

PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF ALGERIA
MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH
UNIVERSITY OF MOHAMED BOUDIAF - M'SILA

**FACULTY OF LETTERS AND
LANGUAGES**

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

N°:



DOMAIN: FOREIGN LANGUAGES

STREAM: ENGLISH LANGUAGE

OPTION: LINGUISTICS

**Analysis of Factors that Promote EFL
Critical Reading –The case of third year
M'sila University**

**Dissertation Submitted to the Department of English in Partial fulfillment
of the Requirement for the Degree of Master**

Candidates:

Leboukh Souhila

Sedira Meriem

Supervised by

Dr. Tayeb BOUAZID

Academic Year 2019-2020

Declarations

We hereby solemnly declare that the work we are going to present in this thesis entitled **Analysis of Factors that Promote EFL Critical Reading –The case of third year M’sila University**

...is our own to the limits of our knowledge, has not been submitted before to any other institution or university or degree and all sources that we have used and quoted from have been indicated by means of complete references. This work is to be carried out and completed at Mohamed Boudiaf University M’sila, Algeria.

Signature

LeboukhSouhila.....

SediraMeriem.....

Date: August 2020.

Abstract

Reading in foreign language is considered as one of the most difficult tasks for EFL learners due to the complexity of this skill where learners still read using traditional ways. Therefore, developing critical reading has been set as a primary goal in higher education for years. This study is an attempt to investigate the factors that promote critical reading; the main purpose is to clearly define the term critical reading to learners, and to pinpoint the ways leading to successful critical readers. However, there are no explicit guidelines on how to implement the reading skills of EFL young learners. The researchers have selected the mixed method as the most appropriate which is basically directed towards EFL learners as it helps identify the most effective factors that promote EFL learners critical reading as widely reflected through the data collected. For this purpose, a students' questionnaire was addressed to third year license students of English department at M'sila University using random sampling of 25 learners from EFL population of 80 students. Similarly, another questionnaire was administered to teachers in the field for further insights concerning the different factors that help learners to read critically.

Dedications

To our two candles

"fathers and mothers",

our brothers and sisters,

Our friends and all our relatives,

to everyone whose support was promoting to us.

Souhila

Meriem

Special dedication:

To my everything ,the person who gave me life, hope and inspiration ,the woman who gave birth to me ,the soul that I'm merely a part of ..my beloved mother may she rest in peace

"Meriem Sedira"

Acknowledgements

Praise to Allah for giving us the ability to complete this work.

We are deeply grateful to our supervisor -Dr.Tayeb Bouazid for his great help, precious advice and guidance.

Our deepest gratitude goes first to our families for their support and for offering us the best conditions for working at ease.

We extend our thanks to the third-year English students who accepted to be part of our research.

Special thanks go to all our teachers and our classmates of English department of Mohamed Boudiaf University without any exceptions.

List of tables

Teachers questionnaire :

Table 2.1. On teachers experience.....	34
Table 2.2. Students skill preferences.....	35
Table 2.3. On types of reading materials.....	35
Table 2.4. On the effect of text selection on reading achievement.....	36
Table 2.5. On teachers help to students at reading problems.....	36
Table 2.6. Students difficulties at reading	37
Table 2.7. Students causes of reading difficulties.....	37
Table 2.8. On the time devoted to reading.....	38
Table 2.9. On suggestions about improving reading comprehension achievement.....	39

Students' questionnaire:

Table 2.10. On students purpose of reading	39
Table 2.11. On how to manage one s reading	40
Table 2.12. On the reading difficulties students often face	40
Table 2.13. On the causes behind reading difficulties	41
Table 2.14. On the sufficiency of the time devoted to reading	42
Table 2.15. On students use of reading strategies	42
Table 2.16. On the use of pre-reading before reading	42
Table 2.17. On teachers help to students at reading	43
Table 2.18. On teachers cognitive assistance	43
Table 2.19. On teachers psychological help to students	44
Table 2.20. On students sharing ideas with their classmates.....	44
Table 2.21. On reading in a secure environment and under teacher's guidance	45
Table 2.22. On the importance of knowing how to read.....	45
Table 2.23. On knowing about the three phases of reading "pre-while and post reading.....	46
Table 2.24. On defining reading	46
Table 2.25. On defining critical reading	47
Table 2.26. On the relation between teaching conditions and students development into critical reading	47

List of Appendices :

Appendix A:Students' Questionnaire99
Appendix B:Teachers' Questionnaire103

Outline

Contents :	Page
Declarations.....	ii
Abstract.....	iii
Dedication.....	iv
Acknowledgement.....	v
List of tables.....	vi
List of Appendices.....	vii
Table of Contents.....	viii
General Introduction.....	1
1. Background of the Study	1
2. Statement of the Problem.....	2
3. Research Questions	2
4. Aim/ Objectives of the Study	2
5. Hypothesis.....	2
6. Literature Review	2
6.1. Reading.....	3
6.2. The Reading Process.....	3
6.3. Critical Reading.....	4
6.4. Factors contributing to Critical Reading.....	5
6.4.1. Psychological Factors.....	5
6.4.1.1. Self-efficacy.....	5
6.4.1.2. Interest.....	5
6.4.1.3. Motivation.....	6
6.4.2. Cognitive/Metacognitive Factors.....	6
6.4.3. Environmental Factors.....	6
7. An overview about the research methodology.....	7
8. Organization of the work /Chapter Division.....	7
9. Significance of the study.....	7
Chapter One: Part One: an overview about Reading and critical reading:	
1.1. Definition of reading	8

1.1.1 Types of reading.....	9
1.1.1.1. Skimming and Scanning.....	9
1.1.1.2. Extensive/Intensive Reading.....	11
1.1.2. Traditional reading (home reading situation)	14
1.1.3. Modern view to reading-Reading as a Process	14
1.1.4.The Contents of the reading Process	14

Part two: Critical Reading:

Introduction.....	18
1.2. Definition of critical reading.....	18
1.2.1. Important elements of critical reading.....	20
1.2.1.1. Previewing.....	21
1.2.1.2. Annotating.....	22
1.2.1.3. Summarizing.....	22
1.2.1.4. Analyzing.....	23
1.2.2. How to become a strategic critical reader.....	23
1.2.2.1. Determine your purpose for reading.....	24
1.2.2.2. Consider the title and Skim the opening sentence of each paragraph	24
1.2.2.3 Use prior Knowledge and look at how the text is structured.....	24
1.2.2.4. Skim the opening sentence of each paragraph and Identify key issues or arguments the author.....	25
1.2.2.2.5. Make notes in the margin or on a separate sheet of paper	25
1.2.3. On the importance of critical reading.....	26
1.2.3.5. Conclusion.....	26

Chapter Two: Part One: Research Methodology and Design

Introduction.....	27
2.1.1. Research Design and Methodology	27
2.1.1.1.Research Design -definition ,importance and perspectives.....	27
2.1.1.2.Research Methodology -definition.....	27
2.1.2. The nature of the present research Design.....	28
2.1.3. Research Approach.....	29
2.1.4. Mixed Methods Approach.....	29
2.1.4.1. Quantitative Method.....	30
2.1.4.2. Qualitative Method.....	33

2.1.5. Research Setting.....	30
2.1.6. Research Population.....	30
2.1.6.1. Sample and Sampling Design.....	31
2.1.6.2. Data collection Procedures.....	31
2.1.6.2.1. Teachers' Questionnaire-Aims and Objectives.....	31
2.1.6.2.2. Students' Questionnaire-Aims and Objectives.....	32
2.1.7. Data Collection Procedures.....	32
Conclusion	33

Part Two: Analysis and interpretation of result Finding

2.2.1. Analysis and result of teachers' questionnaire	34
2.2.2. Analysis and result of Students' questionnaire	39
2.2.3. Recommendations.....	48
2.2.5. Conclusion.....	48

Chapter Three: Factors that promote Critical reading:

Part One: The Cognitive factors.....49

3.1. Definition of Cognitive Factors.....	49
3.1.1. Use of repetition, know how to retrieve vocabulary.....	50
3.1.2. Organizing the new language.....	54
3.1.2.1. Memory Strategy.....	55
3.1.2.2. Cognitive Strategy.....	55
3.1.2.3. Comprehension Strategy.....	56
3.1.2.4. Metacognitive Strategy.....	56
3.1.2.5. Social/ Affective Strategy.....	56
3.1.3. Summarizing meaning.....	59
3.1.3. 1. Definition.....	60
3.1.3.2. Why we summarize?.....	60.
3.1.3.3. How to use summarizing?.....	60
3.1.4. Guessing meaning from context	60
3.1.4. 1. Definition.....	61
3.1.4.2. How to guess the meanings of words from Context?.....	64
3.1.4.3. Finding the part of speech of the unknown words.....	64
3.1.4.4. Guessing the meaning of the unknown words.....	64
3.1.5. Using imagery for memorization.....	65

3.1.6.Using background Knowledge(Prior Knowledge).....	67
3.1.6.1.Definition of Prior Knowledge.....	67
3.1.6.2.Cognitive strategies.....	68
3.1.6.3.The importance of activating prior knowledge.....	69
3.1.7.Using Critical Thinking	70
3.2. Part Two: The metacognitive factors:.....	73
3.2.1. Metacognitive knowledge.....	74
3.2.2. Metacognitive regulation.....	75
3.2.3. Metacognitive experiences.....	77
3.2.4. Self-reflection and self evaluation.....	81
3.3. Part Three: The Psychological Factors.....	83
3.3.1. Having positive attitude.....	84
3.3.2. Motivation.....	84
3.3.3. Self-efficacy.....	85
3.3.4. Self-confidence.....	86
Part Four: The Environmental Factors:.....	86
3.4.1. The teacher’s scaffolding.....	86
3.4.2. The classroom atmosphere	87
3.4.3. Collaborative work through classmates’ support.....	88
3.4.4. Material support.....	89
3.4.5. Physical condition.....	90
Conclusion.....	90
General Conclusion.....	91
References.....	93
Appendices.....	100
Abstract in Arabic.....	106

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1. Background of the study

Reading is an important educational goal that opens up new worlds and opportunities for learners, it is considered to be one of the most significant skills that need to be built at the very beginning of any attempt. Eventually it enables them to gain new knowledge and to be familiar with the new adaptation in different fields. Therefore, most of EFL Learners still practice reading in the classical way, their main purpose is only to get a basic grasp of the text, that is; what the text says and what information can they get out of without even caring to form judgments about how a text works and what a text does or means.

Nevertheless, most EFL learners do not know how to critically read the passages written by foreign authors who may imply certain socio-cultural or religious biases; or even how to use their cognitive abilities to analyze, synthesize and evaluate what is read. In this context, learners are mainly influenced by certain factors which lead either to promote or to weaken their critical reading skills such as cognitive, environmental and psychological factors. Furthermore, critical reading tends to put learners in the scope where they do not only know how to convert orthographic symbols to language use, context and knowledge, to comprehend what is read but rather understand the text critically like reading between the lines or reading for deeper meaning. Learners to make a clear distinction between facts and opinions and learn how to construct their own views and arguments which are important as well to define them as active learners and critical readers. The whole work is based on the thesis statement that reads- EFL Critical reading is greatly promoted by cognitive, environmental and psychological factors.

2.Statement of the Problem

Most students in the Algerian Context still read in a traditional way and ignore that there are certain cognitive, psychological and environmental factors that can help them become more critical readers. Hence, their reading tends to be more superficial and meaningless. To fill up this gap, the present study sheds some light and explores this issue in depth to enable readers especially at higher levels to read critically.

3. Research Questions.

1. What is critical reading?
2. What are the factors that help promote EFL learners' critical reading?
3. How to promote learners to become effective critical readers

4. Aim/ Objectives of the Study.

1. To clearly define the term critical reading to learners
2. To rightly discern the important factors determining EFL critical reading
3. To pinpoint the ways leading to successful critical readers

5. Hypothesis

If learners are enhanced cognitively, environmentally and psychologically, will they become efficient critical readers?

6. Literature Review

Previous studies about reading have shown that "... Reading is a very important activity in which teachers and students have to deal with in daily academic life. The teacher often plays a significant role in mediating between the students as the readers, the reading text, and the text author (Wallace, 2003). Moreover, critical reading is considered as teaching students to think while reading. It is described as learning to evaluate, draw inferences, and

arrive at conclusions based on evidence (Collins, 1989). Indeed, students learn personally, actively, and deeply (Sweet, 1993).

6.1. Reading

Indeed, reading is a very important skill, where everyone is required to read on a number of different occasions and take reading as a vehicle to collect some information, to enrich one's knowledge of language, to enlarge one's culture about a specific knowledge area or to read for pleasure. In fact, reading is an interactive process combining top-down and bottom-up processing (Barnett, 1989); as a result, it is very important for students to use appropriate reading strategies to increase their comprehension.

According to Barnett (1989), the term “strategy means the mental operations involved when readers purposefully approach a text to make sense of what they read” (p. 66). In other words, reading comprehension requires the integration and application of multiple strategies or skills. Those strategies involve memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, social, and test-taking strategies (Caverly, 1997; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, & Russo, 1985; Oxford, 1990; Zhang, 1993). As Rosenblatt (1978) depicts, reading is a process of transacting, instead of simply interacting with texts, where readers, taking an active role to construct meaning from the texts (Beach, 1993), are provided with an experience that they can live through. Readers can find meanings in the texts based on their own ideas, interests, and needs.

6.2. The reading Process

The reading process is made up of multiple components: word recognition, fluency, comprehension, an understanding of vocabulary and language structures, active learning, and enjoyment of reading (Richek, Caldwell, Jennings, & Lerner, 1996). Viewing reading from

an interactive angle, it is a combination of identification and interpretation skills. Grabe (1991) lists the five most important areas of current research which are still prominent: “schema theory, language skills and automaticity, vocabulary development, comprehension strategy training, and reading-writing relations” (p. 375)

6.3. Critical Reading

Teaching students to think while reading is referred to in the professional literature as "critical reading." It is defined as "learning to evaluate, draw inferences, and arrive at conclusions based on evidence" (Carr, 1988). Learners should learn how to read texts critically and be aware of their thought processes (Fish 1980). Raising the level of metacognitive awareness, as it is recommended, can be one way of helping learners become ‘constructively responsive’ readers (Pressley & Afflerbach 1995) who read critically and attain higher academic literacy.

Critical reading is a technique for discovering information and ideas within a text. A technique which enables learners to restate what the text says through its author's words, to describe what a text does with what it is intended to and to analyze what a text means for any reader. Critical readers thus recognize not only what a text says, but also how that text portrays the subject matter. Harmer (2001) states that a reader uses a variety of clues to understand what the writer is implying thereby moving beyond the literal meaning of the words to the contextually and conceptually implied meaning. A critical reader might read the same work as the non-critical reader does but with different perspectives; so what is accepted easily and taken for granted as beliefs and interpretations by a non –critical reader is re - questioned by the critical reader

In fact, Carter and Nunan (2002, p. 220) define critical reading as "a reading practice which attends to the ideological underpinning of text, as signaled not so much by what the

writer chooses as a topic, but how people, places, and events are talked about". Alongside Critical readers perform a mental action on the word form and make associations between the context and their own personal knowledge to infer word meanings (Wallace, 2003). Critical reading enables students to understand not only the literal meaning but the word choice and style of language (Wallace, 2003).

6.4. Factors contributing to critical reading

6.4.1. Psychological factors: (attitude): Farnan (1996) stated that a factor that influences reading achievement of the readers is their attitude toward reading.

6.4.1.1. Self-efficacy:

To succeed in the management of activities related to cognition and pedagogy, it is necessary that students should be self-efficacious. Schunk (1996) hypothesized that being self-efficacious positively influences the individual's choice of activities to be involved in, the effort they put in, the level of commitment and the results attained. According to Anderson, Wilson and Fielding (1988) highly self-efficacious students have also been found to read extensively and attain greater comprehension of what they read.

6.4.1.2. Interest-

Renninger, Hidi and Krapp (1992) defined interest as occurrence that appears as a result of a person's interplay with his or her surroundings. In the process of reading, according to Hidi and Renninger (2006), interest can be observed when the interaction between individual and content make up positively. It comprises of high attention and emotion involvement.

6.4.1.3. Motivation-

To Bandura (1986), motivation is a behavior directed by a desire to achieve certain objectives, driven and maintained by the possibility of achieving exceptional results from doing something (*Journal of Education and Practice* www.iiste.org). Motivation, in fact, determines the way and the reasons people learn, as well as, how well they perform (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996). Motivation is seen as a social concept, which is lively and specific (Dornyei, 1998).

6.4.2. Cognition/ Metacognition factors

Cognitive factors associated with reading comprehension include acquisition, recognition, and the use of knowledge; the ability to estimate and to extrapolate information; the use of written language clues; the rehearsal and repetition of written language; and the skill to seek new information (Ahmadi et al., 2013). Metacognitive factors include (a) the planning for the reading, which includes what will be read and how the reading process will be accomplished; (b) the monitoring of the reading process, the resources and tools used in the process, and one's own self-control surrounding one's learning; and (c) the evaluating of the result of the plan and its impact upon the learning (Ahmadi et al., 2013).

6.4.3. Environmental Factors

According to Goldenberg (1991), class discussions help learners produce opinions and new questions. Learners read books out loud to one another and ask one another questions about the book they read. This strategy can provide a model of fluent reading and helps learners learn decoding skills by presenting positive feedback and direct chances for teachers to circulate in the class, watch their learners, and present individual corrections

(Bell, 2009)7. Learners will develop stronger reading comprehension skills on their own if teachers give them mental instruments for understanding a text (Pressley, 2006).

7. An Overview about the Research Methodology

The qualitative method is the most appropriate for this study as it is basically directed toward EFL learners for this method helps to identify the most effective factors that promote EFL learners critical reading. One questionnaire was designed and addressed to third year license students of English department at M'sila University using a random sampling of 25 learners from EFL population of 80 students. Another questionnaire administered to 10 teachers in the field for further insights concerning the different factors that help learners to read critically.

8. Organization of the Work/ Chapter Division.

The current study is made up of two frameworks; the first is the theoretical part which consists of three chapters; the first chapter is an overview about reading and critical reading; the second chapter is the research methodology and design; the third is about the factors that promote critical reading. This part also is devoted to the analysis of the data collected. Through the analysis of the questionnaire; different factors that promote EFL learners critical reading were identified. Finally, the dissertation will be concluded with a discussion on how these factors promote critical reading.

9. Significance of the Study.

This study will be beneficial for both EFL students and teachers as well; concerning learners, it will enrich their knowledge about critical reading, and help to promote their critical reading which is their gateway to be critical thinkers. For teachers, it can provide them with valuable insights on how to make the reading more beneficial and motivational.

CHAPTER ONE: An Overview About Reading and Critical Reading

1. Definition of Reading

Reading is the complex cognitive process of decoding symbols to derive meaning from text. It is a form of language processing. Many experts have given their definition about what reading really means. Reading is an important educational goal that opens up new worlds and opportunities for learners, it is considered as one of the most significant skill that needs to be built at the very beginning of any attempt. Eventually, it enables them to gain new knowledge and to be familiar with the new adaptation in different fields. According to Nunan (2003:68), reading is a fluent process of readers combining information from a text and their own background knowledge to build meaning.

Mikuleckey (2011:5) states that reading is a complex conscious and unconscious mental process in which the reader uses a variety of strategies and reconstructs the meaning that the author is assumed to have intended, based on data from the text, from the readers prior knowledge. Grellet claimed that reading is an active skill. It constantly involves guessing, predicting, checking, and asking oneself questions (khoiriya 2010:1).

Reading is a very important skill, where everyone is required to read on number of different occasions and take reading as a vehicle to collect some information, to enrich one's knowledge of language, to enlarge one's culture about specific knowledge area or to read for pleasure .In fact, reading is an interactive process combining top –down and bottom-up processing (Baerlett, 1989). As a result, it is very important for student to use appropriate reading strategies to increase their comprehension. According to Barnett (1989), the term "strategy means the mental operations involved when readers purposefully approach a text to

make sense of what they read "(p66).In other words, reading comprehension requires the integration and application of multiple strategies or skills. Those strategies involve memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, social, and text –taking strategies (Caverly, 1997;O'malleyChamot, stiwner–manzanares, kupper&russo,1985; oxford, 1990; zhang,1993).

Reading is the construction of meaning from printed or written message (Richard: 1998:12). Reading begins with the accurate, swift, and automatic visual recognition of vocabulary, independent of the context in which it occurs.

1.1.1. Types of reading:

There are four different types of reading academic texts: skimming, scanning, extensive and intensive reading. Each is used for a specific purpose.

1.1.1.1 Skimming and Scanning:

Skimming and scanning are two specific speed-reading techniques, which enable the readers to get rapid information from a material. These two techniques are similar in process but different in purpose. Furthermore, both of them need several steps to be followed. According to Andrew and Diana (1996) skimming and scanning are two different reading skills; these are practiced at the start of each theme: Skimming means looking at a text or a chapter quickly in order to have a general idea of the content, while scanning means looking at a text to find some particular information.

1. Definition and purpose of skimming:

Skimming is defined as a quick movement of the eyes through a text or article in order to get the gist or the main idea of the text. It is reading sections only, skipping to find

the next section of interest (Stephen 2001). Skimming is reading at fastest speed which a person can accomplish, it is used when a reader wishes to cover material in a hurry (Lakshmi 2007). According to Mildered, (2009), skimming is a quick type of superficial reading that is completed in an effort to get the overall gist of the material. Ward (1998) claimed that skimming is reading at the fastest possible speed to get important information quickly, it is a selective process of looking and reading, when skimming the eyes sweep down the printed page without actually reading every word. For him skimming is an organized search for seeking information about an article, chapter, or a book.

Yan Shem (2009) explained that “skimming is a fast-reading skill that does not require reading word by word, but it does require a high degree of concentration” (164), Robert (2011) added that “skimming is a form of speed reading that is useful for extracting the main idea and supporting details from a reading selection”. Chris (2012) admitted that skimming is used to get an overview in a very short period of time. When people skim a text, they are not searching for specific information, but rather to determine if the information is relative to what they are searching for.

Li’ismaawati et al (2014) argue that: “skimming is a method of rapidly moving the eyes over text with the purpose of getting only the main ideas and a general overview of the content. It indicates that the students avoid reading a whole text but have to read selectively to get general information of a text”. Warren, (2016) describes that: “skimming is reading that looks only for general idea of a reading material. It is just like what the word is; you are just reading parts of the story, article, or report in generalized manner. It is used when the selected material for reading is quite long”. The use of skimming is to help students to read more actively and to find the general idea or the main idea of each paragraph. According to Robert (2011) “the purpose of skimming is to locate the topic sentences, the main idea, and

some of the major supporting details”. For Milderred, (2009), skimming is useful to determine whether the material is worth reading. Skimming involves reading the first sentence of every paragraph or section, in addition to the chapter headings and all headings in bold print; as well as the reading of the introduction and the conclusion (Susan 2005). I.S.P. National (2009) suggests that “being able to skim a text is a useful skill because skimming can be used to help decide if a text or section of a text deserves careful reading”

2. Definition and purpose of Scanning

Scanning is defined as reading rapidly a passage to get a specific piece of information or to find the answer of a particular question. Scanning is a focused search for specific information (Merry and Brenda 1986).

According to Erik (2008), scanning is one of the reading skills you require to locate information quickly in the index of a text book. To do so, he suggests identifying the key words in the research item. Then, let the eyes go up and down the index columns until you find references beginning with the key words, then focus more finely to search for the specific reference you want. Milderred (2009) explained scanning strategy as “a scanning that involves rapid reading to locate answers to very specific questions concerned with matters such as names, dates, or telephone numbers”. Lakshmi (2007) added that scanning is also a skill which demands a quick answer to question from the passage or chapter or even the complete book. In scanning, you look for a particular word or a set of words, ignoring all else, and glancing over the page rapidly (ibid, 2001).

Ward’s (1998) definition is that scanning involves running the eyes down the printed page, looking for specific bits of information, key words or phrases. For him, it is useful for locating statements, definitions, formulas, dates, telephone numbers or other specific items which require little of any context. He added that “scanning is useful for finding answers to

simple questions and permits the eyes to move rapidly down the page searching for the answer. Once it is found, reading stops”

Yan Shan (2009) also said that “scanning is a helpful technique when students are looking for answers to a particular question. Scanning involves moving through the passage seeking specific words and sentences” (165). Scanning technique covers a great deal of material in order to locate a specific in order to locate a specific fact or piece of information. The students just read based on the information they need (Li“ismawati et al (2014). Scanning involves searching for a particular piece of information in a text, such as looking for a particular name or a particular number. Effective scanning depends on good careful reading and skimming skills (I.S.P. Nation 2009). Furthermore, Warren, (2016) argued that “scanning may be similar to skimming but you are mainly looking at facts that are in the text. You are not reading text at all but instead you are only reading specific information”. The main purpose of scanning is to find specific information in limited period of time. Scanning is also used to determine whether a particular piece of information will answer one of the given questions (Yan Shen 2009).

Scanning involves the identification of the paragraphs or sections that most probably contain the information you need and then look quickly through them vertically; seeking key relevant words (Susan 2005). According to Robert (2011) skimming and scanning are helpful when searching for information sources especially in libraries or on the internet.

1.1.1.2. Extensive and Intensive reading

Extensive and intensive reading refer to approaches to language learning and teaching. From their names, you can probably deduce that they both celebrate reading as an integral part of language learning. Where they differ, however, is in their approach to this activity.

1. Extensive Reading :

Extensive reading is considered as rapid reading. The reader reads books after books. His attention is paid to the meaning of the text itself not to the language. The purpose of extensive reading is for pleasure and information. Extensive reading is also termed as “supplementary reading”. According to Bamford and Day (1997), extensive reading is generally associated with reading large amounts with the aim of getting an overall understanding of the material. Readers are more concerned with the meaning of the text than the meaning of individual words or sentences. In the classroom, extensive reading is often overlooked, especially as a classroom activity. Teachers often feel it is not an effective use of class time or are just uncomfortable with the extended silence. Learners can be encouraged to read extensively by setting up a class library, where students are encouraged to read silently. However, it is time consuming.

2. Intensive Reading

Intensive reading means that the readers take a text, study it line by line, and refer at every moment to the dictionary about the grammar or the vocabulary of the text itself. Intensive reading is usually “a classroom-oriented activity in which students focus on the linguistic or semantic details of a passage. According to Brown (2007), intensive reading calls students' attention to grammatical forms, discourse markers, and other surface structure details for the purpose of understanding literal meaning”. Moreover, intensive reading is a process where students read material which is usually above their linguistic level.

In the classroom, intensive reading activities include skimming a text for specific information to answer true or false statements or filling gaps in a summary, scanning a text to match headings to paragraphs, and scanning jumbled paragraphs and then reading them carefully to put them into the correct order.

1.1.2. Traditional reading "home reading situation"-

According to Dole et al. (1991), in the traditional view of reading, novice readers acquire a set of hierarchically ordered sub-skills that sequentially build toward comprehension ability. Readers are passive recipients of information in the text. Meaning resides in the text and the reader has to reproduce meaning. According to Nunan (1991), reading in this view is basically a matter of decoding a series of written symbols into their aural equivalents in the quest for making sense of the text. He referred to this process as the '*bottom-up*' view of reading. McCarthy (1999) has called this view 'outside-in' processing; referring to the idea that meaning exists in the printed page and is interpreted by the reader then taken in. This model of reading has almost always been under attack as being insufficient and defective for the main reason that it relies on the formal features of the language, mainly words and structure.

1.1.3. The Modern Reading Process

Reading is a process that involves recognizing words, leading to the development of comprehension. According to research, reading is a process that negotiates the meaning between the text and its reader. Reading is a process involving word recognition, comprehension and fluency Mac Carthy (1999). Word recognition is the ability of a reader to recognize written words correctly. Hence, comprehension is the ability to read text, process it, and understand its meaning. However, fluency is the ability to read a text accurately and quickly without causing the tongue to stammer.

1.1.3.1. The Contents of the Reading Process

The reading process involves three stages: the first is the pre-reading stage, which allows the reader to activate background knowledge, preview the text, and develop a purpose

for reading. A strategy for students to utilize during this stage is to look at the title of the selection and list all the information that comes to mind about the title.

1. Set a purpose: set a purpose for reading (summary, paraphrase, entertainment and make a mental or written note of your goals in reading the text. Your purpose might need to locate specific information and ideas, or you might need to summarize and paraphrase the text.

2. Make predictions: make some predictions about what topics, ideas and issues the text will cover and how the author will communicate. Use the title or sub-headings to generate some ideas

3. Ask questions: pose some questions before you begin to read that you hope the text will answer

4. Build knowledge: think about the topic: familiarize yourself with the content; language; and format of the text; what topics, issues and ideas the text will cover; and in what way the language and organization of the text are used for the specific purposes of the writing and/or special themes. The purpose of the writing may be to describe, persuade, inform, entertain, interact, find out, regulate, and record.

5.Preview vocabulary: quickly skim and scan the text for unfamiliar vocabulary and then try to determine the meaning from the context.

6.Skimming: do a quick surface level reading of the text paying attention to subheadings, visuals, and format to determine whether the text contains information that you might need those in your own writing.

7.Scanning: do a quick reading of the text and search for specific words, phrases, ideas, visuals, format, and sub-headings.

The second stage occurs while reading, when the readers make predictions as they read and then confirm or revise the predictions. For Example, double-entry journal enables the reader to write the text from the reading on one side and their personal reaction on the other side.

8. Order of Reading the text: Reading the text in the order below will help you understand its global meaning before you go on to read the whole text in detail. Indeed, once you have gone through the order below, you may find that you don't need to read the whole text. Read the text in the following order :

9. Title/headings-Sub-Headings-First paragraph -Last Paragraph-First sentence of each paragraph and finally the whole text.

10. Attending to the different elements in the text: pay attention to what the author is trying to communicate; how does the author use the language to convey meaning? What are some of the obvious and/or hidden themes in the text? Try and get a sense of the writer's attitude toward the topic.

11. Guessing: when you come to a word that you don't know, try and guess the meaning from the context, don't stop reading -keep going even if one or two words are unfamiliar.

12. Reading silently: good readers read silently. Reading out loud slows you down, it also forces you to pay attention to the sounds of words rather than their meaning

13. Searching for answers to your pre-reading questions and confirmation of your predictions: look for information that responds to your questions and confirms or denies the predictions you made about the text

The final stage is the post reading phase which allows the reader to retell the story, discuss the elements of a story, answer questions and/or compare it to another text. For example, students can create summaries, where they take a huge selection and reduce it to its main points for more concise understanding

17. Evaluate: provide an opinion on how effective the author has been in carrying out the purpose of the writing and in what ways the writer has been successful at accomplishing the task.

14. Create a map (visual representation) of the different ideas in the text starting with the main theme in the centre and building off of it to list the related and supporting details

15. Discuss a) content, b) vocabulary, c) author's plan and use of language, d) patterns

16. Analyse the ideas in the text and discuss any unfamiliar or special vocabulary; examine how the author structured the text and what grammatical and structural patterns were used in support of the author's purpose for writing

17. Return to initial predictions: ask yourself whether the predictions you made about the content and plan of the text were confirmed or denied

18. Answer your prereading questions: try to answer your initial questions to determine if the text provided you with the information you expected, predicted or needed.

Finally, it is now time to make use of what one has read to generate a summary, paraphrase or semantic map in preparation for a more extended writing assignment.

Chapter One: Part 2 -Critical Reading

Introduction:

According to Rand Study Group, (2002, p. 11), reading comprehension is “ the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language”. That is ,when the reader has a text at hand to read, it is very important to extract and construct its meaning through the building of logical interactions with the written text, which in general , leads to the reading comprehension where the highest level of reading comprehension is critical reading, based on Crowley and Mountain’s hierarchy of reading comprehension. Thus, “The process of reading is different from different readers on different texts at different times and with different purposes.” (Alderson & Bachman, 2000, p. 3). Hence, when readers have a text at hand, they have different perspectives about it according to different factors that influence the reading process. In general, readers who read the text critically tend to think about what they read, assess what they have read, and use their own judgment about what they have read. So in order to treat a written text critically, a reader should know how to make judgments and evaluate the intended material.

1.2. Definition of critical reading:

Different definitions to critical reading had been proposed. Critical reading can be defined as” making judgments while reading and questioning what is read according to the pre-determined questions” (Harris& Hodges, 1981, pp. 74). During such questioning, the reader’s previous knowledge and intelligence interact with the information in the text (Grabe, 2002). In short, in contrast to accepting directly what the author said or mentioned, the reader will be able to build his own judgments and point of views which define him as a critical reader. Moreover, Azdemir, (1997) asserted that critical reading is not restricted to only

understanding the text, and its interpretations (Bagci&Sahbaz, (2012) through the process of assessing the opinions or knowledge (Canan,(2003). Critical reading has been defined as” the ability to: (a) make judgments and inferences; (b) distinguish between facts and opinion; and (c) recognize the author’s purpose or point of view” (Dartch & Cameenui, (1987). In short, critical reading is the readers’ ability to think about what they read, assess what they have read, and use their own judgments about what they have read. Thus, they find themselves using different strategies that involve them in the process of critical reading in order to analyze the text well and interpret its meaning. According to McLaughlin and Devoogd (2004), a book can blind a reader at the same time it can enlighten him and extend his knowledge (as cited in Molden’s book). It is because readers sometimes leave the text without questioning it (Molden, 2007). So whether the readers are deceived or enlightened depends on how they approach the task of reading: they are deceived when they leave the texts without questioning, in contrast when asking questions about the author’s perspectives and point of views and their own, they are more likely to be enlightened (Molden 2007).

Freire (2005) advocated for approaching critical reading as process for simultaneously “reading the word “and “reading the world” (p.31). In this view, Freire involves the readers as assistant authors who are contributing in building the text meaning. When the reader critically achieves an understanding of the object that the author talks about, the reader knows the meaning of the text and becomes co-author of that meaning. the reader has worked and reworked the meaning of the text; thus, it was not there, immobilized, here lies the difficulty and the fascination of reading in the act of reading (Freire, 2005, pp.56 57). In short, critical reading is one of the skills that enables the learners to correspond with the text and understand it with different perspectives which are, whether similar or different of the author’s perspectives, depending on the learner’s point of views and ideas; in this case,

the reader is considered as an assistant author as he contributes in building the meaning of the text.

Moreover, in learning contexts (Allen, 2004; Nilson, 2003) argued that critical thinking and critical reading skills are required not only for in-class learning but also for lifelong learning. On this basis, the critical reading methods and strategies should be present among the methods of developing the language skills in the learning classes.

In addition, Wallace (2003) defined critical reading as “using the text” not only reading it. Moreover, critical reading is seen as an orientation to reading task (Wallace, 2003, p. 22). Based on this view, critical reading enables the readers to build their own perspectives based on using text, the process of reading this text is directed by the critical reading process itself.

1.2.1 Important elements of critical reading

According to Bosely (2008), college teachers believe that most of high school graduates can read critically, but researches revealed that for some students, critical reading strategies must be taught explicitly and reinforced through practice. Based on this claim, the strategies used by some learners in order to accomplish a critical reading task are not effective; thus, there are some learners who are not still able to read critically or to achieve the intended goals that are supposed to be achieved. Missouri (2007) suggests seven critical reading strategies to help students read critically. These strategies are:

Annotating, Previewing, Contextualizing, Questioning, reflecting, Summarizing, and Evaluating an argument

1.2.1.1 Previewing:

Previewing is a strategy used by good critical readers to predict what the content of the text would be about. The good critical readers conducted this strategy through several activities, such as reading the title of the text to predict the topic; reading the questions to predict the topic guessed; skimming as well as to predict the text structure to have a brief description about the main ideas; marking complicated sentences as well as unfamiliar words to predict the level of difficulty of the text. By doing this strategy, it means that good critical readers started to anticipate their reading process before reading the text carefully. In short, previewing is a strategy that is used by critical readers in the first stage of reading in order to predict and guess what the text is about and what are the main ideas being tackled to build a general background about the text.

Furthermore, as cited in an article adapted from a document posted by Salisbury University Center)“Previewing enables readers to get a sense of what a text is about and how it is organized before reading it closely. This simple strategy includes seeing what you can learn from the head notes or other introductory material, skimming to get an overview of the content and organization, and identifying the rhetorical situation (Who is the author? What is the author’s purpose? Who is the audience?).

Previewing focuses on learning about the text before reading it thoroughly, but reading critically does not only include looking at the style, the title and subtitle of the text, but also getting an overview about its context and organization as well as identifying its rhetorical situation (skimming). In other words, there is a big difference between reading and reading critically. In reading critically, the learner uses previewing as a strategy to learn about the text before reading it and gets a general overview about its context. Moreover, according to Axelrod & Cooper (2002), the main strategies which are usefully applied in the process of

critical reading are: *annotating, previewing, contextualizing, outlining, analyzing opposition, summarizing, paraphrasing, synthesizing, questioning, and reflecting*. In short, previewing is one of the most important strategies that influence the critical reading process and it is the first step that a reader has to start with.

1.2.1.2 Annotating:

Tovani (2000) as cited in Nasrollahiet al.(2015) the critical reading strategies are- the first step that learners should take to determine their purpose of reading, then preview the text, and pay attention to the general structures and the language features, this is before starting reading and while they are reading. Students take some notes and write them down then connect and match the knowledge they learned from the text with their own prior knowledge, then they monitor their comprehension, and finally they make a summary of their reading. Meanwhile, Nasrollahi et al. (2015) assert that there are ten critical reading strategies that are needed by every reader to comprehend the text which are: *annotating, previewing, scanning and skimming, fact versus opinion, drawing conclusions, monitoring, summarizing, paraphrasing, synthesizing and questioning*.

In other words, one of the most important strategies of critical reading is annotating and writing on the margin the main points that the text tackled; so the learner will be able to build and construct inferences that lead to the text comprehension using the reader's prior knowledge. Moreover, Lauterman & Ackerman, (2013); Thiede, Anderson & Therriault, (2003) report that under specific circumstances, taking notes strategy can improve monitoring the learning process which leads to the improvement of the learning quality.

1.2.1.3 Summarizing

Missouri (2007) assumes that summarizing starts with outlining, but instead of ordering the main ideas in a list, a summary is presented in a form of new text. In fact,

summarizing helps students to put the principle ideas of a text in one less sized text rather than outline or list them. The text summary is based on the analysis of each paragraph alone in order to lead to a deeper understanding of any text, and then rewrite them again so that the learner is supposed to improve his reading and writing skills as well at the same time. Caccamise (2011) argued that one of the most important reading comprehension skills is summarizing because it helps students to develop the main point of ideas and form a lasting and exact “text-based representation of text meaning”.

In addition, Correia (2006) conducted a case study with a group of advanced university students in Brazil; she examined the effect of writing summary and discussing about the article on the students’ reading comprehension. The results have shown that writing the article’s summary has a positive effect on the students’ reading comprehension. Moreover, Baleghizadeh and Babapur (2011) conducted a study about the effect of summary writing on reading comprehension and recall of Iranian EFL learners. Their study sampled 50 intermediate female students who were divided into two groups. The first group was asked to read the text and write down its summary; whereas the second group’s task was only to read the text without providing its summary. The two groups had a reading comprehension test with 20 multiple choice questions. The results showed that summarizing the text promoted Iranian EFL learners’ reading comprehension better.

1.2.1.4 Analyzing:

According to Bouazid (2014), analyzing a text is cutting it into pieces and figuring out how these pieces are structured together (79).

1.2.2 How to become a strategic critical reader:

In fact, a would be well trained critical reader when appropriately briefed will be active, strategic and process conscious-he questions, confirms, and judges what he reads

throughout the reading process. According to Bouazid (2014) a critical reader may reject traditional ways of reading and opt for the story map approach which Reutzel (1985, p. 401) found to be a good alternative to the traditional question and discussion session following the reading of a story. The method enhances reading comprehension by helping students to store and retrieve information, make connections between previous experience and reading materials, identify relationships among concepts and events, organize specific details, and understand the message embedded in the text.

1.2.2.1 Determine your purpose for reading:

Knowing your purpose for reading and why you are reading a given text is very important in the organization of your reading and the way you use what you read. Thus, it is very important for a reader, before reading any material, to ask himself first whether he is reading only for general content or for acquiring data for specific information, for general thematic concerns, for argument that support or contest your thesis in a writing assignment, or for information to get you thinking about what you will need.

1.2.2.2. Consider the title and skim the opening sentence of each paragraph:

It is of crucial importance for a reader to read critically. Many readers do not set aside enough time for reading and they do not stop at every single item of a text. Critical readers need to read the titles carefully and the openings of paragraphs as these stand for the topic sentence that gives a general overview about its content.

1.2.2.3 Use prior knowledge and look at how the text is structured:

Kendiou & Van Den Peroek (2014) argued that it is obvious that the reader's prior knowledge and the text structure affect his reading comprehension. Indeed, there is evidence that the reader's prior knowledge and the text characteristics affect comprehension once

reading is completed. In other words, the reader's prior knowledge influences the way he perceives things during the reading process as he already has previous background about the subject or at least related elements to it. In addition, a critical reader has to see how the text is structured in terms of grammar, vocabulary and syntax. This will obviously help him form a complete image about how coherently a text holds together.

1.2.2.4 Skim the opening sentence of each paragraph and identify key issues or arguments of the author:

According to Anand (2013) skimming is a reading strategy that enables learners to get a general idea of the text in short period of time, we skim when we wish to cover the reading material in a smaller time. Based on the aforementioned definition skimming is the first step to understand the whole text in general; moreover, in order to narrow down the process to the pieces of the text, skimming the opening sentence of each paragraph is an important matter as getting the general idea of each paragraph and identifying the key issues or arguments of the author in general. With this strategy we are attempting only to take an overall idea about the text or the paragraph, paying attention only to the key words or ideas of the text and ignoring the other details.

1.2.2.5 Make notes in the margin or on a separate sheet of paper:

Lauterman & Ackerman, (2013); Thiede, Anderson & Therriault, (2003) report that under specific circumstances, taking notes strategy can improve monitoring the learning process which leads to the improvement of the learning quality. In short, making notes in the margin or in a separate sheet of paper makes the learner order his ideas and matches his prior knowledge with what he has read. This will help him organize, combine, review all the ideas and be able to reconsider the whole work from the annotated information.

1.2.3 On the importance of critical reading:

In educational contexts, most of EFL learners face many problems especially in comprehension of reading materials. According to most of them, understanding a text is a challenging task, because learners might understand each word and each sentence; but unfortunately, they fail to achieve the meaning of the whole text. For this reason, critical reading is very important for every reader thanks to the elements and the role it plays in enhancing and developing reading comprehension. Mc Namara et al (2009) consider that “reading strategies are more useful and beneficial for learners who show lack of knowledge in the domain of reading, as well as those with lower reading skills. These kinds of learners are strongly in need to these strategies to achieve reading comprehension” (p. 218). Therefore, the continuous use of reading strategies will become a habit with time and the learners are supposed to use them without efforts. Moreover, according to Hudson (2007) critical reading skills and strategies help the learners to have the skills of analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating.

1.2.3.5. Conclusion:

As a conclusion , a critical reader, before he becomes a good critical reader he must be a reader who is aware of the different types of reading ,the real definition of reading and the three stages of reading .Moreover , he must be aware of the critical reading ,the important elements of critical reading and strategies .Therefore , a good critical reader is the reader who adopts the adequate strategies such as taking notes on the margin or on separate sheet of paper ,skimming the opening sentence and identifying the authors arguments .

Chapter Two: 2.1. Part One: Research Methodology

Introduction:

This chapter sheds some light on how the research is designed and conducted; thus, it comprises the fundamental research concepts, such as: research nature-, mixed method approach, sample and sampling. In addition, it aims to answer the research questions to give an ample understanding of the issue and its problem. The research methodology focuses on explaining the nature of the data. This chapter elaborates on the methods and manner in which the current research was planned. Specific objectives of the study arranged the research access through developing the research instruments. It introduces the methodology used in the current study, research setting, population and sampling, data collection procedures and data analysis procedures that stimulate the findings presented in the next chapter.

2.1.1 Research Design and Methodology

There is no research without a design. Research is essentially based on a careful set up plan of the elements to research about a given topic. This is the design that a researcher needs to follow. It gives the researcher a kind of set up goal to reach a given destination.

2.1.1.1. Research Design definition, importance and perspectives

The term research refers to a process of systematic, methodical and ethical steps to solve a problem, to understand a phenomenon, to answer a question or to establish facts (Neville 2007). Rajasekar et al. (2013, p. 5) describe research methodology as "...the procedures by which researchers go about their work of describing, explaining and predicting phenomena".

A research design is the theoretical framework that shapes all what concerns methodology, approach, data collection and tools. Hence, in the words of Bhattacharjee (2012), it is “a comprehensive plan for data collection in an empirical research project” (p.35).

2.1.1.2. Research Methodology definition

Singh, (2006) stipulated that Research methodology involves such general activities as identifying problems, review of the literature, formulating hypotheses, procedure for testing hypotheses, measurement, data collection analysis of data, interpreting results, drawing conclusions and contributes in organizing the research work in a scientific, and valid manner .

A methodology provides a piece of research with its philosophy, the values and assumptions which drive the rationale for the investigation as well as the standards that will be utilized for the interpretation information and the drawing of conclusions (Bailey, 1994). It will provide the focus and approach for the study and is the process through which researchers pinpoint the methods that will be used in order to address their specific question (Crotty, 1998).

2.1.2. The Nature of the Present Research Design

The present study tries to implement the development of writing Skills in EFL Young Learners through teachers’ perception and reflection. To achieve this purpose, a descriptive-analytical research design has been followed to trace out the different classroom phases, steps and procedures.. The research design is considered as a plan referring to which data is collected to investigate the research hypothesis or question. The method adopted in our research is mixed method in which the study is developed and gives an indication of the way the research findings will be presented to others. In other words, quantitative method allows

the researcher to measure and analyze data and the qualitative method helps the researcher investigate the why and how of decision making, not just what, where or when.

In this study; researchers seek to discover teachers' perceptions about how written expression is supposed to be taught in their respective middle school classes through the use of surveys in addition to Inspectors' interviews on how teachers are implementing written expression as a taught process.

2.1.3. Research Approach

A research approach is the theoretical framework and the philosophy set in conducting a research-Two main approaches are generally referred to mixed -methods approach that comprises both quantitative and quantitative methods. So, before all, let us define what is meant by Mixed methods.

2.1.4. Mixed-Methods Approach.

Mixed methods research has been described in a variety of ways which can make it a difficult concept to understand (Niglas, 2009). It has been referenced as “empirical research that involves the collection and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data” (Allan, n.d., Slide 4), whereas Burke Johnson et al. (2007, p. 123) define it as:“... the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combine elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration.”

In this study, a mixed-methods approach is employed by combining quantitative and qualitative research methods; two survey questionnaires for teachers are used as quantitative tools, in addition to one to students involving both quantitative and qualitative. Also,

qualitative questionnaire was administered to inspectors in what concerns how teachers' written expression classroom activities are implemented.

2.1.4.1. Quantitative Method:

A quantitative research approach is defined by Bhawna and Gobind (2015, p.49) as “the systematic empirical investigation of observable phenomena via statistical, mathematical or computational techniques”.

2.1.4.2. Qualitative Method:

Qualitative researchers use “participants’ observation, in-depth interviews, document analysis, and focus groups” (Yilmaz, 2013, p. 315). Hence, according to Bhawna & Gobind (2015), a qualitative research is “a holistic approach that involves discovery “(p.50); it involves conducting data about attitudes, opinions, and behaviour in a subjective way (Kothari, 1990).

2.1.5. Research Setting:

The present research is conducted in the Department of English Language and literature at Mohammed Boudiaf, M’sila University during the academic year 2019/2020. The data are collected from the department of English, University Mohamed Boudiaf.

2.1.6.. Research population

Bhattacharjee (2012), defines population as “all people or items (unit of analysis) with the characteristics that one wishes to study” (p.65). So population comprises the parent group from which a sample is to be formed” (Singh .2006 p .82). In the present study, the target population is formed of 80 Third year students, and 10 teachers of English.

2.1.6.1. Sample and Sampling Design

Nayak & Singh, (2015) defined a sample as a subset of people, objects, or items selected from the entire population for measurement which act as a representative “taste” of a group” (p.78). They asserted on the crucial role of randomization (each individual of the population has an equal chance or probability of selection) because it “eliminates the danger of researchers biasing the selection process because of their own opinions or desires” (Nayak, Singh p.80)

In our research, we have opted for random sampling where each participant has a chance to be selected. The questionnaires were coded according to recipients then a selection was done. In order to conduct the present study, the first sample has been selected randomly 25students from80 tertiary students; whereas, the second sample 10 teachers out of 15 has been selected to answer the questionnaire.

2.1.6.2. Data Collection Procedures

With the intention to test the research hypothesis and answer the research questions, we have used basic instruments; two questionnaires for teacher, one for students and one for inspectors of English .After piloting the questionnaires and after their revision we opted for distribution,, we coded them ,then we analyzed them

2.1.6.2.1. Teachers’ Questionnaire Aims and objectives

The main objective of the two teachers’ questionnaires was to gather data about the teachers’ development of writing Skills in EFL Young Learners through their own perception and reflection on writing and their practical implementation on how to teach this skill.

2.1.6.2.2. Students' Questionnaire Aims and objectives

The purpose of the students' questionnaire was to collect data from students about whether their teachers teach them writing, provide them with enough chance of practicing writing and give correction and feedback on their writing.

2.1.7. Data collection procedures

Our study is based on the analysis of students' use of GCDs in their exam papers. At first, the quality of our research depends on the use of written questionnaire as a technique for gathering data. Administering a written questionnaire is probably the most commonly used research technique. Consequently, the questions are included in order to cover as many relevant factors as possible, may result in an overload of data for the present purpose. The researcher tried to keep the language of the questionnaire as simple as possible and stressed that the respondents were allowed all the help, they needed to fill in the questionnaire.

As mentioned above, the questionnaire is administered to 5 English teachers and 15 students from first, second and third year. Both of the teachers and the students are given the questionnaires in the classroom before the teaching class starts, they have the sufficient time to answer and the paper are returned in the same day. In the second stage, the analysis concerns a corpus of written exam papers produced by first, second- and third-year students because they were asked to write an essay about some particular topics in their exam papers. After the teachers' corrections, the researcher takes into consideration a list of features such as academic writing, cohesive ties and coherence to evaluate the students' implementation of cohesive ties. In the third stage, the researcher conducted descriptive statistical procedures for data analysis such as scores, means, frequencies and percentages.

Conclusion:

In this chapter, the methods related to the current study were described in details, the participants of the study, the setting and the procedures that are used for data collection and analysis were explained. The students' written productions and the results of their essays analysis were displayed as an evidence for the grammatical devices usage which is the main concern of this study.

Chapter Two: 2.2. Part Two: Research Methodology

2.2.1. Analysis of the Teachers' Questionnaire (1)

1-How many years have you been teaching English?

Number of years	number	percentage
02-05	05/10	50%
05-10	3/10	30%
10 and more	02/10	20%
Total	10	

Table 2.2.1. On Teachers' experience

Comment:

According to table 2.1. most teachers are new in the profession with five out of ten and a rate of 50% showing experience between 2-5 years, three teachers with 30% and just two with an experience over ten years with a rate of 20%.

2-Which of the following skills your pupils best prefer?

Options	Average Number per class	percentage
1. Listening	10	23.80%
2. Speaking	9	21.4%
3. Reading	12	28.5%
4. Writing	11	26.18%
Total-one class	42	

samplex10 teachers		
<p>5. Justification</p> <p>1. Students prefer reading to other skills because they like reading stories where they feel independent.</p> <p>2. Some prefer writing because they like expressing themselves</p> <p>3. Another portion prefer listening to speaking because they just listen and do not bother about the mistakes they make while speaking</p>		

Table 2.2. 2.Students’ skill preferences

Comment :

According to teachers’ answer to question 2 related to students’ skill preferences, the most preferred skill is reading with 12 out of 42 students with a rate of 28.5% against 11 for writing with a rate of 26.18%, listening with 10 students with a rate of 23.80% and speaking with 9 students with a rate of 21.4%

3. What kind(s) of teaching materials do you use in teaching reading comprehension? And what do you think about it?

Types of reading Material
1. textbook articles and pamphlets
2. short stories and articles
3. adverts and dialogues
4. authentic material (sports and features)
<p>Opinion:</p> <p>Most teachers agreed on the textbook and the selected texts suggested as best reading material because they are selected and prescribed as authentic material by curriculum designers.</p>

Table 2.2.3. On types of reading material

4. Do you think that text selection can have an effect on reading comprehension achievement?

Options	Number	Percentage
Yes	09	90%
No	01	01%
Justification		
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. It is good to select the type of text for your readers so as to direct them to the grammar points you want to teach. 2. I give to my students the best texts that I myself enjoy with a purpose behind, of course. 3. It is very motivating when you select what your learners like to read 4. Knowing the readers' taste is part of teaching what learners like to learn. 		

Table 2.2.4. On the effect of text selection on reading achievement

Comment:

Nine teachers out of ten with a rate of 90% believe that the text selection has a great influence of students' reading achievement against 01 teacher with a 1% percent with no answer.

5. How can you help your students when they do not understand while reading a text?

Kind and nature of help
1. explain to them in simple language
2. help them with easy vocabulary
3. simplify the ideas in my own words
4. guide them with some leading questions
5. give them the story in a sketchy way

Table 2.2.5. On Teachers' help to students at reading problems

Comment:

According to what teachers say in their responses to question 5, the kind of help they provide their students with in reading is to help explain to them using simple language, easy

vocabulary, simplify the ideas of the text, guide them with suggested leading questions and give a sketchy mind mapping to the story.

6. What are the difficulties that your students face when reading? Rank them in order

Difficulties faced by students
1. Reading aloud
2. Difficulties of pronunciation
3. Ambiguous words
Others
a. vowels distinction
b. stressed/ unstressed syllables
c. mute sounds

Table 2.2.6. Students’ difficulties at reading

Comment:

According to teachers, students face many difficulties at the level of reading-This includes reading aloud with acceptable pronunciation, how to pay attention to ambiguous words, how to avoid pronouncing mute words, how to stress and unstress syllables. In addition, students also suffer from vowels distinction.

7. According to you as a language teacher, what are the causes behind these problems?

Students’ Causes of reading difficulties
1. -Lack of time
2. - Lack of reading habit
3. -The difficulty of the text
Others
a. superficial reading
b. lack of concentration
c. non respect to pauses

Table 2.2.7. Students causes of reading difficulties

Comment:

According to teachers the students' causes of reading difficulties lie in the lack of time, lack of reading habit and the difficulty of the reading text. In addition, there is also superficial reading where there is a lack of concentration and non-respect to pauses.

8. Is the time devoted for the reading session sufficient?

Options	Number	Percentage
Yes	07	70%
No	03	30%
"No" Justification		
1. Students need a lot of time when they read because they are weak. 2. To answer the questions in reading demands many times of serious concentrations students lack. 3. To properly scan the text, students need a double or more reading between the lines.		

Table 2.2.8. On the time devoted to reading

Comment:

In what concerns whether time devoted to reading is sufficient or not, seven teachers out of ten said yes with a rate of 70%; whereas only three teachers opted for no with a rate of 30%. The three teachers justified their no response to

1. Students need a lot of time when they read because they are weak. 2. to answer the questions in reading demands many times of serious concentrations students lack and 3. To properly scan the text, students need a double or more reading between the lines.

9. What can you suggest to improve the students' reading comprehension achievement?

Suggestions on improving Reading comprehension Achievement	number	Percentage
1.give them lots of things to read at home	07 /10	70%
2. show them the way they should read to benefit to the maximum of what they read	07 /10	70%
3. teach them the techniques of good reading	6 /10	60%

4. guide them on how to be strategic readers	07 /10	70%
5. help them put objectives before they start reading so that they concentrate only on the gist	06 /10	60%

Table 2.2.9. On suggestions about improving Reading comprehension Achievement

Comment:

As suggestion to improve the students' reading comprehension achievement, **Seven teachers with a rate of 70% suggest** to give them lots of things to read at home. Seven teachers with a rate of 70% to show them the way they should read to benefit to the maximum of what they read. Six teachers with 60% to teach them the techniques of good reading, seven with 70% to guide them on how to be strategic readers, six teachers with a rate of 60% to help them put objectives before they start reading so that they concentrate only on the gist and six teachers with a rate of 60% to help them put objectives before they start reading so that they concentrate only on the gist.

2.2.2. Analysis of Students' Questionnaire

Q. 1. What is your purpose from reading any material?

Options	number	Percentage
1.To get general knowledge	07 /25	24%
2.To read for pleasure	03 /25	12%
3.To enrich your vocabulary knowledge	03 /25	12%
4.To get the general meaning that help understand the text.	12 /25	48%

2.2.10. On students' purpose of reading

Comment :

As an answer to question One students' questionnaire on the purpose of their reading ,seven students with a rate of 24% answered to get general knowledge, three with a rate to read for pleasure, three with a rate of 12% to enrich their vocabulary knowledge and finally twelve students with a rate of 48% to get the general meaning that help understand the text.

Q. 2. When you read a text and you do not understand, you...

Options	number	Percentage
1. Translate into Arabic	03 /25	12%
2. Use a dictionary	05 /25	20%
3. Carry on your reading without understanding	10 /25	40%
4. Stop reading	01 /25	4%
5. Others, specify		
1. ask my friends	03 /25	12%
2. ask my teacher	03 /25	12%

Table 2.2.11. On how to manage one's reading

Comment:

In response to question two related to what one has to do in case of miscomprehension, three students out of twenty five with a rate of 12% answered they translate into Arabic, five students with a rate of 20% opted for using a dictionary, ten students with a rate of 40% said they carry on their reading without understanding, one student with a rate of 1% suggests to stop reading. As to other answers, three students with 12% rate said to ask their friends and finally three other students with the same rate opted for asking their teachers.

Q.3.What are the difficulties that you often face when reading?

Options	number	percentage
1. Difficulties of pronunciation	07 /25	24%
2. Ambiguous words	07 /25	24%
3. New words	03 /25	12%
4. Meaning of words	02	8%
5. Others, specify		
1. understanding the gist	03	12%
2.do not how to stress words in connected speech	03	12%

Table 2.2.12. On the reading difficulties students often face

Comment:

In response to question three related to students' reading difficulties, seven students with a rate of 24% answered they face difficulties in pronunciation, seven other students with similar rate face it in ambiguous words, three others with a rate of 12% see the difficulty in new words, two other students with 8% rate see it in the meaning of words. In addition, other groups with three students each having a rate of 12% see it respectively-the difficulty of understanding the gist and they do not know how to stress words in connected speech.

Q.4. What are the causes behind these difficulties?

Options	number	percentage
1. Lack of time	01 /25	4%
2. Lack of reading habit	07 /25	28%
3. The difficulty of the reading skill itself	06 /25	24%
4. The difficulty of the kind of texts	05 /25	20%
5.Lack of knowledge about critical reading	03 /25	12%
6. Others, specify		
lack of linguistic modelling and guidance	03 /25	12%

Table 2.2.13 On the causes behind reading difficulties

Comment:

In response to question four related to the causes of the reading difficulties, one student with a rate of 4% attributes this to the lack of time, seven with a rate of 28% relate it to the lack of the habit of reading, six students with a rate of 24% relate it to the difficulty of the reading skill itself, five others with a rate of 20% to the kind of texts treated, two other groups of three students with 12% rate relate this respectively to-lack of knowledge about critical reading and lack of linguistic modelling and guidance.

Q5: -Is the time devoted for the reading session sufficient?

Options	Number	Percentage
Yes	11	44%
No	14	56%
Justification		
19. We need more time because reading any unprepared for text		

can take a non-predictable time
20. Reading is a skill in itself and we need time to practice it before we try to answer the questions on any given text

Table 2.2.14. On the sufficiency of the time devoted to reading

Comment:

As an answer to this question, eleven students with a rate of 44% answered with yes against 14 students with No with a rate of 56%.As a justification for the ‘No’ answer, recipients said they need more time because reading any unprepared for text can take a non-predictable time. They added that reading is a skill in itself and that they need time to practice it before trying to answer the questions on any given text.

Q.6. Which strategies do you use when reading a text?

Options	number	Percentage
1. Writing ideas in the margin	12/25	48%
2. Underlining key words	06/25	24%
3. Summarizing each idea near its paragraph	07/25	28%

Table 2.2.15.On students’ use of reading strategies

Comment:

As an answer to question six related to students use of reading strategies. Twelve students with a rate of 48% opted for writing ideas in the margin, six of them with a rate of 24% said they underlined key words; whereas seven of them with a rate of 28% said they summarized each idea near its paragraph.

Q.7.Do you use pre-reading before you read? if no, Why?

Options	Number	Percentage
Yes	10/25	40%
No	15/25	60%
Justification		
1.We have never shown how to use a pre-reading activity or technique		

Table 2.2.16. On the use of pre-reading before reading

Comment: As a response to question seven, yes, ten students with a rate of 40% said yes; whereas fifteen said no with a rate of 60%. As no justification answer, students responded they had never been shown how to use a pre-reading activity or technique.

Q.8.Does your teacher help you overcome problems in reading?

Options	Number	Percentage
Yes	13/25	52%
No	12/25	48%
Yes-Type of help		
1.show us which part to focus on the text		
2.help us with ideas on how to summarize a text		
3.show us how to divide a reading text into chunks to understand it better		

Table 2.2.17. On teachers’ help to students at reading

Comment:

As an answer to question eight related to teachers’ help to students at reading, thirteen students with a rate of 52% answered with yes against twelve with a rate of 48% with No. Those who answered with yes claimed they were helped by showing them which part to focus on the text; teachers help us with ideas on how to summarize a text and finally by showing them how to divide a reading text into chunks to understand it better.

Q.9.How does your teacher assist you cognitively? By

Options	number	percentage
1. Reminding us of what we previously know	11/25	44%
2.brainstorming us (asking us questions)	05/25	20%
3. recalling to our minds things we have previously seen	09/25	32%

Table 2.2.18. On teachers’ cognitive assistance

Comment:

In what concerns question nine related to the teachers’ cognitive assistance, eleven students with a rate of 44% answered by reminding them of what they previously know ,five students with a rate of 20% by brainstorming them (asking them questions) and nine students with a rate of 32% by recalling to their minds things they had previously seen

Q.10.Does your teacher help you psychologically?

Options	Number	Percentage
Yes	16	64%
No	09	32%
Yes-How?		
21. By telling us in advance what the text is about		
22. Letting us form an idea about the text before we start reading		
23. Introducing and Simplifying the difficult words before we start reading the text		

Table 2.2.19. On teachers' psychological help to students

Comment :

Sixteen students with a rate of 64% answered with yes against nine students with a rate of 32% answered with no. Students with YES answer claimed they were helped by telling them in advance what the text is about, by letting them form an idea about the text before they start reading and finally by introducing and simplifying the difficult words before they start reading the text.

Q.11.Do you share your readings with your classmates?

Options	Number	Percentage
Yes	16/25	64%
No	09/25	32%
If, yes what are the benefits?		
1.I profit a lot from my friends when sharing the explanation of difficult words		
2.I feel at ease when working with my class mates		
3.Manydifficulties in reading will be solved		

Table 2.2.20. On students sharing ideas with their classmates

Comment:

Sixteen students with a rate of 64/% answered with yes; whereas nine students with a rate of 32% answered with no. Those who answered with yes, stated the benefits as-they profited a lot from their friends when sharing the explanation of difficult words,. They felt at ease when working with their class mates and finally they felt many difficulties in reading would be solved.

Q.12. Do you like reading in a secure environment and under the teacher’s guidance?

Options	Number	Percentage
Yes	21	84%
No	04	16%
If, yes why? 1. under the teacher’s guidance I feel more comfortable 2. When I need anything, I ask the teacher to explain to me.		

Table 2.2.21. On reading in a secure environment and under teachers’ guidance

Comment

As answer to question twelve, twenty one students with a rate of 84% answered with yes against four with a rate of 16%. As a justification, for the “yes “ respondents, answers came as under the teacher’s guidance students feel more comfortable .So, when they need anything, they ask the teacher to explain to them.

Q.13. Do you think knowing how to read is important?

Options	Number	Percentage
Yes	23/25	92%
No	02/25	8%
If, yes, where does this importance lie? 1. it will facilitate the task of reading for us 2. It helps us use the techniques and apply them when reading 3. It shows us how to read the text and economize time.		

Table 2.2.22. On the importance of knowing how to read

Comment:

In relation to this question, twenty-three students with a rate of 92% answered with yes against only two with a rate of 8%. According to students, the importance of knowing how to read lies in facilitating the task of reading for them. In addition, it helps them use the techniques and apply them when reading.

Q.14. Do you have any idea about the three phases of reading-pre-reading while reading and post reading?

Options	Number	Percentage
Yes	11 /25	44%
No	14/25	56%

Table 2.2.23 .On knowing about the three phases of reading (pre-while and post reading)

Comment: To answer this question, eleven students with a rate of 44% answered with yes against fourteen with a rate of 56% who answered with “No”.

Q.15.What is the definition of reading and critical reading? Read all the options and select the irrelevant one

15.1. Definition of Reading

Definition of Reading	number	percentage
1. Reading is answering questions on the text	08/25	32%
2. Reading is comprehending the message of a given text	15/25	60%
3. Reading is a productive skill as writing	02/25	8%

Table 2.2.24. On defining reading

Comment:

To elicit a good definition to reading from students, many answers were given. Eight students with a rate of 32% answered-reading is answering questions on the text. Fifteen with a rate of 60% said that reading is comprehending the message of a given text; whereas two students only with a rate of 8% answered reading is a productive skill as writing.

1.5.2. Critical reading is

Definition of Critical Reading	number	percentage
1.Deep reading that goes beyond the written text	13/25	52%
2. It is reading where we criticize	06/25	24%
3. Conscious reading that requires readers to be more active	06/25	24%

Table 2.2.25. On defining critical reading

Comment:

To answer this question, thirteen students with a rate of 52% defined critical reading as deep reading that goes beyond the written text, six students with a rate of 24% defined it as a

reading where we criticize .Six students with a rate of 24% answered that critical reading is a conscious reading that requires readers to be more active.

Q.16. According to you, if all conditions - teachers’ linguistic support, environmental support, and psychological factors are met- will you develop into a critical reader?

Options	Number	Percentage
Yes	22	88%
No	03	12%
No Justification		
1.we need to talk about the reader himself		
-his readiness		
-his cognitive capacities		
-his personal intrinsic motivation		

Table 2.2.26. On the relation between teaching conditions and students’ development into critical readers.

Comment:

As answer to question sixteen, twenty-two students with a rate of 88% answered with yes against only three with a rate of 12%. As “No” justification, students claimed that they need to talk about the reader himself, know about his readiness, his cognitive capacities and his personal intrinsic motivation.

Recommendations

_The significant gender differences revealed by the current study as the female gender supposed to score better than male in reading comprehension tasks.

_More studies are recommended to investigate more factors that can affect the reading process.

_Creating classroom environment that encourage students to become involved in discussions and collaborative work can improve students' critical reading.

_Teachers are not aware of the conditions that help learners to read critically. Therefore training service programs are recommended for EFL teachers.

Conclusion

Chapter two, in both its sections, is related to research design Methodology and analysis of data collection tools. Both mixed methods were used and they were widely reflected through the data collected. Also, the qualitative method was used in settings where the Wh-/How questions are required in both students' as well as in teachers' questionnaire. The analysis of the data collections tools proved positive. Critical reading factors were clearly pinpointed to elicit the students' effective use through teachers' orientations and guidance.

Chapter Three: Part One-- Factors that promote critical reading

Part one: the cognitive factors

3.1. Definition of cognitive factors:

Cognitive factors associated with reading comprehension include acquisition, recognition, and the use of knowledge; the ability to estimate and to extrapolate information; the use of written language clues; the rehearsal and repetition of written language; and the skill to seek new information (Ahmadi et al., 2013). As the learner gains the meaning of the new information and understands how the information is utilized, the information becomes more malleable and the learner can engage in manipulating the learned information (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001).

Cognitive processes are separated into lower order thinking and higher order thinking (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). Lower order thinking skills. Initially, the learner uses the lower order thinking skills of remembering the reading material, knowing its meaning and understanding the implications of a text, and finally applying the information situationally (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). Foundational abilities such as vocabulary knowledge (Freed, Hamilton, & Long, 2017; Landi, 2010), visual-spatial memory and recognition of key words in sentences (Gillioz, Gygax, & Tapiero, 2012; Guerard, Saint-Aubin, & Maltais, 2013), and use of images to supplement written information (Chou & Hsiao, 2010) have been found to positively influence reading comprehension.

Mechanisms to better understand text information include surface reading for main ideas (McCrudden, 2010), re-reading to limit confusion (Griffin, Wiley, & Thiede, 2008; Pascual & Goikoetxea, 2014), organizing concepts with a mind map (Kalyanasundaram et al., 2017), and summarizing or describing the text information (Griffin et al., 2008; Pascual & Goikoetxea, 2014). Use of these lower orders thinking skills lead to the use of higher order

abilities. Higher order thinking skills, Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) describe higher order thinking skills associated with reading comprehension as analysis, evaluation, and synthesis of the reading material. A learner who can execute these abilities processes more information simultaneously in working memory (Georgiou & Das, 2015) and can demonstrate a deeper level of reading and learning, which includes reflection of the reading material (McCrudden, 2010; Pascual & Goikoetxea, 2014).

This learner also has a greater visual spatial perspective and can think perceptually to visualize ideas and interpret concepts from the readings (Garrett et al., 2007; Taub & Benson, 2013). All types of cognitive factors can be enhanced through metacognitive knowledge and factors.

3.1.1. Use of repetition, know how to retrieve vocabulary:

Retrieval is the process of bringing back information stored in mind. To recall the information, the learners should be able to retrieve it from where it is stored in their mental lexicon. According to Melton (1963) as cited in Mcdermott & Roediger (2016), three necessary stages in the learning and memory process are encoding, storage, and retrieval. Encoding refers to the initial presentation of information; storage is organizing the words in the mental lexicon, while retrieval refers to accessing stored information. In the light of vocabulary learning, retrieval is one of the psychological processes to help the students remember the words; it is initiated by noticing process and followed by generative use of words. Initially, the learners should be able to notice the unknown words that they intend to learn by drawing their full attention to the words.

Opportunity to retrieve these words then should be provided so as the students to be able to recall the words. The recalling forms can be producing the words or reformulating the words into creative use. According to Baddeley (1990), retrieval can be productive and

receptive. When the learners retrieve the meaning of words form that they meet during listening or reading, it is called receptive retrieval. On the other hand, the productive retrieval occurs when the learners retrieve the spoken and written form of the words and intend to convey the meaning in speaking and writing activities.

Retrieval occurs when the students listen to and read certain word forms, and they attempt to bring back the meaning of the words based on their previous knowledge or information gained at the present meeting. Therefore; retrieval has been found as one important factor to strengthen the students' knowledge about words. Roediger & Guynn (1996) points out that testing target words can positively affect the students' knowledge about the words since it requires retrieval process. In this sense, what matters is the retrieval process in learning vocabulary.

Mcdermott & Roediger (2016) point out that the significant factor of learning and memory is retrieval stage. They argue that even if we record all thousands of events, words, ideas, conversations, sounds, sights every day, but we fail to access them when we need them, it is no use to have them in our memory. Particularly in vocabulary learning, Baddeley (1990) argues the positive effect of retrieval to build up form-meaning of the words. Consistent with this, Craik & Lockgart, 1972 (cited in Barcroft, 2007) explain that two long-term advantages of retrieval process are enhancing students' word knowledge durably which leads to long-term retention of the words and making easier for students to do the subsequent retrieval of the words. Although it was done in 1972, which can be considered as old evidence, the more current research supports and justifies the result. In addition, the retrieval process is completed by the next psychological process called the generative/ creative use of words.

This process occurs when the learners meet the known words in different use and context that they have already learnt. This will encourage them to reconceptualize the meaning or the

form of the words since generative use is not limited to the word meaning, but also the forms include inflexion and collocation (Nation, 2001). According to Barcroft (2007), when the learners generate the items on their own, it also can lead to the positive effect of the words' retrieval on their memory since before using the words generatively, the learners are required to retrieve the words. In line with that, McNamara & Healy (1995) point out that the generative process can promote the students' cognitive ability which enables them to connect the words to their previous knowledge in order to strengthen their words knowledge.

In addition; According to Nation (2008), the teachers often considerably put attention to language-focused strand in which it enables the students to enhance their explicit knowledge of the words, such as the form, meaning, and uses. It is because the knowing a word means that the learners have to know about the words' form, meaning, function, and position. Besides, it allows the students to draw their attention to vocabulary learning strategies; guessing the meaning from the context, using word cards, word parts, and the dictionary which seem beneficial for them to enrich their vocabulary. However, the amount and strength of learning relies on the quality of mental processing of the learners.

Being able to retrieve and recall what they have learned can be the focus of vocabulary learning. Meeting the words being learned during listening, speaking, writing, and reading activities might provide retrieval process for the learners. For instance, the reading passages provided can be filled or replaced by the target words in order the learners can notice, retrieve, and even use the words during productive activities. In addition, retrieval opportunity can occur when the teachers use picture word pairs in vocabulary classroom. He finds out that introducing vocabulary through pictures with few seconds of lag to make the students retrieve the words positively affects the students' memorization in that they remember the words longer than those who do not have an opportunity to retrieve.

Not only in intentional vocabulary learning, Barcroft (2015) points out that in incidental learning; in this case during reading, the learners who are provided with retrieval opportunity perform better than those who are not. It indicates that retrieval opportunity positively affects the students' words' knowledge.

Retrieval process enables the students to strengthen their memory about the words. The more frequently they retrieve the words, the easier the recall of the words will be later on. Nation argues that repeated encounters of the words can increasingly facilitate retrieval of the words which make the students remember them. Consistent with this, Webb (2007) finds out that the learners can gain greater knowledge about the words as repetition of the words is increased. His study implies that if the learners encounter the same words frequently, the bigger opportunity to develop their knowledge about those words.

Furthermore, Schmitt (2000) coins that the teachers should not present the words once and forget about it at the next meeting, but repeatedly present and reintroduce them over and over. However, Baddeley (1990) suggests that what matters is not simply repetition but more likely the repeated opportunity to retrieve the words. In this sense, the learners should be encouraged to retrieve the items in every repeated encounter to move the items to their long-term memory. Accordingly, the learners should be aware of repetition of the words that they are studying to notice the words and be able to retrieve them.

Not only the learners have to maximize the retrieval opportunity, but also the teachers need to ensure that the time lapse between initial presentation and later meeting of the words are not excessively apart because if too much time has passed, the later meeting is as same as the first encounter.

The repetition allows the students to meet and access the same words several times to retrieve the meaning or the forms, which will make them easier to recall the words in another

occasion. This way positively contributes to the students' result in learning in which they remember and access the words automatically. Repetition is one retrieval opportunity for the words being learnt. In each repeated encounter of the words, the learners are enabled to retrieve the meaning or the form of the words to use them creatively.

In providing repeated encounters, the teachers do not provide the words along with their meaning to promote retrieval process in which the students directly access the word-related information in their mental lexicon. Baddeley and Barcroft point out that retrieval opportunity strengthens the linking path of the words in the mind which can positively affect the subsequent retrieval. This suggests that encouraging the learners to retrieve the words by providing an opportunity to do so is something that the teachers can do in intentional vocabulary learning.

3.1.2. Organizing the new language

Second language learning is a conscious process where the learning of another language other than the First Language (L1) takes place. Often confused with bilingualism and multilingualism, the process has to take place after the first language(s) has already been acquired. Having said that, second language learning could also refer to the third, fourth, or fifth (so on and so forth) language the learner is currently learning.

Strategies in language learning, or the steps that one take to learn a language, is very important in ultimate language performance. It is defined as “specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques — such as seeking out conversation partners or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task — used by students to enhance their own learning” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 63). There are six strategies that learners use when learning a language. The strategies include-

-Memory strategy,-Cognitive strategy-Comprehension strategy-Metacognitive strategy, affective strategy and social strategy.

3.1.2.1. Memory strategy:

People who adopt the memory strategy depend on their **memorizing ability**. They find ways to remember better to aid in entering information into long-term memory, by creating a word-meaning map in their brain (mental linkages), and then being able to retrieve that information. Adopting this strategy will allow the learning and retrieval via sounds (e.g., rhyming), images (e.g., a mental picture of the word itself or the meaning of the word), a combination of sounds and images (e.g., the keyword method), body movement (e.g., total physical response), mechanical means (e.g., flashcards), or location (e.g., on a page or blackboard).

Things they do: *Do a lot of exercises on English grammar. Create a word bank from your reading materials or TV shows and memorize the meaning of the words and try to use them*

3.1.2.2. Cognitive strategy:

People who adopt the cognitive strategy tend to **analyse and reason**. They form internal mental codes and revise them to receive and produce the message in the target language. Adopting this strategy will enable you to internalize the language in direct ways such as through reasoning, analysis, note-taking, summarizing, synthesizing, outlining, and practicing in naturalistic settings, and practicing structures and sounds formally.

Things they do: Watch dramas and try to replicate how the characters pronounce words, use certain words in a sentence and write emails or letters.

Comprehension strategy:

People who adopt the comprehension strategy find themselves **guessing unknown words when listening and reading**. They also try to replace words they do not know with longer phrases or other words that they know when speaking and writing to overcome gaps in knowledge.

Things they do: *Try to guess the meaning of words they don't know. Try to understand the meaning through looking at the word in context. Guess the meaning of some words by reading the whole passage. Try to look for cues or nonverbal signs when in conversation.*

1. Metacognitive strategy:

People who adopt the metacognitive strategy **plan, arrange, focus, evaluate on their own learning process**. They identify and monitor their own learning style preferences and needs, such as gathering and organizing L2 materials, arranging a study space and a schedule for L2 revision and learning, monitoring mistakes made in L2, and evaluating task success, and evaluating the success of any type of learning strategy.

Things they do: *Observe how the SL teacher speaks in the SL. Observe how they themselves speak in the SL. Practice speaking in SL in front of the mirror. Crosscheck with Google to find out if their pronunciation is correct, and correct it. Doing crossword puzzles and play word games like scrabble. Take note of how other people communicate in SL, especially natives.*

2. Social/Affective strategy:

People who adopt the social/affective strategy **control their feelings, motivations and attitudes when in social situations** such as asking questions, communicating with others, facilitate conversation and interaction.

Things they do: *They encourage themselves to speak in SL even when they are afraid of making a mistake. They reward themselves for good performance. They remind themselves that it is okay to make mistakes. They tell themselves to be confident and not be afraid to make mistakes. They try to speak in SL to others. They ask for clarifications of a confusing point of the L2, or when communicating. They are people to correct their speech when communicating.*

In addition, learning a new language is challenging and a lot of work, but by staying organized and studying regularly the learner will be able to speak another language.

1. Keep a Diary in Your Target Language:

Using diary: Your diary is your own, personal notepad where you will write down in a way that works for you all the new words, patterns, and conjugations that you've just reviewed. It should be kept very brief: it's not your lesson book, it's your understanding of what you've learned and it should make sense to you.

2. Make Lists

Create a specific list at the end of your diary that includes your favourite idioms and words on subjects you're most interested in talking about? You can also colour code pages so you know that 'green' is a 'List Page' and 'red' is a 'Verbs Page'. Creating a list is also an occasion to learn some new words: look up synonyms or even the translations of the words that you regularly use in English.

3. Make Flip Cards:

It is a basic way to learn, but it works, it can include anything from one to more words, expressions, conjugations or grammar rules. Don't forget to include pronunciation if you

insert French words. Take your cards anywhere and don't be shy to ask a friend to quiz you, and make it fun.

4. Test Yourself Regularly:

Make sure the vocabulary and grammar that you are learning is active and not just passive knowledge. You need to be able to use them at will without thinking about it. Creating your own quizzes is a good way to do this: when learning new words, create a vocabulary quiz. It can be done in various formats.

You can also write down a list of words in your target language and test yourself into guessing as many synonyms as you know. You'll be surprised how stimulating this can be and how much you know.

5. Immerse Yourself Everywhere:

Put sticky notes on common household items in your house. Writing the note is an active way to learn and seeing them throughout the day is passive.

Review your language diary or listen to podcasts when you're waiting in line, commuting on public transport, or take a break from Facebook and practice your language instead.

It may seem a little obsessive, but it works: the goal is to keep your target language on your mind so you are constantly stimulated.

6. Surf the Web in Your Target Language:

The idea is to start recognizing words in context: you'll quickly realize that you probably know a lot more than you think. Browsing the Internet in your target language is important and a lively way to familiarize yourself with the culture and actually look for topics that actually matter to you. Why not teach yourself the culinary vocabulary by searching for authentic recipes in your target language and even cook the dish. Be curious: the more time

you spend surfing the web in your target language, the more confident you'll be about your skills.

8. Be Proactive When You are Reading:

Reading articles in your target is important, but it serves little purpose if you don't familiarize yourself with unknown structures, words, and idioms. Devote 20 minutes reading a day but make sure you search and mark down in your diary all unknown vocabulary and grammar.

3.1.3. Summarizing- meaning:

3.1.3.1. Definition:

Summarizing is defined as taking a lot of information and creating a condensed version that covers the main points. Buckley (2004), in her popular writing text *Fit to Print*, defines summarizing as reducing text to one-third or one-quarter its original size, clearly articulating the author's meaning, and retaining main ideas. Diane Hacker (2008), in *A Canadian Writer's Reference*, explains that summarizing involves stating a work's thesis and main ideas "simply, briefly, and accurately" (p. 62).

Therefore; the purpose of summarizing is to briefly present the key points of a theory or work in order to provide context for your argument/thesis. In addition; the Process of summarizing is:

- Read the work first to understand the author's intent. This is a crucial step because an incomplete reading could lead to an inaccurate summary.
- In your own words, write the thesis and main ideas in point form.
- Decide which points are crucial to an accurate summary of the author's work. It is very important that the summary does not misrepresent the author's argument.

- Edit the summary by deleting extraneous descriptors, details, and examples.
- Reread the original work to ensure that you have accurately represented the main ideas in your summary.
- Opposite to solid essay writing, the goal is to be brief and general rather than supporting all statements with facts, examples, or other details.

3.1.3.2. Why use summarizing?

- It helps students learn to determine essential ideas and consolidate important details that support them.
- It enables students to focus on key words and phrases of an assigned text that are worth noting and remembering. It teaches students how to take a large selection of text and reduce it to the main points for more concise understanding.

3.1.3.3. How to use summarizing?

- Begin by reading OR have students listen to the text selection. Ask students the following framework questions: What are the main ideas? What are the crucial details necessary for supporting the ideas? What information is irrelevant or unnecessary?
- Have them use key words or phrases to identify the main points from the text.

3.1.4. Guessing meaning from context:

In reading lesson learners may confront with unfamiliar words in context. Encountering a few unknown words may not block general comprehension of the text. However, when readers are not acquainted with numerous words or the most essential ones in the text, their reading comprehension may be impaired (Soria, 2001, p. 77). In this case, learners use a variety of strategies such as ignoring unknown words, consulting a dictionary or guessing

word meaning from context in order to comprehend reading passages (Fraser, 1999; Harley and Hart, 2000).

Among these strategies, guessing word meaning from context (lexical inferencing) is a compensation strategy for L1 and L2 reading comprehension (Bialystok, 1983 in Soria, 2001) and it “involves making informed guesses as to the meaning of a word in the light of all available linguistic cues in combinations with the learner’s general knowledge of the world, her awareness of context and her relevant linguistic knowledge” (Haastrup, 1991, p. 40).

3.1.4.1. Definition:

Guessing word meaning from context is one of the most favored vocabulary learning strategies among second language learners (Paribakht & Wesche, 1999). While inferring the meaning of an unfamiliar word, language learners use different types of clues including contextual ones (Paribakht & Wesche, 1999). These clues may be purely linguistic or situational: Linguistic context: the linguistic environment in which a word is used within a text. Situational context: extra-linguistic elements that contribute to the construction of meaning this may involve background knowledge of the subject. Therefore; learners should be able to infer the meaning of an unknown word using: the meaning of vocabulary items that surround it; the way the word is formed; background knowledge of the subject and the situation.

In addition, Contextual inference or contextual guessing is defined as an important strategy in the absence of dictionaries or human assistance and it “entails guessing the meaning of target word based on interpretation of its immediate context with or without reference to knowledge of the world” (Haastrup, 1989 in Parel, 2004, p. 848). Learning from context is a rather ineffective process. Deighton (1959) lists some likely reasons for this:

a) Only some contexts, probably a small percentage, give much information about the meaning of a word, b) at best, only one of the possibly many meanings of the word is supported by the context, and c) the context will supply information about only some aspects of this one meaning of the word and he concludes that vocabulary growth from context is a gradual matter (Nagy & Herman & Anderson, 1985:236). And Hulstijn (1992) points out that learners frequently make incorrect guesses about meanings because L2 contexts do not always provide sufficient information to make a correct guess possible even when a learner has been trained to use all the semantic and syntactic clues available (Prince, 1996: 480).

Although there are studies which show that learning words from context is an ineffective approach, many linguists in their studies emphasize the effectiveness of learning words from context. Prince (1996: 489) lists three benefits of learning from context: first, assessing the meaning of a word in context obliges the learner to develop strategies, such as anticipating and inferencing, which become increasingly profitable as learning progresses because they instill an attitude of self-reliance that is hallmark of proficiency. Second, systematically meeting new words in context underlies the fact that words are indeed used in discourse for purposes of communication. Finally, context provides an indication of the way the words are used.

Presenting vocabulary in context will enable students to improve their vocabulary. Memorizing may be good and useful as a temporary technique for tests, but not for learning a foreign language (Igarria) because students who simply memorize word meanings frequently have trouble applying the information in definitions and often make mistakes about the meanings (Texas Reading Initiative, 2000: 8). If we really wish to teach students meanings of the words and how they are used it is useful to present them in context and students are more likely to deduce meaning from a context. Edwards states that (2009) students will see how the

new item (a new word) works grammatically and the context will help make the item more memorable and aid retention.

Words in context increases the chances of learners appreciating not only their meaning but their typical environments, such as their associated collocations or grammatical structures (Thornbury, 2002:53). Most of the words acquired through incidental reading are learned through context. Students learn from context by making connections between the new word and the text in which it appears. They also learn new words through repeated exposures, gaining more comprehension of a word's meanings and functions by seeing it several times in different contexts (Johnson & Johnson). To develop reading efficiency guessing from context is useful "The ability to guess the meaning of a word without referring to a dictionary saves time and allows the reader to continue reading without interruption. In this way it increases reading efficiency.

At some stage it is worth giving learners practice in deciding which unguessable words should be looked up in the dictionary and which should be ignored" (Clarke & Nation, 1980: 217). "To guess a meaning the reader must consider and interpret the available evidence, predict what should occur, and seek confirmation of the prediction. Thus, developing the skill of guessing meanings is in many ways developing the skill of reading" (Clarke & Nation, 1980: 218). Scott Thornbury (2002:148) argues that guessing from context is probably one of the most useful skills learners can acquire and apply both inside and outside the classroom. What's more, it seems to be one that can be taught and implemented relatively easily. It is also one that we all already use-perhaps unconsciously-when reading and listening in our mother tongue.

3.1.4.2. How to guess the meanings of words from context?

According to Nation and Coady (1988: 104) suggests a five-step strategy for guessing from context:

3.1.4.3. Finding the part of speech of the unknown word.

Looking at the immediate context of the unknown word and simplifying this context if necessary, looking at the wider context of the unknown word. This means looking at the relationship between the clause containing the unknown word and surrounding clauses and sentences.

3.1.4.4. Guessing the meaning of the unknown word.

Checking that the guess is correct. Clarke and Nation (1980) in the following example suggests another strategy how to guess the meaning from a context. Thornbury (2002: 148) recommends the following steps for guessing from context:

Decide the part of speech of the unknown word-whether, for example, it is a noun verb, adjective, etc. Its position in the sentence may be a guide, as might its ending (e.g. an -ed or -ing ending might indicate it is a verb). Look for further clues in the word's immediate collocates-if it is a noun, does it have an article (which might suggest whether it is countable or not)? If it is a verb, does it have an object?

Look at the wider context, including the surrounding clauses and sentences- especially if there are 'signposting' words, such as- but, and, however, so, that might give a clue as to how the word is connected to its context. For example: We got home, tired but elated: the presence of but suggests that elated is not similar in meaning to tired. Look at the form of the word for any clues as to meaning. For example: downhearted is made up of down + heart+ a participle affix (-ed).

Make a guess as to the meaning of the word, on the basis of the above strategies. Read on and see if the guess is confirmed; if not- and if the word seems critical to the understanding of the text- go back and repeat the above steps. If the word does not seem critical, carry on reading. Maybe the meaning will become clearer later on.

3.1.5. Using imagery for memorization

The meaning of imagery: The meaning of imagery by researchers and practitioners from the past decade are reviewed and evaluated. This includes those of sport psychologists whom have typically focused upon the potential of a multi-modality simulation process to enhance performance. For instance, Vealey and Greenleaf (2006) described imagery as recreating an experience in your mind. More specifically, Morris et al. (2005) stated that imagery "...may be considered as the creation or re-creation of an experience generated from memorial information, involving quasi-sensorial, quasi perceptual and quasi affective characteristics, that is under the volitional control of the imager, and which may occur in the absence of the real stimulus antecedents normally associated with the actual experience" (p. 19).

This definition is novel in that it includes the possibility that imagery and perception and action can be overlapping processes. Evidence for this is derived from research on quasi-movements (Moran et al., 2012) and the inhibitory mechanisms in motor imagery among experts (see Guillot et al., 2012). This contrasts greatly with the approach of cognitive psychologists who explain imagery as "an internal representation that gives rise to the experience of perception in the absence of the appropriate sensory input" (Wraga & Kosslyn, 2002, p. 466). These contrasting definitions have implications for how we explore, measure and explain mental imagery. More specifically, motor imagery is defined as "a dynamic mental state during which the representation of a given motor act or movement is rehearsed in working memory without any overt motor output (Moran et al., 2012, p.2).

Moulton and Kosslyn (2009) postulated that motor imagery is ‘actually proprioceptive or kinaesthetic imagery – one experiences the bodily sensations of movement, not the movement commands themselves’ (p. 1273). Again, differences in the above accounts of motor imagery, subtle though they are, may lead to differences in the links between imagery and action.

Vealey and Greenleaf (2006) described imagery as re-creating an experience in your mind. More specifically, Morris et al. (2005) stated that imagery “...may be considered as the creation or re-creation of an experience generated from memorial information, involving quasi-sensorial, quasiperceptual and quasi-affective characteristics, that is under the volitional control of the imager, and which may occur in the absence of the real stimulus antecedents normally associated with the actual Vealey and Greenleaf (2006) described imagery as re-creating an experience in your mind.

More specifically, Morris et al. (2005) stated that imagery “...may be considered as the creation or re-creation of an experience generated from memorial information, involving quasi-sensorial, quasi perceptual and quasi-affective characteristics, that is under the volitional control of the imager, and which may occur in the absence of the real stimulus antecedents normally associated with the actual

Vealey and Greenleaf (2006) described imagery as re-creating an experience in your mind. More specifically, Morris et al. (2005) stated that imagery “...may be considered as the creation or re-creation of an experience generated from memorial information, involving quasi-sensorial, quasi perceptual and quasi-affective characteristics, that is under the volitional control of the imager, and which may occur in the absence of the real stimulus antecedents normally associated with the actual.

Many studies have found that the visual imagery values of words affect memory for the words (recent examples include Berrian, Metzler, Kroll, & Clark-Meyers, 1979; Christian, Bickley, Tarka, & Clayton, 1978; Griffith & Actkinson, 1978; Richardson, 1979). Recently, research interest in verbal memory has been moving away from word lists toward more complex material (cf. Craik, 1979; Nelson & Narens, 1980). To provide stimulus material that will aid memory researchers in extending their research beyond single words, Higbee and Millard (Note 1) scaled 203 sayings (e.g., "One bad apple spoils the barrel") on visual imagery and familiarity.

One purpose of the present study was to use the Ose sayings to extend the visual imagery research from words to more complex material, by determining whether the rated imagery values of the sayings do affect memory for the sayings. Previous research has also found that a visual imagery mnemonic called the "peg system" can improve memory for words (see Higbee, 1977). A second purpose of this study was to determine whether the peg system can also improve memory for more complex verbal material, such as sayings. Extrapolating from research with single words, it was expected that memory for sayings would be better for high-imagery sayings than for low-imagery sayings, and better for people using the peg system than for people not using it.

3.1.6. Using background knowledge (prior knowledge)

3.1.6. 1. Definition of prior knowledge:

Prior knowledge is the knowledge the learner already has before they meet new information. A learner's understanding of a text can be improved by activating their prior knowledge before dealing with the text, and developing this habit is good learner training for them. (British Council BBC). Prior or background knowledge Background knowledge is described as "an individual's life experiences and the knowledge of the world acquired

through his life” (Pour- Mohammadi & Abidin, 2011:239). According to this definition, background knowledge does not only apply to books that one has read but also involves taking into account real life experiences. There are apparently six dimensions of background knowledge which are:

1) dynamic, (2) available before a learning task, (3) structured, (4) multiple, 5) both explicit and implicit, (6) conceptual and meta-cognitive.

The argument has been based on the notion that background knowledge helps not only excellent readers but also poor readers. Simply put, it implies that a higher degree of background knowledge may help one to overcome linguistic insufficiencies (Pour-Mohammadi & Abidin, 2011:239).

3.1.6. 2.Cognitive strategies:

The use of prior knowledge Cognitive strategies have been defined as mental and behavioural activities that include re-reading, activating background knowledge, as well as adjusting one’s reading speed (Van Keer, 2004:38). Reading comprehension is said to be a cognitive processing through which one can apply background knowledge to the comprehension of a text. The use of prior knowledge has been emphasized as a key to comprehending and interacting with a text. Van Keer (2004:38) reports on a survey that was conducted on a group of college students to test their application of prior knowledge.

The assessment was on how prior knowledge affected the participants’ performance on Nelson- Denny Reading Tests. Two groups, an experimental group and a control group, were formed. The experimental group had time to be exposed to background knowledge and topics which would be encountered in the actual texts to come. The results revealed that the experimental group outperformed the control group, proving that prior knowledge can be used as an essential reading strategy (Zhang, 1993). 4 Besides the aforesaid reading

strategies, there are others too that can help a learner achieve proficiency in reading as well as understanding a text.

These strategies can be applied to all reading situations, whether one is reading a text in English or in other languages. According to the linguistic interdependence principle (Williams & Snipper, 1990:42), as children begin to master reading in one language, they will also learn to read easily in other languages, because they have already acquired the background information on the process and tools of reading which they can use when reading in the other languages.

3.1.6. 3.The importance of activating prior knowledge:

Activating Prior Knowledge is important in students understanding, because it allows them and helps make connections to the new information. By using what students already know, it helps the teacher assist students with the learning process because it give him/her an idea of what students know and what they still need to learn. It is simply to use background knowledge to make understanding of what the text mean. According to schema theory, as students learn about the world, they develop a schema and are allowed to make connections to many other things. Piaget's schema theory makes activating prior knowledge before reading essential; because according to his research when we can connect something "old" to something new it helps us better understand the new.

As students are reading, they are able to access their schema and make understand of the text and use their experiences. When students and teachers applied schema theory to reading comprehension readers constantly connect their background knowledge to the new knowledge in a text to help them make sense of the reading (Gunning, 2012).

3.1.7. Using critical thinking

The use of real-life problems as something that students can learn to practice and improve critical thinking and problem-solving skills is to help students achieve their skills (Nurzaman 2017). Problem solving is also a need of social and emotional learning (Tarik., 2012). Learning through problems can improve critical thinking skills (Bingham., 2004). There are many definitions of critical thinking (e.g. Brookfield., 1987; Kurnaz., 2014, Lipman., 1988; Meyers., 1986). Robert Ennis (1985, p. 45) defines critical thinking as sensible and reflective thinking focusing on determining what to believe or to do. Sternberg (1986, p. 3) defines this term as the mental process, strategy, and representation that people use to solve problems, make decisions, and learn new concepts.

Although there are many different definitions of this term, critical thinking and its components were not identified until 1990 by a group of scientists who joined the Delphi Panel administered by Facione in the United States (Facione., 1990). In the Delphi Report, critical thinking is defined as an independent judgment that produces interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and conclusion, as well as an explanation of the evolutionary, conceptual, methodological, criteria, or contextual considerations underlying such a judgment based on (Facione., 2013, p. 4). Ennis (1995) shares six basic elements of critical thinking through approach of FRISCO (Focus, Reason, Inference, Situation, Clarity, and Overview).

Thinking critically has to obey certain strategies-Begin with the Right Approach
Reason: base our thinking in logic, not feelings.

(a)**Self-Awareness:** pay attention to our own and others' assumptions, biases and perspectives.

(b)**Integrity:** care about doing your intellectual work honestly and accurately rather than about being right.

(c) **Discipline:** put effort into doing your work comprehensively and precisely.

Open-mindedness: consider alternatives and other points of view.

Look Deeper and Farther: There are countless ways in which we look deeper and farther when thinking critically. For example, looking deeper when making inferences about an argument's hidden assumptions and values. look farther when you connect a study to theories in your discipline. Always think about the implications and importance of what you find.

We Ask Complex Questions: develop and pose questions that help you look deeper and more broadly and that require a variety of thinking processes to answer. Generate specific, complex questions based on what exactly you are thinking about, starting with basic critical inquiry:

- Who is the implied audience?
- What are the strengths and weaknesses of this? What are the different possible solutions to this problem and which seems most effective? What is the nature of the relationship between this and that?
- What exactly is the logical flaw in this reasoning?
- Is this really relevant to that? If not, where does the connection break down?
- What are the underlying assumptions and values?

We answer these questions Using a Variety of Thinking Processes:

(e)**Analysis:** breaking something into parts to better understand the parts and the whole (identifying, classifying, categorizing, comparing)

(f)**Synthesis:** making connections between the parts and the whole to see the pattern of relationships (organizing, connecting, designing, predicting)

(g)**Interpretation:** examining the connection (s) between the parts and the whole to make inferences about the implications and meanings of the pattern(s) (associating, inferring, decoding)

(h)Evaluation: forming judgments about meanings, qualities and values (justifying, critiquing, verifying, deciding)

i) Reflect on how you are Answering the Questions:

Throughout the process, ask yourselves questions such as: Is that clear or is there still some confusion I need to clarify? Is that really true? Do I need to be more specific or detailed? How is that connected to the central focus? Am I thinking about this in a complex enough way or should I go deeper and further in my thinking? Do I need to consider a bigger framework or a different point of view?

Chapter Three: Part Two-the metacognitive factors

3.2. The Metacognitive Factors-Introduction

Metacognitive Factors include (a) the planning for the reading, which includes what will be read and how the reading process will be accomplished; (b) the monitoring of the reading process, the resources and tools used in the process, and one's own self-control surrounding one's learning; and (c) the evaluating of the result of the plan and its impact upon the learning (Ahmadi et al., 2013). These three focal processes on the part of the learner focus on how comprehension occurs, rather than on the action of comprehension itself (Ahmadi et al., 2013; Flavell, 1979).

While each of the three aspects has distinct features, they are often performed together. As the assessment of learning changes, new information is gleaned from the reading material and paired with external sources and internal knowledge. Planning includes predicting familiar relationships and causality within the text information (Griffin et al., 2009; Koornneef, 2006). Planning also involves the organization of the reading process, including such aspects as allotted time for reading and sequencing of strategies (Garner, 2009), which leads to the monitoring of these actions and altering the plans as appropriate for learning (Wolters & Benzon, 2013). Monitoring how well reading comprehension strategies work for the individual (Castel, Rhodes, & Friedman, 2013; Gier, Kreiner, Natz-Gonzalez, 2009; Miele et al., 2009) and monitoring impulse control (Garner, 2009) have shown to benefit the learner.

Being aware of self-control, as seen through self-efficacy with the reading comprehension process (Stine-Morrow, Shake, Miles, & Noh, 2006) and the use of motivational strategies (Wolters & Benzon, 2013), has correlated with greater reading

comprehension. Finally, the learner evaluates how well the text material has been understood and if the learner has gained the knowledge the learner planned to achieve (Cubukcu, 2008).

3.2.1. Metacognitive knowledge:

Metacognition refers to the ability to reflect upon, understand, manipulate, and regulate one's cognitive activities during learning (Efklides 2008; Meijer et al. 2006). In line with Brown's (1987) theoretical framework, we conceptualize metacognition as being comprised of two components: knowledge and regulation.

Metacognitive knowledge refers to how much learners understand about the way people process information while engaged in academic tasks (Perfect and Schwartz 2002). This kind of knowledge is relatively stable, fallible, and late-developing, because it requires learners to step back and to consider their own cognitive processes (Brown 1987). Within metacognitive knowledge, declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge can be distinguished (Schraw 1998).

Declarative knowledge concerns the insight into one's processing abilities and factors influencing one's performance i.e. concerns the knowledge about oneself as a learner and what factors influence his/her learning performance (Schraw & Moshman, 1995; Schraw, Crippen, & Hartley, 2006). It includes "individuals' knowledge of their affective states, including self-efficacy and motivation, and how these affect task performance" (Harris, Graham, Brindle, & Sandmel, 2009: 133). Overall, this knowledge refers to self, task, and applicable strategies for achievement a specific.

Procedural knowledge refers to knowledge of successful methods (heuristics and strategies) for achieving specific learning goals, and the awareness of how certain cognitive skills are to be employed in learning i.e. -Procedural knowledge refers to one's knowledge about learning strategies and execution of procedural skills. Strategies might include "note-

taking, slowing down for important information, skimming unimportant information, using mnemonics, summarizing main ideas and periodic self-testing” (Schraw et al., 2006: 114).

Conditional knowledge concerns knowledge about the external conditions in which particular strategies are appropriate, including the reasons for their effectiveness’ concerns a person’s knowledge about when, where, and why to use certain cognitive actions or strategies (Flavell, 1979; Harris et al., 2009). In order to complete a pursuit task, students estimate the demands of the certain learning situation and select a particular procedure or the most appropriate strategies (Schraw et al., 2006)

3.2.2. Metacognitive regulation:

Metacognitive regulation refers to skills used to orchestrate and oversee learning and performance (Efklides 2008). In contrast to metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive regulation is assumed to be relatively unstable, unstatable, and age-independent (Perfect and Schwartz 2002). Brown (1987) distinguishes between planning, monitoring, and evaluation. As the major skills before commencing an academic task, during task execution, and upon completion of the task, respectively. In line with Pressley (2000) and Veenman et al.

Planning activities include predicting, determining time and effort allocation, selecting strategies, setting goals and making plans of achievement those goals (Brown, 1987; Pintrich, 2004; Schraw et al., 2006; Schraw & Moshman, 1995; Zimmerman, 2002). As Schraw and Moshman (1995) emphasize, the planning ability prior to get involved into a task may improve outcomes regardless of the context and content of the task.

Monitoring of cognition concern the awareness of comprehension and self-assessment during a learning situation (Schraw &Moshman, 1995). It refers to period control of the proper use of the strategies applied to achieve a task (Cera et al., 2013). Specifically, it

includes self-observation activities, and it concerns monitoring one's cognition, motivation, affect, task demands, time and need for help (Zimmerman, 2002).

Through monitoring, learning can be controlled as the learners consider how they are completing the task and whether their selected strategy is working (Perry, 2013; Zimmerman, 2002). Learners, then, can make adjustments to their strategy, by basing upon their declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge to readjust their learning (Schraw et al., 2006). Monitoring of cognition is of particular interest because students' self-awareness of their learning and subsequent monitoring can lead to improved understanding of content and problem-solving ability (Metcalfe, 2009; Serra & Metcalfe, 2009; Schraw & Moshman, 1995).

Evaluation of cognition "refers to appraising the products and regulatory processes of one's learning" (Schraw et al., 2006: 114). It is linked to the evaluation of the results achieved and the detection of the learner's reactions to these results. It is particularly related to planning of metacognitive regulation. When students evaluate their learning, they may ask themselves if they were to perform the certain learning activity again, they might act differently (Tarricone, 2011). Furthermore, they might consider planning differently, considering their strategies and the conditional factors that affected their achievement performance (Tanner, 2012).

In (1997) a fourth metacognitive regulation skill can be added to this theoretical framework, namely orienting. Metacognitive orientation takes place prior to problem solving and aims at a preparation of the sequential planning and execution of cognitive activities (Meijer et al. 2006; Veenman et al. 2005). The learner explores task demands and learning objectives, activates prior knowledge, and estimates task difficulty (Butler 1998; Pressley 2000). Related to orientation is metacognitive planning: thinking how, when, and why to

anticipate during learning, resulting in the selection of appropriate strategies, the allocation of resources, and the development of an action plan to attain learning goals (Desoete 2007; Veenman et al. 1997).

When learners monitor their learning, they engage in on-line control of their cognitive strategies. Monitoring aims at the identification of inconsistencies and the modification of learning activities if needed (Meijer et al. 2006; Moos and Azevedo 2009). Finally, evaluating involves learners' self-judging activities upon completion of a learning cycle (Veenman et al. 2005). They can concentrate on either the outcomes or the process of learning (Meijer et al. 2006).

3.2.3. Metacognitive experiences:

Metacognitive experiences (ME) are manifestations of the online monitoring of cognition as the person comes across a task and processes the information related to it. They are the interface between the person and the task. They comprise metacognitive feelings, metacognitive judgments/estimates, and online task-specific knowledge (Efklides 2001, 2006). Examples of metacognitive feelings are: feeling of knowing and its related «tip-of-the-tongue» phenomenon, feeling of familiarity, feeling of difficulty, feeling of confidence, and feeling of satisfaction. Examples of metacognitive judgments/estimates are: judgment of learning, estimate of effort expenditure, estimate of time needed or expended, estimate of solution correctness.

Also, episodic memory judgments such as Know/Remember/Guess, source memory (where, when, and how we acquired a piece of information), or estimates of frequency and recency of memory information are part of the ME persons have with respect to parameters of information stored in memory. The online task-specific knowledge comprises task information that we attend to and use, e.g., the words used as well as ideas or thoughts that

we are aware of as we deal with a task, and MK that we retrieve from memory in order to process the task, e.g., MK about the tasks and procedures that we used in the past, comparison with other tasks, similarities, differences, etc.

What distinguishes online task-specific knowledge from the other ME is that it is cognitive and analytic in nature unlike metacognitive feelings, which are affective and cognitive in nature at the same time (Koriat & Levy-Sadot, 1999). The affective character of ME can be explained by two feedback loops (see Carver, 2003; Carver & Scheier, 1998). The first one is related to the outcome of cognitive processing and detects the discrepancy from the goal set. The higher the discrepancy from the outcome the more the negative affect experienced. On the contrary, the closer the person comes to his/her goal the more satisfied s/he feels; this is a positive affective state (Efklides & Petkaki, 2005). The second feedback loop, which is called «meta-loop», monitors the rate of discrepancy reduction, that is, the rate with which one progresses towards one's goal.

The meta-loop gives rise to affect (positive or negative) and a hazy expectancy about the effect of the rate of progress towards one's goal. Thus, feeling of difficulty, which denotes interruption of processing, is associated with negative affect whereas feeling of familiarity with positive affect (Efklides & Petkaki, 2005).

Feeling of confidence, on the other hand, is related to the outcome of processing, as feeling of satisfaction does, but differs from it because it is based on information from two sources: the estimate of solution correctness and the feeling of difficulty (Efklides, 2002b). Feeling of difficulty is related to the fluency of processing, i.e., the way the solution/response was produced: fluently or with interruptions. This may explain the subtle differences between the various outcome-related ME, namely estimate of solution correctness, feeling of confidence, and feeling of satisfaction. Estimate of solution correctness is an estimate based

more on MK and is associated with negative affect (Efklides & Petkaki, 2005) that supports a critical attitude and analytic thinking (Kuhl, 2001).

Feeling of confidence is affected by estimate of solution correctness and feeling of difficulty, whereas feeling of satisfaction is related to feeling of confidence. However, since feeling of satisfaction is related to the standards associated with the goal set, it can be the case that the person is not satisfied even if feeling of confidence is high. This could happen, for example, in the case of perfectionists, who raise the standards all the time and thus the outcome of cognitive processing, although correct, is still discrepant from the goal set.

In contrast, the person can be confident and satisfied, even if the outcome of cognitive processing is not correct, just because the response was produced fluently. In such a case, there is no critical appraisal of the outcome correctness because the person does not have or does not use his/her MK regarding the task, or because the standards regarding the quality of the processing outcome are low. Thus, the person considers that the goal set has been accomplished but objectively the outcome is not the correct one. Moreover, metacognitive feelings are nonanalytic and products of nonconscious feedback and inferential, heuristic processes. Usually they are momentary, transient, and go unnoticed. But if they are strong and persist, then the person becomes aware of his/her feelings and this awareness gives rise to conscious analytic processes as to their source, their implications for cognitive processing, and the need for action and regulation of behavior (Koriat & Levy-Sadot, 1999).

Thus, in order to give meaning to their metacognitive feelings the person may use his/her MK regarding persons and tasks, and/or make attributions about their source. This is particularly evident with feeling of difficulty. When one feels difficulty often cannot readily identify why this feeling is experienced, that is, if it is caused by lack of understanding of the

task demands, lack of relevant declarative or procedural knowledge, conflict with previous knowledge or response, or coming to a dead-end during processing. In all these cases there is an interruption of processing or lack of fluency in the processing of the task that gives rise to unpleasant affect experienced as feeling of difficulty (Efklides, 2002a). Awareness of this feeling denotes the need for increased effort in order to restore processing; this is the reason why feeling of difficulty and estimate of effort are highly correlated (Efklides, 2002a). Of course, if feeling of difficulty is very strong, then the cue is that the person cannot proceed with the task and the task should be abandoned.

On the contrary, when the task is familiar and processing runs smoothly, then the person experiences pleasant affect and low or no feeling of difficulty (Efklides & Petkaki, 2005). Furthermore, ME can provide the input that activates metacognitive skills that control action and behavior (Efklides, 2002a). For example, feeling of difficulty can be attributed to task complexity, to task demands, or to lack of personal competence to deal with the task. If the attribution is the one of task complexity, then MS are called in order to proceed with the planning of the processes required or with the use of strategies. Metacognitive judgments, on the other hand, can be product of nonconscious, heuristic, inferential, and attributional processes (Kahneman, 2003; Koriat & Levy-Sadot, 1999) or of analytic processes.

In the former case, social cognition processes, such as judgment formation and judgment correction processes may play a role (Yzerbyt, Dardenne, & Leyens, 1998; Yzerbyt, Lories, & Dardenne, 1998). For example, we may use statistical inferences based on normative information, on individualized information regarding one's self or other persons, or on cues from one's or other persons' ME (e.g., use of feeling of confidence as a cue to infer ability). Social comparison processes or stereotypic knowledge can also be used to make judgments about one's own or others' cognition (Lories, Dardenne, & Yzerbyt, 1998; Salonen, Vauras, & Efklides, 2005). To sum up, ME can be the product of a variety of

different processes, most of which are nonconscious, nonanalytic ones. Moreover, metacognitive feelings have a hedonic quality that makes them unique, in the sense that they have access to processes of both the cognitive and the affective regulatory loop.

3.2.4. Self-reflection and self-evaluation:

Reflection and self-evaluation are both meaningful processes that can lead to learning from experience, each one has a different purposes and goals. Reflection is a personal process that can deepen one's understanding of self and can lead to significant discoveries or insights, while self evaluation is a process that involves establishing strengths, improvements, and insights based on predetermined performance criteria.

3.2.4.1. Self-Reflection

Most historians agree that the roots of the term reflection can be traced back to John Dewey (1933-93) and Donald Schön (1983, 1987 and 1991). Dewey (1933-93, page 9) defines reflection as action based on 'the active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it'. Similarly, Schön (1983) interprets reflection as a process in which a person tries to deal with and make sense of 'some puzzling or troubling or interesting phenomenon' while simultaneously reflecting on 'The understandings which have been implicit in his action, understandings which he surfaces, criticizes, restructures, and embodies in further action'(page 50).

According to this definition, a reflective student is one who examines his/her practices, comes up with some ideas as how to improve his/her performance and puts these ideas into practice. Schön (1983) refers to this cycle as appreciation, action, and re-appreciation. In other words, Reflection is a process that involves playing back a period of time related to previous valued experiences in search of significant discoveries or insights about oneself, one's behaviors, one's values, or knowledge gained. Specific criteria for

performance are usually not involved. An important goal in reflection is bringing focus to an indeterminate situation (Dewey, 1938) by gaining clarity and by fully experiencing what has happened. It is important to gain closure during reflection and not ruminate repeatedly about the experience. Reflection involves divergent thinking and often includes journaling.

In addition, Stevens and Cooper (2009) describe perspectives on reflection and learning from experiences based on the work by John Dewey and D. A. Schon. They focus on how to perform effective reflection, describing it as an active, intentional, and journalistic cycle. For Dewey, reflection is an active and intentional process that can begin with some discomfort with an experience and end with learning and deeper insights. According to Dewey, aspects of reflective thought include perplexity, elaboration, generating hypotheses, comparing hypotheses, and taking action. As Stevens and Cooper describe it, the reflective phase involves focusing on what an experience means and how it is related to past learning. In comparison, Schon (1983) has two processes: reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action, which he describes as components of the development of expertise.

3.2.4.2. Self-evaluation

Self-evaluation; self-evaluation is a process used for studying one's own performance in order to improve it. It is more proactive than reflection in that performance criteria are defined before the action in question begins or before it is replayed; and strengths, improvements, and insights (Wasserman & Beyerlein, 2007) against these criteria are then recorded during the process.

Moreover, self-assessment is a related and similarly important process. Apple and Utschig (2009) list self-assessment to produce self-growth as one of their ten steps for improving academic assessment. They advocate taking time after daily performances to see how to improve future efforts. Leise (2007, 2007a) identifies the key role of self-assessment

in sustaining self-growth through application of a personal development methodology. Myrvaagnes (2007) has created a rubric for self-growth which identifies the importance of self-assessment to move from one level of the rubric to the next.

In addition, self-evaluation is a universal process for improving learning skills. Leise (2007b) posits that learning to learn is a metacognitive competency which increases in proportion to improvements in reflection, self-evaluation, and mentoring. According to Miller (2007), when one is trying to get buy-in from students in a course, it is best not to present self-evaluation as a learning skill but rather as part of the course discipline. In his discipline, he tells students that self-evaluation “is an integral part of real-world project development.” Anderson (2007) discusses the need for mentors to evaluate the self-evaluation of beginners in order to raise them to levels where they become truly valuable.

Students not the only beneficiaries of self-evaluation practices. Faculty should also strive to become self-growers. Myrvaagnes (2007) emphasizes that “self-growers have defining characteristics which include an enduring interest in assessment and self-assessment in order to maximize performance in every aspect of life.” Hurd (2007) holds that every faculty member should have an annual professional self-growth plan. She highlights the key role of self-evaluation in her outline of the planning methodology.

3.3. Psychological Factors

Reading is a cognitive process which includes transferring the written symbols by the reader through the eyes, so these symbols need understanding meaning and then integrating this meaning into personal experiences. Therefore, there are some highly psychological processes concerned with reading (Ward and Skailand, 1983). Moreover, Andres (2002) suggested the language learning is affected by mental and emotional sides and Bernat (2005) argued those facets can be motivation, attitudes, anxiety or self-esteem.

3.3.1 Having positive attitude:

The learners' attitude toward the learning process is an important factor, and so the readers' attitude toward the reading itself and how successful the reading task will be. Beers (2003) states students who have positive attitude toward reading see reading as a mean of communication between the reader and the text. Those readers are highly motivated to choose their books and to be familiar with the authors; moreover, they like engaging in small group discussions and going to the library.

Scholars define reading positively as a way to visit new places and to be in new world and horizon. In short, students who have positive attitude toward reading see reading as a very interesting activity, they find themselves there in which they create their identity and build their personality, they also believe that reading is the right way to get the useful information and to be cultivated in various domains moreover, to enrich one's knowledge. In contrast, students with negative attitude toward reading define it negatively as words on pages, they tend to choose their books but from a narrow space because they see library as too big and they do not know where to get the good and the useful books. In other words, those students see reading as a boring activity and they tend to avoid reading most of times. Thus, students who have positive attitude toward reading are more productive when they have a reading task.

3.3.2 Motivation:

Achievement in reading academically is associated with perceived control and choice. (Skinner, Wellborn, & Connell, 1990; Sweet et al., 1998), according to Skinner (1995) perceived control is an individual's "casual model about how the world works: about the likely causes of desired and undesired events, about their own role in successes and failures, about the responsiveness of other people, institutions, and social systems". In this vein, one

can deduce that there is a correlation between the reading achievement and the level of motivation.

Moreover, extensive research has been conducted on the notion of reading comprehension and how it operates in the students' minds and the correlation between the reading behavior and the reading performance (Guthrie, Van Meter, McCann, and Wigfield, 1996; Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000, Malloy & Gambrell, 2008; Nollen, 2007; Schiefele, Schaffner, Moller, & Wigfield, 2012). In other words, there is a correlational relationship between the students' motivation and the students' achievement in reading comprehension tasks. Thus, motivation is a very important factor to promote reading comprehension for learners.

3.3.3 Self efficacy:

Jinks and Morgan (1999) have considered self-efficacy as a perception of self confidence linked to the achievement of a certain task. That is, self-efficacy and self confidence has a proportional relationship; the more self confidence the learner has the more self efficacy he will have. Similarly, Ferrara (2005) defines reading self efficacy as one's evaluation of how successful he can achieve and complete a certain reading task. Accordingly, this kind of evaluation depends on the accomplishment of previous similar tasks. Moreover, this evaluation depends on the kind of support obtained from the environment whether it is positive or negative. This definition is more suitable when considering the task of reading or reading comprehension as well.

Furthermore, self-efficacy beliefs promote the association between a person and his behavior, eventually these beliefs can be promoted through the positive support of the people surrounding the person; this will result the achievement of the particular task. (Bandura, 1997). Moreover, (Bandura, 1997 et al) suggested the sources of self-efficacy origins which

are four sources: the mastery experience, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion and emotional or psychological states. In addition, Prochnow, Tunmer, & Chapman (2013) define reading self-efficacy as: “children’s beliefs about their sense of agency and control in reading tasks...the belief individuals have in their ability to organize and execute to achieve successful outcomes”. In short, self-efficacy is a very important factor in the reading comprehension process.

3.3.4 Self-confidence:

When it comes to the notion of self-confidence, it is very important for second language learners to have a high level of self confidence in order to get tasks achieved; self-esteem is considered as one of the important effective factors because the person’s success or failure depends on the degree of his self-esteem. Stout (2001) argued that a person should place a high value for his performance and be confident of the result because those judgments he makes are the drive for mastering proficiency. Moreover, Branden (1985) indicated that the biggest obstacle to success is not the lack of ability but rather the lack of self-esteem. In other words, having a high level of self-esteem is a very important factor for better achievement and so when the task is reading, students who have self-confidence in themselves and in their reading abilities seem to show better achievement.

3.4. The Environmental factors:

3.4.1. The teacher’s scaffolding:

The concept of scaffolding had been set a major area of interest in the last few decades. It is used as a teacher’s strategy in the different learning contexts; from Lev Vygotsky’s socio-cultural theory and his concept of the *zone proximal development* (ZPD), scaffolding instruction is originated. So, according to (Raymond, 2000. P. 176), (ZPD) refers to the space between what the children are able to do by themselves without competent assistance and the

next learning that can be helped to achieve with this competent assistance. Therefore, the scaffolding teaching strategy provides a support that is adjusted to a particular individual based on the learners' (ZPD) (Chang, Sung, & Chen, 2002). In scaffolding instruction, a more knowledgeable other provides facilitations of learning that help the learner to build on prior knowledge and to internalize new information.

Moreover, Vygotsky defines scaffolding instruction as the "the role of teachers and others in supporting the learners' development and providing support structures to get to the next stage or level"(Raymond, 2000. P. 176). An important feature of the scaffolding instruction is that the scaffolds are temporary; means as the learners abilities improved, the scaffolds provided by the more knowledgeable other are decreased. Finally, the learner is able to complete the task or master the concept independently (Chang, Sung, & Chen, 2002, p.7).

3.4.2. The classroom atmosphere:

Being an educated person who is aware of the universal issues and the social values, a person who is able to flourish his natural talents depends on the successful educational system that helps him to develop (Seif, 2011). Moreover, Savani (2014) argued teaching and training is a social process in which person achieves social competence and personal growth, the process is mainly conducted by an institution like a university. However, classroom atmosphere has a clear relationship with the teacher's way of teaching, the teacher creates attractive by applying suitable management skills that creates positive and active relationships between him and his students. Mazloomi Mahmood Abad et al (2010) argued the professor can adjust the inaccuracy of the text book and lack of educational facilities and reverse, create unactive and uninteractive environment due to his inability to create favorable emotional relevance. In short, the classroom atmosphere is a very important factor that adjusts the learning process in different ways whether the task required is reading, writing,

speaking, or listening, and the presence of this intended atmosphere is the teachers' responsibility.

3.4.3. Collaborative work through classmates support:

“Alone we can do so little, together we can do so much.”

--Helen Keller

It is obviously that collaborative work seems to achieve better goals than the individual work. Hence, in the learning contexts the collaborative work is of great importance; therefore a significant literature review synthesizes studies conducted on best practices for collaborative grouping. Collaboration in educational settings is used in many ways. It can be used to enhance critical thinking (Jansen, 2014; Mosley et al., 2016), provide “grit” through teammates support (Brennen, 2017; Jacobs, 2016; Jansen, 2012). Hence, offering learners the opportunities to be engaged in collaborative work leads to make them more self-confident and increase their abilities in harder subjects. Therefore, helping them become more academically successful; based on this, collaboration in reading skills is very important too because it promotes the readers' self confidence especially when he achieved the given task; moreover, collaboration involves participants working together on the same task, rather than in parallel on separate portions of the task; this makes the reading task easier and more exciting and interesting. A very remarkable quality if the collaborative work is the quality of interactions, especially the degree of interactivity and negotiability (Dillenbourg, 1999).

Furthermore, Mercer (1996) suggests that when teachers build “ground rules” for collaboration, students' performance and motivation immediately improved. These rules include sharing all relevant information, questioning about reasons where appropriate, providing reasons to back up suggestions, and accepting that the group rather than the

individual is responsible for decisions. Here the role of teacher is to establish the grounded rules in order to make the learners more comfortable when they are engaged in a collaborative work.

3.4.4. Material support:

Reading for learning is considered to be the type of learning done in the classroom and goal oriented. Reading is also considered to be an interactive process as it is a conversation between the author and the reader. According to Masuhara (as cited in Tomlinson, 2007, pp. 341_349), there several models of second/ foreign language reading instruction that can be used as the grounded aspects for developing English reading materials. Some of them are:

Reading comprehension based approach: emphasizes the students' reading comprehension of the text; this approach followed the reading text by comprehension questions to answer presented in form of exercises or tasks. The main purpose here is to develop the reading the skills and so to lead learners to read critically unconsciously.

Language based approach: this approach tends to emphasize grammar and lexis, in which the deal is with syntax, morphology, semantics...therefore, learning activities begins with the elements of vocabulary and grammar of the text, so the students can read fluently.

Skills/ strategies based approach: emphasizes the aspects of reading skills/strategies. The materials include learning strategies/skills to develop and improve the reading skills.

Schema based reading materials: give emphasis the knowledge/experiences gained from one text in comparison to similar knowledge/experiences in the memories of students. Here the material used to activate the students' memories is presentations related to text.

3.4.5. Physical condition:

Many factors influence the learning environment; students are not only affected by the psychological climate but rather the physical conditions. For instance, the student is influenced negatively when the class is over-crowded, dark and damp. The physical learning matters a lot in promoting the mental health of the student and facilitating the learning process (Paul, Milcah, Kumari, Ratna, 2017). (kilgour, 2006) argued two major component of the learning environment are physical and psychological components. The physical component includes classrooms, teaching materials, learning facilities, external environment both inside and outside the classroom.

Therefore, since the reading is a skill that needs a high level of concentration and thinking of every word that is read, the reading environment or physical condition is very important to achieve the critical reading that a teacher wants to involve his students in; moreover, as the learning environment can affect learning, attitudes, and achievement of the students, it can affect the reading process either positively which leads to reach critical reading or negatively which leads to the failure of the reading process as whole.

3.5 Conclusion

The current chapter presented the explanation of the factors that promote EFL learners' critical reading based on the data obtained from the different data collecting tools. The chapter involves four different factors that contribute in promoting and fostering the learners' critical reading. Hence, the chapter presented a detailed explanation for the cognitive, metacognitive, psychological, and environmental factors as a connection to the findings obtained.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

For the sake of conducting a descriptive study about the factors that promote EFL learners' critical reading, Mixed method was adopted in which the data is collected and analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. Besides, the choice of the method adopted based on the nature of the subject to be treated, the aim of the research, the sample under investigation, and the data collected. The case study of the research is 25 third year students (LMD) EFL students at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila was selected.

The main conclusion that can be reached after an analysis of the obtained data is that the factors that promote EFL critical reading, these factors are assimilated in the cognitive, metacognitive, psychological, and environmental. Accordingly, taking in consideration the analysis of the data gathered one may draw the conclusion that the aforementioned factors participated directly in the learners' achievements in reading tasks. Therefore, the analysis and the interpretation of the main findings have given a clear idea about the effect of these factors on the learners' critical reading.

Based on the current investigation, EFL learners' critical reading is greatly influenced both positively and negatively by the cognitive, metacognitive, psychological, and environmental factors depends on whether the factors are promoted in a desirable way that fits the learners' preference and point of view or not.

After reviewing what has been done in the field of reading and critical reading among EFL young learners, the factors that promote the EFL learners' critical reading are explained. This study require more universities, teachers, and students to yield more reliable results. Nevertheless, we hope that this study has covered the initial objectives. Furthermore, we hope that in the near future further researches will be carried out in this field and the current study could have

implications for teachers to be aware of the suitable environment for learners to read critically. Moreover, it could have implications for the learners to be effective critical readers.

To conclude with, based on the entire findings, the research questions of the study have been answered. In addition to this, the data collected from this research has confirmed the research hypothesis.

References

- Ahmadi, M. R., Ismail, H. N., & Abdullah, M. K. (2013). The importance of metacognitive reading strategy awareness in reading comprehension. *English Language Teaching*, 6(10), 235-244. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n10p235>
- Alderson, J., & Bachman, F. (2000). *Assessing Reading*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Allan, A.(2004) (n.d.). *Mixed Methods Research*. Client supplied.
- Andres, V., 2002. The influence of effective variables on ESL/EFL learning and teaching [electronic version]. *The Journal of the Imagination in Language Learning and Teaching*, 17(5): 1-5.
- Axelrod, R. B. Cooper, C.R. (2002). *Reading critically, writing well: A reader and guide*. St. Martin's press. Bedford/St. Martin's.
- Anand Mohanand, 2013. *English for Academic and Professional Skills*. The English and Foreign Language University. Hyderabad New Delhi.
- Bailey, K. (1994). *Methods of Social Research* (4th ed.). New York: The Free Press.
- Baleghizadeh, S., & Babapur, M.(2011). The effect of summary writing on reading comprehension and recall of EFL Students. *New England Reading Association Journal*, 47(1),44-57.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological review*, 84, 191-215.
- Barnett, M.A.(1989). *More than meets the eye: Foreign language reading theory in practice*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ:PrenticeHallRegents

- Bernat, E., 2005. Beliefs about language learning: Current Knowledge, pedagogical implications, and new research directions [Electronic version]. *TESL-EJ journal*, 9(1): 1-15.
- Bosely, L. (2008). I don't teach reading: Critical reading instruction in composition course. *Literacy research and instruction*,47,280-308.
- Branden, N., 1985. Honoring the self; self-esteem and personal transformation. New York: Bantam Books.
- Burke Johnson, R., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Turner, L. A. (2007). Towards a Definition of Mixed Methods Research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(2), 112-133.<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1558689806298224>.
- Caccamise, D. (2011). Improved reading comprehension by writing. *Perspectives on Language Learning and Education*, 18(1), 27-31. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1044/lle18.1.27>
- Chang, K., Chen, I., & Sung, Y. (2002). The effect of concept mapping to enhance text comprehension and summarization. *The Journal of Experimental Education* 71(1), 5-23.
- Correia, R. (2006). Encouraging critical reading in the EFL classroom. *English teaching forum*,9,16-20.
- Crotty, M. (1998). *The Foundations of Social Research. Meaning and Perspectives in Research Process*. London: Sage Publications
- Diane Henry Leipzig D.H(January ,2001) .what is reading ! a review of the related literature (chapter 2,p11).

Dillenbourg, P. (1999). What do you mean by ‘collaborative learning?’ In P. Dillenbourg (Ed.), *Collaborative-learning: Cognitive and Computational Approaches* (pp. 1_19). Oxford: Elsevier. doi:10.1080/1034912X.2013.812188

Extensive reading what is it and why should we be doing it. extensive reading, ESL EFL articles –ESL Articles EFL Articles TESOL articles English teaching information.

ferrara, S.L. (2005). Promote reader self-efficacy. *Intervention on School and Clinic*, 41(1),36-38. <https://doi.org/10.1177/10534512050410010901>

from <http://pearl.stkate.edu/docview/1458788304?accountid=26879>

Friere, P. (2005). *Teachers as Cultural Workers: Letters to those Who Dare to Teach* (expanded ed.). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Grabe, W. (2002), *Teaching and researching reading*. Harlow, UK: longman

Guthrie, J. T., Van Meter, P., McCann, A. D., & Wigfield, A. (1996). Growth of literacy engagement: Changes in motivations and strategies during concept-oriented reading instruction. *Reading research quarterly*, 31(3), 306-332. doi: 10.1598/RRQ.31.3.5

Harris, T.L. & Hodges, R.E. (Eds.).(1981). *Dictionary of reading and relative terms*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Hudson, T. (2007). *Teaching second language reading*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. Salisbury University Center http://www.salisbury.edu/conseling/new/7/critical_reading_strategies)

Jacobs, G. M. (2016). Ten strengths of how teachers do cooperative learning. *Online Submission*. Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED573761.pdf>

- Jinks, J., & Morgan, V. (1999). Children's perceived academic self-efficacy: An inventory scale. *The clearing house*, 1999, 72. 4: 224-230.
- Jansen, A. (2012). Developing productive disposition during small-group work in two sixth-grade mathematics classrooms: Teachers' facilitation efforts and students' self-reported benefits. *Middle Grades Research Journal*, 7(1), 37-56. Retrieved
- K. Brennen. (2017, May 22). A top 20 teacher shares his weekly letter to parents/guardians! Entry#16 [Web log comment]. Retrieved from <https://top20training.com/top-20-teacher-shares-his-weekly-letter-parentsguardians-entry-16>
- Kilgour, P.W. (2006). Student, teacher and parent perceptions of classroom environment in streamed and un-streamed mathematics classroom. Ph.D. Thesis. Curtin University of Technology, Sydney, Australia.
- Kothari, C. R. (1990). Research methodology (2nd ed.). New Delhi: WishwaPrakashan .
- Kong Primary Classrooms". Working Papers in English and Communication Vol.17/1, 1- 20.
- lauterman, T., & Ackerman, R. (2013). Overcoming the screen inferiority in text learning. In Y. Eshet-Alkalai, A. Caspi, S. Eden, N. Geri, Y. Kalman, & Y. Yair (Eds.), proceedings of the Chais conference on instructional technologies research 2013: learning in the technological era (Vol. 8, pp. 100-106). Raanana, Israel: Open University of Israel.
- Maya B.Eagleton, Elizabeth Dobler, 2007. Reading the Web: Strategies for Internet Inquiry. Guilford Press. New York .
- Mazloomi Mahmood Abad, S. et al. (2010). Characteristics of Skillful Instructor from Students' perspective at University of Medical Science of Martyr soudoghi in Yazad. Hormozgan Medical Magazine.

- Mercer, N. (1996). The quality of talk in children's collaborative activity in the classroom. *Learning Instruction*, 6(4). 359_377.
- Mildred R. Donoghue, 2009. Language Arts: Integrating Skills for Classroom Teaching. California State University.
- McLaughlin, M. & Devoog, G. (2004). Critical Literacy: Enhancing students' comprehension of text. New York: Scholastic.
- McNamara, D. S., Boonthum, C., Levinstein, I. B., & Millis, K. (2009). Handbook of Latent Semantic Analysis: Evaluating self-explanations in iSTART: Comparing word-
- Missouri, L. (2007). Applying critical thinking to reading. Longview Community College. Retrieved June 20, 2010, Retrieved from <http://www.ss.criticalthinking.html>.
- Mosly, P., Ardito, G., & Scollins, L. (2016). Robotic cooperative learning promotes student STEM interest. *American Journal of Engineering Education*, 7(2), 117-128
- Molden, K. (2007). Critical literacy, the right answer for the reading classroom: strategies to move beyond comprehension for reading improvement. *Reading Improvement* 44(1), 50_56.
- Nasrollahi, M. A. (2015). Process of implementing critical reading strategies in an Iranian EFL classroom: An action research. *International Education Studies*. 8 (1), 9-16. Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/esswt/EJ1060779.pdf>
- Niglas, K. (2009). How the novice researcher can make sense of mixed methods designs. *International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches*, 3, 34-46. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5172/mra.455.3.1.34>
- Ozdemir, E. (1997). The critical reading. Ankara: Umit publishing .

- Paul, M. Milcah and Kumari, D. Ratna (2017). Physical education of classroom_Dynamic elements promoting mental health and conducive learning in students. *Internet. J. Appl. Soc. Sci.*, **4**(7&8) : 211-215.
- Prochnow, J.J., Tunmer, W.E., Chapman, J.W. (2013). A longitudinal investigation of the influence of literacy-related skills, reading self-perceptions, and inattentive behaviours on the development of literacy learning difficulties. *International Journal Of Disability, Development & Education*, *60*(3), 185-207.
- Rajasekar, S., Philominaathan, P., &Chinnathambi, V. (2013). Research Methodology. Retrieved April 8, 2015.from <http://arxiv.org/pdf/physics/0601009.pdf>.
- RandReading Study Group (2002). Reading for understanding: Toward an R&D program in reading comprehension. Santa Monica, CA : RAND. Retrieved Fromhttps://www.rand.org/pubs/monograph_reports/MR1465.html
- Raymond, E. (2000). Cognitive Characteristics. Learners with Mild Disabilities (pp. 169-201). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon, A Pearson Education Company.
- Reutzell, D. R. (1985). Story maps improve comprehension. *Reading Teacher*, *38*(4), 400–404.Salisbury University Center at (http://www.salisbury.edu/conseling/new/7/critical_reading_strategies)”
- Savani, A. (2014). General Teaching Methods and Technology. Tehran: Moaser Press.
- Seif, A. A. (2011). Modern Education Psychology: Learning and Training Psychology. Tehran: Doran Press.
- Singh, Y, K 2006, Fundamental of Research Methodology and Statistics, New Age

- Skinner, E.A., Wellborn, J.G., & Connell, J.P. (1990). What it takes to do well in school and whether I've got it: A process model of perceived control and children's engagement and achievement in school. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82, 22-32.
- Skinner, E.A. (1995). *Perceived control, Motivation and coping*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stout, M., 2001. The feel-good curriculum: The dumping down of America's kids in the name of self-esteem. USA: Da Capo Press.
- Tayeb,B. (2014) Best Practices in Enhancing Critical Reading Among EFL LMD,Annales des Lettres et Literatures-Vol.4 University of Msila, Algeria
- Teaching reading by Manual campos(university of westminster ,reading strategies).
https://www.wmin.ac.uk/eic/learning_skills/litracy_strat*read.html .
- Tomlinson, B. (2007). Materials evaluation. In Tomlinson, B. (Ed.) *Developing materials for language teaching*. New York: Continuum.
- Tovani, C. (2000_U). I read it, but I don't get it: comprehension strategies for adolescent readers: stenhouse pub.
- Wallace, C. (2003). *Critical reading in language education*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Ward, B. and D. Skailand, 1983. Teaching reading as decoding. New York: Macmillan Educational Services.
- Yilmaz, K. (2013). Comparison of quantitative and qualitative research traditions: epistemological, theoretical, and methodological differences. *European Journal of Education*, 48(2), 311-325.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Students' Questionnaire:

This questionnaire serves as a data collection tool for an academic research. We will be so much thankful if you could take the time and the energy to share your ideas by answering the questions below. Your cooperation is very important and will be of much help for this research work.

24. What is your purpose from reading any material?

25. To get general knowledge

26. To read for pleasure

27. To enrich your vocabulary knowledge

28. To get the general meaning that help understand the text.

29. When you read a text and you do not understand you:

30. Translate to Arabic

31. Use a dictionary

32. Carry on your reading without understanding

33. Stop reading

Others, please specify.....

.....

.....

34. What are the difficulties that you often face when reading?

35. Difficulties of pronunciation

36. Ambiguous words

37. New words

38. Meaning of words

Others, specify

.....

39. What are the causes behind these difficulties?

40. Lack of time

41. Lack of reading habit

- 42. The difficulty of the reading skill itself
- 43. The difficulty of the kind of texts
- Lack of knowledge about critical reading
- Others, specify
-

44. **-Is the time devoted for the reading session sufficient?**

Yes No

If No, Why?

.....

45. **Which strategies do you use when reading a text?**

- 46. Writing ideas in the margin
- 47. Underlining key words
- 48. Summarizing each idea near its paragraph

49. **Do you use pre-reading before you read? if no, Why?**

yes no

Why?.....

50. **Does your teacher help you overcome problems in reading?**

yes no

If yes, what type of help?

.....

51. **How does your teacher assist you cognitively? By**

- 52. Reminding us of what we previously know
- 53. By brainstorming us (asking us questions)
- 54. By recalling to our minds things we have previously seen

55. **Does your teacher help you psychologically?**

yes no

If yes, how?

.....
.....

56. Do you share your readings with your classmates?

Yes No

If, yes what are the benefits?

.....
.....
.....

57. Do you like reading in a secure environment and under the teacher's guidance?

Yes No

If yes, why?

.....
.....
.....

58. Do you think knowing how to read is important?

Yes No

If yes, where does this importance lie?

.....
.....
.....

59. Do you have any idea about the three phases of reading-pre-reading while reading and post reading?

Yes No

60. What is the definition of reading and critical reading? Read all the options and SELECT THE IRRELEVANT ONE)

1. Reading:

1. Reading is answering questions on the text

2. Reading is comprehending the message of a given text

3. Reading is a productive skill as writing

15.2. Critical reading is

- 1. Deep reading that goes beyond the written text
- 2. It is reading where we criticize
- 3. Conscious reading that requires readers to be more active

16. According to you, if all conditions - teachers' linguistic support, environmental support, and psychological factors are met- will you develop into a critical reader?

Yes No

If no, could you account for (give your reasons why?)

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Thank you for your collaboration

Appendix B

Teachers' questionnaire:

1-How many years have you been teaching English?

.....

2-Which of the following skills your pupils' best prefer?

61. Listening

62. Speaking

63. Reading

64. Writing

According to you, why?.....

.....
.....

3. What kind(s) of teaching materials do you use in teaching reading comprehension? And what do you think about it ?

.....
.....

4. Do you think that text selection can have an effect on reading comprehension achievement? Yes No How?

.....
.....
.....

5. How can you help your students when they do not understand while reading a text?

.....
.....
.....

65. What are the difficulties that your students face when reading?

Reading aloud –

Difficulties of pronunciation –

Ambiguous words

Others, please specify

.....
.....

7. According to you as a language teacher, what are the causes behind these problems? - Lack of time - Lack of reading habit -The difficulty of the text Others, please specify

.....

8. Is the time devoted for the reading session sufficient? Yes No Why?

.....
.....

What can you suggest to improve the students' reading comprehension achievement?

.....
.....
.....
.....

..... **Thank you for your collaboration**

نبذة مختصرة

تعتبر القراءة بلغة أجنبية واحدة من أصعب المهام لمتعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية بسبب تعقيد هذه المهارة حيث لا يزال المتعلمون يقرؤون بالطرق التقليدية. لذلك ، تم تحديد تطوير القراءة النقدية كهدف أساسي في التعليم العالي لسنوات. هذه الدراسة هي محاولة للتحقيق في العوامل التي تعزز القراءة النقدية. الغرض الرئيسي هو تحديد مصطلح القراءة النقدية بوضوح للمتعلمين ، وتحديد الطرق التي تؤدي إلى القراء الناقدون الناجحين. ومع ذلك ، لا توجد إرشادات واضحة حول كيفية تنفيذ مهارات القراءة لدى متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. اختار الباحثون الطريقة المختلطة باعتبارها الأنسب والتي يتم توجيهها أساسًا إلى متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية لأنها تساعد في تحديد العوامل الأكثر فاعلية التي تعزز القراءة النقدية لمتعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية كما تنعكس على نطاق واسع من خلال البيانات التي تم جمعها لهذا الغرض ، تم توجيه استبيان إلى طلاب السنة الثالثة في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية في جامعة مسيله باستخدام عينات عشوائية من 25 متعلمًا من مجموعة اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية البالغ عددها 80 طالبًا. وبالمثل ، تم إرسال استبيان آخر إلى المعلمين في هذا المجال للحصول على مزيد من الأفكار حول العوامل المختلفة التي تساعد المتعلمين على القراءة النقدية.