Ives et al, 1989)

4. One of the most important advantages of syntactic clues is that they are generalizable to the identification of all word forms in all kinds of contexts. Also words that don’t follow consistent letter-sound
correspondences can be identified as readily as those that do. Syntactic clues are particularly useful for identifying structure words that are very often difficult to identify through other techniques. (Oslon, 1982)

**Limitations of Structural analysis clues:**

**Morphemic clues**

1. In morphemic clues, as well as in some other word identification techniques, one has to do with dialect variations. In some nonstandard English dialects inflectional endings are used differently than in standard English. Consider the following pairs of sentences:

   **Nonstandard:** I have five cent
   **Standard:** I have five cents.

   **Nonstandard:** Kate wear new shoes
   **Standard:** Kate wears new shoes

2. Another limitation also is that morphemic analysis can usually be used only to identify content words. It involves the analysis of words into their semantic units. Since most structure words consist of only a single morpheme, they cannot be divided into smaller subunits of meaning. The only exceptions are those structure words that are compounds such as *myself, however, heretofore,* and so on. Nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are more likely to consist of combinations of morphemes.

3. Whereas beginning readers cannot use contextual clues effectively because of their own limitations, they are unable to
use morphemic clues primarily because of the absence of such clues in their reading materials. (Flood & Lapp, 1987)

4. Morphemic clues also have some unique limitations posed by the inconsistencies of specific morphemic units. Although most prefixes are readily perceived, some present difficulties because they can be spelled in more than one way. For example, the prefix \textit{com} meaning \textit{with or together} can be spelled: \{col\} as in \textit{collate}, \{cor\} as in \textit{corroborate}, and \{con\} in \textit{congress}. Note the spelling of the prefix \{in\} meaning \textit{not} in \textit{impossible}, \textit{irrational}, \textit{illegal}, and \textit{ignoble}. (Brownstein, 1999)

5. Probably the major problem in using free roots for word identification is that adding some derivational suffixes and inflectional endings changes the spelling of the roots. Such spelling changes may render the roots unrecognizable to readers who are not familiar with such changes and so don’t take them into account. Ives et al (1989) find it important to make students aware of these spelling changes. Then when they encounter derived and inflected words, they will be able to figure out what the root words are, and so be able to identify the whole words. Some common spelling changes follow: When a suffix or ending that begins with a vowel letter is added to a root word that ends with \{e\}, the \{e\} is dropped.

\begin{itemize}
  \item Skate +{\text{ing}} = skating
  \item Drive +{\text{er}} = driver
  \item Fame +{\text{ous}} = famous
\end{itemize}

6. Some morphemic analysis entails the identification of meaningful subunits within words, it is slower than whole word identification
techniques. This disadvantage is compensated for by the relative independence it allows readers. The visual forms of morpheme are reasonably stable in English, so once a morpheme is known it can usually be recognized wherever it appears. If one morpheme of a word is known, the entire word is more easily identified.

**Syntactic Clues:**

Syntactic clues are subject to the same kinds of limitations that semantic and picture clues are when used in isolation (Ives et al 1989). Although a syntactic structure can be successfully predicted from context, the specific items of structure usually cannot. The final choice of the specific item can only be made in the light of additional information, usually contextual or orthographic-phonological. For example, in the sentence “the man went to the _______ of the house,” the syntax indicates that a noun belongs to the blank space. However, the specific noun cannot be predicted or identified without additional clues. Syntactically, the context of the sentence indicates that the missing noun has some relationship to the house, but only contextual or orthographic-phonological information can reveal if it is the top, front, side, or back of the house. Syntactic clues can be used successfully only when enough of the other words in the context are identified easily enough for readers to follow writers’ syntactic structures without difficulty. As a result, readers can use these clues only when the material they are reading is at their instructional and independent reading levels.

Another limitation of syntactic clues is that they are not readily available to beginning readers. Beginning readers must first learn to use other word identification techniques such as the use of picture,
configuration and phonic clues. (Heilman et al, 1981 & 1998). By doing so they become able to identify a sufficient number of words to enable them to use syntactic clues.

Contextual Analysis Clues

Contextual and structural clues are interdependent. Contextual units carry structural information; structural units carry contextual information. Thus, readers tend to use the two together to anticipate and confirm the identification of words. It is probably for these reasons that many people who speak or write about the teaching of reading do not distinguish between contextual and structural clues, but refer to them together as meaning clues, sentence clues, story clues, or contextual clues. (refer to Anthony 1984 and Heilman et al 1981)

Kinds of Contextual Clues

Contextual clues may be either implicit or explicit. Implicit clues are those that are inherent in written context. Explicit clues, on the other hand, are clues that are deliberately included by a writer to provide additional or redundant information. Implicit and explicit clues may be used singly, but they are more likely to be used in combinations. The specific kinds of implicit and explicit clues are described below.

Explicit Clues

Writers use a variety of stylistic devices to clarify words and concepts that they assume may be unfamiliar to or difficult for
readers. Such devices are explicit semantic clues. Authors and editors who prepare subject matter materials frequently include them. Some of these devices are the following:

**Synonyms.** Synonyms may be included in context in several different ways. The basic device is to introduce the synonym as a post-appositive addition, usually setting it off with some form of punctuation, and frequently introducing it with *or / that is.* (McCourt, 1980) In the examples that follow the word being clarified by the writer is italicized:

- He was *reliable,* or dependable, in everything he did.
- A *ferocious,* that is, fierce dog, guarded the gate and snarled loudly.
- The *garrulous* (talkative) man chattered incessantly.

Most of the other stylistic devices used by writers to clarify words and concepts through synonyms are variations of the above. For example:

- He killed the man with his *rapier,* a sword.
- Bishop O’Connor ordered the *miscreant* (or heretic) expelled from the Church.

Post-appositive synonyms may also be introduced by or without accompanying punctuation, as in the following sentences:

- While hiking in the mountains, they came to a *tarn* or mountain lake.
- The male sperm fertilizes the *ovum* or egg.
This practice may bewilder inexperienced readers who may incorrectly conclude from the first sentence that the hikers came upon both a tarn and a mountain lake, and in the second, that the male sperm fertilizes two different things.

**Antonyms.**

The contrast of antonyms is a useful explicit clue when one of the antonyms of the pair is in the reading vocabularies of the readers. These contrasts are frequently set up by correlative conjunctions such as *not /but, both /and, neither/nor,* and *not only /but also,* among others. For example:

*Both* the rich *and* the destitute were welcome in his home.

In this sentence the correlative conjunctions *both / and* suggest that *destitute* is the opposite of *rich.* The same suggestion could have been made had the writer used *not only / but also* as the correlative conjunctions:

*Not only* the rich *but also* the destitute were welcome in his home.

Antonyms may also appear in separate sentences. The clues in such instance are more difficult to recognize. Consider the following:

My father was beloved by everyone because he paid no attention to social class. The *rich* were often in his home. Just as frequently the *destitute* would appear there to enjoy his company. Everyone mourned when he died.

Antonyms need not appear in consecutive sentences to serve as clues to each other; one or more sentences may intervene.
Examples. Examples included as clues may be introduced by using any of the devices just described for synonyms, antonyms, definitions, and explanations. In addition, examples may be introduced by the phrases *for example* and *such as* or, simply, by citing them. Consider the following sentences:(Ives et al.,1989:61)

*Citrus fruits*, for example, oranges and grapefruits, should be included in everyone’s daily diet.

The definitions of *morphemes*, such as prefixes and suffixes, may be used to help identify difficult, technical words.

Some examples of *conifers* are pines, firs, and spruce trees.

Implicit Clues

The lexical value of individual words and of word combinations provides clues to the identity of other words in a sentence or paragraph. Efficient use of such clues in a particular instance depends upon readers’ knowledge relevant to the information being communicated. The following are examples of implicit clues.

The Topic. The topic or subject matter helps determine the sense in which specific words are used. If the topic relates to money, for example, the word form (*bank*) probably refers to a depository for money; if the topic relates to geology, (*bank*) may more likely refer to an elevation of ground. Previewing a selection before reading it enables readers to become oriented to the topic of the selection so that they can use semantic clues as soon as they begin reading. Without preview, readers must gradually acquire information about the topic.
Words Preceding and/or Following an Unfamiliar Word in the Same Sentence.

Meanings of unfamiliar words can be inferred from the denotative and connotative meanings of words that precede them in the same sentence, depending upon readers’ past experiences and acquired concepts as well as their knowledge of language. For example, in the sentence “Tony found the map of the U.K in the _________,” the unfamiliar word form (atlas) may be anticipated and identified if readers can relate it to the preceding word map.

Known words that follow an unknown word in the same sentence can be used in the same way. Consider the identification of the word form (batter) in the following pair of sentences (Ives et al, 1989):

The batter hit the ball over the fence for a homerun.

The batter has been mixed and is ready for baking.

The semantic clues to the identification of (batter) in the first sentence are the meanings of the words ball, hit, and homerun, which are familiar to anyone who knows baseball. In the second sentence the clues are the meanings of the words mixed and banking. Words are known to anyone familiar with the preparation of baked goods.

Clues to the identity of an unfamiliar word may both precede and follow that word in the same sentence. For example, in the sentence “The puppy found a cozy _______ in which to sleep,” the word form (nook) may be identified by anyone familiar with the sleep
habits of puppies by relating it to the preceding known word *cozy* and the following known word *sleep*.

**Words in Sentences preceding and/or Following the Sentences in Which an Unfamiliar Word Appears.**

Clues for identifying a word may be provided by the denotative and connotative meanings of words that appear at intermittent intervals throughout the reading material. If readers are able to accumulate a sufficient number of clues, they may be able to identify a word form that they would not be able to identify on the basis of a single clue. Some readers may require more clues than others, and any one reader may require a different number of clues at different times to identify words, even to identify the same words. The following pairs of sentences are examples in which the semantic clues may be found in a preceding sentence:

The boys have decided to play baseball. They need a *pitcher*.

They’re going to serve milk. They need a *pitcher*.

The meanings of the words *baseball* and *milk* in the first of each pair of sentences above are the clues to the identification of (pitcher) in each of the second sentences. In other instances the clue(s) may be found in a succeeding sentence:

The *batter* was not good. He kept striking out.

The *batter* was not good. She used a spoiled egg.

Here the expressions *striking out* and *spoiled egg* in the second sentences provide the semantic clues to the identification of (batter) in
the first sentences. The clues need not be in sentences adjacent to the one containing the word they clarify. They may be separated by one or more sentences as in the following paragraph:

It was the first baseball game of the season. All the parents had come to watch. Everybody was excited. It was time to start. The batter was ready.

The clue to the word *batter* in the last sentence is the expression *baseball game* in the first sentence; three sentences intervene between the clue and the word it helps identify. The word to be identified can, of course, be in the first sentence of a paragraph and its clarifying clue in the last:

The *batter* was ready. The children came to watch. They were all excited. It was a very special time. Mother was about to put the Christmas cake in the oven to bake.

The clues to the word *batter* in the first sentence are *Christmas cake*, *oven* and *bake* in the last sentence; again, three sentences intervene.

Sentences with relevant clues may both precede and follow the sentence containing an unfamiliar word. The following paragraph is an example in which immediately preceding and immediately following sentences provide clues to the identification of the word *batter*.

Rosa and Jerry went to the ball game.
The first batter was not good. He is struck out.

The following paragraph is an example in which clues to the identification of the word batter are in non-adjacent preceding and following sentences.

Rosa wanted to bake a chocolate cake for Jerry’s birthday. He was going to be sixteen years old. She got everything ready. The first batter was not good. She had to start all over. This time she mixed in less milk and more flour. (Ives et al, 1989: 57, 58)

Commonly UsedExpressions: If readers are familiar with commonly used expressions, idioms, colloquialisms, figures of speech, proverbs, and other familiar sayings, then whole expressions may function as units for identification purposes. Readers can infer the entire expression from a minimum of clues. For example, if readers encounter the sequence of words “Don’t count your chickens,” they do not need to look for additional clues to know that the remaining words are “before they hatch.”

The same process is applicable to longer sequences of words that are familiar to readers, such as nursery rhymes and other forms of poetry, excerpts from well-known plays, and other forms of familiar prose. Obviously, readers can do this only if they recognize enough of the other words in an expression. For example, the blanked out word in “Life isn’t all beer and ________” is most likely to be skittles. Americans, as well as EFL learners who don’t use British expressions may not know what skittles are and, therefore, might have difficulty identifying this word out of this specific context.
How Contextual Clues Work

Contextual clues are the clues that answer the readers’ question “Does that make sense?” when they are considering the identification of a given unfamiliar word. (Ives et al, 1989) The answer to this question involves the integration of the context in which a word appears and the readers’ background knowledge. “The Semantic clues enable readers to infer the meaning of a word form if they are able to identify enough other words to follow the sense of the sentences. The source of information for this technique is the semantic structure of the language.” (Nathan, 2001)

Since semantic clues may occur before or after an unidentified word form, meaning context permits the anticipation of words as well as the successful identification of words when clues follow them. Thus, regressive eye movements are not restricted to beginning readers; they are also common among proficient readers. For example, in the sentence “One should be cautious when using a pesticide to kill insects,” the critical word pesticide may be entirely new to readers. Readers may pass over that unfamiliar word momentarily, searching for clues in the words that follow. The phrase “to kill insects” is a clue to the identification of the word form (pesticide). Readers may or may not have been regressive eye movements in using such clues. They do not actually have to look back at a word in order to identify it on the basis of the subsequent semantic information.

There are times when semantic clues must be used to identify words, regardless of what other techniques may be used. Word forms
like (close) and (rebel) cannot be identified without semantic or syntactic information. The following sentences are illustrative:

Please close the window.
Please sit close to the window.
John is a rebel, although he has nothing to rebel about.

Conversely, words like quickly, swiftly, speedily, and hastily can be identified through semantic and syntactic clues alone. Since these words are synonyms, one can be differentiated from the other only with the assistance of word structure clues.

Homographs that represent the same part of speech can be differentiated from each other only through semantic clues, as in the following pairs of examples: (Ives et al, 1989)

He was given the lead in the school play.
He was given the lead in the small box.
She was a fair person. She inherited her mother’s blondness.
She was a fair person. She listened to both sides of the story.

What Contextual Clues Depend On

The efficient use of contextual clues for word identification depends on a number of conditions. Some of the conditions are related more to readers themselves and some are related more to the written material involved.

A. Conditions related to readers include the dependence of this technique on their store of background information and knowledge
stock of vocabulary and concepts, grammatical fluency, and reasoning abilities. The larger their vocabularies and their funds of information and knowledge, the more resources readers have to draw on. If readers’ experiences cannot be brought to bear on the written material, they will have difficulty in using contextual clues. For example, if readers have never had any direct or indirect experience with fairs as competitive exhibitions, and understand the word *fair* only in connection with weather or an attitude, they are likely not to be able to use contextual clues to identify (*fair*) in a sentence like “Kathy won a prize at the *fair*.”

Older readers are more likely to be successful in using contextual clues than young, beginning readers. Having lived longer, they have had made more experiences, have heard and read more, have stored more information and knowledge in their memories, and have accumulated larger vocabularies and more concepts. This enables them to identify words successfully even when the words are not part of their vocabularies. Beginning readers do not have sufficient background experiences and knowledge of language to be able to identify word forms representing words that are not part of their own vocabularies. Moreover, older readers usually have developed greater reasoning abilities that enable them to make inferences more easily than younger readers can.

B. Conditions related more to the reading material and readers’ interactions with it include the readability (difficulty) level, and cultural content of the material. Materials that are too difficult for readers present them with a considerable number of unknown words. This hinders their use of semantic clues because they cannot
accumulate enough semantic information to assist them in their identification of unfamiliar words. This is illustrated by the following sentence, in which the blank spaces represented unknown words:

“_____ the ______, believe in ______. ______not only with our _____but with the _____________ also.” (Ives et al, 1989)

Level of difficulty may be affected by such factors as word length, sentence length, sentence complexity, frequency of difficult words, and conceptual difficulty.

C. Reading material must also be significant and interesting to readers to make the use of contextual clues effective. Readers must want to understand what they are reading. Unless they insist on getting meaning, they will not be aware of the contextual clues that are available. They will be more likely to concentrate on individual word naming and more likely to use word structure clues. Students who overely on non-contextual, word structure clues are commonly called "word callers." (Spedding, 1993). They do not anticipate words and have difficulty determining whether they have identified words correctly or not. Students who use contextual clues for word identification are usually not word-by-word readers. They are likely to understand what they read to a greater degree than students who limit themselves to clues available only within the words being identified.

D. When the cultural or subject matter content of the material closely matches the cultural background of readers, they have stronger bases for understanding the material. Therefore, they are better able and more likely to use contextual clues. The degree of match directly affects readability level. The more readers know about the content of
what they are reading, the more successfully they will able to use contextual clues. Thus, readers will be able to use contextual clues more effectively with some materials than others.

E. Dialect variations also affect the use of contextual clues. When the language of readers approximates the language of the reading material, the use of contextual clues is easy and natural. When the language of the reading material is unfamiliar to readers, they cannot take advantage of contextual clues because of the disparity between the two language systems. For example, if pupils read the sentence “How about some sugar?” within the context of two people greeting each other, they will be confused if the word sugar refers only to a sweetening agent in their dialect and not to a kiss. (Ives et al, 1989)

F. Slang terminology also affects the use of contextual clues. In recent years for example, the word *dig* has had, as slang, the meanings “understand” and “approve”. (Graves et al, 1998). If readers see this word in dialog that was written when one of these slang meanings was current, they should not expect a reference to a shovel.

G. Specialized vocabularies present difficulties that are similar in kind. In an account of a baseball game, for example, one might find the sentence “*He doubled against the right field wall and drove in three runs.*” The verb *double* has a perfectly clear meaning in this context, but one has to know baseball terminology to understand it. Whenever people study a new field of study, they at first devote a great deal of time learning the specialized vocabularies. (Ives et al, 1989)
H. Because the materials themselves can play a very significant role in the development of the students’ skill in using contextual clues, teachers should choose instructional materials carefully.

All the factors discussed above must be considered.

**Advantages of Contextual Clues**

A. Contextual Clues permit readers to identify written word forms very rapidly, particularly when the content and the word forms themselves are familiar. Also, since this technique requires only a minimum of orthographic or phonic information, it usually results in rapid and fluent reading.

B. Another advantage of this technique is that meaningful context facilitates the identification of words. Pupils can often identify words in context that they cannot identify in isolation or in word lists.

C. The more readers use contextual clues for word identification, the more independent they become. They get continual feedback as they read and are able to monitor their own reading. This procedure is frequently referred to as hypothesis testing and confirmation. Readers predict what a word form represents (hypothesis) and then confirm or reject their hypothesis on the basis of whether or not it makes sense in the context of what they are reading. (Ives et al, 1989)

D. Contextual clues are especially helpful to students who may be deficient in spelling and recoding. These clues do not require the close attention to visual details that word structure techniques
do. Thus, use of contextual clues technique often enables poor spellers and recoders to become proficient readers.

E. One of the most important advantages of this technique is that its use is highly generalizable and applicable to the identification of all kinds of words and word groups. It works as well in the identification of words that do not follow consistent letter-sound correspondences as in the identification of those that do. Furthermore, contextual clues may be used to identify words that are encountered in written form by readers for the first time. Since these clues are anticipatory in nature, new as well as familiar word forms can be identified with equal facility. (Ives et al, 1989)

**Limitations of Contextual Clues**

A. Several words may have similar or nearly similar meanings in English and, therefore, make sense in a given context. Because of this, contextual clues, when used apart from other word identification techniques, do not necessarily result in an exact identification of words. They are similar to picture clues in this respect. For example, just as a picture cannot differentiate among words such as *cat* and *kitty*, contextual clues may not either in many contexts.

B. One’s reading purpose usually determines how close the correspondence between writing and speech must be. Some purposes (reading a light novel for entertainment) can tolerate a considerable amount of variance between writing and speech without negative effects, while other purposes require a great
amount of precision (reading a legal document or a medical prescription). For example, exactness of recoding is required for the word form \{on\} in the sentence “Put the money \textit{on} the desk”. Misreading \{on\} as \{in\} would completely alter the meaning of the sentence.

C. Another limitation of contextual clues is that they are not readily available to beginning readers. Beginning readers must first learn to use other word identification techniques such as picture, configuration, and phonic clues. (Heilman et al, 1981, 1998). By doing so, they become able to identify a sufficient number of words that they then can use as a basis for using contextual clues. As their reading vocabulary increases, their proficiency in the use of contextual clues can increase. But as long as their reading vocabulary is limited, their use of contextual clues continues to be limited also.

To conclude, this chapter shows clearly the different types of structural analysis and contextual analysis clues that are very important in the process of reading and comprehension. It is the analytical merit, above all, that makes the suggested program an urgent need to convey these skills to the teachers of the future. The chapter discussed the kinds of every main skills, the advantages and disadvantages of each, their limitations, and what they depend upon. This basic theoretical background formed the rationale for the framework of the suggested program.
Chapter Three
Review of Literature
Chapter III

Review of Literature

**Background:**

The field of reading is one of the most intriguing, complex, and seemingly overwhelming areas in all education (Sawby, 1984:2). The reading skill, once developed, is the one which can be most easily maintained at a high level by the student him/herself without further help from the teacher. (Rivers, 1985; 214)

**Literature related to pre-service – teacher training in reading:**

Many studies have been conducted to design training programs in reading for pre-service teachers as a way of developing reading in general and basic reading in particular.

Koehler et al (1971) designed a research to examine a number of factors that findings from verbal learning studies indicate should affect the recall and transfer of word identification materials. Sight word and phonics-based or rule-based learning were investigated in 112 kindergarteners who were identified as nonreaders. Groups were trained on mixed word lists containing sight words and rule words varying the list structure, amount and order of practice, and the distinctiveness of list contents. The effects of training were assessed by having subjects read and learn sentences containing the sight words, rule words, and new rule words containing the previously trained phonics components. Means and standard deviations for each group on mixed sentence list practice and the retention-transfer tasks are listed. The use of a light blue background cue to distinguish sight words had little influence on transfer performance. The sequence of rule word/sight word/mixed list in learning sight word and rule word
contents tends to play an important role in the word identification process during reading and influences further practice of these contents.

Kennedy and Getz (1972) presented a description of the restructuring of a traditionally organized plan for teaching pre-service secondary level students the knowledge, skills and abilities related to reading at the secondary school level. The traditional course structure was abandoned and replaced by a series of self-instructional packages. This new structure facilitated the identification of desirable professional competencies, actualization of individualized, self-paced instruction, utilization of different patterns of teacher student interaction, and increased use of instructional technology. The competency-based program described requires each pre-service student to acquire certain competencies with respect to secondary school reading before he is certified. All competencies, the means by which the students may acquire these competencies, and the method of evaluation to determine if the competencies have been met were identified in the instructional packages. (pp:15-19).

Britton (1973) implemented a prototypic pre-service reading methods program featuring large group, on-site, individualized instruction. The program explored an alternate strategy relative to undergraduate teacher preparation in an elementary reading methods course. A critical dimension of this approach was the incorporation of on-site, instruction to a currently existing program. This format met with an enthusiastic response from all participants. The positive reaction expressed by the college students via the evaluative questionnaire rating scale index revealed that this program format
facilitated in effectively communicating teaching skill concepts to undergraduate teacher candidates. (pp:29-32)

Schell et al (1973) designed a booklet for teaching word identification resources. Only materials specifically designed to teach one or more of the following word identification skills were included in this booklet: sight words, context clues, phonic analysis, structural analysis, and dictionary skills. Materials for grades one through six are stressed, although a few materials suitable for secondary school students are listed. The areas of material covered include: (1) "Audio-Visual Materials," which lists charts and posters, films, filmstrips, flannel and peg board materials, machines, records and coordinated materials, tachistoscopic materials, tapes and coordinated materials, and transparencies and coordinated materials; (2) "Non-Book Practice Material," which includes drill cards, games and similar drill materials, liquid duplicating masters, and word wheels; (3) "Phonic Readers"; (4) "Programmed Materials"; (5) "Word Analysis Programs"; (6) "Workbooks"; and (7) "Sources of Reading Games, Activities, and Ideas." An appendix listing names and addresses of publishers and producers is included.

Rutherford and Weaver (1974) identified the preferences of elementary reading teachers for certain instructional patterns and procedures and compared them with those of a similar group of teachers in another geographic location. Teachers responded to questions concerning: (1) pre-service preparation; (2) current educational needs; and (3) desired approaches to in-service training. Analysis of responses were made according to grade level and years of experience, teaching level and years of experience influence.
training preferences, but variance within grade and experience level may be greater than variance between levels. Teachers in the two separate communities were more similar than dissimilar in their preferences. (pp:271-275).

Flight (1974) expressed hearty and overwhelming agreement with the international reading association commission on higher quality teacher education in review of the commission’s proposed new model for a professional program for pre-service and continuing education in modular preparation for teaching reading. Stress was put on the legitimate differences between elementary and secondary teachers in needed competencies for reading instruction. Moreover, the emphasis on studies of language and community sociology and the fact that they were spelled out for each level of competencies was most appropriate. (pp:153-158).

Chapman (1974) conducted a study testing a hierarchical theory postulating that the literal reading comprehension process can be divided into separate skills that are distinguishably different from each other and which are hierarchically related. Results indicated that literal reading comprehension can be divided into different related skills of which structural analysis, contextual analysis, and dictionary use are the basic reading skills (pp.; 232-34). Britton (1975) compared two pre-service reading methods courses: a five-hour course that included a practicum and a three-hour traditional compus-based course. 62 student teachers participating in either of the courses were asked, via a questionnaire rating scale, to assess their perceived competencies in teaching reading skills to children. The T-test statistic was employed in comparing the two.
courses. The result strongly suggest that a five-hour pre-service reading methods program that is coordinated with a practicum improves the effectiveness of student teachers in communicating reading skills to elementary school children. (pp:71-74).

Kingston et al (1975) pointed out that for many years a number of reading specialists have felt an urgent need for an instrument which would determine how well a teacher or prospective teacher understands reading pedagogy. In response to this need, Sterl Artley and Varalee B. Hardin have published the inventory of teacher knowledge of reading (1971). The inventory measures 7 important areas of reading, and consists of 95 multiple choice – completion statements. In an attempt to test the instrument’s reliability, it was administrated to 3 groups of students (N=332) to determine if observable differences exist between pre-service and experienced teachers. Another purpose was to determine if differences exist between the responses made by experienced elementary teachers, and reading specialists. A factor analysis of the data was also conducted to identify the degree to which the instrument measures the individual components. The most significant percentage of variance accounted for by the 1st factor was 5.68% and the 2nd was 2.86%. There is no clearly defined factor pattern for this instrument. (pp:133-136).

Gray (1976) considered some questions concerning the field based methods program such as: (1) who determines which elementary teachers are to cooperate in the program and what standards are to be used? (2) should elementary schools be limited by screening procedures? A field based program can be one answer to improve preparation of reading teachers if: (A) both theory and
practice are integral program parts, and (B) both pre-service students and cooperating teachers can demonstrate competence on a teaching performance test. (PP: 380-382).

Mickulechcy and K. (1977) reviewed the studies that have been completed over the past few years on the teacher-as-reader. Teachers’ reading competence has varied, but scores in general were distressingly low. Some studies ranked the main body of those teachers tested in the 0-9% percentile range for total comprehension using college freshman norms. Surveys of reading habits revealed that the average elementary teacher (surveyed in Maryland in 1972) read one book each four months, and one in five teachers reported reading no professional journal. In 1973, Mauler surveyed pre-service teachers in reading methods classes and found that 70% chose TV or movies over reading a book, and more than 50% chose TV news over a newspaper. One hundred and forty-nine students at the University of Wisconsin taking reading methods courses were used as students to determine the effect of teachers’ reading habits and competence on student achievement. Students’ attitudes were measured by three different tests. Reading performance was measured by the Nelson-Denny Reading Test. Using sixteenth grade norms, the students average in the 63% percentile rank. This study’s finding suggested that teachers do have fairly good reading competence. Since these findings were very different from the majority of other research results, further investigation was needed. (pp:573-581).

Cogan and Anderson (1977) surveyed teachers in a stratified random sample of 100 Minnesota elementary schools, to determine which professional periodicals they most commonly read, and to
determine relationship between reading practices reported and certain demographic variables. The survey questionnaire utilized a Likert-type scale to determine frequency of reading on twenty periodicals published for elementary teachers. Analysis of the data returned from 76% of the sample suggests the following: (1) Elementary teachers read most frequently pragmatic educational periodicals, ideas transferable to immediate classroom practice. (2) There is a high correlation between teacher readers and school subscriptions suggesting that professional reading materials be made readily available within the school. (3) Age is a significant factor in teachers’ professional reading habits with older teachers reading more often the seven most read periodicals. (pp:254-258).

Rupley and Norton (1978) reviewed research and expert opinion dealing with pre-service and in-service education of reading and language arts teachers. The pre-service education programs were classified as either field-based or competency-based. No one pre-service education program in reading and language arts has been shown superior. However many recommendations were offered for careful consideration. It was argued that many of those suggestions; e.g., on-the-job training, individualized instruction, and evaluation of actual student data, appear logical procedures for better preparing teachers of reading and language arts. It was emphasized that pre-service programs alone are adequate for the preparation of highly qualified and effective teachers; it is essential that school districts provide a continuous program of in-service education. Five major issues related to in-service education for reading and language arts teachers were discussed, each focussed on one of five questions. Two of them are: who should be involved in in-service? where should
program effectiveness be measured? Although the literature reviewed in an attempt to answer these questions proved substantial, few guidelines were available based on empirical research findings. (pp:641-647).

Gilmore (1978) investigated the relationship between pupils’ ability to comprehend inferential meanings from a reading text and the teacher’s use of a 3-part discourse structure in a reading lesson’s discussion phase. He used 25 pre-service teachers of English as students. Those teachers who employed greater use of the 3-part structure – elicitation / response / reaction – enabled more pupils to infer the texts major theme than did those teachers how employed significantly fewer instances of the structure. The teacher’s choice of a particular verbal strategy determines the social context and communication system of the classroom, which effects pupils’ learning. (Pp: 128-135).

Robison et al (1978) conducted a cross cultural study of psycholinguistic practices and beliefs among 37 US and 37 English in-service, and 25 46 and US English pre-service teachers. Using a graphic rating scale, the students responded to a series of 12 statements that indicted their familiarity with psycholinguistic insights. For most students the basic tenets of psycholinguistic thought were either unknown or tended to oppose their current teaching practices. (Pp: 134-137).

Mac Court (1980) had a psychological point of view that the main approaches to word identification are: sight vocabulary development, phonic analysis, structural analysis, contextual analysis
, and dictionary use. Thus she suggested that any reading program should focus on (1) phonic analysis/high utility word meanings, (2) phonic analysis/word associations, (3) structural analysis/antonyms, (4) semantic feature analysis/contextual analysis, (5) dictionary usage/multiple meanings, (6) contextual analysis/homographs, (7) connotation-denotation/contextual analysis, and (8) word devices/phonic analysis. Categorizing sight words and using analogies are also proposed as activities for coordinated instruction.

Zimmerman (1982) developed a booklet for Boston high school students giving priority to the basic reading skills needed for the students at this age. Literal reading comprehension was presented as the first and basic level of reading comprehension. To read critically, students should at first recognize and recall information found in a reading selection. (p.202)

Perfetti (1983) explored the psychological time spent in word recognition and word identification, and found that reading a word, and realizing its meaning, in context is faster than reading it isolated. Thus he presented a type of measuring word timing and this type assumes that the time to identify a word in context is an activation function, whereas the time to activate a word in memory beyond some criterial identification threshold is a multiplicative function of context plus the individual's basic word processing rate. Studies confirm this model's predictions for individual differences in the time to read a word in context: skilled readers identify words more quickly and are affected less either by context or by stimulus degrading than unskilled readers.
Eckert and Wollenberg (1984) outlined a competency – based predictor model for evaluating foundation courses and counseling pre-service teachers. Prospective teachers (N=61 elementary and special education majors) completed a basic skills course in the teaching of reading. Scores achieved on each of fair criterion – referenced tests, concentrating on reading readiness, approaches to teaching reading, word recognition skills, and research and study skills, were analyzed in terms of academic achievement, aptitude, and attitudinal predictor variables. The findings indicated significant Correlations among scores on the criterion – referenced tests and the predictor variables of composite score, vocabulary and comprehension scores on the Nelson. Denny Reading Test and high school grade point average. A negative relationship was found to exist between achievement on the criterion – referenced tests and the predictor variables of major and attitudes toward reading. (Pp: 238-242).

Gary (1984) described the responses of 37 elementary education majors and 23 special education majors to a rating scale aiming at determining whether the view of the reading process held by these individuals reflected the influence of recent psycholinguistic research. Two hypotheses were tested: (1) newly prepared teachers will not hold beliefs about reading that show the influence of recent psycholinguistic research (2) there will be no difference in the response of pre-service elementary education students and those of the pre-service special education students. For hypothesis 2, three categories showed a significant difference in the ratings in the two groups. It was surprising to note that teachers still in preparation appeared to cling very closely to traditional beliefs about the reading process. This was true for only pre-service students at one university.
If a wider sample of students were surveyed, results might be different. Clearly, however, all students in preparation should be in possession of an understanding of psycholinguistic views of the reading process. (Pp.: 253-258).

Sieddow and Hasselbring (1984) explored the feasibility of using altered texts with students experiencing reading difficulties. Pre-service teachers were taught to rewrite social studies text passages in such a way as to lower readability without loss of comprehensibility. No differences in effectiveness were noticed among the three text alteration methods used. Altered and unaltered versions of the passages were used as text material with reading – disabled students (N=24). Analysis of the scores from 10-point quizzes given for each passage indicated that altering the texts led to increase comprehensibility. It was suggested that teachers must be careful, in rewriting text, to insure that lower readability is not achieved at the expense of comprehensibility. Moreover, altered text by it self does not guarantee improved comprehension: it must be used in conjunction with sound instructional strategies. (Pp. 276-279).

Cheek et al (1984) estimated that anywhere from 1%-20% of the US adult population was illiterate at that time. To reverse this downward spiral, the skill of reading had to be viewed as a continuing complex developmental process. Secondary teachers can contribute to a K-12 reading program, following these suggested principles (1) coordination of reading with other communicative experiences; (2) instruction in basic reading skills, content area reading, study skills, and personal reading; (3) flexibility; (4) meeting the needs of each child according to needs, abilities, and interests; (5) reading conceived
as a perceptual process; (6) stress on reading for thinking, understanding; and learning. The program also must endeavor to develop critical skills and flexibility in comprehension. The elementary component, pre-service teachers training, and teacher attitude were factors to be considered. The regular or special education component in a K-12 perspective was in its infancy, partly because of a lack of appropriate and empirically validated methods and materials. The reading curriculum at levels 7-12 was often isolated from other areas and viewed as the responsibility of the remedial teacher. A program for developing a K-12 perspective was presented. (Pp. 42-49).

Hoffman et al (1985) analyzed the content of elementary reading methods textbooks, spanning nearly 100 years, to note patterns of emphasis for selected topics. Trends such as a lag behind instructional practices, synchronization with current instructional practices or wide pendulum swings in amount of coverage devoted to particular topic were investigated. In most cases methods textbook content reflected actual instructional practices, such as oral reading receiving much coverage in the early 1900s and little coverage in the early 1960s, 1970s and 1980s. Cases were also noted where the amount of textbook coverage of a topic was inversely related to its instructional popularity. Overall, there appeared to be a fairly stable body of knowledge about reading which College instructors present to pre-service elementary teachers. Awareness of patterns of emphasis however may provide insight for reading educators as they attempt to prepare teachers for the future. (Pp: 65-72).
Chance (1985) designed a five-year study centered on the use of the cloze procedure as a practical assessment instrument for secondary classroom content area teachers. Pre-service secondary education majors (N=600) administrated the Slossen Oral Reading Test to secondary students. Based upon the students’ grade level score, each student was given a cloze test on material written at the grade level determined by the Slossen Oral. Results of the cloze procedure indicated that the Slossen Oral predicts the instructional reading level in 20% of the cases, and frustration level in 20% of the cases. This is significant, since the Slossen Oral is quick and easy to administer and, when used in conjunction with the cloze procedure, gives a more total reading profile of students for secondary teachers to use in assessing reading ability. (Pp: 690-693).

Abdel Ghany (1986) conducted a study to determine if significant differences existed between students in the experimental and control groups in achievement on the five subtests measuring lexical comprehension, literal comprehension, inferential comprehension, grammar and language structures, and on the general reading comprehension test. Results revealed significant differences between the two groups (favoring the experimental group) in achievement on the lexical comprehension, grammar and language structures, and on the general reading comprehension test. There were no significant differences between the two groups on the literal comprehension test. (pp76-75)

Charles (1988) investigated belief systems across pre-service and in-service teachers, addressing the question of whether their beliefs differ and whether the two groups make instructional choices
based on their theoretical orientations. Students were pre-service and in-service teachers (N=83 and 44, respectively) who completed identical packets of material in anonymous responses. Pre-service teachers, undergraduate education majors enrolled in an elementary reading methods course, were given the packets during the first three weeks of the course to minimize the effect of the instructors personal philosophy of reading. The in-service teachers were evenly distributed across three states and were first - , second - , and third – grade teachers from eight public schools with at least two years of teaching experience. Packets were placed in their mailbox in envelopes coded by school, so no teacher could be identified. In addition to question sets, each packet contained nine lesson plans, three each in the areas of vocabulary, comprehension, and syllabification. Results imply that (1) there is little difference between groups in theoretical orientation regarding how reading takes place and how reading ability develops; (2) both pre-service and in-service teachers with reader-based /holistic explanations for how reading takes place and develops did not tend to choose vocabulary and comprehension lessons reflecting their beliefs; (3) students in both groups holding text-based, interactive mastery of specific skills and differential acquisition explanations for how reading takes place and develops did not choose lessons consistent with their theoretical orientation (pp:357-377).

Jacqueline and Roger (1989) stated that learning how to evaluate reading texts should be an important part of pre-service training. A simulated text book selection process was used to compare differences in the consistency of experimental and control groups (total N=96) in evaluating textbooks. The experimental groups, who were required to define their criteria operationally, were more
consistent in their evaluations than the control group, who used traditional checklists. (Pp: 5-15).

Roger and David (1989) conducted a qualitative study to explore pre-service secondary teacher’s attitudes concerning content area reading instruction (N unspecified). A questionnaire was administered to students on their first entering a content area reading course. Students were asked why the state requires a course in reading for secondary teachers and how such a course could aid their teaching. Findings suggest that pre-service teachers entering content reading courses may have misconceptions or misinformation as to course purpose and outcome. These initial misconceptions were not manifest at the conclusion of the course, probably because course content specifically focused upon these areas; however, other more subtle, complex, and deeply ingrained misconceptions were found in the exit data –misconceptions that fuel a continued resistance to content reading. (Pp: 396-401).

Kern (1989) investigated the effects of second language Reading strategy instruction on comprehension and word inference ability. The subjects were fifty-three students enrolled in a course named “French Three” at the university of California. All subjects were given the ETS Achievement Test in French (Reading Comprehension FORM). The experimental treatment centered around reading skill development in the areas of: word analysis, sentence analysis, discourse analysis, reading for specific purposes and reading task interview. Subjects were told that they would be presented a French text one sentence at a time and that they would be asked to report what they were thinking as they read the sentences:
what they understood, what they didn’t understand, how they went about determining the meaning of unfamiliar words, whether they made any predictions or inferences, whether they translated into English, etc. Two quantitative measures were derived from the reading task interview: a comprehension measure and a word inference measure, both scored on a scale of 0–100. Word inference scores were calculated as the percentage of words that the subjects indicated as familiar at the outset of the interview whose meanings became clear in the context of the passage. Results showed a statistically significant main effect difference between experimental and control subjects’ comprehension gain scores. This indicates that strategy instruction had a definite positive effect on readers’ comprehension of the test passage. (Pp.: 135-145).

Hollingsworth (1989) discussed two ways that enable beginning teachers to learn more about teaching reading. The first is a traditional approach in which an instructor transmits reading techniques by modeling examples. The second involves teachers-instructor collaboration to create new examples. Brief case histories of two students’ teaching experiences were presented. (Pp: 698-702).

Adams (1990) reviewed the history of the debate, the literature on the relative effectiveness of different instructional approaches, the theory and research on the knowledge and processes involved in skillful reading, and the various literatures relevant to reading acquisition. He confesses that that task was especially challenging and especially worthwhile because the relevant information and arguments were scattered across so many fields. More specifically, the relevant research literature divides itself not only across fields of education,
psychology, and linguistics, but also the fields of computer science and anthropology. He found that the most influential arguments for teaching word identification are based on studies comparing the relative effectiveness of different approaches to teaching beginning reading. These studies can be sorted into two categories. Those in the first category consist of small but focused laboratory studies. Those in the second category have compared the effectiveness of instructional approaches in real classrooms. He concluded that a child's success in learning to read in the first grade appears to be the best predictor of her or his ultimate success in schooling as well as all of the events and outcomes that correlate with that. Yet, across the literature he reviewed, children's first-grade reading achievement depends most of all on how much they know about reading before they get to school.

Richard et al (1990) offered several principles for improving the pre-service education of prospective teachers of literacy. They claimed that traditional American teacher education fails to develop expert teachers because knowledge and skills are taught in the abstract, decontextualized form practice in classrooms. Several principles for improving teacher education were offered. In particular, incorporating the use of video technology into pre-service teacher education is suggested. Close analysis and discussion of the videotaped lessons of prospective teachers could be the centerpiece of university education courses. (Pp: 187-209).

Willis and Willis (1991) evaluated a computer simulation that helps student teachers learn to administer the Informal Reading Inventory (IRI). The simulation was developed using the authoring system course of action. IRIS (Informal Reading Inventory
Simulation) provides pre-service teachers with multiple practice opportunities in administering this important instrument. Effectiveness of the simulation was evaluated by providing 35 students with in-class instruction and guidance on administration of the IRI; 50% of the students were instructed to practise administering the test on their own and the other 50% used the simulation. A week later, students were given the Test of Essential Judgement and Administration Skills (TEJAS). Scores were significantly better for the group who had used the simulation. (Pp: 245-248).

Mosenthal et al (1992) addressed the current lack of comprehension instruction in the classroom and its potential importance as a learning tool. They thought that teacher education activities should provide a model of extended strategy instruction (ESI) instead of merely reinforcing the practice of “mentioning.” The authors attempt to implement ESI with pre-service teachers in reading methods courses was described, including group discussion transcripts. The program had two main goals: giving teacher trainees the experience of (1) learning and using a new strategy in an instructional setting, and (2) constructing meaning from text by utilizing a particular strategy. Students’ use of and reaction to the strategy were described, and issues concerning effective implementation of ESI were addressed. (Pp: 198-207).

Lambley (1992) examined reading instruction from the teacher’s viewpoint through the review of current instructional methods and teacher attitudes. Information was gathered by surveys of teachers conducted in 1988 and 1989/90. Area of focus included specific classroom practices and differing types of teaching approaches, forms
of teacher assessment of student progress, the teaching of phonics, and the use of “schemes” in reading acquisition. Also discussed were teacher’s perceptions of specialized in-service training and the lack of consistent educational support for increasing teacher skills. Pre-service training of teachers was discussed with concern expressed for the level of preparation that student teachers receive. It was concluded that reading teachers may shy away from the debate over teacher training because of their realistically perceived low level of adequate training (pp: 21-22).

Spedding et al (1993) Studied interrelationships among metacognitive abilities at the word level (phonemic awareness and metacognitive abilities in word identification), word identification skills, and reading comprehension for 55 year-5 Australian students (aged about 9-10 years). Metacognitive abilities at word level are related to reading comprehension directly and indirectly through word-identification skills.

Zidan (1994) examined the effects of explicit, formal training in text rhetorical organization on EFL majors’ achievement in the analytical reading of English as concerns knowledge of text rhetorical structure, basic content analysis, and making inferences. The results indicated that the analytical reading behavior of EFL Egyptian readers is significantly enhanced as a result of training in the rhetorical patterns of written English and that this training variable has significantly positive effect on the reader’s analysis of basic content and making inferences in reading comprehension. (PP.:77-106)
Konopak et al (1994) examined pre and in-service secondary teachers’ (N=58 and 46, respectively) orientations toward content area reading and instruction. Instrument included two sets of belief statements and three sets of lesson plans; for comparison, each instrument incorporated three explanations of the reading process. Based on their selection of statements and plans, pre-service teachers held reader-based beliefs in both areas. In addition, both groups selected primary reader-based vocabulary and comprehension lessons but varied in their choices of decoding lessons. Only teachers holding reader-based beliefs consistently chose corresponding vocabulary and comprehension plans (pp: 220-227).

Risko (1995) presented a summary of findings, current explorations and future directions in undergraduate developmental and remedial reading methods courses conducted at Nonderbilt University. Two recent papers were also presented in the year – book – of – the – American – Reading – Forum. The first was designed to systematically trace the process by which pre-service teachers learn to use acquired information, and the second was directed toward a more in-depth analysis of student knowledge acquisition by comparing the performance of experienced teachers and pre-service teachers on standardized protocols. Recent findings indicate that pre-service teachers are developing flexible knowledge representations and an in-depth understanding of information in this program. (Pp: 15,45-53).

Turner and Traxler (1995) developed an approach to preparing education students to teach whole language techniques to immerse the pre-service teachers in a whole language environment. Methods described were silent reading, literature response groups, cooperative
learning, thematic literature collection, and evaluation notebook and field experience. The program was designed to enable teachers to be open and informed as they decide on their approaches to literacy instruction. (Pp: 245-246).

Cavanaugh and Linek (1995) advocated the increased use of course – specific Academic portfolios in literacy methods courses for undergraduate teacher education students. Portfolios were characterized as a balance of process. And product –oriented evaluation. Some specific examples of portfolio analyzes were provided. (PP: 185-190).

Romine et al (1996) presented survey results of the reading requirements for content literacy methods in teacher education established by the States, drawing on a survey of all 50 state departments of education and the district of Columbia. It was found that the number of states requiring at least one reading course for teacher certification has risen from 35 in 1983 to 37, plus the district of Columbia in, 1994. Although the overall finding of an increase in number of teachers exposed to content literacy techniques, was positive, it was noted that preservice teachers routinely resist such techniques, indicating that more intensive efforts must be made to make them a part of every teacher preparation plan (pp: 194-198).

Wedman et al (1996) examined the differences in achievement between pre-service teachers who learned word recognition content and pedagogy using expert – jigsaw groups (N=27) vs. a traditional methods course (N=26). Students studied materials from the same reading methods textbook and their performance was measured by
pre- and post tests using essays, multiple-choice, and open-ended questions; these were analyzed using t tests, percentage, and rubrics. Results showed that both groups acquired the material, but the experimental group’s posttest essays showed significantly greater achievement. A concern instrument was also administrated and students in the experimental group tended toward the desired direction of acceptance of the jigsaw method innovation. The procedure was recommended as an effective alternative method for teaching reading (pp: 111-123).

Mc Eachern (1996) outlined the contributions to South African literacy by non-governmental organizations, although the government and publishers have worked to provide culturally relevant literature–based reading materials for black children, money to buy them has been lacked. The Molteno project has developed programs in teachers training and English and mother tongue literacy for elementary school (pp: 189-196).

Wolf (1996) used assisted case studies to prepare teachers to be more knowledgeable and skilled in supporting children’s responses to literature. Pre-service elementary teachers (N=43) enrolled in university children’s literature course each chose a child aged 1:8-11:0 with whom to read at least 30 minutes weekly. Field notes on books, questions, answers, and activities were recorded and submitted twice during the semester to help teachers focus on and understand patterns. Class discussions were also analyzed. The influence of teacher’s expectations and their understanding of intertextuality on the interaction, the relationship between expectations and intertextuality, and the shift, if any, of these factors over time were examined. The
teachers moved toward a vision of literary response that highlights interpretation over comprehension. A side – by – side model of children’s literature instruction where pre-service teacher follow a university course with firsthand individual case studies was recommended. (Pp.: 130-157).

Moharam (1997) conducted a study to investigate the effects of using the discussion method on developing first year, Faculty of Education, English Majors’ reading comprehension and creative reading skills. Eighty eight students were randomly divided into a control group and an experimental group. While students of the experimental group were trained on a program of reading comprehension and creative reading skills through the discussion method, the students of the control group were instructed a course in reading skills through the traditional method of teaching. Tools of the study included: a questionnaire to determine the sub-skills of literal, critical comprehension and creative reading skills; a training program in reading comprehension and creative reading skills; a test on the knowledge of reading skills; a test on the use of the reading skills. Results revealed that the experimental group surpassed the control group in the post-test of the knowledge and use of reading comprehension and creative reading skills. (pp.:33-60)

Tan (1998) designed a program for improving college English students’ reading proficiency at Fujian Normal University to: (a) examine the significance of extensive reading to college English teaching, (b) to use the study results (the college English band 4 test results and a questionnaire results) as a reference to recommend some feasible reforms in college English teaching including the revision of
the syllabus of college English. The results were as follows:

1- The college English band 4 test result (1997) suggested that, compared with the intensive reading approach, the intensive reading approach more effectively improved college English students’ reading proficiency and linguistic knowledge (grammar and vocabulary).

2- There was an increase in vocabulary learning behavior and attitude towards vocabulary learning; as most of the students learned vocabulary through extensive reading and thought that the best way to learn vocabulary was to read extensively.

3- It was concluded that extensive reading positively influences students’ reading habits: A. Reading without doing frequent grammar analyses and word forward translation. B. Instead of consulting the dictionary immediately, skipping the new words or guessing their meanings by the context clues in dealing with new words in the reading process. C. Getting the main idea of a paragraph or a passage by detecting the topic sentence or the topic paragraph. D. Reading on discourse level, not on word or sentence level (pp: 150, 154, 159, 160).

Jonson (1998) designed the California Reading Initiative as a multifaceted strategy to improve elementary school reading instruction. The program had as goals professional development for all K-8 teachers and modification in the pre-service preparation of teacher candidates in reading instruction. The program included phonemic awareness, direct, systematic, explicit phonics, and decoding. The vital role of independent reading was discussed and key factors in its successful implementation were described in the study. (Pp: 90-96).
Griffith and Laframboise (1998) used the literature case studies as a teacher education strategy that combines methods from case-based instruction and reader response to literature. A literature case study is a novel that contains school-based events and characters; the richer descriptions of characters background, personalities and problems in a literature case were considered appropriate for pre-service teachers who lack the background for understanding contexts and problems in the traditional teaching case. It was concluded that the use of literature case studies is enjoyable for students and develops lifelong reading habits (pp: 364-375).

El Naggar et al (1999) began an attempt to focus on the current situation of Primary EFL teachers’ preparation and pre service programs nationwide, declaring them not to be uniform in terms of content, teaching strategies, teaching practice and student evaluation. They also analyzed a futuristic overview in terms of how to ensure comprehensive and consistent pre service programs nationwide and the means through which the constrains imposed on the whole EFL spectrum can be manipulated to better serve the EFL context in Egypt.

Touba et al (1999) explored the place of Content Based Instruction (CBI) in the Egyptian educational context with reference to primary English language teacher education programs. Three course outlines were presented as in progress reports; they are: 1) An undergraduate language course using literature as content.

2) An undergraduate language course using global issues content.

3) A post graduate course using a variety of content areas.
They concluded with a brief comment on future plans for content based courses.

Mahmoud, A.M. (1999) designed a study to construct and investigate the effectiveness of a proposed program for preparing pre-service EFL teachers in the Primary Education Branch at the Faculties of Education in Egypt. She designed a training program for the primary stage preservice teachers based on their Professional needs, and pointed out that following the introduction of English as a foreign language at the primary level, Faculties of Education in Egypt opened English Sections in Primary Education Branches. In these sections, pre-service teachers are prepared to teach English as a foreign language to children in the primary stage. These sections are in dire need of research-based teacher education programs to meet the needs of English language teaching for young learners. Because of the importance of this critical stage, it is not reasonable to have incompetent teachers who are not able to achieve the general aims or the specific objectives of teaching English in the primary stage. The competent teacher is the basis of the educational process in general and teaching English as a foreign language in the primary stage, in particular. Results included a list of the professional needed required for preparing pre-service EFL teachers in the Primary Education Branch at the Faculties of Education in Egypt, a proposed program for preparing pre-service EFL teachers in Primary Education Branch at Faculties of Education in Egypt, a proposed training course for integrating the methods course, the skills lab, and the teaching practice, and that the proposed training course that was offered to the treatment sample, proved to be effective. The effectiveness of the
course is an indication that the whole proposed program is effective as well.( pp. 201-210)

Literature related to Gender differences in Reading:

Bewley (1975) investigated the relationship of the combined factors of family structure, socioeconomic status, and pupil gender to reading readiness scores. Specifically, the study attempted to determine if there were significant differences among mean reading readiness scores when pupils were grouped by family structure; socioeconomic status; gender; family structure and socioeconomic status; family structure and gender; socioeconomic status and gender; and family structure, socioeconomic status, and gender. The subjects for the study consisted of 223 kindergarten pupils from 15 elementary schools in Oklahoma. Data for each pupil were determined by the Hollingshead Two-Factor Index of Social Position; male or female; and the Metropolitan Readiness Tests score. Some of the conclusions drawn from the study were that socioeconomic status apparently affects reading readiness scores; girls can be expected to score higher than boys; family structure alone is apparently an inadequate predictor of reading readiness scores; and a combination of the three main variables (family structure, socioeconomic status, and gender) could be used to predict general reading readiness scores.(pp. 50-136)

Yawkey (1980) reported the results of a study of five-year-olds, which indicated that social relationships are a facilitator of cognitive learning of reading readiness concepts and imaginativeness. Girls in the experimental treatments significantly outperformed the boys.(pp.159-68)
Nielsen et al (1981) revealed that female high school seniors in a group of poor readers were significantly more external in locus of control than males in the group, but that no significant differences existed between females and males in a group of above-average readers. (pp.339-40)

Flynn (1983) reports the results of a pilot study conducted to determine the effect of the gender of college students on their responses to three short stories. Concludes that male students react to disturbing stories by rejecting or dominating them while female students more often achieve critical detachment.

Day et al (1983) investigated the effects of sex differences on the relationship between conservation ability and the reading and linguistic awareness of five-year-old children. Findings of this study and others consistently support the hypothesis that conservation ability correlates more highly with reading in girls than in boys. (pp.347-50)

Hogrebe (1985) conducted a study to investigate the relation of gender to reading achievement at the high school level. Findings suggest that by the time students reach high school, the magnitude of gender differences in reading achievement as assessed by the High School and Beyond survey is small.

Thompson (1987) designed three studies to examine individual differences among 6- and 7-year-olds in the extent of use of alternative cognitive processes for word reading. He supported the expectation that boys tended to rely more than girls of the same
Hyde et al. (1988) reviewed 165 studies (representing the testing of 1,418,899 subjects) that reported data on gender differences in verbal ability indicated a slight female superiority in performance. The difference is so small that it appears that gender differences in verbal ability no longer exist. A major goal was also to define age trends in the pattern of gender differences. Analyses of effect sizes for different measures of verbal ability showed almost all to be small in magnitude; these measures covered vocabulary, analogies, reading comprehension, speech production, essay writing, anagrams, and general verbal ability. For the 1985 administration of the Scholastic Aptitude Test, verbal scores showed superior male performance. Analysis of tests requiring different cognitive processes involved in verbal ability gave no evidence of substantial gender differences in any aspect of processing. An analysis by age showed no striking changes in the magnitude of gender differences at different ages, countering E. E. Maccoby and C. N. Jacklin's conclusion that gender differences in verbal ability emerge at about 11 years of age. Comparison of studies published in 1973 or earlier with subsequent studies indicates a slight decline in the magnitude of the gender differences in recent years. These findings have implications for theories of sex differences in brain lateralization and changing gender roles. 

McCall (1989) declared that while the charge that standardized tests are biased is not new, critics (including feminists) recently have made accusations of gender bias. One argument for the superior
performance of males on the Scholastic Aptitude Tests (SAT), the Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test/National Merit Scholarship Qualifying Test (PSAT/NMSQT), and the American College Testing Assessment Exam (ACT) is that males and females study different subjects. Fair Test, the National Center for Fair and Open Testing, makes the opposing argument that such tests tend to obscure the real differences in ability that may exist. One consequence of a lack of sustained research into sex-related differences coupled with non-substantiation of a biologically related female verbal advantage may be that the anti-female bias of the conclusions from some studies will stand, and standardized tests will not be examined for gender bias. Girls have been penalized, not rewarded, for verbal skills and have been blamed for creating an atmosphere that contributes to boys' failing. Girls begin to test less well than boys in secondary school even while receiving higher grades. Various responses have been made to what is perceived as abusive practices in assessment: (1) educators and advocates are calling for national regulation of testing; (2) it has been suggested that the age of admission to primary school be reconsidered; (3) states are introducing legislation to reduce the number of tests and the time spent on them; and (4) special interest groups have threatened lawsuits. (pp.15-21)

Edwards (1989) conducted a study (involving 100 children in grades 1-5) to investigate whether children thought of reading as especially a male or female activity. Findings indicated that in grades 1-4, boys regarded reading as mostly a feminine activity, while in grade 5 boys regarded reading as mostly a masculine activity and girls regarded it as mostly a feminine activity. (pp.31-36)
Schultheis (1990) conducted a study in which she intended to negate or confirm the findings of prior studies conducted on the relationship between gender and reading preferences in high school students and to ascertain whether any changes have occurred that would reflect changing attitudes toward gender roles. Data were gathered by using a survey which was distributed to approximately 240 11th grade students at a suburban Cleveland (Ohio) public high school. The current study supports results of earlier studies that have shown that females spend more time reading than males; that certain types of books are typically more or less appealing to members of one sex or the other; and that males prefer reading books with male protagonists. The research indicates that females also prefer male protagonists and identified with them more often than with female characters. In contrast to previous studies, this research shows that males identified with characters more frequently than females. Included in the appendices are the questionnaire used in the study; the categories of books that the respondents like to read; the three top-ranked choices of categories; newspaper sections in order of those most read; and choices of magazines by type. (pp. 1-38)

Lock (1992) examined gender differences in results from the holistic model reading tests developed by the Pennsylvania State Department of Education. Patterns of differences were examined and interpreted within the context of previous reading research. Data were collected from the Testing for Essential Learning and Literacy Skills (TELLS) reading tests administered to students in grades 3, 5, and 8 in March 1991. Information came from the item responses of approximately 117,000 third graders, 113,000 fifth graders, and 107,000 eighth graders enrolled in Pennsylvania's 500 public school
districts, with some parallel analyses for students in Chapter 1 compensatory education programs. Some statistically significant gender mean differences were found, but their magnitude was slight. This was particularly evident in considering the minimal variance that gender contributes to explaining levels of reading comprehension on the TELLS tests. There is little basis to conclude that gender is particularly favored by explicit, implicit, or extended type test items or by the nature of the test item passage. Similarly, there is little basis to conclude that gender is better either in reported strategy selection or prior knowledge. The Pennsylvania process for developing reading tests and careful passage selection are important factors in understanding why gender differences are minimal. (pp. 1-16)

Johnson (1992) conducted a study to identify a set of predictor variables for student grades in a first-quarter English course, a study was undertaken of students' reading and language scores on the Career Planning Program (CPP) and the Multiple Assessment and Program Services (MAPS) placement tests. In addition, the relationship was examined between the first-quarter English course grades and students' age, gender, and race. The CPP and the MAPS were administered to all students at a metropolitan two-year college prior to the first day of classes in the four quarters of 1989. In addition, reading and language sub tests were administered on the first day of classes to 104 students enrolled in entry-level English course. Study findings, based on an analysis of student course grades, standardized test scores, and demographic variables, included the following: (1) the mean age of the sample was 26 years old, 63.5% were male, and 95.2% were white; (2) age and the MAPS reading and language scores were found to be statistically significant in predicting students' grades;
(3) CPP reading and language scores, gender, and race were not found to be statistically significant; (4) a significant positive relationship was found between all of the subtests; and (5) while age was found to have a significant relationship with the two MAPS subtests, it showed no relationship with the two CPP subtests. (pp. 20-86)

Shannon (1992) designed a study to examine sex differences in school learning with a focus on how the variable of gender affects the teaching, learning, development, and behavior of children. The initial entries in this collection of articles focus on reading: the reading interests of girls and boys, sex bias and stereotyping in reading tests, and the influence of gender, sex-role beliefs, and socioeconomic status on listening comprehension. The second section deals with sex differences in the field of mathematics. The combined references of the two articles in this section provide almost 50 opportunities for further reading and research. The third section examines the issues of gender and sex stereotyping. Articles focus on children's understanding of gender, the influence of sex stereotyping in limiting children's play choices, the responses of kindergarten and fourth-grade students to a series of gender-related stories, a "curriculum of self-concept," and the knowledge and attitudes of preservice teachers toward the role of women in society. The final section examines sex differences from the perspective of nonverbal and verbal behaviors, describing sex differences in nonverbal skills and discussing implications for children's developing communicative and social skills. Implications of sex differences in "male and female language" for teachers are also pointed out. (pp.30-59)
Day (1994) presented summaries of empirical studies of kindergartners, fifth graders, high school students, and college students, which suggest that people use stereotypes and gender-based identification in encoding, retrieving, and making inferences. She also discussed results of qualitative research on differences in male and female responses to literary texts, and reviewed theoretical interpretations of the research.(pp.91-107)

Thomas (1994) designed a study in which he declared that differences in girls' and boys' writing were felt to stem from cultural experiences relating to their reading and viewing. The aim of teachers should not be to produce degendered narrative but to encourage the complementary components of assertiveness, reflectiveness, and awareness of opposed values in both boys' and girls' writing.(pp.154-58)

Trapp (1995) designed a study to investigate if either school entry age or gender had any effect on the reading achievement of 121 second-grade students from the Metuchen, New Jersey, public school district. The subjects were administered the California Achievement Test in the Spring of 1994. Results indicated that late starters scored significantly better than early starters, whereas there were no gender differences in achievement.( 36-40)

Quinlan (1996) designed a study to examine the question of whether or not a child's chronological age at school entry or gender affects his/her academic achievement. It posits 2 hypotheses: (1) that there is a low or negligible correlation between the chronological age at which a child enters kindergarten and a sample of the child's overall
reading ability by the end of third grade; and (2) that there are no
gender differences between reading achievement of similarly aged
entrants. The population selected for this study included only students
who entered kindergarten in the Hillside School System in New Jersey
between January 1, 1986 and December 31, 1986 and continued in the
district until their third-grade year. Using cumulative records, data
were gathered on each student's birth date, gender, and national
percentile rank composite reading score on the Metropolitan
Achievement Test (MAT) given in April (1995) of their third-grade
year. The population was divided into early, medial, and late entrants.
Results proved both hypotheses to be true. Conclusions would suggest
that districts should use a multifaceted approach in the assessment of
school readiness. Chronological age and gender do not seem to be
adequate ways of predicting third-grade reading success.( pp. 35-49)

McKenna (1997) examined gender differences in reading
attitudes among school age children. The hypothesis was that school
age children in grades K-8 regard reading as a predominately feminine
activity. Subjects were 269 students, grades K-8, from a low-income,
urban school setting. Students completed Reading Attitude Surveys,
modified from the Downing Object Activity Opinion Survey. The first
survey was given to grades K-3, and the second was presented to
students in grades 4-8. Results indicated that the overall majority of
students see reading as an activity more suitable for girls, supporting
the study's hypothesis. Findings suggest that these perceptions
intensify with age for both boys and girls. Findings also revealed that
the most dramatic increase in this perception seems to take place
around grade 5.( pp.5-30)
Cole (1997) managed to conduct the Educational Testing Service (ETS) Gender Study which is the result of 4 years of work by several researchers using data from more than 400 tests and other measures from more than 1,500 data sets involving millions of students. The study focuses on nationally representative samples that cut across grades (ages), academic subjects, and years in order to control factors that may have introduced confusion and contradictory results into previous studies of gender differences in educational settings. Results indicate that gender differences are not quite as expected. For nationally representative samples of 12th graders, the gender differences are quite small for most subjects, small to medium for a few subjects, and quite symmetrical for females and males. There is not a dominant picture of one gender excelling academically, and in fact, the average performance difference across all subjects is essentially zero. The familiar mathematics and science advantage for males was found to be quite small, significantly smaller than 30 years ago. However, a language advantage for females has remained largely unchanged over that time period. Also, gender differences for component skills of academic disciplines were often different than for the discipline as a whole. Gender differences were shown to change as students grew older and moved to higher grades. Patterns of gender differences in performance are similar to patterns of differences in interests and out-of-school activities, suggesting that a broad constellation of events relates to observed differences. Results show larger gender differences for self-selected groups taking high-stakes tests than for nationally representative samples, reflecting primarily the wider spread of male scores. Results indicate that neither guessing, speededness, nor the multiple-choice format per se accounts for the gender differences. However, results on presently used open-ended
questions sometimes reflected no gender effect and sometimes reflected effects in which females' performances exceeded those of males and vice versa. (pp.1-36)

Fiore (1999) examined gender differences in reading attitudes among second and fourth grade students, their parents, and teachers. The hypothesis was that reading is viewed as a predominantly female activity by students. The subjects were 34 second grade boys, 23 second grade girls, 28 fourth grade boys and 30 fourth grade girls from a middle income, suburban Catholic school in New York. Students completed a reading attitude survey that was modified from the Pottorff, Phelps-Zientarski and Skovera study in 1996. In addition, the parents and four teachers were given the same survey. The parents and teachers were also given two separate surveys developed especially for this study. Results indicated that the majority of students viewed reading as an activity for both boys and girls. These findings negate the hypothesis that reading is viewed as a mostly feminine activity by the students. A majority of the parents viewed reading as an activity for girls and a majority of the teachers viewed reading as an activity for both boys and girls.(pp.56-70)

Kranzler (1999) conducted a study to examine racial/ethnic and gender bias on curriculum-based measurement (CBM) of reading with African-American and Caucasian male and female regular education students across grades 2-5. Simultaneous multiple regression analyses were conducted by grade to examine group differences on CBM as an estimate of reading comprehension. Regression equations were estimated with CBM, gender, race/ethnicity, and the interactions of gender and race/ethnicity with
CBM. Results indicated that CBM is a biased indicator of reading comprehension. Although no evidence of bias was found at the second and third grades, intercept bias was found for racial/ethnic groups at the fourth and fifth grades, and intercept and slope bias were found for gender at the fifth grade. Implications suggest that the meaning of CBM scores differs across race/ethnicity or gender, or both, at certain grade levels. CBM performance over-estimates the reading comprehension of African American students and under-estimates that of Caucasians; and at grade 5, CBM performance overestimates the reading comprehension of girls and under-estimates that of boys. Mean differences between boys and girls were also much greater at lower levels of CBM performance than at higher levels. These findings raise issues concerning the use of CBM as a screening measure and in determining eligibility for and termination of special education and related services.( pp. 6-18)

Fink (2000) designed a study of highly successful men and women with reading disabilities and used a developmental approach to investigate how, and under what conditions, males and females with reading disabilities develop high literacy levels and resilient self-concepts. The 60 participants in the study included a Nobel laureate, a member of the National Academy of Sciences, and other leaders and professionals in a variety of careers that require extensive reading (i.e., medicine, law, business, and the arts and sciences). The participants self-reported learning disabilities or reading difficulties and were interviewed using 20 questions; background information was also gathered about them. The study found that the participants demonstrated strong, enduring concepts of self, with no significant differences by gender. Both men and women with reading disabilities
developed literacy through avid reading of high-interest texts. A difference between the sexes was in their favorite topics and genres, which followed traditional gender patterns. In addition, women were more likely to be encouraged to develop their femininity and grace, while men were encouraged to overcome their difficulties. The instructional implications of the study's findings are that students should be helped to develop and follow their passion in reading and should be led to critical analysis of reading. Recommended teaching methods include using twin texts (fact and fiction on the same topic), creative writing, and helping students to challenge educational expectations in all domains. (pp. 45-60)

Valon (2000) conducted a study to examine whether adults view reading as a masculine or feminine activity, and to see the impact that variables such as gender, age, educational attainment, attitude toward reading, and reading activity have on adults' views. The sample consisted of 169 adult male and female patients from a doctor's office in Northern New Jersey. Both men and women viewed reading as a mostly feminine activity. Variables, such as gender, age, educational attainment, attitude toward reading, and reading activity, were found to influence men's and women's views of reading as mostly masculine or mostly feminine. Results also indicated that women had more positive attitudes toward reading; greater educational attainment did not result in men and women viewing reading as more gender appropriate; and both men and women of all ages were more likely to view reading as a more gender appropriate activity. (pp. 20-51)
General Remarks on the Literature:

1. Most of the studies were conducted abroad with subjects who are learners of English as a second language (44), very few dealt with learners of English as a foreign language (6).
2. Most of the studies dealt with subjects who are pre service teachers in different faculties of Education.
3. The Egyptian studies are fewer in number, besides they deal mainly with students who are pre service teachers for the preparatory or the secondary stages, not the primary one.
4. Some studies focused on presenting programs in basic reading instruction for pre service teachers, while others focused on presenting programs in reading skills for them.
5. Results of the current studies on primary pre service teacher education in Egypt, that are being conducted at the time, are not still certain.
6. No study in Egypt focused on developing the basic reading skills needed for this sample.
7. Some studies considered the decoding and vocabulary skills to be of the most important basic reading skills.
8. Some studies found slight differences between males and females in reading, favoring the females over the males (11 studies vs. 2).
9. Some studies found no differences between males and females in reading achievement, rather the difference was in the reading preferences and reading attitudes.
10. Some studies found some differences between boys and girls in the cognitive processes for word reading.
11. Gender differences were shown to change as students grow older and move to higher grades.
From surveying the above mentioned studies, it is noted that the field of primary teacher education in Egypt is still in need for more specialized studies to investigate this area; many studies need to be performed to explore the different teaching skills, strategies of teaching, curricula, and training techniques required for this sample. It is also noted that very few studies were performed in teaching reading in general and basic reading in particular for these students. Many studies have been conducted abroad, but still in Egypt we need to plant our feet firmly on the land of EFL in primary education. Thus, the present study addresses an already existing need for developing the basic reading skills of primary pre-service teachers of English in Egypt, examining the differences between college males and females in the acquisition of basic reading skills, and investigating the relationship between language proficiency and achievement in basic reading – with the purpose of systemantically teaching the reading skills to establish the right reading habits on the part of the prospective teachers of English in the Primary school.
Chapter Four
Materials and Methodology
Chapter IV
Materials and Methodology

The present study was conducted at Qena Faculty of Education, South Valley University. The experiment lasted for six weeks, two sessions a week, two hours a session, starting from the 25\textsuperscript{th} of October, 2000 and ending on the 10\textsuperscript{th} of December, 2000.

Design of the Experiment:

The study had a pre-post test design to be administered for the second year primary stage preservice teachers, English Majors of the Faculty of Education. All the subjects were treated as one experimental group and were exposed to pre-post means of getting data.

Variables:

I The independent variable is the suggested training program in basic reading.

II The dependent variable includes the subjects’ basic reading skills as measured by a pre-post test on word identification skills.

III The control variables are:
   a. age
   b. years of studying English
   c. proficiency level in English
Tools of the study:

I A Needs Assessment Inventory

This questionnaire was designed for a group of TEFL jury to determine the skills and subskills of basic reading needed for primary stage preschool teacher of English.

a. Objectives of the Needs Assessment Inventory:

1. To determine the skills and subskills of structural analysis and contextual analysis skills in reading.

2. To identify skills that primary education English Majors need to improve their level in reading for getting the meaning and identifying new words, so that these skills will be included in the program.

b. Steps for building up the Needs Assessment Inventory:

1. Stating the objectives of the Needs Assessment Inventory.

2. Stating the skills and subskills through
   i. reviewing literature
   ii. conducting informal personal meetings with a number of specialists in the field of reading instruction.
   iii. Investigating the opinion of members of the jury through a preliminary Needs Assessment Inventory. They were required to respond with yes/no to whether the skills and subskills belong to the main one(s), and to rate the skills in three categories of “mostly, moderately or never needed”.

105
c. **Final Format of the Needs Assessment Inventory:**

The Needs Assessment Inventory is divided into two main parts; structural analysis skills, and contextual analysis skills. These two are, in turn, divided into Morphemic Clues and Syntactic Clues for the former part, and Explicit Clues and Implicit clues for the latter part. A glossary of technical terms is attached for the convenience of the members of the jury. This Needs Assessment Inventory is of the closed type since it requires a specific response to each item. See appendix (D)

d. **Validity of the Needs Assessment Inventory:**

The Needs Assessment Inventory was submitted for a group of fourteen TEFL experts who constitute the members of the jury. See appendix (B) for jury members’ names and comments.

e. **Analyzing data obtained:**

After the administration of the Needs Assessment Inventory to the jury members, results indicated that some items need to be rephrased, some others need to be more elaborated into other subskills, and some others need to be eliminated from the skills list. (For example, *using the dictionary for looking up new words*, was thought by most members of the jury to be a study skill more than a basic reading skill, so it has been eliminated – for the Needs Assessment Inventory in its final format see appendix D)
II A training program in basic reading and word identification skills:

A training program in basic reading and word identification skills was prepared by the researcher to train 2nd year primary preservice teachers of English in these skills.

a. Procedure for designing the program:

i. Stating the general objectives of the program.
ii. Stating the behavioral objectives of the program.
iii. Building the frame of the program including general and behavioral objectives, content, training techniques, activities and evaluation. (see appendix B)
iv. Evaluating the frame of the program by submitting it to a jury of fourteen specialists highly qualified and experienced in TEFL, according to certain given criteria. (see appendix B).
v. Building up the whole program; the students’ book and the teacher’s guide.
vi. Judging the whole program by the same jury for its contents and general form.

b. Final format of the training program:

i. The program contains four units in two parts;
   - part one, structural analysis, includes unit one “using morphemic clues”, and unit two “using syntactic clues”
- part two, contextual analysis, includes unit three” using explicit context clues “ and unit four “ using implicit context clues”.

ii. Each unit contains three lessons; so the whole program contains twelve lessons.

iii. Each lesson begins with general objectives and a warm-up preview for students to assess their level before beginning the lesson and to refer to after completing the lesson.

iv. Then a background and explanations are provided for the student along with a sufficient number of examples.

v. Practice is graded beginning from group work, pair work, individual work and ending with home work; thus establishing students’ confidence in handling the practice items.

vi. Training techniques include whole class instruction, modeling of the required skill, guided practice, pair work, and independent practice.

vii. Aids include the black board, work sheets and answer sheets.

Refer to appendix(B) for the program in its final format.

III A pre-post test in basic reading skills:

a. Objectives of the test:

i. To assess second year primary preservice teachers’ word identification and basic reading skills.

ii. To assess the degree of improvement in the experimental group performance.
b. **Construction of the test:**

   i. The test consists of two parts representing the main parts of the program
   
   ii. In each part there are six questions representing the lessons of the of the program.
   
   iii. In each question there are five items; so the whole test consists of 60 items

   c. **Item Type:**

      The items of the test are of completion type for the first part, and multiple choice type for the second part.

   d. **Scoring:**

      One point is given for each test item. Maximum score of this test is 60 points.

   e. **Instructions of the test:**

      Instructions are written in English. They are brief, simple, and easy to understand. They contain information about the purpose of the test, time allowed to complete the test and how to record the answer. Examples are given to the completion questions to avoid any source of ambiguity.

   f. **Validity and reliability of the test:**

      i. A pilot study was conducted about a month before the administration of the program to estimate the validity and reliability of the test. A group of 35 second year primary preservice teachers were selected randomly representing
different levels of achievement; high, middle and low.

ii. **Face validity of the test:** the members of the jury supported the suitability of the test for its objectives and the applicability of the test to the age and achievement level of the subjects.

iii. **Reliability of the test:** The reliability of the test was determined by the test-retest method. In the pilot study the researcher administered the test and part of the program on second year English Majors of the Primary Division at Qena Faculty of Education, Hurghada Branch, then readministered it again on the same group after 28 days. Number of subjects in the piloting phase was 35, and the Correlations between examinees’ scores were computed. The reliability co-efficient of the test was [.67], which is a significant value at [.01] of t-test.

**IV English Proficiency Exam for Egypt (EPEE):**

The English Proficiency Exam for Egypt form A was used to ensure initial subjects’ equivalence.

a. **Objectives of the test:**

i. To assess the students’ level of proficiency in English.

ii. The following sub-objectives were branched out to evaluate the level of students’ performance in:

   - a listening section of 34 items
- a structure and written expression section having 33 items
- a vocabulary and reading comprehension section having 33 items.

b. **Scoring**:
   Maximum score of this test is 100 points.

c. **Validity and reliability of the test**:
   The reliability co-efficient of the test is (0.83) and the statistically computed validity of the test is (0.91).
   Index of difficulty ranged between (0.40) and (0.85)

**Subjects**:
The subjects chosen for the present study were 85 students enrolled in the second year primary division, English Majors at Qena Faculty of Education, South Valley University. Eight students were excluded from the analysis of data because they were absent in one or more of the tests, or because they skipped two or more of the training sessions. The final sample of the study was 75 students.

**Control Variables**:

  a. **Proficiency level**: through using the EPEE test.

  b. **Grade**: All subjects were in the second year primary division, English Majors at Qena Faculty of Education, South Valley University.

  c. **Age**: The age of the students was calculated and counted in months. Days less than 15 were omitted. Fifteen days or
more were counted a month. Then the arithmetic mean for the whole group was computed. “T-test” showed no significant differences among the subjects of the experiment.

d. **Years of studying English:** All subjects reported that they studied English for seven years before being enrolled in the second year, English department.

**Table (1)**

T-test analysis for the age variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of subjects</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>75</td>
<td>18.33</td>
<td>.498</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table (2)**

T-test analysis for the group’s achievement in the pretest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Subjects</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>75</td>
<td>24.647</td>
<td>4.986</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Maximum score = 60

**Table (3)**

T-test analysis for the group’s achievement in the (EPEE)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Subjects</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>75</td>
<td>41.113</td>
<td>7.246</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Maximum score = 100
**Teachers:**

The researcher trained the subjects of the group through the suggested program in basic reading and word identification skills.

**Procedures:**

1) Designing the questionnaire.

2) Choosing the sample from the second year primary stage English Majors in Qena Faculty of Education, South Valley University.

3) Controlling for the following variables:
   a) Language proficiency  
   b) age  
   c) years of studying English

4) Designing the frame of the program.

5) Establishing the appropriacy and validity of the frame of the program by a jury of TEFL experts.

6) Designing the teaching program.

7) Establishing the appropriacy and validity of the reading program by the jury.

8) Administering the pre-test.

9) Training the experimental group, using the suggested basic reading program.

10) Administering the post-test.

11) Analyzing students’ scores on the tests statistically using T-test.

12) Reporting and discussion of results.

13) Conclusions, recommendations, and suggestions for further research.
Chapter Five
Findings and Discussion
Chapter V

Findings and Discussions

Findings:

“T-test” analyses were run to test the set hypotheses of the significant mean differences between the achievement of the subjects in the pre and the posttests in basic reading.

Hypothesis (1):

Hypothesis (1) predicted that there are no statistically significant mean differences between the experimental group’s achievement on the pre-test and that on the post-test. Analysis of data using t-test showed that the mean difference between the achievement of the group in the pretest and that of the posttest was significant. In order to figure out t-value for one experimental group in a pre and posttest, the following equation was used *:

\[ t = \frac{\bar{D} - \mu_D}{\hat{\sigma}_D} \]

Where - \( \bar{D} \) means the statistical mean of differences, it also equals the difference between the two means,

- \( \mu_D \) means the sum of standard deviations of these differences at the mean of these differences

*From the given data, we can obtain
\[ \bar{D} = \frac{\sum D}{N} = 26.467 \]
\[ \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\sum (D - \bar{D})^2}{N - 1} = 5.219 \]
\[ \hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2} = \sqrt{1.21} = 1.1 \]
and \( \sigma_D \) means the number of subjects. (Weinberg & Kenneth, 1994:332)

The following table shows the results of applying this equation:

**Table (4)**

T-test analysis for the the group’s achievement in the pretest and that in the posttest of basic reading.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>posttest</th>
<th>( \bar{D} )</th>
<th>( \mu_D )</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>Significance level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.647</td>
<td>4.986</td>
<td>51.113</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>41.87</td>
<td>26.467</td>
<td>5.219</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Maximum score = 60

**Significant.**

The findings of this hypothesis answer the first question of the study. The findings state that there are significant mean differences between the achievement of the subjects of the study in the pretest and that in the posttest, favoring the posttest’s.

**Hypothesis (2):**

Hypothesis (2) predicted that there are no statistically significant mean differences between the male subjects’ achievement and the female subjects’ achievement on the post-test. Analysis of data using t-test showed that the mean difference between the male and the female subjects of the experiment is significant, favoring the females, as shown in the following table.
Table (5)
*T-test analysis for the differences of the male and female subjects’ achievement in the posttest.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of males</th>
<th>Number of females</th>
<th>Mean of males’ scores</th>
<th>percent</th>
<th>Mean of females’ scores</th>
<th>percent</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Significance level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>49.67</td>
<td>82.7%</td>
<td>51.93</td>
<td>86.5%</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>.05*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*significant

On basis of these results, there is a statistical mean difference between the achievement of the males and the females, favoring the females’ achievement in the posttest in basic reading after the administration of the training program.

The findings of this hypothesis answer the second question of the study. The findings state that there is a significant mean difference between the achievement of the male subjects and that of the female subjects in the posttest of basic reading, favoring the achievement of the female subjects.

*Hypothesis (3)*

Hypothesis (3) predicted that there is no statistically significant correlation coefficient value between the achievement of the subjects on the proficiency test and on the posttest of basic reading. Analysis of data using Pearson’s method as well as Spearman’s method showed that there is a positive correlation between the subjects’ achievement in the EPEE test and in the posttest of basic reading. This means that the more scores a subject gets in the proficiency test, the more s/he is
likely to get a high score in the posttest of basic reading, the following equation was used and results are shown in the following table.

\[
\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y}) \quad (\text{Weinberg & Kenneth, 1994:110})
\]

**Table (6)**

*Means, standard Deviations and correlation value of the group’s achievement in the post-test and the proficiency test (EPEE) using Pearson’s Method*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of subjects</th>
<th>Mean in the posttest</th>
<th>Mean in the EPEE</th>
<th>Standard deviation in the posttest</th>
<th>Standard deviation in the EPEE</th>
<th>Correlation coefficient value</th>
<th>Significance level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>75</td>
<td>51.133</td>
<td>41.113</td>
<td>4.187</td>
<td>7.247</td>
<td>0.341</td>
<td>0.01*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant*

Using Spearman correlation formula, the correlation between the students’ achievement and their language performance was 0.317, significant at 0.01

On basis of these results, there is a positive relation between students’ Language proficiency level and their level in basic reading after the administration of the training program.

The findings of this hypothesis answer the third question of the study. The findings state that there is a positive correlation between
students’ Language proficiency level and their achievement level in basic reading.

Discussion:

The present study was conducted to measure the effect of a training program in basic reading on improving preservice teachers’ basic reading and word identification skills.

Results of the study confirmed that there was a remarkable increase in students’ level of achievement after the experiment. Means of scores in the posttest and the obtained t-value in the pre-posttest were significantly favoring the posttest results. Results also showed that there is a statistically significant mean difference between the male subjects’ achievement and the female subjects’ achievement in the posttest of basic reading skills favoring the females’. The third result was that there is a positive correlation between the achievement of the subjects in the proficiency test and that in the posttest of basic reading.

These remarkable high gains obtained by the subjects in the posttest are due to the effect of using the suggested training program. The study, having these results, confirms the results of many previous studies conducted in the field of teacher education on reading. It confirms the results obtained by Tan (1998) who designed a teacher education program for improving English students’ reading proficiency at Fujian Normal University, and concluded that there was
a rise in students’ level in reading when they used context clues in dealing with new words in the reading process.

The study also affirms the results obtained by Moharam (1997) who designed a program in reading comprehension, critical and creative reading using the discussion method for Minia faculty of Education English Majors and found that the experimental group surpassed the control group in reading comprehension and creative reading skills when using the most common reading comprehension skills including some word identification skills.

The results also coincide with those of Zidan (1994) who indicated that the analytical reading behavior of EFL Egyptian readers, including using basic reading skills, is significantly enhanced as a result of training in the rhetorical patterns of written English and that this training variable has significantly positive effects on the reader’s analysis of basic content and making inferences in reading.

The results affirm what Chapman indicated in (1974) that literal reading comprehension can be divided into different related skills of which structural analysis, contextual analysis and dictionary use are the basic reading skills, that can be systematically taught to EFL readers.

The study also verifies Zimmermerman’s idea (1982) of developing a booklet for high school students giving priority to the basic reading skills needed for students at this age. The results, moreover, emphasize the suggested principles of Cheek et al(1984) when they included in their teacher education training program
instruction in basic reading skills, content area reading, study skills and personal reading.

However the results came opposing Abdel Ghany ‘s finding (1986) of no significant differences between a control group and an experimental group on a literal comprehension test. The results also refuse what Gray (1984) surprisingly found; that preservice teachers appeared to cling very closely to traditional beliefs about the reading process.

Nevertheless the results are consistent with many other studies that sought to develop reading skills for EFL teacher education in general and basic reading in particular: Kern (1989), Kim and Groetz (1994), Konopak et al (1994), and El Naggar et al (1999).

The results, above all, display a state of the affair of the place and quality of primary teacher education in Egypt. The study affirms that these students need more care and guidance; their abilities are not sufficient for a student majoring in English in a faculty. These students have finished their secondary school education, and are supposed to have mastered a basic level of proficiency in English to be enrolled in the English Department. However the fact is that they are still unable to match with the kind of study, the linguistic tasks or the study requirements to be good readers of English.

The results of the present study are especially important for the primary education programs at the faculties of Education for the following reasons:
1. There are no clear cut formula for the Primary Division in the Egyptian Faculties of Education (El Naggar 1999); some faculties accept students from the first year to be enrolled in the English Department, while others accept them only in the second or the third years after a due share of general education subjects in the first (and some times second) year(s).

2. This drop -for one year and some times two- isolates the students from practicing the language as specialists, so when they come to the year of specialization they still want to revise what they mastered before.

3. The courses for these students are mostly borrowed courses from the General Education Division in Faculties of Education. The latter courses are, by their turn, borrowed from the Faculties of Arts-simply because the instructors in all three divisions are the same people.

Concerning the gender differences in reading achievement in the posttest, results showed that the female subjects surpassed the male subjects in reading achievement. These results coincide with many studies that found differences between males and females in reading, favoring the females over the males (Valon 2000, Kranzler 1999, McKenna 1997, McCall 1989, Edwards 1989, Hyde et al 1988, Flynn 1983, Day et al 1983, Yawkey 1980 and Bewley 1975)

However most of these studies found that these differences tend to change according to the age and development of students from time to time. Females in the present study have surpassed males due to
many reasons excluding the big number of females in the present study; since many of the above mentioned studies didn’t have equal numbers of males and females. These reasons include the following:

1. Females tend to be interested in reading more than males. (Edwards 1989, Shannon 1992)

2. Most females as well as males regard reading as a female activity. (Valon 2000, McKenna 1997, McCall 1989)

3. In Thompsons view, “boys tended to rely more than girls of the same reading level on access to phonological segments of words” when using alternative cognitive processes of word reading. (1987: p. 212)

4. Mazid explains that “females make better language teachers (and learners) may be because language…. is both communication and metacommunication. They try to maintain an exchange and make their interlocutors feel OK.” (1995: P.7)

5. Schultheis (1999) concluded that females spend more time reading than males.

6. McCall (1989) declares that girls have been penalized, not rewarded, for verbal skills and have been blamed for creating an atmosphere that contributes to boys' failing. Girls begin to test less well than boys in secondary school even while receiving higher grades.

male performance, and they suggest that these findings should have implications for theories of sex differences in brain lateralization and changing gender roles.

8. Lock (1992) concludes that there is little basis to conclude that gender is particularly favored by explicit, implicit, or extended type reading test items or by the nature of the reading test item passage.

In the present study females surpassed males probably because:

1. Females were more interested in the program than the males.

2. Females reported that they spent more time in studying the program at home.

3. Females tended to show off more than boys especially in the analytical activities.

Concerning the correlation between language proficiency and reading achievement, the study shows that the reading achievement level of the students improves as long as their language proficiency level is satisfactory. This also indicates that language learning is a comprehensive process, that all the four language skills serve each other, and that proficiency in one skill will, in most cases, lead to proficiency in others.

Asking students about their impressions concerning the knowledge provided in the program, they confirmed that the program enriched their linguistic background, that they needed these skills badly to cope with the difficult subjects they study and that they will keep returning to the information in the program for future years.
To conclude, the results of the study showed that students who were exposed to the training program improved their basic reading skills using word identification techniques.
Chapter Six

Recommendations, Suggestions for Further Research and Summary of the Study
Chapter VI

Recommendations:

On the basis of the results obtained from the study, a number of recommendations can be helpful for the methodology of teaching English and EFL teacher education:

1. Need is urgent to make a course description for the Primary Division in faculties of Education in order to work on a solid basis for the preparation of EFL teachers for the primary stage.

2. Word identification skills should be a major part in the reading and comprehension courses in faculties of Education.

3. Students of the primary Division should be accepted to join the English Department from the first year.

4. There should be consistent pre service programs nationwide to manipulate the constrains imposed on the whole EFL spectrum to better serve the EFL context in Egypt.

5. Content Based Instruction (CBI), as Touba (1999) suggested, is recommended to be included in an undergraduate language course using global issues and an undergraduate language course using literature as content.
6. An admission language test should be designed and administered nationwide as a policy for accepting students in the English Departments in Faculties of Education.

7. New technologies are recommended to be implemented for the proper teaching for this sample and similar samples such as, using computers, the internet, software design, and intranet.

Suggestions for further research:

1. A study is needed to explore the higher levels of reading for primary preservice teachers of English; reading comprehension, evaluative reading, interpretative reading, critical reading, and creative reading.

2. Many studies are needed to investigate the place of other language skills for this sample; Writing, Speaking, and Listening.

3. Further research is required to manipulate new methods of teaching for this sample such as the discussion method, the problem solving method, or the discovery method.

4. A study is required to investigate the methods of teaching “methods of teaching” for this sample and similar samples in faculties of Education.
5. Further research is required on the area of the performance of these preservice teachers after graduation and their in-service teaching and linguistic proficiency.

Summary of the Study

Problem of the study:

The main purpose of the present study was to investigate the effects of a suggested program on developing some basic reading skills for second year primary English Majors.

The study also attempted to assess the contributions of gender and language proficiency on the reading performance of the sample of the study.

Significance of the study:

The present study is expected to:

1. Provide primary stage prospective teachers of English with practical guidelines for their future readings.

2. Facilitate other readings in English which these students are apt to encounter during their study-years (literature, linguistics, education, etc).

3. Enable Primary stage prospective teachers of English acquire the basic reading skills in order to impart them on their future students.
4. Be a step in the development of training courses for these students.

Hypotheses of the study:

1- There are no statistically significant mean differences between the experimental group’s achievement on the pre-test and that on the post-test.

2- There are no statistically significant mean differences between the male subjects’ achievement and the female subjects’ achievement on the post-test.

3- There are no statistically significant mean differences between the achievement of the subjects on the proficiency test and on the posttest of basic reading.

Limitations of the study:

The main skills treated in the present study are the skills of structural analysis and contextual analysis. These skills have been chosen because students in the primary section in faculties of Education showed a very low level in basic reading skills. Results from a questionnaire for TEFL experts, and a pilot study emphasized the bad need for training these students in these skills.

Design of the experiment:

The study has a one group design; all the students have been involved in the experiment after taking a proficiency (EPEE) test and a pre test. The subjects were 75 students enrolled in the second year English Department, Primary Division, at Qena Faculty of Education.
The experiment lasted for six weeks, twice a week, for two hours each session.

Pilot Study:

One month before the experiment began, a pilot study was conducted to determine the validity and reliability of the tools of the study. These were 0.74 and 0.67 respectively.

Tools of the study:

1. A questionnaire to determine the skills and sub skills of structural analysis and contextual analysis.

2. A frame for the program of teaching basic reading skills.

3. The suggested teaching program.

4. A pre-post test on basic reading skills.

5. EPEE (English Proficiency Examination for Egypt) for equalizing the sample.

Findings and Discussion:

After the study was conducted, “t” test was used in analyzing the data obtained. Scores of subjects in all the tests were analyzed and compared. Results revealed and confirmed a remarkable degree of improvement in the achievement of the post test in basic reading and word identification skills. Also there was a statistically significant mean difference, favoring the females, between the male subjects’ achievement and the female subjects’ achievement in the posttest of
basic reading after the administration of the training program. There was a positive correlation between subjects’ level of language proficiency and their achievement in the posttest of basic reading skills.
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134


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