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Strategic and Extensive Reading in English as a Foreign Language among Mozambican University Students

Proefschrift voorgelegd tot het behalen van de graad van
Doctor in de Taalkunde
Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements to obtain the
PhD-degree in Linguistics

2016
Declaration

“I declare that Strategic and Extensive Reading in English as a Foreign Language among Mozambican University Students is my own work, that has never been presented for obtaining any degree or in another context and that it constitutes the result of my personal research. This Dissertation is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements to obtain the PhD-degree in Linguistics, at Ghent University, Faculty of Arts and Philosophy”

Ghent - Belgium, November, 2016.

Signed: Marcos Nhapulo
Keywords

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November, 2016.
List of Abbreviations

EAP: English for Academic Purposes
EFL: English as a Foreign Language
EGP: English for General Purposes
ELT: English Language Teaching
ER: Extensive Reading
ESL: English as a Second Language
ESP: English for Specific Purposes
IELTS: International English Language Testing System
INE: The National Institute of Statistics of Mozambique
IR: Intensive Reading
L1: First Language
L2: Second Language
MINED: Ministry of Education and Culture
RSI: Reading Strategy Instruction
SL: Second Language
TOEFL: Teaching of English as a Foreign Language
TSL: Teaching English as a Second Language
UEM: Eduardo Mondlane University
Summary

Positive learning outcome or success in tertiary education has become a matter of being a good reader, since students have to deal with many readings in their academic routine. The skills they need for reading an academic text are not the same as those needed while reading a novel or a newspaper. Academic reading has its own challenges and students need to be prepared to face them, reading many texts and understanding them as quickly as possible. Being selective and knowing which reading strategy to use in order to improve their reading comprehension is crucial.

The current study is aimed at improving reading skills among Mozambican university students, especially those at the Eduardo Mondlane University, in Mozambique. Almost all Mozambican students have learned English as their 3rd or 4th language, although within this study it is considered both as a second and/or foreign language. That is, students involved in this study may be trapped in a double-edged problem: the language problem (linguistic and communicative competence) and the reading problem (lack of reading strategies).

In the first study we have designed and implemented a Reading Strategy Instruction program aimed at enabling students to become good, fluent, active and strategic readers, in order to improve their reading comprehension skills. After conducting the study, experimental group students reported a better mastery of reading strategies, which was confirmed by the considerable improvement between pre-test and post-test reading comprehension scores among this group, compared to the results of the control group. Better mastery of reading strategies after the RSI program also suggests that the intervention had a positive effect among the involved students, which implies the need of introducing a strategy-based reading program especially in the ELT course at UEM.
The second study involved an implementation of an ER program in which we looked at the effect of extensive reading on reading comprehension and reading speed. This stage has brought an innovative approach in the field since it did not look at the effect of extensive reading on general reading comprehension as many previous studies did, but it looked at the effect of extensive reading on the reading comprehension of academic texts. That is, though students were involved in an ER program, the pre- and post-tests used for evaluating their reading progress was an academic text. This was adventurously done because our purpose in this study is improving academic reading skills and not simple general reading skills. Both the poor and the good readers could read a larger number of pages after being involved in the program. Likewise, the number of words per minute (wpm) students read before the ER program was smaller than the number of wpm read afterwards. Most importantly, we concluded that not only poor readers and good readers showed an improvement in the number of wpm after an ER program, but the reading speed tests have also showed that good readers read faster than poor readers. This proves that the more we read the faster we become (Kirin et al., 2012), and vice-versa. In fact, students who read faster are more impelled to read more and more books in a motivating vicious cycle (Nuttal, 1996), and in an enjoyable manner, meantime, improving their reading comprehension.

The last stage of this study was an implementation of an ER program with the purpose of evaluating its effect on students reading attitudes, since it was observed that there is lack of reading habits among Mozambican university students, which affects their reading performance and academic learning outcome in general. A twenty-question reading attitudes questionnaire was divided into two categories of reading attitudes: the affective category with two variables’ items expressing Comfort and Anxiety; and the cognitive category divided into three variables expressing Intellectual Value, Practical Value and Linguistic Value. After the ER program was conducted, students have shown positive attitudes towards extensive reading, which implies a change in how they thought and felt about reading, added to the increased motivation.

The three studies have shown that there is a need to introduce several innovative elements in the current ELT curriculum in the Mozambican tertiary education. For instance, there is a need for a curriculum that takes into consideration learner needs and beliefs about language learning and teaching. In addition, an RSI program is necessary among Mozambican university students since it improves learners reading competence and it
enables them to develop cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Grenfell & Macaro, 2007; Khezrlou, 2012), which lead to an enhancement in reading comprehension and reading speed.

Finally, extensive Reading programs are to be conducted due to their role in the learning and reading process. That is, when students are involved in an extensive reading program they improve reading habits which, implicitly, leads to the development of academic reading skills. So, when students become good or fast readers, both cognitive and affective reactions towards reading increase considerably as the result of the tension-free reading environment or autonomy created by the improvement in reading strategies, interest and motivation.

November, 2016.
Positieve leerresultaten en succes in tertiair onderwijs zijn meer en meer afhankelijk geworden van hoe goed men is als lezer, aangezien studenten met heel veel teksten in aanraking komen in hun dagelijkse academische routine. De vaardigheden die ze nodig hebben om een academische tekst te lezen, zijn niet dezelfde als die welke ze nodig hebben voor het lezen van een roman of een krant. Academisch lezen kent zijn eigen uitdagingen en studenten moeten erop voorbereid worden om die aan te gaan, door het lezen van veel teksten en die zo snel mogelijk te begrijpen. Van daaruit is het cruciaal om op een selectieve manier te weten welke leesstrategie ze moeten gebruiken om hun leesbegrip te verbeteren. De huidige studie heeft als doel de leesvaardigheden van Mozambikaanse universiteitsstudenten te verbeteren, in het bijzonder studenten aan de Eduardo Mondlane Universiteit (UEM) in Mozambique. Bijna alle Mozambikaanse studenten hebben Engels als 3de of 4de taal geleerd, alhoewel het Engels binnen deze studie als tweede of vreemde taal behandeld wordt. Dit betekent dat de studenten waarover deze studie gaat, in een dubbelzijdig net gevangen kunnen zijn: enerzijds is er het taalprobleem (hun linguïstische en communicatieve competentie) en anderzijds is er het leesprobleem (met een gebrek aan leesstrategieën).

In de eerste studie hebben we een Leesstrategie Instructieprogramma (LSI) ontworpen en geïmplementeerd met als doel studenten in staat te stellen goede, vloeiende, actieve en strategische lezers te worden om hun vaardigheden van begrijpend lezen te verbeteren. Nadat de studie werd uitgevoerd, rapporteerden de studenten in de experimentele groep over een betere beheersing van leesstrategieën, wat bevestigd werd door een belangrijke verbetering tussen de scores begrijpend lezen van de pre-test en de post-test in deze groep, vergeleken met de resultaten van de controlegroep. Een betere beheersing van
leesstrategieën na het LSI-programma betekent ook dat de interventie een positief effect had bij de betrokken studenten, wat de noodzaak bevestigt om een strategie-gebaseerd leesprogramma te introduceren in cursussen ELT op UEM.

De tweede studie betrof de implementatie van een Extensief Leesprogramma (EL) waarin we gekeken hebben naar het effect van extensief lezen op leesbegrip en leessnelheid. Deze fase bracht een innovatieve aanpak in het onderzoeksdomein met zich mee aangezien er niet gekeken werd naar het effect van extensief lezen op algemeen leesbegrip zoals vele vroegere studies al gedaan hebben, maar er werd gekeken naar het effect van extensief lezen op het leesbegrip van academische teksten. Hoewel studenten dus deelnamen aan een EL-programma, bevatten de pre- en post-tests die gebruikt werden om hun leesprogressie te meten academische teksten. Het doel van deze studie was immers om academische leesvaardigheden en niet algemene leesvaardigheidene verbeteren. Zowel de zwakke als de sterke lezers konden een groter aantal pagina’s lezen nadat ze deelgenomen hadden aan het programma. Op dezelfde manier was het aantal woorden per minuut (wpm) dat de studenten konden lezen vóór het EL-programma kleiner dan het aantal woorden per minuut na het programma. Het belangrijkste was dat we konden concluderen dat niet alleen zwakke en sterke lezers een vooruitgang vertoonden in het aantal woorden per minuut na het EL-programma, maar ook dat de leessnelheid aantoonde dat sterke lezers sneller lezen dan zwakke lezers. Dit bevestigt dat hoe meer we lezen, hoe sneller we worden (Kirin et al, 2012), en vice versa. Feit is dat studenten die sneller lezen ook gedreven zijn om meer en meer boeken te lezen in een motiverende vicieuze cirkel (Nuttal, 1996) en dit als aangenaam ervaren, terwijl ze intussen hun leesbegrip verbeteren.

De laatste fase van ons onderzoek bestond uit de implementatie van een EL-programma met als doel het effect ervan te evalueren op de leeshouding van de studenten, aangezien er vastgesteld werd dat er een gebrek aan leesgewoonten is bij Mozambikaanse universiteitsstudenten wat hun leesprestaties en academische leerresultaten in het algemeen beïnvloedt. Een vragenlijst met twintig vragen omtrent leeshouding bestond uit twee categorieën van leeshoudingen: een affectieve categorie gegroepeerd rond twee variabelen met betrekking tot comfort en spanning; en een cognitieve categorie opgedeeld in drie variabelen met betrekking tot intellectuele waarde, praktische waarde en linguïstische waarde. Nadat het EL-programma was uitgevoerd, vertoonden de studenten positieve attitudes omtrent extensief lezen, wat een verandering impliceert in hoe ze denken en voelen.
over lezen en wat ook een verhoogde motivatie teweegbracht. In het algemeen kan gesteld worden dat de drie studies aangetoond hebben dat er nood is aan de introductie van verschillende vernieuwende elementen in het huidige ELT-curriculum in het tertiaire onderwijs in Mozambique. Er is bijvoorbeeld een nood aan een curriculum dat rekening houdt met de noden en denkbeelden van de leerder over taalleren. Bovendien is een LSI-programma nodig bij Mozambikaanse universiteitsstudenten aangezien dat het leesbegrip van leerders verhoogt en het hen in staat stelt om cognitieve en metacognitieve strategieën (Grenfell&Macaro, 2007; Khezrlou, 2012) te ontwikkelen, wat leidt tot een verbetering van hun leesbegrip en leessnelheid.

Ten slotte zouden extensieve leesprogramma’s ingevoerd moeten worden omwille van hun rol in het leer- en leesproces. Wanneer studenten deelnemen aan een extensief leesprogramma verbeteren ze hun leesgewoonten die, impliciet, leiden naar de ontwikkeling van academische leesvaardigheden. Wanneer studenten op die manier goede of snelle lezers worden, verbeteren zowel hun cognitieve als hun affectieve reacties met betrekking tot het lezen aanzienlijk ten gevolge van een spanningsvrije leesomgeving of autonomie die gecreëerd werd door de verbetering in leesstrategieën, interesse en motivatie.

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Chapter 1  Introduction

1.1  Context of the study

The current study was conducted during three years, from 2012 to 2014, at the Eduardo Mondlane University (UEM) in Mozambique. It is part of an Institutional University Cooperation Program between UEM and Flemish Universities and it was selected by the Flemish Interuniversity Council – University Cooperation (VLIR-UOS) under the UEM Capacity Building project. In this context, the study is also within the Internal Quality Assurance (IQA) specific objectives (UEM, 2012), since it broadly aims to contribute to capacity-building regarding quality assurance processes (at the academic level – teaching and learning) within this university. One of the goals of the Capacity Building project is enabling UEM teachers and students to improve their professional and linguistic skills, especially in English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for General Purposes (EGP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). This explains why a Language Centre was introduced at UEM under the same Capacity Building project. UEM is the oldest and the biggest public university in Mozambique, where several ELT classes are conducted at the Department of Languages and throughout all the university’s faculties, which explains why there is a need to improve the English language teaching and learning process within the UEM.

English is considered as a foreign language in Mozambique (Dias, 1998), meaning that the current study was conducted among students who are learning English as a foreign language (EFL). Despite this, there are many references to second language in the dissertation as well, used to sustain our claims in the present foreign language study. Most of the times we refer to “second language” or “second/foreign language” and not foreign language, except
when we are specifically talking about English language learning and reading comprehension in Mozambique.

There are three reasons for using the term *second language*, although we are dealing with a foreign language context. Firstly, as we have just mentioned in previous lines, most of the background literature we have used refer to English as a second language. Secondly, considering that Mozambican university students involved in the current study learnt to read in Portuguese, which is the official language in Mozambique, we can consider Portuguese as their first language and English as the second language, but only looking at the sequence they had in learning to read. This explains why in this study we sometimes refer to Portuguese as L1, and to English as L2, although among Mozambican university students English is spoken as L3 or L4 (but L2 is commonly used in literature even in foreign language contexts like Mozambique). The third reason is the fact that the EFL/ESL distinction is somehow diminishing, as shown by Anderson (2003). Anderson (2003) answered two questions in his study: 1) what are the online reading strategies used by second language readers? 2) Do the online reading strategies of ESL readers differ from EFL readers? The study involved 247 students. Among these, 131 were studying EFL at Centro Cultural Costarricense Norteamericano (CCCN) in San José, Costa Rica, and 116 were studying in an ESL environment at the English Language Centre (ELC) at Brigham Young University, in Provo, Utah. The instrument used by Anderson (2003) was The Survey Of Reading Strategies (SORS) (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). Results indicated that among the students involved in his research, there were no differences in the use of Global Reading Strategies (the same as pre-reading strategies - see Chapter 2, section 2.5) and Support Reading Strategies (see section 2.6) between these two groups. The only difference was that learners in the EFL environment reported a higher use of Problem Solving Strategies (e.g. *try to get back on track when distracted or lose concentration*) than did the learners in the ESL environment. This led him to conclude that perhaps the EFL/ESL distinction is diminishing. This indicates a growing shift in the traditional dichotomy between EFL and ESL. While talking about this dichotomy, Raftari et al. (2012) point out that there are many opportunities (radio, television, the Internet, and pedagogical materials) for ESL and EFL learners to learn English all over the world today. In this context, the increased opportunities for input in English decrease the traditional EFL/ESL dichotomy.
The current study is motivated by the fact that many Mozambican university students do not achieve the desired learning outcome, especially at UEM. After a thorough literature review I have come to the conclusion that there is a need for an internal intervention in order to enable students to improve their learning outcome through the improvement of their reading comprehension strategies. Generally, investigators whose interest it is to assist students in becoming effective comprehenders “have been focused on outcomes and have been influenced by the concept of extensive reading, by strategy instruction, and by the tasks that readers are asked to do in the comprehension process” (Bernhardt, 2011: 54).

Since training is the main focus in the current study, this citation summarizes the main purpose of this action research (i.e. a practical intervention aimed at understanding and improving the quality of the teaching-learning process), which is conducting reading strategies and extensive reading programs in order to see whether this have a positive effect on Mozambican university student’s reading abilities. For more details on the concept of action research see the introductory section of Chapter 3. The background idea is using instruction in order to improve Mozambican university students’ reading comprehension strategies, their reading speed and their attitudes towards reading through explicit instruction and active involvement of both the researcher and the students.

Previous research (Cabinda, 2014) has shown that Mozambican university students reading strategies do not always match what is expected in their daily academic lives. Moreover, these students do not have habits of reading for pleasure (Rosário, 2009; Issak, 2009; Buendía, 2010). This explains why our aim is to provide Mozambican university students with instruction programs: reading strategies (i.e. the techniques used by students to overcome difficulties they find during the reading process and to monitor their reading comprehension) and extensive reading (ER). By analyzing the results of these programs, in terms of students’ reading comprehension strategies progress, we will then draw some conclusions and recommendations for future programs and research.

First, the ultimate goal of a reading strategy instruction (RSI) program is for the students involved to be capable of working independently on their reading tasks. RSI programs focus on the ability to think in an independent way, to reflect critically on a certain issue, to analyse and give a synthesis of ideas, and to develop creative skills (Gillet, 1996). Since there are many reading strategies (i.e. reading strategies taxonomies), it is important to
select the strategies to be instructed and to see whether instruction itself has any effect on students’ strategy use, which will be examined in Chapter 4 of this study.

Second, the idea that ER is essentially effective in promoting fluent, independent and competent readers has been proved in several studies (Richards & Schmitt, 2002; Yamashita, 2008; Yu, 1993). This explains why the purpose of the current study is to enable students to become strategic, motivated and active readers, meantime, setting the ground for the formulation of new pedagogical approaches and suitable reading programs for current and future university students throughout the country and in other similar contexts. Moreover, there are variables which may be invoked in the explanation of differences found in the second language acquisition process and, specially, in the reading process (Horwitz, 1988; Yamashita, 2004; Garan & Devoogd, 2008; Deford, 2004; Iwahori, 2008; Eaton, 2010; Feng & Mokhtari, 1998). Apart from providing cognitive scaffolding, language teachers also need to provide learners with affect support in language learning (Moskowitz, 1999; Wright, 1987; Brown, 1994). This suggests that while some learners show rapid progress, others remain far from the desired learning outcome, even when they are all in the same classroom learning environment, although both students and their teachers may be responsible for such achievement differences (Coleman et al., 1966). Among several explanatory factors, the current study is going to look at the reading strategy use factor, and the influence of ER on English as a foreign language reading comprehension. Therefore, through this study we try to understand how strategic and extensive reading in English as a foreign language can reduce differentiated learning outcome and improve reading comprehension abilities among Mozambican university students.

In the 80’s, it was observed that there are different factors that may explain differences in second language learning outcome. The influence of variables such as age, gender, motivation, personality type, proficiency, career orientation, nationality and the learning situation may provide us with some input for the explanation of learning differences in this field of study. There are also different learner characteristics such as anxiety, creativity, self-esteem, willingness to communicate and learner beliefs about language learning and the teaching process, which can influence the use and choice of language learning strategies among language learners (Horwitz, 1987; Wenden, 1986a, 1986b, 1987, 1998, 1999, 2001; Puchta, 1999; Yilmaz-Soylu & Akkonyunlu, 2002). These variables may influence the
strategies’ choice among different second/foreign language learners even within the same learning situation (Hui, 2005; Thomas & Harri-Augustein, 1983; Oxford, 2003).

Broadly speaking, the topic of learning strategies involves several classification typologies, which according to Oxford (1994) indicates a lack of a well-accepted system for describing learning strategies. Classification systems are divided into: (i) systems related to successful language learners (Rubin, 1975, cited in Oxford, 1994); (ii) systems based on psychological functions (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990); (iii) linguistically based systems dealing with guessing, language monitoring, formal and functional practice (Bialystok, 1981) or with communication strategies like paraphrasing or borrowing (Tarone, 1983); and (iv) systems based on different styles or types of learners (Sutter, 1989). In spite of these different classifications and maybe lack of precision, what is most important is that effective strategy use will mostly depend on each learner’s characteristics, styles and expectations, on a certain task and on the learning environment itself. It should be pointed out that these systems describe the strategies used in the learning process as a whole, while the current study deals only with strategies that are used by students during a reading process, generally considered as reading strategies.

Low and rapid progress in second language acquisition (SLA) may imply that there are good and bad language readers. However, instead of considering the existence of good and bad learners, we can assume that there are only those learners who use reading strategies in a better manner, that is, those who manage to use them separately or in clusters, and those who do not make a good use of the available reading strategies. In fact, among the features affecting the reading act, Hudson (2007: 26) noted that we have to consider “the application of reading techniques used to fulfil the reader’s purpose as well as the specific techniques or abilities possessed by the reader”. Here, since strategic reading depends on explicit training, our focus will be on understanding the progress made by university students after being involved in an RSI program. Also, taking into consideration that ER is another tool which enables students to deal with reading comprehension and to have positive attitudes towards reading, we can then therefore craft the following title for the current study: *Strategic and Extensive Reading in English as a Foreign Language among Mozambican University Students.*
1.2 Research problem statements

Since we are dealing with reading comprehension in a foreign language context, this section deals with general issues faced by readers in this context and it clarifies the motivation for the current study. While dealing with reading strategies, it is important to bear in mind the differences between L1 and L2 reading. L2 readers are faced with problems related to transfer and L1-L2 similarities, and these may facilitate or hinder the reading process, depending on the differences or similarities of the reader’s L1 and the learned L2 (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). That is, while L1 readers begin reading with a basic vocabulary and a tacit grammatical competence in their native language, L2 learners may be hampered by a limited lexicon or mastery of the L2 grammar. In this context, there is a need to understand whether L1 in the Mozambican context does or does not facilitate foreign language reading, as well as the role foreign language proficiency has in the reading process among Mozambican readers.

1.2.1 L1 influence on L2 reading

Looking at literature which deals with reading we find several but complementary perspectives in terms of how L2 readers deal with the reading process itself. While some scholars look at L1 as having an effect on L2 reading comprehension (Grenfell & Harris, 1999), others look at L2 proficiency as crucial in L2 reading (Li, 2010). In her second language compensatory model (detailed in Chapter 2, section 2.2), among other variables, Bernhardt (2011) considers the interaction between L1 literacy and L2 proficiency as contributors in L2 reading comprehension. While this section looks solely at the L1 influence on L2 reading comprehension, the influence of L2 proficiency on reading is discussed in the section 1.2.2 below.

Paribakht (2005) notes that readers rely on their first language vocabulary in order to try to make sense of L2 vocabulary words. This indicates that readers who are good readers in L1 can also be good readers in L2 because they can transfer their abilities from one language to another, since first language reading ability is considered by some researchers as more relevant in L2 reading than the level of L2 proficiency (Jolly, 1978). A study conducted by
Birjandi (2001) among Persian students learning English as a foreign language investigated the correlation between the use of reading strategies between students’ first and foreign language. The results have shown that, among other aspects of reading ability, reading strategies can be transferred from one language to another. This reliance on L1 for L2 reading comprehension may have advantages and disadvantages (as detailed in Chapter 4, section 4.5.3). For instance, Portuguese L1 speakers learning English as an L2 would not have the same difficulties as Chinese L1 speakers learning English as an L2 due to the alphabet origins of the languages involved.

Although there is transferability of reading ability across languages (as defended by the reading universal hypothesis) (Coady, 1979) and the claim that learners' success in L2 (English) reading depends most importantly on their L1, Clarke (1979, cited in Alderson, 1984: 3) thinks that “if the reading process is basically the same in all languages we would logically expect good native readers to maintain their advantages over poor readers in the second language”. We can infer that apart from L1 reading skills, L2 readers need another ability in order to deal with L2 reading comprehension. A study by (Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995) has shown that readers’ L2 reading ability depends not only on the first language literacy, but also on L2 proficiency. Being a good reader in L1 does not automatically mean the reader will also be a good reader in his/her L2. One has to be a good reader or have L1 reading strategies but there is a need of L2 competence in order to read effectively in the second language.

In an inquiry to the transferability of reading skills from one language to another, Alderson (1984: 17) states that “there is no direct transfer of ability or strategies across languages, and that foreign language competence is required before transfer can occur”. This view reveals the importance of proficiency in L2 and it is linked to Upton & Lee-Thompson (2001: 197, cited in Grabe, 2009)’s view, which underlines that “there may be a threshold of L2 proficiency where thought in L1 becomes less efficient than simply reading the L2 text using automatic and proficient L2 reading skills”. In fact, Parel (2004) argues for a threshold of second-language vocabulary knowledge that activates syntactic analysis, which indicates that L2 reading comprehension does not rely upon a model that views first-language strategies as primary. Similarly, Pichette, Segalowitz, and Connors (2003) support the threshold hypothesis, showing that L1 reading skills are less important for L2 comprehension when readers are actively engaged.
In accordance with the threshold hypothesis and similar to Bernhardt & Kamil (1995)’s findings, Van Gelderen et al. (2004) found that first-language literacy contributed significantly to L2 comprehension and that L2 vocabulary knowledge was also a contributing factor. This indicates that the ability to deal with reading in L1 as well as L2 proficiency L2 has an effect on L2 reading comprehension. In fact, an exam of English-speaking college students reading in both Spanish and English, showed that L1 literacy explained 20% of the variance in readers’ performance and linguistic knowledge around 30% (Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995), with the remaining 50% considered as part of the “unexplained variance” (Bernhardt, 2011) which includes extra-textual aspects such as reading strategies (which are part of the current research), motivation, interest, among other variables.

Looking at the context of the present study, we find students who are reported to have reading comprehension problems in Portuguese, that is, they frequently struggle with grammatical and discourse knowledge (i.e. knowledge of aspects of cohesion and coherence within a text, that is, knowledge that is beyond the sentence level) in their L1 (Rosário, 2009). If they have reading comprehension problems in Portuguese, how can we expect them to be good at foreign language reading comprehension? Do Mozambican university readers have L1 reading comprehension strategies to transfer to foreign language reading?

It seems like the answer is negative or we simply have preliminary data in order to provide the research field with a complete answer so far. In fact, Rosário noted that Mozambican readers may be able to decode the written words but may face difficulties in understanding their meaning, expect in situations where they can use compensatory/supply strategies (Cabinda, 2014). Unfortunately, apart from Cabinda (2014)’s study, we can compare these results from Rosário (2009) to the 2004 report from the Program for International Students Assessment conducted in 2000, which included Brazilian Portuguese as L1 speakers in a reading examination. The report showed that Brazilian students, at the age of 15, after 8 schooling years, were not capable of attributing meaning to what they were reading even if they could read. In Mozambique, as in Brazil, at the age of 15 students are finishing secondary education and are ready for pre-university level. The inability of dealing with basic daily information through reading comprehension is what Rodrigues e Silva (2004) calls functional illiteracy (i.e. the ability to decode written symbols is not proportionally similar to the ability to process information for future use). Therefore, these students can
deal with word meaning but they cannot deal with textual comprehension. This suggests that reading, among these students, does not function as a tool for learning new concepts and gaining new knowledge. Since reading is the source of knowledge (Solé, 1998), then Brazilian, as well as the majority of Mozambican readers acquire only the ability to read but not the ability to understand their readings and not even the knowledge transmitted in those readings. Solé (1998) noted that people are taught to read but little attention is paid to the final goal of the reading process, which is comprehension. Comprehension is a complementary process which results from a mental interpretation of what is thought to be the message transmitted by the text, and this interpretation depends on the readers’ in-built linguistic abilities, background knowledge (i.e. the content area knowledge stored in the long-term memory) and past reading experiences, that is, reading habits, attitude and the notion of intertextuality - in Kristeva (1966, cited in Shakib, 2013)’s words. Here, comprehension (Clark & Clark, 1977) has two stages: the first stage is reading and constructing the meaning through perceptual and contextual information and the last stage is called production. While the first stage has to do with the identification of the textual message, that is, the representation or the mental model of the textual message (Johnson-Laird, 1982), the second stage has to do which the reaction of the reader. This second stage is determined by the reaction of the reader depending of the reading purpose and the illocutionary aspect of the text at hand. Both in the written and in the spoken language it can be a statement (didactic message), a request, a question or a command, among other acts. Unfortunately, if the reader could not construct the message that corresponds to the deep structure of the text, the utilization process will not be satisfactory, and that is what happens when a reader can only decode words, but fails to comprehend what s/he has read.

1.2.2 L2 proficiency and reading

There are factors which can affect strategy use among readers. Apart from the role of L1 in L2 reading as discussed in the previous section, the level of L2 proficiency (Li, 2010; Bernhardt, 2011) is another factor. The fact that L2 proficiency has an influence on strategy use was confirmed in a study conducted by Ebrahimi (2012) among 10 (5 advanced and 5 intermediate) Iranian EFL students. Ebrahimi (2012) used a 22 item 4-point Likert scale questionnaire and an interview. She checked students’ L1 and L2 proficiency through a
reading comprehension test and, afterwards, students completed the questionnaire and were interviewed. The study confirmed that the number of reading strategies used by the more proficient (advanced) students was higher than the number of strategies used by less proficient students.

Looking at English proficiency in the Mozambican context, we can posit the following question: do Mozambican university students enter university with a developed proficiency in L2 in order to deal with their daily academic readings? In spite of this pending question, at this stage, we can consider that it is generally accepted that L1 reading strategies may be efficiently transferred to L2 reading activities (Harris 2004; Graham & Macaro, 2008), and that L2 competence and other variables play a crucial role in L2 reading comprehension. We understand that a study on reading strategy in Portuguese among Mozambican university students would be necessary for comparative analysis and for a deeper understanding of reading strategies used among Mozambican university students. However, for the current study we have considered English as we wanted to deal with reading strategies in a foreign language, while Portuguese is considered as a local and official language in Mozambique. It would be important to look at how L1 (Portuguese reading comprehension strategies) may be applied in an L2 setting, especially among Mozambican multilingual students.

In Mozambique, Portuguese has been the official language since the country became independent in 1975, and the main medium of instruction at schools. Many unofficial Bantu languages as well as European and Asian languages are used throughout the country. Students do not start reading in their L1 (Bantu language), but in Portuguese (which explains why we consider it as L1 in the context of this study). In spite of that limitation, we have a suitable background on Portuguese reading comprehension abilities among Mozambican readers (Issak, 2009; Rosário, 2009) and among Brazilian readers (Rodrigues e Silva, 2004). The works from these authors give us an input regarding Portuguese L1 readers and the situation in Mozambique, and this is therefore the open ground to carry on with the research.

Mozambican readers reach university with no conscious and systematic L1 reading strategies to transfer to L2 reading contexts and we would, at this point, consider the threshold hypothesis (Upton & Lee-Thompson, 2001) as conclusive in L2 reading comprehension. However, the fact that the threshold hypothesis depends on the cognitive
development level of the reader - requiring higher threshold level for readers with low conceptual knowledge and lower threshold level for readers with higher conceptual level (Ulijn, 1978; Cummins, 1979) - leaves room for the existence of other elements that play a role in L2 reading comprehension.

Mozambican learners are required to know the learning strategies used by a good reader, the one who performs better, that is to say, who achieves test requirements accordingly. In fact, several studies have underlined the role of strategic reading in L2 reading comprehension (e.g. Koda, 2005; Lau & Chan, 2007; Brown, 2008; Macaro & Erler, 2008; Akkakoson, 2013). If involved in an RSI program, Mozambican university students may perform better through the use of those strategies used by a good language learner. In other words, “bad” learners have to be able to use the techniques or the different devices used by good language learners for acquiring proficiency in L2 reading comprehension (Rubin, 1975 cited in Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). Cook (2001) argues that people who speak more than one language are believed to be more efficient in language learning, and this is the case for students involved in this study, where the majority speaks minimum three languages. Although we do not look at the correlation between the ability to speak more than two languages and reading abilities, according to Cook (2001), we expect that Mozambican students would be good readers or they could become good readers if involved in instruction programs such as the RSI and the ER programs conducted in this study.

In addition, it has been stressed that reading with or without awareness of reading strategies entails a difference in terms of reading comprehension (Macaro & Erler, 2008; Akkakoson, 2013). In this context, a reader who uses a certain reading strategy has an advantage in terms of reading comprehension and language proficiency over a reader who does not use any strategy. This hypothesis was tested in the current study. In this stage we turn into the main concern of this dissertation, reading, considering that by enabling students to become good and strategic readers we can also improve their reading comprehension.

In this context, the current study deals with Mozambican university students’ use of the instructed reading strategies in practical reading activities, and examines if that strategic reading has an effect in their general reading comprehension process. Also, through this study we are going to evaluate how extensive reading programs can have an influence on their reading skills, attitudes, the level of ultimate attainment and how that can promote positive attitudes towards reading.
1.3 Motivation

Our motivation for conducting this study has three levels: the university level which, in this case, is the UEM; the Mozambican national ELT system; and the field of the study itself, reading in a foreign language. This indicates that among the sources of the current research there are academic, language planning and policy issues, as well as theoretical issues related to reading strategies.

Among Mozambican university students we can find several problems but our focus will be mainly on the following three problems:

- lack of knowledge of strategic reading as the result of lack of reading strategy instruction programs throughout the country;

- lack of reading habits derived from lack of extensive reading programs at all school levels and institutions. Low reading speed and ineffective academic reading comprehension source from these problems;

- lack of motivation for reading among the majority of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners, as well as adult literates.

As we can see, there are three main issues with which we are going to deal in this study. The study was conducted in three different phases, and the issues mentioned above will be tackled separately in the three Chapters (4, 5 and 6). By evaluating the role of RSI instruction in students strategic reading comprehension, and by evaluating the role of ER programs in three aspects (speed, comprehension and attitudes towards reading), we aim to answer the questions presented in 1.5 below.

1.4 Study goals

The current study will shed insights on the elements to be included in the future ELT curriculum at UEM, meantime, setting the ground for strategic classrooms which, according to Cohen & Macaro (2007: 92), “foster the development of strategies which will help
learners to manage the contextual complexities and achieve successful outcome given their personal language learning goals”. Below we formulate the general goal, as well as the three specific goals which will be achieved through the different three phases of this study.

**General goal:**
- to improve Mozambican reading comprehension skills through a strategy-based instruction program and extensive reading programs and, therefore, to guarantee fluency, improved reading comprehension and positive attitudes towards reading.

**Specific goals:**
- to evaluate the effect of a strategy-based reading program in relation to students' reading comprehension;
- to evaluate the influence of an extensive reading program on students' reading speed and on their academic reading comprehension skills; and
- to evaluate the effect of an extensive reading program on students reading attitudes towards reading.

As we can see, there are three main issues. All of these specific goals, which correspond to the three stages of this study, will be tackled in a logical order in which the study is presented. According to Richards (2007, cited in Zahrabi, 2010), English courses (and programs, as it is done in the current study) not only need to be designed according to students’ needs, course goals and the objectives of a particular institution, but students also need to engage in language learning in an effective way. In conducting this study, we bear in mind that it contributes to the improvement of reading skills among the students involved and to future courses and programs as well as curriculum design, since these will consider the students' needs, course requirements as well as general requirements for English courses in tertiary education, in other to meet local and global standards (Field, 2000; Cortazzi, 2000; UNESCO, 2003).
1.5 Structure of the dissertation

The complete dissertation is composed of 7 chapters, although it generally deals with the three different specific goals in three different stages, as shown in the previous section. These stages are found from Chapter 4 to Chapter 6. While Chapter 4 deals with the RSI program, Chapters 5 and 6 deal with two ER programs, where the first ER program looks at the relation between reading and both the reading speed and reading comprehension skills, while the second deals with reading and its influence on university students’ attitudes towards reading.

Chapter 1, the introduction, sets the ground of the whole study, showing its context in the Mozambican education system, at Eduardo Mondlane University and within the studies dealing with reading strategies and extensive reading. It also gives a picture of the current status of English in the Mozambican education system, as well as the study goals.

Chapter 2 is the theoretical background on which this dissertation is based. General concepts and theories used as a support of this dissertation are presented here, such as the concept and components of reading comprehension, the notion of strategic reading, extensive reading and reading attitudes. The concept of reading in foreign language is also provided in this section.

Chapter 3 deals with the methodological steps taken in the current study. It indicates where the study was conducted, i.e., the country, university and which faculties, courses and students who were involved in the present study, as well as the methods which were applied in each of the three stages of empirical research.

Chapter 4 is the first stage of the study, and it is entitled “Reading Strategy Instruction (RSI) among Mozambican University Students”. Its main purpose is to answer the following question: Does RSI facilitate effective reading among Mozambican university students? This stage was conducted in the first semester of 2012. Although reading effectively in a foreign language is a challenge for many learners, using reading strategies has been argued to facilitate the reading process and ultimately the use of the learned language (Feng & Mokhtari, 1998). The purpose of this stage was to investigate whether reading strategy instruction would facilitate effective and strategic reading among Mozambican university students. In this stage we have designed and implemented a Reading Strategy Instruction program. The background idea stems from several studies (e.g.
Macaro & Erler, 2008; Akkakoson, 2013) which have found that when involved in an RSI program, students tend to improve their reading comprehension skills as the result of their involvement in the program.

Chapter 5 deals with the second stage of the study and it was conducted in the first semester of 2013. Here, the main purpose was to find out whether a program that involves students in extensive reading activities could also promote reading speed and reading comprehension skills that are necessary for students to deal with academic literature in general, given that these skills are required for students to achieve positive learning outcomes. This chapter is entitled “Enhancing Reading Fluency and Comprehension through Extensive Reading”, and it answers the following questions: What is the effect of an extensive ESL reading program on reading speed among Mozambican English language learners?, and What is the effect of extensive ESL reading on reading comprehension of English academic texts?

Chapter 6 presents the results of the last study phase conducted in the first semester of 2014, under the title: “Extensive Reading and Reading Attitudes among Mozambican University Students”, and it answers the following question: What is the effect of Extensive Reading on reading attitudes in English as a Foreign Language among Mozambican university students? This stage is more concerned with the thoughts and feelings students have about reading itself, which can either change or be maintained throughout an extensive reading program in which students read long texts of their choice. Thus, this last study looked at the existing relation between extensive reading and students’ reading attitudes, where the main goal is to check the influence of ER on students’ reading attitudes after they had been engaged in reading as a free, self-rewarding and a voluntary activity.

Chapter 7 deals with the complete study’s conclusions and recommendations. That is, although there are some concluding remarks in each of the three studies, this chapter recapitulates all the issues from all the previous Chapters 4, 5 and 6, together with some theoretical background from Chapter 2 and draws some final and general conclusions. These conclusions are followed by recommendations which are linked to the practical steps which should be taken at UEM, at the Mozambican Education setting, and in the reading in a foreign language field in general. Also, some of the recommendations point to possible and necessary future studies.
1.6 Mozambican historic and linguistic background

The current study was conducted in Maputo, the capital city of Mozambique (see Fig. 1 below), a Southern African country where several ethnic groups are spread throughout the country. It covers an area of 799,380 sq. km. of which 786,380 sq. km are land and 13,000 sq. km. water, and a coastline of 17,364 km, from Rovuma river in the North to Ponta de Ouro in the South (INE, 2007). The neighbouring countries are Tanzania in the North, Malawi and Zambia in the North-east, Zimbabwe in the West and South Africa and Swaziland in the South. National Institute of Statistics of Mozambique - INE, in 2012 stated the number of inhabitants would rise from 23.7 million to 24.3 million. Currently, the Mozambican population is estimated to be 26,000, 52% women and 48% men. The official language is Portuguese. The majority of university students do not have Portuguese as L1 but as L2 or even L3. Lopes (2004) noted that 90% of the people who use Portuguese as the first language (L1) live in urban areas, while 78% of Bantu L1 speakers live in rural areas. In this country there are 46 Higher Education Institutions, 18 public and 28 private (16 are “higher institutes”, 10 “universities” and 2 “higher schools”), located throughout the country (Langa, 2014b; Langa & Zavale, 2015). It is probable that there has been an increase in the number of private Higher Education Institutions from 2014 until today, though we do not have exact figures indicating such increase.
What is commonly observed in all provinces is the increasing number of private institutions all over the country. This is important because it promotes development mainly in rural areas/districts, since students do not need to move from these areas to the urban ones, and so often their study is a contribution to the local development. However, the increase in private institutions does not seem to be generally proportional to the quality of education.
since some institutions seem to be more concerned with enrolment and monthly fees than with the quality of education, and the enrolled students seem to be more interested in certificates/diplomas than in scientific knowledge. The current study was conducted at one of the public institutions of Higher Education, i.e., Eduardo Mondlane University, in Maputo, the capital of Mozambique. This university, with eleven faculties and four superior schools, is the largest and the oldest (funded in 1962) in the country. The student population of UEM is now estimated to be more than 35000.

Today’s Mozambique is the result of different linguistic and cultural influences (Lopes, 2004). After Bantu people immigrated to Mozambique, coming from the region currently considered as Zambia around the year 1000, the Arabs came as pioneers in the 8th century, followed by Indians, Chinese and Indonesians, before Portuguese colonization started at the end of the 15th century.

Portuguese has been used as the official language since 1975, the year of independence, but there are many unofficial Bantu languages that are used throughout the country. An inquiry conducted by the National Education Institute (1998, cited in Lopes, 2004) notes that Bantu languages most widely spoken in Mozambique are: Emakhuwa, Xitsonga (Xichangana), Cisena, Elomwe, Echuwabo, Cishona, Xitswa, Xirhonga, Cinyanja, Cinyungwe, Cicopi, Ciya, Shimakonde, Gitonga, Ekoti, Kimwani, Kiswahili, Swazi, Cisenga, and Zulu. According to the Demographic and Health Survey (2011), the languages which are mostly spoken in daily interactions are: Emakhuwa (25.4%), Portuguese (12.8%), Xichangana (10.4%), Cisena (7.1%), Elomwe (6.9%), Cinyanja (5.8%).

In terms of the regions, the most spoken languages are Xichangana (11.4%) in the Southern area, Cisena (7.8%) in the Central zone, and Emakhuwa (26.3%) in the Northern area of the country (Ngunga & Fakir, 2011). Apart from the 20 Bantu languages, there are also 4 Asian languages (Gujarati, Memane, Hindi and Urdu), 5 noteworthy European languages (Spanish, Italian, English and French and the Mozambican official language, Portuguese). Then there are foreign minority languages such as Arabic and Chinese. Since colonial territorial division in Africa was not based on linguistic or ethnic boundaries, there are languages spoken in the neighbouring countries which are also spoken in Mozambique (Liphola, 2009). This is the case for Isiswati (spoken in Swaziland), Isizulu (spoken in South Africa), Kunda (spoken in Zimbabwe), and Ciya (spoken in Tanzania). Also, most Mozambican Bantu languages are also spoken in other countries. For instance, Xichangana
is also spoken in Malawi, Zimbabwe, South Africa and Swaziland (Muturzikin, 2007; Timbane, 2012).

Finally, there is Swahili, which is also an official language in the African Union, and which is a mother tongue in Mozambique, Madagascar, Malawi, Rwanda and Burundi, and also spoken in Tanzania, Kenya, Comoros, Congo, Uganda (Timbane, 2013). There is also pressure to enable Mozambican Sign Language to be involved in the Mozambican education system, and the first Mozambican Sign Language dictionary has already been published by the Centre of African Studies (Ngunga, et al., 2013).

Mozambican linguists are debating on the real number of Bantu languages spoken in Mozambique. Ngunga (2011), while talking about Mozambican languages, shows a table with different numbers of languages mentioned by different Mozambican linguists, where the lowest number is 13 by Yai (1983) and the highest number is 43, indicated by Liphola (2009), both cited in Ngunga (2011). The discussion on the real number of Bantu languages stems from a lack of distinction, for instance, between language and group of languages, or between language and dialect (Rego, 2012). Therefore, a more detailed map with the real number of all the languages spoken in Mozambique (including those spoken by minorities) is still needed in Mozambique. Hopefully, NELIMO, a unit dedicated to Mozambican language studies at UEM, will lead us to the desired and conclusive map.

In 1975, in the 1st National Meeting on Information, the role of Portuguese was stressed as the language for national unification, instruction and the language of wider communication at the national level. The use of Bantu languages in the domestic environment and in community radios was underlined here. In 1979 there was the 1st National Seminar on Portuguese Language Teaching in which participants talked about the need of investigating the Bantu languages as well. During the colonial period until then, Bantu languages had been ignored and called dialects, and this downplayed both the languages and Mozambican culture in general, which is why culture of assimilation emerged. Assimilated persons imitated the colonizers’ culture, speaking Portuguese and ignoring their Bantu languages which are their mother tongues. This constituted a cultural ambivalence that left the majority between two cultures, not purely black/Mozambican and not purely white/Portuguese. That is part of the explanation regarding that fact that Bantu languages did not have corpus planning until the 1st Seminar of Harmonization of the Orthographies of Mozambican Languages held in 1987 by NELIMO (Mozambican Languages Studies Centre), with the
purpose of establishing official orthographic systems for each national language, so that all of them could have similar orthographies (Firmino, 2005). As a result, it is estimated that about 15 of the Mozambican Bantu languages now have an official orthographic system. As for literacy rate in Mozambique, it is estimated to be 44% (WHO Afro, 2007) for a population aged 15 and over.

1.7 General issues in the Mozambican education system

It is important to note that some of the reading problems faced by Mozambican English learners are the result of problems within the education system itself and they spread throughout the primary to the tertiary level as detailed below. Looking at the reading problem in a historical perspective, we can find that before 1990 education was more teacher-centred than it became later, from 1995 until today. The influence of Skinner’s behaviourist theories (Chomsky, 1965) enabled students to deal with mathematics (e.g. multiplication), enhanced reading and interpretation abilities than current primary school pupils. Reading aloud simultaneously or subsequently (Chomsky, 1978), dictation, copying texts manually, and repeated reading of long texts with the explicit help of the teacher (Moyer, 1982; Han & Chen, 2010) were some teaching and learning techniques which were important both for reading comprehension and for writing strategies. These techniques contributed to development of reading comprehension abilities and to learning outcomes in general.

Before the 90’s, there was a lack of teaching and learning materials and no such ICT tools as students have today. Apart from flash drives and computers, students simply used their human memory to store information and knowledge. Single reliance on external drives is therefore the negative use of ICTs. Nowadays, learner-centred approaches have brought students’ independence. For instance, there is a focus on expository abilities (such as presentation) which put the student in the centre of the learning process. In Mozambique, there are also several private institutions and students have many more options for studying especially in urban areas. However, it seems that the quality of education is not proportional to the increase in the number of institutions (Zavale et al., 2015) and to new technological
developments, and this can be seen looking at reading comprehension achievements among Mozambican university students.

The main points underlined by Rosário (2009), and which are still the “Achilles heel” in the current Mozambican education system stem from: overcrowded classrooms; poor diet among many students; high dropout rates; inadequate teaching methods (Celece-Muria, 1991); calamitous school failure; poor and in some areas, inexistent libraries; weak implementation of the information technology in the education system; unacceptable options in the policy decisions regarding education and culture. In addition to policy decisions, teachers and learners seem to be less motivated than before, or the system has undergone some internal problems which, according to my experience as a student and a lecturer in Mozambique, shape the current education system, and these are enlisted below.

The issues presented below are not specific to a certain institution, but are the result of observation and evaluation of the whole system from the primary to the tertiary level:

   a) Most students have built a negative mindset which evolves from the primary to the university level. This has to do with the phenomenon of passing exams even without good grades but in exchange for money or even illegal exchanges when it involves student girls and male teachers (resulting in pregnancy and dropout). That is, students can still pass a certain class but the possibility of being successful at university level is being gradually reduced. As Stevick (1980: 4) puts it, “success depends less on materials, techniques, and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom”. Therefore, regarding students’ academic learning outcome, learner beliefs (i.e. generally what learners bring into the classroom learning environment which may be based on their cultural background or even their learning experience) give them a considerable advantage and consequent lack of effort for getting higher grades (Kim-Yoon, 2000; Barcelos, 2000; Barcelos & Kalaja, 2003).

Moreover, most students do not do their homework since they know teachers will do nothing to punish them for disobedience, and that is linked to a lack of respect between teachers and students. In addition to that, Mozambican scholars and newspapers have already reported drug and alcohol consumption inside school settings. For instance, Gildo Nhanala, a teacher at Josina Machel Secondary School, interviewed by A Verdade, on the 11th May 2010, reported
that “what we face in the evening classes here at school is worrisome, since students sell and use heavy drugs at school and they also promote prostitution, as well as crime”.

b) Most teachers in the education system have not undertaken a pedagogical training for the purpose. In fact, most of them were trained in several different areas at university level, but lack of employment leaves Education as the last option, where one can spend time while waiting for a better job with higher wages. As a result, students are exposed to unskilled teachers who not only do not have pedagogical skills, but who also sometimes do not have a background in some academic fields (e.g. when a teacher with a degree in chemistry is teaching Portuguese language or a teacher with a degree in accounting is teaching biology). These are the “underqualified”, “out-of-field”, and “inexperienced teachers” referred to by Borman & Kimball (2004: 1). Looking at instruction in L2 reading, the situation is even worse because our Mozambican situation is similar to that found by García et al. (1993), where there are insufficient materials for preservice and inservice teachers to knowledgeably and technically deal with second-language readers. Linked to this is what half of the teachers (50%) involved in a study we conducted in 2012 on learner beliefs and expectations in language learning and teaching believe (Nhapulo, 2013). These teachers agree that Mozambican teachers are not good readers, and they reckon that they did not acquire reading habits as students. In fact, Lopes (2001), a Mozambican professor and researcher has stated that a lack of qualified English teachers is among the stumbling blocks in the Mozambican education system. As a result, it becomes obvious that most current teachers do not have reading habits (not even reading strategies), and that is the same among some librarians (Issak, 2009). An important aspect to bear in mind is that the fact that teachers do not engage themselves in reading activities may be the result of not having had ER programs throughout their academic lives and, now that they are teachers, with the busy timetables and crowded classrooms they have, it becomes even much more difficult for them to engage in free and voluntary reading. This seems to show that the problems university students have are the result of weaknesses in their previous academic training at the primary and especially at
the secondary level. As a matter of fact, research by Sanders & Rivers (1998, cited in Borman & Kimball, 2004: 1) showed that “teacher effects can be enduring and cumulative, whether they advance student achievement or leave children behind”. Sanders & Rivers (1998) have conducted a research that after two years showed that the performance of fifth grade students was affected by the quality of their third-grade teacher. Also, similar to the findings of Rowan, Correnti and Miller (2002) regarding the relation between teachers and students’ learning outcome, students who had the same levels of achievement could have different learning outcomes as a result of the sequence of teachers to which they are assigned. In fact, Coleman et al. (1966) found that teacher characteristic explained more variance in student achievement than any other school resource. However, in spite of showing the gaps in the education system, the current study is one of the steps that need to be taken at the university level, in order to tackle and find solutions for reading comprehension problems among university students.

c) With the emergence of several private institutions, the so-called “turbo teachers”\(^1\) phenomenon emerges. Following the turbo teachers’ phenomenon is the privatization of education or the “knowledge business”\(^2\). The turbo teachers’ phenomenon seems to date from many years ago, and teachers have been using this strategy to make sure that their income is enough for their monthly savings and survival. As mentioned earlier, I have conducted a study on teacher and learner beliefs and expectations about English language learning and teaching, involving 20 ELT course students, 20 Portuguese/English Translation and Interpretation course and 10 university lecturers at UEM (Nhapulo, 2013). Regarding teacher availability, all teachers (100%) involved in this study expect

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\(^1\) Turbo is a nickname for those teachers who work in more than 2 teaching institutions in order to guarantee a good salary.

\(^2\) The same teachers working at public institutions build another private (even smaller) institution where they strive for better conditions and higher salaries. Sometimes, even at public universities, evening classes and courses are designed in a sense that seems to be privatization of public places.
that students will explicitly make an appointment if they require help, while the
majority of students (85%) believe that teachers should be available on certain
days and at certain times each week. That is, while 85% of students expect
teachers to indicate days, time and place students can contact teachers for further
clarifications outside the classroom learning environment, 100% of teachers
expect students to make an appointment. Here, some students do not ask for
assistance outside the classroom environment if teachers do not provide them
with a timetable for that purpose. These results are congruent with those of the
Global Report on the 1st Cycle of Courses Self-Assessment at UEM, which
shows that only 50% of the graduates feel satisfied with the availability of the
teachers outside the classroom learning environment (Zavale et al., 2014). This
means that the expectations students have about teachers’ availability is not met
in their learning context and that may even result in students keeping
questions/doubts until when they are involved in testing or examinations.
Furthermore, this is somehow related to the collectivist culture among
Mozambican students. Warring & Huber-Warring (2006: 122) state that
collectivist students require that some sort of personal relationship is established
between teacher and students. This can be seen as a negative point, mainly in
cases where instructions are not clearly presented and students can also
participate less in the discussions, because of a sense of social and power
distance (Hofstede, 2002) between them and their teachers.

d) For most teachers, the teaching profession is the last thing to be considered and
that results in their increased absence at schools, leaving students unguided and
untaught (A Verdade, 22.08.16). To fill this gap, most teachers give individual
and group work to their students (some of these assignments are not even topics
at the level of their students, but they do so because they want to use the same
assignments for their personal academic purposes, thus disrupting the normal
flow of the syllabus). For most of such individual or group work, students rely
on copying from google and pasting to their assignments. As we can see, lack of
professionalism and commitment affects the education system, and research on
quality teaching still needs to be undertaken in Mozambique. In general, this
suggests that standards-based teacher evaluation systems need to be introduced
in the Mozambican education system, so that teaching practice can be assessed using a set of requisites which will guarantee the enhancement of instruction and will strengthen educational accountability (Borman & Kimball, 2004).

e) Since some of the tests at primary and secondary level are designed at the city or even at the country level and then sent to schools, what happens is that most students struggle with topics that they see for the first time in tests and examinations, whether because they did not care about studying (because they did not pay attention, they were absent, or were in class but playing online) or because the teacher did not even deal with the topics. Apart from negligence of both the teachers and the learners, this sets the problem of content validity, which is the “attempt to show that the content of the test is a representative sample from the domain that is to be tested” (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007: 4). In reading, the texts used in testing have to correspond to the ability students have to understand text content and to answer the respective questions. Here, the problem is twofold: first, the fact that not all teachers use the formal syllabus is the source of the problems students face within the large-scale testing and assessment system used in Mozambique, because there is a difference between large-scale educational assessment and the context of the classroom. Each classroom has its own learning environment depending on the teacher’s professional skills, students’ behaviour, learning skills, and even the classroom syllabus referred to by Hutchinson & Waters (1987). Second, due to what we have shown previously, “it is not always easy to take the principles from large-scale assessment and apply these directly to what is done in the classroom. This is often why teachers are ‘wary’ of the language of language testing, and wonder why it is relevant to their day-to-day work” (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007: 24).

f) Overcrowded classrooms and busy timetables (Rosário, 2009) do not allow teachers to know the real problems of their individual students and they do not have time even for correcting the assignments given to students. Proper attention is not given to the evaluation of the students’ academic progress. Lack of support from the family is also within this problematic issue, since most parents do not understand what their children are doing at school whether because they are not
literate or because they do not find time to understand possible problems their children face at school. For instance, regarding reading habits, it has been found that learners who do not have reading models in their family setting do not have habits of reading for pleasure, and this is the problem for the majority of university students in Mozambique today. That is, the support given by and the environment found among family members (Bintz, 1993) are among the factors that contribute to whether one loves or dislikes reading activities in general.

Last but not least is that there is often work overload for both teachers and students, which may sometimes be against the normal cognitive development of the pupils. That is, the number of students, and the number and type of subjects taught specially at the primary level does not take into account developmental stages (Piaget, 1956) in relation to acquisition of certain abilities and, specially, reading abilities. For instance, students doing grade 6 and 7 have 10 subjects in the Mozambican education system.

What we have shown so far is a brief overview regarding general problems found within the Mozambican education system. This section was only related to aspects which affect the main issue in our research, reading. There are several other issues which need further research with the purpose of bringing to light possible explanations and future solutions which will contribute to the improvement not only of reading comprehension, but also of the system as a whole. In sum, there is a need of a thorough investigation of the increasing problems in the Mozambican education system which can undermine the quality of education for present and future generations. Linked to a lack of reading habits, Mozambican students would never become good learners and, specifically, good readers of challenging texts (Almasi, 2003), if no innovations (including effective teacher training, monitoring and evaluation) are made within the whole system. This enables us to hypothesise that the reading problems current university students face at the university level are the result of the flaws in the language planning and language policy in their previous education (at primary and secondary level).
The students involved in this study entered university after they had five years of English classes at the secondary level, added to the two or three years they attended English classes at university (depending on the study programs, since they were three programs conducted within different courses and different academic years). These students should not have reading problems if effective language planning and policy were translated into practical implementation.

According to Lopes (2004: 88), “language planning consists of a group of activities envisaging language changes with a particular group of speakers, with the intention, as far as the competent authorities are concerned, of maintaining the civil order, preserving cultural identity and improving communication. Language policy consists of a group of ideas, laws, regulations, rules and practices that aim at bringing about projected language change in this community”. For instance, reading proficiency objectives in the Grade 12 Curriculum (2010: 10), underline that at the end of grade 12 students should be able to “read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints. Understand contemporary literary prose and narrative”. What students are supposed to master does not always match their learning outcomes, because students entering university program still have a lack of the English language skills required to understand contemporary prose and narrative.

An international and global phenomenon observed in Mozambique as well is that Mozambicans need English to communicate with their neighbouring countries (since Mozambique is surrounded by English-speaking countries); English is the language of wider communication, technology and science, as well as the business market; English has been adopted as the language of instruction, and it is taught in many other countries in the world as a subject to be accomplished as an optional or as a compulsory academic requirement. Finally, it is the language which is mostly used for academic purposes, even in Portuguese speaking countries like Mozambique, especially at university level, where most academic literature is in English.

In the Mozambican education system, students have to study English from grade 6 at the primary school onwards to university level. The number of English students at different levels from primary to university level, in teacher training centres and in private schools
has been increasing steadily. Furthermore, Southern Africa’s Regional Integration and the fact that Mozambique is a member country of the Commonwealth community, clearly show that English is an essential and crucial tool for communication, business and education for all Mozambicans today (Lopes, 1997). Unfortunately, English is still a stumbling block for the majority of university students in Mozambique. Lack of competence in the English language may directly or indirectly have a negative influence on the students’ proficiency in any university course.

Looking at the world, English has a considerable if not a crucial role in education, since school systems require students to learn English for access to information and to be able to compete economically and professionally (Crystal, 1995, cited in Grabe, 2009). Therefore, English has been introduced in all university courses at UEM. Even for students taking, for instance, Engineering or Physics, English is important so as to be able to understand the reading materials which are available in the local libraries and online. This explains why we need to bear in mind that improving English language skills among university students is also enabling them to achieve the desired learning outcomes not only in English language readings, and not only at Eduardo Mondlane University, but also in many other academic contexts at the national and international level.

Moreover, Mozambique is surrounded by English-speaking countries where, after independence, English was used as the only official language or side by side with other local language(s), as the first or second language. Therefore, historical, economic, technological and academic reasons may explain the large spread of the English language all over the world and, it is because of this spread that Mozambique has adopted it for economic, social, professional and academic purposes. Graddol (2006) notes that currently we are in a “Global English” period, where English is used in countries with different cultural, political, economic and linguistic realities. In these different contexts, English transforms the world and it is also transformed by the world, which is why “Englishes” is used for the different varieties found in different countries where English is spoken.

As English learners and teachers, what we need is becoming globally provincial (Ortiz, 2004), which suggests that we do not need to be only aware of global trends (such as being aware of the world “Englishes”), but we also need to respect our own diversity, so as to avoid being invisible and covered by the wave of globalization. This also indicates that in Second/Foreign Language Acquisition - SLA, the aim is no longer being native-speaker-
like, as it was in the past. Nowadays, what is important is acquiring the language in order to fulfil different tasks in our professional, academic and social lives. Curiously, English is not the only language widely spoken these days. Graddol (2006) underlines the fact that Chinese has the largest number of native speakers, and reminds us to be aware of the rapid spread of Spanish and of the most rapid demographic growth of the Arabic language. In spite of all these developments, English still governs the scientific setting. That explains why our focus is on improving its use at Mozambican universities.

Looking at the academic setting in Mozambique, there is a steady increase of teachers’ training centres and private English schools throughout the country. Apart from the Institute of Languages, which has its headquarters in the capital city but with many branches throughout the country, there also are new and many private English Schools which do not only teach General English, but also target professional courses such as “Practical Oral English Courses”. Looking at these institutions throughout the cities, one can see that most of their students are not deeply interested in reading, but mainly in speaking practice that will allow them to survive in future social and professional settings. In spite of that, the increase in private English schools may be the reflection of an increase in the number of English students at different academic levels who seek opportunities to learn the English language.

English is also used as an official language in the SADC\(^3\), side by side with Portuguese. However, during SADC meetings, when it comes to actual practice, English is used exclusively as the official language (Lopes, 2004). English has been spoken in Mozambique since the 19\(^{th}\) century when many Mozambicans migrated to English-speaking countries (Dias, 1998). This was also due to the fact that the Portuguese government in Mozambique had agreements over a system of labour recruitment with South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe and Malawi. This explains why currently there are many words in Bantu languages that are borrowed from English, among them, words like *chileti* - slate (Xichangana – English); *baseni* – basin (Cinyanja – English). Moreover, the influence of English on Bantu languages can also be found in individual Cicopi names like Faife (five), Siquisse (six), Nayene (nine), Fiftine (fifteen) (Firmino, 2005; Timbane, 2012).

\(^3\) South African Development Community.
Before Mozambican independence in 1975, English was taught from the secondary school level to the university level, while now it is taught from the primary level (i.e. grade 6 onwards). Since Mozambique became part of the SADC and Commonwealth community, English has been taught not only at schools, but in other public and private institutions throughout the country. Few skilled teachers, low salaries, as well as lack of materials have been pointed out as the problems English teaching faced in the 80s (Dias, 1998), and some of these problems are still the reason for students’ reading weaknesses today. Nowadays, most of the turbo teachers prefer working at private institutions to public ones, because usually the private sector pays higher salaries and has better working conditions.

Therefore, for those who do not have enough money to pay for private schools, to access the internet and to buy learning materials - which is the majority of Mozambicans – no good linguistic competence will be achieved without individual effort, with the exception of those who are already involved in self-directed learning activities (Wenden, 2002) and resource centres. With many public and private teacher training universities and centres in Mozambique, there are more and more schooling alternatives. It is important to note here that there are language schools almost everywhere, mainly in urban areas. Some suburban residents point out that there is also good English teaching quality in the suburban neighbourhoods (Nhapulo, 2011), since some newly opened private schools in urban areas are there simply for business and not for academic purposes.

Although there are no figures showing English language speakers in Mozambique so far, it is currently spoken in elite and rich families, among those families whose children study at international schools which use English as the language of instruction or among those parents who are willing to send their children to study abroad. We also find English speakers in small elite groups such as those of politicians, people in foreign trade, diplomats, academics and artists (Lopes, 1997). Speaking English is also associated with a higher status, which is why sometimes it is used just to show the social prestige one has (Firmino, 2005). The only place in the whole country where two in five young students know how to speak English as a foreign language is at the KaMubukwana District, Inhagoia Community (with the nickname of “Inglaterra”, which means England). In this area it is common to find small and private classrooms in family settings (e.g. garages and small rooms) and people from suburban and urban areas go there for English classes. Here, English feeds the youth entrepreneurism spirit and it is used for normal social interaction and not to show a higher
social status as such (Nhapulo, 2011). The reason why this suburban area has many English
speakers is both linguistic and historical. The ethnic group living here is from Gaza and a
small part of them from Inhambane and they are all Cicopi speakers, a language with many
words borrowed from English (although this also happens with many other Bantu
languages). Historically, this area was also the area of English speakers and some of the
English teachers in Mozambique used to go there for English lessons, before many private
and modern-fashioned institutions were opened in urban areas. It is common among
students living in Maputo to learn English in the so-called “English Preschools” (Nhapulo,
2011: 8). In fact, 70% of the teachers believe that they learned English in informal settings
and not in formal settings and public schools (Nhapulo, 2013). Therefore, what is mostly
observed in suburban areas is that most young people, whether student or not, learn English
in private and informal places. Most of these go to formal and well-known institutions only
in search of a formal certificate that may be necessary in future academic and professional
circumstances.

1.9 Reading in Mozambique

Mozambican students do not have many opportunities to read in their Bantu languages, in
Portuguese and not even in the English language, which is the focus of our study. There are
no extensive reading programs from the primary to the university level in Mozambique, but
simply alphabetization programs which do not enable readers to achieve the ultimate goal
of reading. Different from intensive reading (i.e. reading short texts with the purpose of
learning from texts), ER is an enjoyable reading practice which increases the readers’
reading rate and comprehension through easy-to-read texts, and students choose what, when
and where they individually read their large number of texts, and comprehension is checked
through summaries and reports or other means. Note that alphabetization programs are those
in which readers get in contact with the (Portuguese) language for the first time, so that they
can acquire some basic decoding skills (Mário & Nandja, 2005). In addition, according to
Buendía (2010), alphabetization should not be seen as the ability to decode the printed text
only, but it also means knowing how to use the written language in several situations,
reading and writing texts, understanding what is read and being able to be creative in language use. Thus, through alphabetization people should learn not only to read and write, but they also should learn how to use reading and writing in several social, academic and professional contexts, as well as developing positive attitudes towards reading.

All students involved in our study started reading in Portuguese, the official language in Mozambique and the language of instruction, and not in their mother tongues, unless Portuguese is the mother tongue (for more information about the participants see Chapter 3, section 3.2). The only readings (both in Portuguese and English) Mozambican students have at school are part of intensive reading and not of extensive reading. In Mozambique, from grade 6 onwards when the English language is currently introduced (Nhapulo, 2013), i.e. around the age of 11, we only find intensive reading activities in this language. The aim of intensive reading is to teach certain content, where all students are given an excerpt from the same difficult texts to read in the classroom and where questions are used to check comprehension. Although they involve difficult readings, these intensive reading activities are also necessary for academic purposes because they enable students to become aware of many linguistic and communicative features of the language.

In order to improve students’ reading comprehension abilities in the Mozambican system, there was an introduction of a new reading program designated the “National Program for the Incentive of Reading” (PROLER) in 1992, linked to the National Library Fund within the Ministry of Culture. The main goals of the program were: promoting the interest in reading and writing at the national level; guaranteeing national policies for an easy access to readings which, in turn, could contribute to the National Policy on Reading; promoting collaboration in the promotion of reading in the Mozambican society; promoting research on reading and writing and promoting a Reference Centre on reading. Years went by and the written goals never came to a completed practice, although with efforts undertaken for several years until the first “National Seminar for the Analysis of the Reading-Writing Teaching Process at the Primary Level”, organized by the Ministry of Education, from 18 to 19 November, 2009. At this seminar, Rosário (2009) pointed out that the policies were still looking at enhancing reading skills simply as promoting alphabetization within communities, targeting both children at the primary level and older people who had not had opportunities of schooling in their early ages. As it is obvious, the view on reading here is
simply the ability to decode the printed text, i.e., technical reading, which is not the ultimate goal of reading comprehension.

It is in this context that Buendía (2010), when talking about reading challenges in Mozambique, stated that there is need to define policies and strategies which take into consideration the promotion of reading materials, the empowerment of the existing libraries and the creation of new libraries. Issak (2009), a Mozambican librarian, has noted that school libraries are important in the promotion of reading habits, since reading is also part of enculturation and readers need to be used to it from the primary level. However, in Mozambique schools with school libraries are the exception rather than the rule. Libraries need reading materials and new technologies which enable an easy access to readings. This is a step forward in the promotion of reading habits and it can be achieved if Education authorities and several organizations interested in promoting reading, collaborate at all levels.

We have mentioned earlier that in Mozambique, most students do not start reading in their L1. All the students involved in the current study started reading in the Portuguese language (which is the L1 for a few students from urban areas) because Bantu languages did not have corpus language planning until the “1st Seminar of Harmonization of the Orthographies of Mozambican Languages” held in 1987 by NELIMO (Mozambican Languages Studies Centre). The purpose of this harmonization was that of establishing official orthographic systems for each national language, so that all of them could have similar orthographies (Firmino, 2005).

It was only recently that the National Institute of Education Development started “An Experience of Bilingual Education in Mozambique” project, which had to do with bilingual education in primary schools. This program was introduced in 2003, involving 16 Bantu languages and 15,000 students from all the 10 provinces. Students were supposed to use only a Bantu language up to grade 3 and from grade 4 to 5, they had to use both their L1 and the Portuguese language as L2. The previous project, the Bilingual Schooling Project in Mozambique (1993 to 1997), had shown methodological problems, since teachers initially used the same methodologies for both the L1 and the L2. This is why the new program introduced in 2003 was basically aimed at improving the quality of education, now that it became much easier for students to learn in their mother tongues and then transfer their abilities to the L2. The program also motivated students to stay at school, reducing the
number of students who gave up school because of the exclusive use of the L2. All these steps showed that linguistic revitalization and cultural valorisation derived from L1 use raises students’ self-esteem as well (Chimbutana, 2003). However, even when steps have been taken for Bantu language revitalization, Lopes (2001) points out that among the new generation Portuguese seems to overpower any Bantu language.

Regarding literature, Mozambicans have an oral tradition. Oral literature is not only part of recreation during moonlight nights or around fireplaces, but it also has a didactic function. Most of the shared literary stories are orally transmitted in Bantu languages from generation to generation and they are limited to the family setting. Since TV and other electronic devices are mostly used in the urban areas, habits of telling stories are mostly found in rural areas. In oral literature, for instance, we find stories which are related to the children’s daily lives in their communities, and these bring important examples of good behaviour. Therefore, the implicit function of oral literature is cultural, moral, artistic, and historical and it also involves anthropological elements of a certain community (Rosário, 1989).

In 2009, the School Libraries’ Network and the National Reading Plan in Mozambique started a cooperation in which the main objective was to promote reading in Mozambican schools. The cooperation has at least shown that reading skills promotion activities are to be targeted in libraries, but Mozambican schools lack libraries and reading materials. This proved to be a stumbling block for such cooperation, added to the fact that, within the curriculum, reading is not yet considered as an activity conducted outside the classroom, since it is limited to the common practice of intensive reading. Next to this, in Mozambique there have been reading activities aimed at enabling elders to have basic reading skills. These literacy programs were mostly conducted by non-governmental organizations, where UDEBA-LAB (Gaza) and ASSOCIAÇÃO PROGRESSO (Cabo Delgado and Niassa) are the two best examples of the work undertaken by NGOs (Chimbutana & Stroud, 2012). Similar literacy programs started in 1975 (the national independence year), when they were considered as part of social and economic development strategies, but they slowed down from 1980 to 1995 due to the civil war, and they were revitalized in 1995. However, in 2005 the index of illiteracy in Mozambique was still estimated to be 53.6% (Mário & Nandja, 2006). Although the Mozambican government still emphasizes the role of these literacy programs, there is one important aspect that needs to be underlined here, which is the one shared by Rosário (2009), when he says that knowing the alphabet does not mean that one
is a reader, because reading words and comprehending their meaning are two separate yet linked aspects of the reading component.

More recently, we find “Fundo Bibliográfico da Língua Portuguesa” (FBLP), a national institution which has been developing a Portuguese Reading/Comprehension Program in Mozambique. This institution has two goals: to increase the reading rate among students, and to gather information regarding what Mozambican people (especially students) read. The second goal is to analyse general issues related to reading in Mozambique. The program has the National Institute for the Development of Education (INDE), the national TV and Radio as its partners. More specifically, the program has three approaches. Firstly, the program aims at training individuals who are going to become trainers of secondary school teachers and school libraries managers who will, in turn, promote reading. Secondly, the program aims at training people who can promote reading and group discussions within public libraries. Finally, the program has a TV program (currently in its fourth edition) and Radio programs which deal with several reading topics. These TV and Radio programs promote reading habits among primary, secondary and university students. The program aims at promoting reading habits among students from grade 7 to grade 10 (through reading competitions). It also promotes the ability to debate readings in order to improve linguistic and communicative skills among university students (through reading & debating competitions as well). Although the program is conducted in the Portuguese language (which is not the language on which we focus in the current study), still it is obvious that the program is implemented later (grade 7) than it should. Since Mozambican students do not have informal incentives to reading at the family setting (Bintz, 1993; Yamashita, 2008; Morni & Sahari, 2013), the school setting should fill the gap as early as possible. Considering that the English language is introduced at the primary school level, similar (and ER) programs should be promoted using the English language and targeting Mozambican secondary school and university students, with special incidence at the secondary level.

Taking into account that having graded readers and engaging students in an ER program is necessary to enable them to improve reading skills and language competence in general, depending on the length of its implementation, a lack of ER programs in Mozambique may reduce reading comprehension skills among Mozambican university students. This is due to the fact that there are no ER programs as from primary schools to university level, although elsewhere recent studies have already shown that extensive reading not only
prompts fluency (Iwahori, 2008), but it also improves reading comprehension (Krashen 1993; Day & Bamford, 1998, 2002; Rasinski, 2004; Samuels, 2006; Iwahori, 2008). According to these studies, extensive reading is also beneficial to enable readers to become competent and fluent readers, since exposition to a large number of readings enables readers to be in contact with different sorts of texts, vocabulary, and several grammatical structures which, in turn, enable language learning.

In addition, the idea that university students and even some librarians are not used to reading, and neither is the majority of the literate adults, is also supported by Rosário (2009) and Issak (2009). Rosário (2009) noted that Mozambican secondary and university students are not good readers, even when they may be able to read fast. That is, reading with a considerable speed does not mean that there is also the same pace in reading comprehension, since at the end of a certain reading some students may still not understand what they have just read. Rosário (2009) has also underlined that these students are missing the knowledge which can be gained from reading, because reading is not only a pleasurable task, but it is self-awarding in that it promotes scientific, historical, literary, political, religious, geographical and philosophical knowledge.

In fact, there are many books from Mozambican literature which should be translated into English for students to read them in book clubs or other kinds of extensive reading programs, since we have Mozambicans who write in Bantu languages, Portuguese, Italian and in the English language itself. To our knowledge there are more than ten books translated from Bantu languages and Portuguese into English, and these include poetry, novels and short stories mostly by Mia Couto, José Craveirinha, Ungulani Ba Ka Khosa, Paulina Chiziane, among other writers, as well as novels, short stories and poetry written originally in English and Italian by Mozambican writers and poets (e.g. Mon Ami, Tanguene, Dírio Dambile). Unfortunately, Mozambican writers and poets writing in English are still not well-known in Mozambique but abroad, since some of these have already won international prizes, they have published short stories and poems in British, Portuguese and Italian printed collections, anthologies and websites, and they have also conducted extensive reading activities face-to-face, online and on the local radio (Maputo Corridor Radio). One of the motivating aspects among these writers is the inclusion of the poem "At the Bus Stop" (international prize) by Tanguene in the English textbook of grade 10, published by Plural Editores in Mozambique.
1.10 Reading at Eduardo Mondlane University

The introduction of English in all of the courses at UEM has the final goal of enabling students to deal with academic literature found in the Faculties’ libraries, which is generally written in English. In fact, Lopes (2004) noted that about 65% of the technical and technological literature is only available in English at UEM and in most of the existing libraries in Mozambique. This is one of the reasons why most Mozambican university students skip reading materials, since they are sometimes dealing with a language they cannot cope with. The students involved in the current study had 2 to 3 years of English classes at UEM, added to the 5 years they had in secondary school (from grade 8 to grade 12). In spite of that, students like these still struggle with IELTS and TOEFL exams whenever they want to study abroad where English is used as the medium of instruction. These and other problems at the local university were important in the design of the current study.

Obviously, some students perform better than others, and this entails the need for explanations for differential success among them. Although there are students who perform well, most students struggle with English itself and with the learning materials, since most of the scientific literature in our libraries is written in English. Therefore, being a good student in any academic course becomes little by little a matter of being good at English. Most Mozambican university students with whom we had contact as their lecturers, look for a translator when given an English text by a teacher, and most of the times they do not find one and, even when they do find one, s/he may not be a good translator. Mozambican students struggle with the language (language problem) in which the content is written and then they struggle with understanding the texts’ content, due to lack of academic reading skills (reading problem). Consequently, it seems as if the problem among these university students is both a language and a reading problem, and the need to examine whether the field of second language reading should focus principally on the reading issues or on the language issues was also pointed out by Alderson & Urquhart (1984). Cabinda (2014) used

IELTS tests to evaluate the degree of strategy use and L2 language proficiency and he found that Mozambican university students did not have higher scores in the L2 comprehension test due to their L2 proficiency level. This suggests that these students have a language problem that affects their reading abilities (reading problem). This is also linked to the compensatory model of L2 reading, since reading comprehension does not depend only on L2 proficiency, but also it is linked to other variables such as motivation, interest, as well as the ability to use reading strategies to monitor reading comprehension (Bernhardt, 2011). Regarding this reading problem at UEM, Cabinda (2013) has already noted that the textbooks used in the existing courses at UEM have not been reviewed for more than 20 years. The problem, according to Cabinda (2013), is that there has been no previous needs analysis study which could have justified their introduction in the curriculum (except for the remedial step of using Headway and the First Certificate textbooks). West (1998, cited in Cabinda, 2013) has shown that these textbooks used at UEM have been criticized because of their focus on word and sentence level. We do not argue against Cabinda (2013)’s findings regarding the need for curriculum innovation, but we would like to add some complementary information about the purpose of updating readers for the ongoing teaching activities within the English Section at UEM. Cabinda (2013) noted that Headway and First Certificate were introduced at UEM without a previous and formal needs analysis study. This is true, but it is also relevant to consider and appreciate the effort undertaken by the English Section staff through several technical meetings where issues related to curriculum innovation were discussed. Although Headway was used by some lecturers within the English Language Teaching (ELT) and the English/Portuguese Translation and Interpretation courses (E/P T/I) courses, which are the main courses within the English Section, Headway was mostly used in the ESP courses throughout the university. Nowadays Headway is not mostly used in almost all of the newly introduced ESP courses at UEM. What happens in general is that each lecturer is given a syllabus for the course which s/he has to teach (for instance, when a lecturer is assigned to teach English in the Journalism program) and s/he finds materials which are suitable for that specific course according to a certain syllabus designed by course coordinators (who do not have background in ELT). In my experience as an ESP lecturer at different faculties and courses, this is something that requires further research and understanding since most of the syllabi found in different faculties have not been designed by ELT professionals and in most courses students struggle
both with the language and the content, because the language level of the input is higher than the actual proficiency level of the students. The textbooks that are currently used in the ELT and E/P T/I courses include the Complete First Certificate (2008), used for English I (Chapter I to V), English II (Chapter VI to X) and English III (Chapter XI to XVI), and Complete CAE (Certificate in Advanced English) (2009), used for English IV (I to V), English V (Chapter VI to X) and English VI (Chapter XI to XIV). Note that until 2012, the English language within the two courses was taught from English I to English VIII, but from 2013 to date students are taught from English I to English VI. This does not mean that English VII and VIII were not important, but their content is currently within two compulsory subjects, i.e., Descriptive Linguistics of Portuguese and Descriptive Linguistics of English. This is simply a matter of curriculum innovation, and it indicates that the Department of Languages and, specifically, the English Section, is aware of the need to make some curricular improvements, although conditions are not always suitable for change and innovation. For instance, although Headway and the First Certificate are more concerned with English at the word and sentence level, it is important to note that most lecturers at UEM are aware of that, since they do not use these two textbooks as the sole materials for English teaching. English classes involve other readings and materials that are complementary to these basic textbooks. For instance, if a teacher is teaching expressions used to show purpose, reason and result (CAE, 2009: 150), s/he will not limit the class to expressions such as "with the purpose of", "otherwise" and "consequently", but s/he will find a suitable reading where students can see these expressions applied in different contexts.

Another aspect found at the UEM is that most of the lecturers at this university are chosen among the best students in their final year. The problem appears when these students become teachers. Then a vicious cycle is created, starting with a student who is not well-trained in academic reading skills. This student is as lecturer at the same university because s/he is one of the best or even the best student in his/her class and throughout the course. Then this student has to teach English to other new ELT students who are not skilled at reading. The learning outcome we expect from these new ELT students is not promising. In fact, Lopes (1997) has already argued that there is a need to improve the current teaching practices and resources. At the university level, Masters Courses should be introduced in
order to give local ELT lecturers who are mostly English graduates (“licenciados”, in Portuguese) additional opportunities to study and do research. Lastly, ESP at UEM is still not yet complete in terms of teaching-learning materials since each course has its own syllabus. There is a need of a good collaboration between ELT teachers, course coordinators and learner needs in order to guarantee that the syllabus and the materials used are suitable and relevant. Therefore, there is a need for a pedagogy that is more learner-centred and assessment methods that fit the complexity of interrelationships which shape learners and teachers' beliefs (Nhapsulo, 2013), behaviours, attitudes, learners’ proficiency and the teaching-learning process, including course materials and physical conditions. For this to be possible, teachers, students, curriculum designers, that is, all the stakeholders involved in English language teaching and learning process, need to collaborate (Kerfoot & Winberg, 1997) for the improvement of ELT at UEM and Mozambican universities in general.

At UEM, collaboration is mainly needed when it comes to teaching English for Specific Purposes. Note that the students involved in the current study were enrolled at Eduardo Mondlane University in English for General Purposes (EGP) (Study 1), and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Studies 2 and 3). At UEM English Language Teaching (ELT) can generally be divided into EGP and ESP. The ELT and Translation/Interpretation students involved in the RSI program in Study 1, in 2012, were taking EGP, while the Journalism students who were involved in the ER programs in the Studies 2 and 3, in 2013 and 2014, respectively, were taking ESP (see Chapter 5, section 4.2.1 and Chapter 6, section 6.2.1 for more details on the participants).

EGP courses at UEM are skills-based: there are courses focussing on Study Skills (note-taking, skimming, scanning or using a dictionary), Language Skills (speaking, listening, writing and reading) and Language System (Grammar, Pronunciation, Vocabulary). Generally speaking, ESP is an area which aims at learning the specific skills and language needed by particular learners for a particular purpose (Kavaliauskienė, 2012). ESP is the teaching of English for vocational or professional purposes as well as the preparation for
language exams (TOEFL, IELTS, CPE, CAE, and FCE\(^5\)). ESP courses are more concerned with providing the necessary skills to students so that they can deal with the literature in their field of study, e.g. in Mathematical sciences, Social sciences or Medical sciences. According to Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998: 4), ESP has both absolute and variable characteristics:

**Absolute Characteristics:**
1. ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learners;
2. ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves; and
3. ESP is centred on the language appropriate for these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre.

**Variable Characteristics:**
1. ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
2. ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English;
3. ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level;
4. ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students;
5. Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language systems.

These are generally the aspects which underline what ESP is, although there are other aspects which are also typical for ESP. For instance, Lorenzo (2005: 1) adds that ESP “concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures” and Mohan (1986: 15) reminds us that ESP courses focus on preparing learners “for chosen communicative environments”.

\(^5\) TOEFL – Test of English as a Foreign Language; IELTS – International English Language Testing System; CPE – Cambridge Proficiency Exam; CAE – Cambridge Advanced Exam; FCE – First Certificate Exam
Regarding its appearance, Hutchinson & Waters (1987) underline that the emergence of ESP was due to basically three reasons: the demands of a new world, a revolution in linguistics and a focus on the learner. By the end of the Second World War in 1945 there was an expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale, and English became the key to technology. Hence, learners needed to know specifically why they were learning English, leading to learner centeredness (Carter, 1983) and learner purpose (Graham & Beardsley, 1986) as the core approaches.

In addition, considering the several uses of the language in different communication acts, linguists showed that it should be possible to determine the features of specific situations and then make these features the basis of an ESP course. As Belcher (2006: 135), puts it, “ESP assumes that the problems are unique to specific learners in specific contexts and thus must be carefully delineated”. This resulted in the description of written scientific and technical English by, for instance, Ewer & Latorre (1969), Swales (1971), Trimble (1985) and others mentioned in Hutchinson & Waters (1987). Most of the work at that time was in the area of English for Science and Technology.

Nowadays, ESP caters for several learner needs, which explains why Johns & Dudley-Evans (1998) state that the demand for ESP continues to increase and expand throughout the world. Today there is English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Business Purposes (EBP), English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), English for Medical Purposes (EMP), and many more fields. This increasing expansion of ESP into new areas has arisen due to the ever-increasing “glocalized” world (Robertson: 1995), resulting in an individualized approach to learners with the purpose of gaining each learner’s trust in his/her present and future social, academic and professional field.

In sum, Chapter 1 shows the context of the present study. While explaining the research problem statements, we have shown that there are studies which argue for L1 influence on L2 reading, and other which focus on the influence of L2 proficiency on reading comprehension. The main issues with which we are dealing throughout the dissertation were shown in the motivation and study goals sections. After showing the structure of the dissertation, we have talked about Mozambican historic and linguistic background, the general issues in the Mozambican education system, and the current status of English in Mozambique. Here, we have looked at reading
trends in Mozambique and, specifically, at the Eduardo Mondlane University, where EGP and ESP courses are conducted.
Chapter 2  Research background

2.1  Introduction

The present chapter deals with the conceptualization and literature background that led to the current research. The chapter is divided into four sections:

1) **Reading: basic concepts and models.** Since the current study was conducted in a context of foreign language reading, we will look at the conceptualization and theoretical framework that leads to a definition of reading in a context of English being used as a foreign language;

2) **Components involved in reading comprehension.** In this section, we discuss the components involved in fluent reading comprehension. The skills which students need to have in order to deal with reading will be discussed in order to set the ground for what can be considered as a good language learner or good reader in the Mozambican reading context. Detailed skills expected from a good reader can be found in the attached RSI manual delivered in the first stage of this study;

3) **Reading strategy instruction:** strategies are the main focus of the first phase of our study, so previous findings regarding the use of strategies will be discussed and the probability of improving reading comprehension skills through a Reading Strategy Instruction program will be evaluated. Here, we will look at the objectives of involving students in a strategy-based reading program as well as the different taxonomies regarding reading strategies which are relevant and suitable for carrying out the current research; and
4) **Extensive reading and reading attitudes:** research has shown that reading a large number of texts contributes to the improvement of comprehension skills. In this section, some of these studies will be discussed, focusing on how extensive reading can improve reading speed, reading comprehension and promote positive reading attitudes.

### 2.2 Reading: basic concepts and models

In this section we are going to talk about the basic concepts of reading, linking them to the existing L1 and L2 reading models. The models of reading in L1 which will be discussed are: the *bottom-up models* developed by LaBerge and Samuels (1974) and Gough (1972), the *top-down models* developed by Goodman (1970) and Smith (1971), and the *interactive* model of reading, proposed by authors like van Dijk (1979), Stanovich (1980), and Rumelhart (1977). The L2 reading model to be discussed in this section is the recent *compensatory model of reading in second language* proposed by Bernhardt (2011).

Reading is a complex process with different purposes and dimensions, and it operates in different ways. Finding one single feature with which to define reading is impossible (Smith, 1985). Reading, especially academic reading, is surrounded by many factors which need to be taken into consideration for its definition. Apart from the brain itself which processes the information the eyes get from the books, there are other internal and external factors involved in reading and reading comprehension. Affective factors like comfort and anxiety (Yamashita, 2013), readers’ current language proficiency, previous reading experience at home and/or in a school setting, their background knowledge which can be related to general cultural background and learner beliefs and expectations about language learning, are among several factors which need to be taken into account when defining the reading process (Lier, 1988; Omaggio, 1978; Carrell, 1991; Shiotsu & Weir, 2007; Wolters, 2011; Wesely, 2012).

In this context, some definitions of reading may look complete or incomplete, depending on the conceptual framework or model behind the definition. In general, no matter the type of model, it has to be able to explain concepts, explore new data, synthesise findings that
adhere to acceptable methodological standards, make accurate predictions, make linkages to reading comprehension, and respond to critical examination (Grabe, 2009). By doing so, models are a synthesis of information, they establish new claims, generate testable hypotheses and their function is keeping research in the field moving forward.

2.2.1 Bottom-up models

In the reading literature it is common to find different concepts of reading, and below are some of the definitions we can find in different studies. These definitions are related to the existing reading models. Three possible definitions which are directly linked to 3 different theoretical views of L1 reading will be discussed below. We will start by looking at the bottom-up models, in which:

   a) *Reading is considered as simply a matter of decoding printed symbols* (Gough, 1972; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974).

The definition is grounded in the idea that it is from what we read that we decode the message in the text. In other words, the definition is based on bottom-up models which have been criticized due to a limiting focus on the reading process and considering lower-level processing prior to upper-level processing. The bottom-up models were generally developed by Gough (1972), LaBerge & Samuels (1974). Bottom-up models see reading as a sequential and mechanical process in which the reader decodes the ongoing text letter-by-letter, word-by-word, and sentence-by-sentence in a linear fashion. Reading is seen as a matter of mental translation of the information in the text, with little application of the reader’s background knowledge. When a reader recognizes the printed words, these are then combined into words that are sounded out and then turned into statements, which results in text comprehension (Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Grabe, 2009). The physicality of reading expressed in this sequential model in which printed sounds are combined into words, which are then combined into sentences, is essentially dealing with lower-level processing. These models see comprehension as possible before higher-level processing, since it only depends on lower level processing (word recognition). It is then obvious that these models may have a considerable limitation regarding the role of higher-level processing in reading comprehension. That is, comprehension and higher-level processing are wrongly placed as the second aspect, since what is posited in this view is only the ability to decode the printed
sounds in a serial manner. The limitation in these models was also noted by Stanovich (1980, cited in Bernhardt, 2011) in the light of an interactive compensatory model in which it is shown that higher-level mental processing does not await the completion of the lower-level processing. That is, it is assumed that a process at any level may compensate for possible processing difficulties at any other level.

2.2.2 Top-down models

Next to bottom-up models there have been top-down models which were generally developed by Goodman (1968) and Smith (1971). These metaphorical models assume that reading is directed by the reader’s goals, expectations, and strategic reading. Note that the term “metaphorical” is used in all of the reading models literature. It is used to capture the processes and concepts involved in reading comprehension. In general, reading models are generalizations that reflect primary processing assumptions about how comprehension is carried out. In the top-down perspective, the general view of reading (Grabe & Stoller, 2002) considers the reader as someone who has a set of expectations about the information in the text and thus does not need to read all the printed words, but samples what s/he considers as the relevant information in order to confirm such expectations.

Within these models we find Goodman (1968)’s notion of reading as:

\[b) \text{ a “psycholinguistic guessing game”, where a comprehender is actively engaged in relating experience (psycho) with words (linguistic) on the page (Goodman, 1968, cited in Bernhardt, 2011: 23).}\]

This is a conceptually driven model in which reading is seen as a process of predicting meaning based on the reader’s knowledge of oral language syntax, semantics and phonological cues. That is, from the knowledge of oral language, a reader already has knowledge of how words are organized and the meaning words have in certain contexts. Coady (1968)’s psycholinguistic model emphasizes prediction of meaning, where reader’s concepts enable him/her to search for data or words to confirm these predictions. Within this perspective Smith (1971, cited in Sheridan, 1981: 67) defines “reading comprehension as making sense out of what you read by using what you know, or the theory of the world which you have in your head”. Therefore, within these models, prior knowledge and experience are important in reading comprehension (Bernhardt, 2011; Abraham, 2001).
However, what is not clear is the general monitoring mechanism that enables this top-down processing. One of the ideas is that readers use inferences while reading and this is possible because they use background knowledge. These models also underline the interaction between lower-level and higher-level processes, but under the general control of a central monitor. This is therefore a process in which the reader starts from a printed word, draws an initial hypothesis of what will come next once one aspect has been met, and moves forward with this sampling and confirmation of expectations.

One of the aspects noted as limiting within the top-down models is the fact these they entail that readers put their own meaning into the text while comprehending and that what they understand can alter the text meaning at hand. The more readers are involved in comprehending, the higher the probability of increased mistakes, which means that “reading becomes more conceptually driven as fluency develops” (Stanovich, 1980, cited in Bernhardt, 2011: 23).

In spite of the indicated limitations, Bernhardt (2011) notes that even though Goodman (1968)’s models were developed on the basis of L1 literacy, they have influenced most of L2 reading research. In fact, one of the important aspects we can learn from these models is that reading is somehow a predicting process which is guided by the already known reading strategies which learners bring to the text in order to process its meaning.

### 2.2.3 Interactive models

In the interactive models it is argued that there is an interaction among conceptual abilities, background knowledge, and process strategies results in reading comprehension.

- **c) Reading consists of three interactive elements: conceptual abilities, background knowledge, and process strategies** *(Coady, 1979, cited in Bernhardt, 2011: 29)*.

Within the interacting sources that are involved in the Coady (1979)’s framework we find the idea of background knowledge. In this context, comprehension depends both on the linguistic knowledge which enables a reader to decode the information and a conceptual knowledge which connects the new information to the pre-existing knowledge structures *(Anderson & Pearson, 1988; Alderson, 2000 McNeil, 2011)*. In fact, studies have shown that when readers are familiar with the culture represented in the readings, they score better
on comprehension measures (Alptekin, 2006; Lee, 2007). However, this does not mean that background knowledge is the only necessary requisite for one to become a good reader, but it is part of the “background knowledge era” (Bernhardt, 2011: 32). This era placed comprehension as dependent on the reader’s internal knowledge base which could either hinder or facilitate reading comprehension. Bernhardt (2011) notes that there are times when a reader uses that knowledge, and there are other situations in which the reader does not have it, or even if s/he has it, s/he does not use it. Hence, this conceptual framework entailed that some texts could be understood while others could not be understood, since reading depended on inferencing which also depended on the reader’s background knowledge and his/her activation of that knowledge.

It has become clear that for effective reading comprehension to occur there is more than just background knowledge used in an interactive way. This explains why Grabe & Stoller (2002: 29) state that “reading comprehension is an extraordinary feat of balancing or coordinating many abilities in a very complex and rapid set of routines that makes comprehension a seemingly effortless and enjoyable activity for fluent readers”. This suggests that there is a need of coordinating elements in order to guarantee reading comprehension. This conceptualization leads us to the third possible definition of reading which focuses on interaction of different processing levels during the reading process:

“Reading is a complex cognitive activity that requires an integration of information from the text and knowledge in our minds, and successful reading comprehension depends on skilled processing of the visually presented text. Reading comprehension is thought to be supported by both the so-called “lower-level” (e.g., word recognition) and the “higher-level” processes (e.g., integrating the textual information within and across the sentences). It is also thought to draw on our cognitive resources that are limited at any given moment, and achieving automaticity (i.e., effortless, fast, and stable processing) in such lower-level processes as word recognition” which should impact on higher level processes. (Shiotsu, 2009: 15).

In the context of this definition, reading is a complex activity that requires an integration of information from two sources: lower-level and higher-level, in an interactive manner. The definition is influenced by the interactive models of reading which were proposed by authors like van Dijk (1979), Stanovich (1980), and Rumelhart (1977). The bottom line is that neither bottom-up models nor top-down models explain completely the nature of
reading. While the former models are serial in nature, and they posit that reading starts from lower-level processing (e.g. word recognition) and such processes have to be finished first, so that the higher-level conceptual processes will be activated afterwards, top-down models underline that reading is conceptually driven, where conceptual features are the most important and lower-level processes are only important if they point toward conceptual features. The problem which was underlined by Stanovich (1980) regarding bottom-up models is that poor readers may process at higher levels when they cannot decode, and top-down models require assumptions about the relative speed of the process involved that are not always plausible.

In response, interactive models posit that there is an interaction between elements from bottom-up and top-down levels. This interaction is also between what is seen graphically and what is contextually inferred by the reader. It is in this context that Stanovich (1980, cited in Bernhardt, 2001: 36) underlined the interactive-compensatory hypothesis, “where knowledge sources at all levels contribute simultaneously to pattern synthesis and where a lower-level deficit may result in a greater contribution from higher-level knowledge sources”. In these models, the activation of different skills depends on variables such as reading capacities, language knowledge, purpose of reading, text characteristics, among other variables (Mulder, 1996, cited in Brunfaut, 2008).

In spite of the interaction between bottom-up and top-down processes, Stanovich (1980) noted that interactive models presumed no parallel interaction or co-occurrence between lower-level and higher-level processes. Instead, interactive models presume that higher-level processes will always overtake lower-level ones, where the existence of hierarchy is shown. Here, lower level processes feed higher-level ones and higher level ones assist in the processing of lower level processes.

### 2.2.4 L2 reading models

The three definitions (a, b and c) discussed above still cannot fit the context of the complex process involved in reading in a second language. This indicates that the rehearsal of old theories “poses questions about whether the assumptions made in certain theories actually fit or describe the second-language reading process and/or whether a theory based in a first-language process can ever adequately capture the second” (Bernhardt, 2011: 21). In this
note, Bernhardt (2011) is showing the need of a theory that focuses specifically on L2 reading. Although L1 theories discussed above do not capture the process involved in L2 reading, these theories are very important in that they create a basis for research in second and foreign language reading. This explains why in theorizing L2 reading there was also attention to the abilities a reader brings from his/her L1 or L2.

It is in this context that Cummins (1979, 1991, cited in Bernhardt, 2011: 32) asserts that “language processes share common underlying processing mechanisms”. This led to the question of whether issues in L2 reading are resulting from a language problem or a reading problem. Attempts to answer this question had to assess the first or primary literacy level of readers and, simultaneously, assess the readers’ second-language ability so that the two variables could be included in any analysis of second-language comprehension. Witnessing the influence of language proficiency on the use of background knowledge, Clapham (1996) has shown that the level of proficiency in L2 may enable or hinder the use of background knowledge. That is, if the reader's proficiency in L2 is low the use of background knowledge may be more ineffective than when it is high. However, while some studies opt for background knowledge as a good predictor of better scores on reading comprehension measures (Al-Shumaimeri, 2006), others did not report much influence of background knowledge (Hammadou, 1991).

Therefore, although L1 theories do not explain consistently and completely the process involved in second language reading, they do serve as the source of many instructional innovations and theoretical input as can be seen in the newly designed compensatory model of second language reading by Bernhardt (2005, 2011). The model was both influenced extensively by schema theory and psycholinguistics of the 1970s and 1980s and by “research and thought on the interdependence of language and literacy hypothesis versus the threshold hypothesis’ in the late 1980s and 1990s” (Bernhardt, 2005: 133). This explains why the first dimension in the models has to do with L1 literacy level which is functionally linked to L2 proficiency, and it also considers the interactions of background knowledge, processing strategies, vocabulary level, and relationships between and among various cognate and non-cognate L1s and L2s, aspects which have been considered in L1 reading research.

Apart from the sole interaction of lower and upper levels as in the last interactive models, Bernhardt (2011)’s model considers that there is much more in second language reading
than in L1 reading. The theory claims that there are variables such as comprehension strategies, engagement, content and domain knowledge, interest, motivation that need to be taken into consideration in second language reading. The idea behind this model has been expressed by Stanovich (1980, cited in Bernhardt, 2011: 37), when he stated:

in order to make the compensatory assumption, we must first agree on the invalidity of bottom-up models of reading. That is, we must assume that it is not necessarily the case that the initiation of a higher-level process must await the completion of all lower ones. Once we have dispensed with bottom-up models, we are free to assume that a process at any level can compensate for deficiencies at any other level. This is the essence of the compensatory hypothesis.

This statement implies that there is no hierarchy in which higher-level processes monitor the lower-level ones (as can be understood from the interactive models discussed above), but where both levels interact in a compensatory manner. That is, if there is a deficit of any knowledge in one level, the other knowledge source may compensate for that deficit, regardless of the level in the processing hierarchy.

Bernhardt (2005) acknowledges the necessary components of a contemporary L2 reading model (see Appendix 1), including L1 literacy level and L2 knowledge level. She also recognizes the interactions of background knowledge, processing strategies, vocabulary level, and relationships between and among various cognate and non-cognate L1s and L2s, as well as emerging L1/L2 readers versus adult L2 readers. In general, the model indicates that there are intertwined sources of knowledge for academic reading comprehension, where there is not a single or linear source of knowledge, but a set of sources which come into play during the reading process. As Bernhardt (2011: 63) clarifies it:

to understand the notion of compensation is to grasp the critical point that these factors are not independent of one another; in fact, they are even more than dependent, they are inextricably intertwined because they are used by readers simultaneously in a compensatory fashion. One factor does not operate without the other in second-language reading contexts.

In fact, the revised model consists of “arrays of variables but tries to communicate that any component in an array can buttress any other component in a different array” (Bernhardt, 2011: 38). That is, within the second language compensatory model there is an interaction
among variables found in L1 literacy level (20%), the L2 proficiency (30%) level, and in the 50% “unexplained variance” level. The model also continues to posit that within the three levels there is an interaction among knowledge sources, and these grow over time and become more available as proficiency increases.

One of the aspects that contributed to the emergence of this model is that the “development of understanding within particular texts followed no predictable pattern other than the fact that once readers made a decision about text content they did not go back to question that decision” (Bernhardt, 2005: 135). This indicates the non-existence of psycholinguistic guessing throughout a text (like in the top-down models discussed above), which means that readers make “an initial decision: they guessed their way through that decision rather than through the text” (Bernhardt, 2005: 135). Due to the fact that readers who did not have the appropriate background knowledge still achieved a high level of comprehension, it became clear that L2 reading variables were “significantly more complicated than the set involved in the general L1 reading, the general L1 literacy research literature”, and thus additional factors such as grammar and the orthographic nature of a particular language, sociocultural reader variables, sociocultural text variables, and other influences, had to be considered (Bernhardt, 2005: 135).

In Bernhardt (2005, 2011)’s view, second language processing occurs on three language levels. In the L1 level we find reader’s first language alphabet, how texts are structured, purposes for reading, beliefs about reading, knowledge of how words and sentences are configured, etc. In the L2 knowledge level, we can find, for instance, grammatical forms, vocabulary knowledge, the impact of cognates, the distance between first language and second language, and the value system attached to literacy. Finally, at the third level, i.e., the “50% unexplained variance” level, we find an interaction between reader variables (such as comprehension strategies, engagement, content and domain knowledge, interest and motivation are taken into consideration in second language reading) and texts with different topics. “How these predictions change against the context of different languages and orthographies and ages is posed in the model as a compensatory process” (Bernhardt, 2011: 35). The idea that several variables are intertwined in the three dimensions is clearly observed in the link of all the three dimensions (L1 literacy, L2 Knowledge and the unexplained variance), so that all variables are somehow linked.
2.2.5 The concept of reading in foreign language

At this point we have to underline that our current research is not a direct contribution to Bernhard (2005, 2011)’s compensatory model, since we did not focus our attention on all three dimensions. However, it is important to infer from this model many important aspects which can be underlined as follows:

- the three definitions given under the bottom-up, top-down and interactive models are not sufficient to fully explain the nature of the reading process in foreign language;

- reading comprehension in L2 does not depend on the sole interaction of the lower-level and upper-level processing levels but there are also other elements or variables that come into play for a reader of a foreign language to reach an effective reading comprehension of an authentic text;

- although there may be a problem with the English language proficiency itself among Mozambican readers, this is not the only factor which comes into play in foreign reading comprehension, but the reader’s motivation, engagement, content and domain knowledge, interest, the attitudes towards reading as well as the way students make use of the instructed reading comprehension strategies are all very important as well.

Taking into account all the above-mentioned issues, we can now propose the following definition of foreign language: it is a complex, interactive and strategic cognitive process which involves not only a specific purpose of reading, but also an ability to monitor the interaction between lower-level processing and upper-level processing, where any level can buttress another whenever there is any processing limitation in a compensatory manner, and where the reader’s internal (affective, cognitive, linguistic) and external (instructional, social, practical) factors are involved as a whole. Foreign language reading comprehension involves the existing interaction between the reader’s background knowledge and the world expressed in the text, as well as the interaction between L1 literacy, L2 proficiency and several variables which include comprehension strategies, engagement, content and domain knowledge, interest, and motivation.
We do not consider this as a complete and definitive definition of reading in a foreign language, since we understand that the reading process, especially in a foreign language, is complex and it does not constitute one single concept. Indeed, Bernhardt (2005, 2011)’s model itself indicates that there are many aspects which are still unknown and which need further research. Therefore, further research, like Cabinda (2014) (see section 1.10), should be developed in line with this model in order to shed light into the “50% unexplained variance”. Although our research is not a direct contribution to the compensatory model, it is the theory that could help us find a definition of reading in a foreign language which will guide us throughout our current research.

We have stated in the previous paragraph that our final concept of reading in foreign language is just an attempt that suits the current theoretical stage in second/foreign reading research, but it is not the complete definition so far. This is because, according to Grabe & Stoller (2002), there is a set of aspects we need to consider in a complete definition of reading in order to understand the true nature of reading. That is, a complete definition has to make sure it mirrors the idea that there are a number of ways to engage in reading, depending on the purpose of reading itself. Secondly, certain skills and a knowledge base are combined in the reading act in order to arrive at a comprehensible reading process. In addition, there are time constraints that have to be taken into account when defining reading, since a fluent reading rate is a crucial aspect in reading comprehension. Moreover, the concept of reading has to take into consideration how the ability to draw meaning from text and interpret that meaning varies according to the proficiency of the L2 reader.

Finally, we have to bear in mind that the main purpose when dealing with reading is promoting motivated or engaged readers, since the more engaged they are, the greater their level of academic reading achievement, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000; Worthy, 2002).

2.3 Componential models

This section deals with several components that play a great role in the reading process and which are necessary for a fluent reading comprehension. These components have different
levels which show that the reading comprehension process starts from the word recognition skills which enable a reader to connect words into a sentence, go through the sentence level, until when a reader can construe the meaning of a textual at the discourse level. This indicates that several components are simultaneously involved in a single process of reading and they are rapidly and interactively combined to make sure a fluent reading process is taking place. Apart from simply the text and the brain, we can find vocabulary knowledge, syntactic awareness and metacognitive reading strategies as factors which can affect reading comprehension (Bernhardt, 2011; Nergis, 2013). Linguistic knowledge, literacy, and background knowledge were referred to in Bernhardt (1991). This leads to the notion of componential models. A “componential theory of reading (or of any other complex performance) attempts to identify a set of functionally defined information processing systems or components which, in interaction with one another, accomplish the more complex performance - in this case, reading with comprehension” (Frederiksen, 1982: 2).

There is a need of understanding the components involved in reading because in order to enable students to become fluent readers, we need to bear in mind what a fluent or good reader does during the reading process and then explicitly teach those abilities. Although students have their individual skills (e.g. background knowledge) for dealing with a text, it is also necessary to teach them to use effective reading strategies. Recent studies (Block, Gambrell, and Pressley, 2002; Guthrie, 2002) have shown that if teachers want to enable students to become active, engaged readers and enable them to gain competence and a sense of self-efficacy, they have to involve them in a variety of purposeful, motivated reading activities, thus improving their reading skills and consequently their comprehension skills. In this sense, although there are reading taxonomies designed for summarizing strategy use among L1 and L2 readers, still it is possible to find strategies that are typically used in one classroom learning environment and not in another, especially when looking at the context of our study, where students are multilingual. A study conducted by Pang (2008) on the characteristics of good and poor readers and the implications for L2 reading research in China, shows that strategies used by good readers have three dimensions: language knowledge and processing ability, cognitive ability and metacognitive strategic competence. Each dimension has its own characteristics which operate at different linguistic levels (word, sentence and text levels) as described below. In general, good readers need to
be able to tap their academic and non-academic knowledge, monitor their comprehension (metacognition), and pursue their goals even when confronted with challenging texts (Almasi, 2003; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995, cited in Brown, 2008). These are the knowledge and strategic resources that good readers rely upon when reading. It also means that they are cognitively aware of the task at hand and that they are motivated to achieve their reading goal.

Moreover, "there can be no doubt that the nature of the input language is critical; that the nature of the reader’s processor or brain, i.e., how it accepts the input, is crucial; and how the mixture of both input language and reader processor brings about an understanding” (Bernhardt, 2011: 7-8). In reading comprehension the reader’s language proficiency level (in his/her processor) contributes positively or negatively to reading comprehension. However, this statement is not the complete recipe, since it recalls the interactive models detailed above.

This again suggests that for an effective reading comprehension there are many knowledge sources that interact and, in case one knowledge source fails to enable reading comprehension, another source will "come into play in order to buttress another lagging knowledge source" (Bernhardt, 2011: 15). This is at the heart of Bernhardt (2011)’s compensatory model which underlines that there is interaction between different knowledge sources, and when one knowledge source fails to deal with the language task, another source compensates for the lacking knowledge.

It is in this context that we can see that when dealing with academic reading, one of the most important skills students of ESL or EFL need to have is the ability to comprehend academic texts (Dreyer & Neil, 2003). Here, comprehension can be defined as the ability to construct a supportable understanding of the text (Neufeld, 2005). These understanding and meaning construction processes require that one engages in an active and intentional thinking process (Alexander & Jetton, 2000) and it involves several variables and skills as mentioned above in this section. Such abilities may be already internalized by the reader but explicit (reading strategy) instruction is required if the purpose is to equip university students with the ability to read and comprehend. Considering the existing differences in readers’ experiences and background knowledge (as well as the existing relation among current and previous texts), readers may have different interpretations of the same text, but
it is important to bear in mind that not all interpretations can be considered as valid (Pressley, 2002c).

Moreover, within the componential models it is stressed that students need to have certain reading abilities in order to comprehend a text. Here, reading comprehension has to do with the knowledge that students need to have regarding the existing differences between the word, sentence and discourse levels (Bailey & Heritage, 2008).

a) word level

Schleppegrell (2004) noted that there is a difference between everyday vocabulary and the specialist lexis or academic vocabulary that is found in the academic setting. At word level, university students must be able to attach new items to the semantic networks they already have in their long-term memory in order to broaden and deepen their vocabulary knowledge. Bailey & Heritage (2008) have shown that there are three levels of academic vocabulary: general academic vocabulary are words that occur across academic content areas such as “synthesize” and “explain” (Nation, 2001); context-specific academic vocabulary are everyday words that are used with a different meaning, such as the word “by” which means “divide” in mathematics (Bailey, 2007); and specialized academic vocabulary which are the technical words used in different disciplines such as “multiplication” in the mathematics content area (Scarcella & Zimmerman, 1998).

In addition, while tackling issues regarding reading, we need to take into consideration whether we are dealing with L1 or L2 reading. That is, reading in L1 and reading in L2 do not involve the same effort students need to apply in the reading process. As Shiotu (2009: 16) noted, “identifying L2 word recognition patterns or regularities associated with learners from particular writing system backgrounds has pedagogical values since such findings can cumulatively lead to theories or models”. As the author outlines when talking about cumulative findings which can help predict potential sources of difficulties and contribute to the organization of pedagogical resources, a model of reading is an attempt to create a general understanding of the reading process and this is done by means of a framework which explains what reading involves and how reading works (Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Grabe, 2009).

In fact, we have noted in Chapter 1 that the Mozambican university students involved in this study started reading in their L2, Portuguese, and not in English or their Bantu languages (which, for the majority, are their mother tongues). This is what Shiotsu (2009)
refers to when stating that many L2 learners start to read in their target language (L2) before achieving the kind of knowledge as well as the level of vocabulary that L1 readers have when they start reading. It was in this context that the Mozambican education system has introduced Bantu languages in the primary level, with the purpose of enabling learners to become good readers, since reading in one’s mother tongue is much easier than starting reading in a foreign language. That is, successful decoding of visual input among L1 readers is the result of automatic lexical-semantic access efficiency, since these readers already have the oral vocabulary against which to match a sequence of graphemes (Shiotsu, 2009). Apart from different experiences L2 readers may have in reading compared to L1 readers, oftentimes L2 readers find difficulties when there is no similarity between their L1 and the new L2 writing systems (Paribakht, 2005). Bernhardt (2001: 52) notes that “readers rely on their first language vocabulary in order to try to make sense of L2 vocabulary words”. We can infer that proximity or not between the L1 and the target language may indeed respectively facilitate or hinder L2 reading and processing. Mozambican students are proficient in Portuguese, which uses Roman scripts and, in this case, in L2 reading acquisition and reading comprehension, they do have an advantage over a Chinese or an Arabic student whose L1 scripts are non-Roman and non-alphabetic writing systems. However, language similarities may also lead to misunderstanding especially when similar words have different meanings in both the L1 and the L2. For instance, while “pretender” in Portuguese means “to aim for” in English, “to pretend” in English means “fingir” (to fake) in Portuguese. But, looking at the two words “pretender” and “to pretend”, one may erroneously think that both verbs have the same meaning in both languages. The best strategy used for finding the right meaning in such situations is the context in which words appear. DeBot, Paribahkt, & Wesche (1997, cited in Bernhardt, 2011) examined learners from various language backgrounds regarding how they acquire second language vocabulary, and they found consistency in the manner in which learners used context to learn words. The importance of the L1 in L2 reading can be observed in another strategy used by readers which consists of relating prior knowledge and ability to infer the meaning of unknown words (Nassaji, 2004), providing evidence of a high-level literacy strategy. Supportive use of the mother tongue in L2 reading was also underlined by (Kern, 1994) and Upton & Lee-Thompson (2001) as what qualifies a good reader in terms of reading abilities.
All the skills or abilities mentioned above as relevant in word recognition show that there are many components involved in reading comprehension, as shown by componential models. Hoover & Tunner (1993)’s componential model looks at reading simply as having two components: word recognition (decoding) and linguistic comprehension, where reading can be considered as a multiplication of these two. Brunfaut (2008), citing Urquhart and Weir (1998), criticized Hoover & Tunner (1993)’s componential model since it provides a ‘simple view’ of reading abilities which cannot explain why there is variation in reading and comprehension performance amongst L1 readers with the same or similar basic language competence. In spite of that, several studies have underlined the relation between language knowledge and the processing ability of good readers and they cumulatively point out that what these readers have in common is automatic and rapid word recognition ability (e.g. Just & Carpenter, 1977; Nassaji, 2003; Perfetti, 1985).

However, we have mentioned before that Rosário (2009) noticed that Mozambican students may be able to read a text but sometimes may not be able to explain it, which indicates that there is sometimes a mismatch between decoding the written language and understanding the message within it. In a broader sense, reading comprehension is not only the ability of vocabulary knowledge (that is, understanding the words), and neither only the ability to understand separate sentences. Textual reading comprehension means understanding words, sentences and how these sentences are connected in a certain text and what they express in a coherent semantic structure. This leads us to the next level, the sentence level.

b) sentence level

It is important to note that even when a reader has a good mastery of the L2, there are still some other factors which can affect the L2 learners’ reading comprehension. For instance, Nergis (2013), involving 45 university students in Turkey, investigated the role of different variables which play a role in reading comprehension in English as an L2 and found that depth of vocabulary knowledge was not a strong predictor of reading comprehension for these EAP students. The strong predictors for academic reading comprehension were syntactic awareness and metacognitive reading strategies. The same conclusion was found by Shiotsu & Weir (2007), by underlining that vocabulary knowledge was less relevant than syntactic awareness in L2 reading comprehension. Also Cain (2009) and Grabe (2009) found a strong relation between syntactic awareness and academic reading comprehension. At sentence level, students need to know the word order, the parts of speech, the inflectional
morphology and its grammar. The knowledge of comparatives, prepositions, connectors is also important for making connections of ideas found in academic texts (Schleppegrell, 2001). Regarding such structure-making elements, Degand & Sanders (2002) studied isolated connectors and signalling phrases and found that these are important in reading comprehension. However, Ozono & Harumi (2003) also researched connectors in texts, finding that high-proficiency readers were less dependent on explicit connectors than lower proficiency readers. In spite of the proficiency level aspect, signal words do enable the reader to predict rhetorical structure and to comprehend it (William & Fredericka, 2002). This explains why there are signal words for showing comparison, opposition, addition, among other functions, which enable the reader to control textual cohesion and coherence. Among other skills, coherence and cohesion are textual organizing aspects which a good reader needs to take into consideration in order to grasp textual content (Rapp et al., 2007, cited in Grabe, 2009). Therefore, when, for instance, readers sit for university exams, they need the ability to use prior linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge and using textual elements with high information value and structure-marking elements in the text they are supposed to read (Bimmel, 2001).

Certain studies with young learners and in L1 contexts have indeed shown the role of syntactic awareness (e.g. Shiotsu & Weir, 2007), and the issue of the impact of syntactic awareness in the texts they are supposed to read (Bimmel, 2001). However, the fact that most studies have been conducted with young learners and in L1 contexts leaves the issue of the impact of syntactic awareness in L2 settings inconclusive (Shiotsu & Weir, 2007). In other words, there is a need for dealing with the relationship between multiple variables, literacy knowledge and second language proficiency in second language reading because the function of syntactic awareness in L2 reading comprehension is not completely clear yet (Bernhardt, 2005).

c) discourse level

In reading, there clearly is a need of looking at the language beyond the sentence level, that is, at the level where aspects related to anaphora, cohesion and coherence are considered. It was in this perspective that linguists such as Halliday & Hasan (1976) looked at cohesion as the grammatical expression of semantic coherence.

At this last level, the discourse level, which can be in oral or written form, students are required to know how to make a logical combination of sentences in order to give an
explanation, form an argument, while maintaining coherence across a number of clauses or
giving new information (Chamot & O’Malley, 1994; Schleppegrell, 2001). Most academic
reading texts, at this level, have some organizational conventions or patterns that students
need to take into account when dealing with a story (sequenced events) or scientific
information (hierarchical structure) (Bailey & Huang, 2011). In terms of the existing
language functions needed for authentic academic English, especially those in content areas,
(Chamot & O’Malley, 1994: 41) noted that students need to know how to deal with
“explaining, informing, justifying, comparing, describing, classifying, providing, debating,
persuading, and evaluating”. This, in sum, indicates that academic English is different from
everyday language at the word, sentence and discourse level, and the ability to use academic
English has to be explicitly taught to students.
It is, however, important to note that at this level, the processing starts from the word level,
goes through the sentence and to the discourse level in an integrative process, as detailed in
componential model (Fredericksen, 1982). Here, lexical and structural information is
analysed at the text level (rather than at the word level) for the purpose of constructing a
text model that represents the reader's understanding. In this model there is an interaction
of knowledge sources:

these component processes include retrieving and integrating word meanings,
constructing a propositional base (including analysis of noun groups and establishing
case relations), analyzing cohesive relations among sentences or propositions,
resolving problems of reference (anaphora and cataphora), constructing inferential
elaboration of the text structure, and relating the text structure to prior knowledge of
the subject matter (Fredericksen, 1982: 10).

As we can see, the reader combines information from these multiple sources in an
integrative manner. “At the moment of visual fixation, the reader has available (a)
perceptual, phonological, and structural information about lexical items included in the
fixation” (Fredericksen, 1982: 10); (b) the syntactic knowledge that allows the
interpretation of the sentence structures; and (c) “semantic, conceptual, and pragmatic
knowledge resulting from the analysis of prior discourse” (Fredericksen, 1982: 10), and that
information allows the reader to draw a semantic map that enables inference and general
understanding of the text at hand. In this context, several studies have shown that good
readers have awareness of text type and discourse organization (e.g., Brantmeier, 2004;
Carrell, 1991) as a tool for reading comprehension. It shouldn’t be forgotten that reading is a linguistic process in which morphological, semantic and syntactic knowledge is required for one to engage in reading in any language. The knowledge of the language system is therefore important for one to become a good reader in that language.

The above-mentioned three levels of knowledge that leads to effective reading comprehension have to do with many skills that students need to be explicitly taught so that they can become good readers. Consequently, they need to be aware of the reading strategies that may fit one task but not another. That explains the need of an explicit reading strategy instruction, which is why in the current study we have designed a reading strategy instruction program in which several reading strategies were explicitly instructed so that they can be applied in reading activities in a conscious manner.

2.4 Cognitive, metacognitive and support strategies

During a reading task, students use different techniques which enable them to deal with the reading process. Such techniques are called strategies and these are "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situation" (Oxford, 1990: 8). These strategies may be used consciously and when mastered by a reader, they can also be applied automatically and unconsciously. That is, strategies are "always purposeful and goal-oriented, but perhaps not always carried out at a conscious or deliberate level. They can be lengthy or so rapid in execution that it is impossible for the learner to recapture, recall or even be aware that one has used a strategy" (Nisbet, 1986, cited in Khosravi, 2012: 2123). Such strategies may be cognitive, metacognitive and support strategies, depending on their function during the reading process.

The difference between cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001) is clear. Cognitive strategies are the techniques consciously used by a reader when s/he encounters any difficulty that does not enable comprehension during the reading process. Metacognitive strategies involve the ability to monitor or manage the reading process through the use of useful, effective and appropriate strategies according to the context. For
instance, while a reader is reading a text, s/he may use his/her background knowledge translated as *using prior knowledge* to make predictions and understand textual content, but *confirming predictions* is a mean through which the reader monitors her reading process and comprehension. Therefore, in conducting an RSI program, apart from the notion of pre-reading, reading and post-reading strategies, students involved in an RSI training program could be explained the difference between cognitive and metacognitive strategies so that they can easily know which strategies to use in order to monitor their reading process. The combined effect of cognitive and metacognitive strategy instruction in second language reading is effective in enhancing reading comprehension (Carrell et al., 1989).

Knight, Padron and Waxman (1985) investigated the frequency in the application of cognitive reading strategies by ESL and monolingual students. Participants were given a reading comprehension text to read. The text had pre-market intervals in which participants had to stop and explain the strategies they used while reading. Results showed that monolingual readers used as twice as many strategies as their Spanish ESL counterparts. They arrived to the conclusion that “typically, the primary concern of second language students is the development of decoding skills, and not those cognitive strategies which enhance reading comprehension” (Knight, Padron and Waxman, 1985, cited in Khezrlou, 2012: 83). This suggests that although foreign language students may have knowledge of cognitive and metacognitive strategies, the application of these strategies may not be frequent since they may spend most of their attention in decoding, that is, reading performance itself, than in reading comprehension. However, lack on an effective application of cognitive and metacognitive strategies does not prevent students from extracting the meaning of texts at hand, and reading strategy instruction is therefore necessary.

Apart from cognitive and metacognitive strategies, readers also use supply strategies (Jimenez et al., 1995, 1996) or *support strategies* (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). These types of strategies are those which enable or help the reader to understand a text in a compensatory manner, in Bernhardt (2011)’s perspective. This is in accordance with the definition given by Barnett (1988, cited in Kadkhodaee & Tamjid, 2016: 96), which refers that reading strategies “show how readers conceive a task, what textual cues readers attend to, how they make sense of what they read, and what they do when they do not understand”. That is, reading strategies are mental processes used by readers when they read a text and try to
understand it effectively, regardless of the difficulties they may encounter during the reading process. Therefore, there are strategies which readers use when the application of cognitive and metacognitive strategies does not enable them to comprehend textual meaning. Apart from these five supply strategies taking notes while reading, underlining information in the text, using reference materials, paraphrasing for better understanding, and going back and forth in the text, Jimenez et al. (1995, 1996) and Cabinda (2014) have shown that proficient bilingual and biliterate readers use supply strategies such as code mixing, translation, and they also make use of cognates during the reading comprehension process. Jimenez et al. (1995, 1996) have pointed that such support or supply strategies are more likely to be used within second and foreign language reading contexts like the one in which our study was conducted.

A study conducted by Yau (2009) among 144 Taiwanese students learning to read English as a foreign language applied a reading comprehension test and two sets of reading strategies questionnaire. Yau (2009)’s study has shown that metacognitive and cognitive strategies were reportedly used by more frequently for L1 reading, whereas support strategies were more often used for L2 reading. In this study, the use of mental translation significantly correlated with L2 reading performance. Similarly, a recent study conducted by Cabinda (2014) among Mozambican university students learning English as a foreign language has shown that they use support strategies in order to construe meaning. Through a cognitive and metacognitive questionnaire, Cabinda (2014) showed that Mozambican foreign language readers use a significant number of cognitive, metacognitive and supply strategies. The supply strategies mostly used among these studies include the use of cognates both in L1 and the target language, taking notes, underlining information, using reference materials like dictionaries and grammar books, paraphrasing for better understanding, going back and forth in the text and asking oneself questions, translation in general and sight-translation in a much more specified manner.

The strategies used in the current study shown in Table 1 below were taken from Grabe & Stoller (2002), since these are the strategies commonly used by good readers. These can be subdivided into three categories: pre-reading, while-reading and post reading strategies, as described in Grabe & Stoller (2002). A similar list of strategies can be found in Comprehension Strategies (Paris et al. 1996, cited in Hudson, 2007: 108) (see Appendix 4).
Although the strategies are presented in three phases (pre-, while-, and post-reading), their application is interactive, that is, strategies should be used in clusters and not as single approaches to reading comprehension. A clear example can be found in strategy 13 using context to make inferences of the unknown words/expressions, which has to do with inferencing, which is a strategy that “is dependent on the amount of prior knowledge that is activated, vocabulary knowledge, text-structure awareness, the level of focus of comprehension monitoring, and the use of many other reading strategies” (Grabe, 2009: 213-4). For instance, for a better application of strategy 13, there is a need of strategies 10 word recognition, 14 identifying organizational patterns of text, etc.

Thus, for making inferences, one has to engage in a metacognitive process that involves many other reading strategies, and that ability may depend on the situation, task and the purpose of reading. We have mentioned this example to indicate that although we have the separation of strategies in groups and in different terms, their application depends on the reading purpose and strategy clusters are better tools since all strategies have close links which fall into the idea of undifferentiated alternative (Davis & Elder, 2006).

Table 1 Pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Pre-reading strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Previewing or surveying: advance looking at text to see its layout, illustrations, etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Activating schema knowledge: getting ready to read by using what is already known</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Predicting content: anticipating possible content of text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Scanning for highlighted words or expressions: looking for highlighted words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Skimming: quickly reading a passage to get the main ideas, then go back to read.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>While-reading strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Self-questioning: asking questions about text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Self-monitoring: self-checking comprehension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Focusing on meaning, not form: paying attention to meaning, rather than form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Relating meaning to what is already known: connecting what is read with what is known</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Word recognition: associating words with their synonyms and antonyms; associating new word sounds with known word sounds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Reviewing main ideas after each ‘chunk’ of reading: summarizing main ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Asking how the main idea or purpose is related to previous paragraph: looking for logical relationships between paragraphs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Using context to make inferences of the unknown words/expressions: guessing the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary items through contextual clues</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Identifying main ideas and supporting details: looking for relationships between main ideas (topic sentences) and details

Identifying organizational patterns of text: looking for the organizational aspects of text in terms of its typical structure (e.g. cause–effect, compare/contrast, etc.

Post-reading strategies

Evaluating reading: examining how well the text is understood

Giving personal response: making critical/personal comments on the text

Reviewing to summarize text meanings: reading again to summarize text meanings

Checking effectiveness in strategy use: reflecting on how a strategy was used

Review notes, glosses, text markings: checking notes as all sorts of marks made while reading

Adapted from Grabe & Stoller (2002)

2.5 Good readers’ competence

Since university students have many and academic readings in their daily academic lives, there is a need of good reading skills in order to become good critical readers. There are several variables involved when students are dealing with reading comprehension activities, and these include vocabulary knowledge, background knowledge, grammatical knowledge, metacognitive awareness, and the reading strategies (Bernhardt, 1991; Grabe, 2009; Koda, 2005). These variables have been investigated to varying degrees, from different perspectives, within different frameworks or models, at different levels of proficiency and different cultures or with subjects of different languages (Qian, 2002, cited in Negris, 2013). Within the previously mentioned variables, there is also an association of reading comprehension with the threshold hypothesis (Alderson, 1984), which sustains that there is a threshold level L2 readers need to achieve before they can efficiently transfer their L1 reading skills to the L2 reading context (Guo & Roehrig, 2011). This entails that some of the difficulties Mozambican university students may encounter in their academic L2 reading process may be related to their English language level and lack of L1 strategic reading experience.

One aspect which is a step beyond pre-reading, reading and post-reading strategies instructed in the RSI program, in Chapter 4, is the inclusion of a critical reading checklist.
in the RSI manual designed by the researcher. The design of the manual took into account that there are two types of reading comprehension: literal comprehension which is basically the understanding of what is directly stated in the test, and higher-order reading comprehension (Burns et al., 1999). The second type of reading goes beyond the information processing abilities, since it enables readers to reflect, judge and evaluate the text in hand, according to the context faced by such a text (Chapman, 1993; Wallace, 2003). In sum, this kind of reading requires posing and answering questions about the text and the author (Khabiri & Pakzad, 2012). This explains why, among other reading aspects, the RSI manual (see Appendix 4) included a critical reading checklist and the characteristics of a good reader.

In the previous section (2.2.2) we discussed that there are several cognitive, metacognitive and supply strategies which readers need to take into consideration in order to read and comprehend texts efficiently. Most importantly, the idea is that using several strategies without knowing how to combine them is not the common practice of a good and strategic reader. In fact, successful second language reading comprehension is:

not simply a matter of knowing what strategy to use, but the reader must also know how to use it successfully and orchestrate its use with other strategies. It is not sufficient to know about strategies, but the reader must be able to apply them strategically (Anderson, 1991: 19, cited Carrell & Carson, 1997)

If after an RSI program students still cannot use reading strategies in clusters, it may mean that they know the strategies but they do know how to apply them (and are hence non-strategic readers). According to Grabe (2009: 220), a “strategic reader is one who automatically and routinely applies combinations of effective and appropriate strategies depending on reader goals, reading tasks, and strategic processing abilities”. This suggests that this kind of reader, which is the one who is required in academic reading context, has the ability to monitor the comprehension process in relation to reading goals, and so, s/he adjusts the combination of strategies in order to achieve that reading purpose, especially when facing difficult texts. This involves not only metacognitive awareness (what we know), but also metacognitive regulation and control (knowing when, where, and how to use strategies), as well as metalinguistic awareness (e. g. syntactic, semantic, discourse and pragmatic awareness as discusses in 2.2 above) that supports comprehension strategies and metacognitive control for using these strategies (Nagy, 2007; Grabe, 2009).
Moreover, essential in developing effective reading strategies is that students are able to plan, monitor and evaluate their reading process, which means that they need to develop metacognitive skills (e.g. Bimmel 2001; Wenden, 2011; Zhang, 2007). Developing metacognitive skills leads to strategic learning, which has also been termed autonomous language learning, self-directed learning, self-regulation, self-management, independent language learning and individual language learning.

It is important to note that although we have different names to refer to strategic reading, all of these terms refer to the ability a motivated reader needs to have in order to be able to read a text using one’s skills and all metacognitive tools to engage in a comprehensible reading process. For instance, the term autonomous language learning is used “to refer to learning which has as its ultimate goal to produce self-motivated students who take control of the ‘what, when, and how’ of language learning and learn successfully, independent of a teacher, and possibly outside of the classroom without any external influence” (Cohen & Macaro, 2007: 40). Self-regulation can be used in the same context as autonomy, since “autonomous” can be used as an adjective to refer to a self-regulating reader. Self-regulation can be also used to mean self-management, which is “the combination of procedures and knowledge” (Cohen & Macaro, 2007: 41). In addition, independent language learning is the same as individual language learning and autonomous language learning. Therefore, “independence needs to be balanced with an awareness of the abilities and competencies learners have in order to ensure successful learning experiences” (Cohen & Macaro, 2007: 42).

Regarding self-regulation, there is a cyclical model which is observed when students self-regulate their leaning, involving three stages: forethought and planning, performance monitoring, and reflections on performance (Zimmerman, 2000; Pintrich & Zusho, 2002). In the planning stage, students analyse the task and set goals on how to complete it and, in case they do not know the best way of dealing with a certain task, teachers are there to guide them. While performing a task, they are monitoring the strategies they use for the task at hand and at the last stage they evaluate their performance according to the used strategy and, by doing so, they also manage their emotions (since motivation is required here as well) (Zimmerman, 2000), and they are also planning for future events, thus initiating the cycle again.
When dealing with different tasks, students need to use metacognitive skills to assess their mastery of different tasks. As Fujita & Isaacson (2006) noted, this is a metacognitive self-assessment necessary for the application of self-regulated learning for which reading strategy instruction strives. This metacognitive knowledge monitoring skill termed self-regulation by Pintrich (1995, cited in Fujita & Isaacson, 2006: 5) is the “active, goal-directed self-control of behaviour, motivation, and cognition for academic tasks by an individual student”, which stimulates autonomous language learning.

Stimulating autonomous language learning is shown to be really important, since it means that independent students use cognitive and metacognitive strategies without the immediate presence of the teacher and they are less dependent on the classroom learning environment, and they also know when, how and where to apply a certain strategy. They also have autonomy of choice, because they now play an important role in determining the language goals and their learning purposes. In sum, “skillful readers try to comprehend the reading text and when this does not happen, they use and apply strategies to understand and comprehend the text” (Pardo, 2004, cited in Kadkhodaee & Tamjid, 2016: 96).

2.6 Reading strategies taxonomies

There is a long set of reading strategies proposed by many scholars throughout the years of research in reading. Reading strategies taxonomies include cognitive, metacognitive and supply strategies mentioned in the previous section (see 2.5). Cognitive strategies are “steps or operations used in learning or problem-solving that require direct analysis, transformation or synthesis” (Khezrlou, 2012: 80). When the reading process involves not only the application of cognitive strategies (deductive reasoning, analyzing, clarification or verification, guessing or inductive inferencing, memorization, summarizing and general practicing) (Khezrlou, 2012), but also an evaluation of the effectiveness of their own cognitive strategy use, then we can say that students are using metacognitive strategies. These two definitions (of cognitive and metacognitive strategies) were brought here to show the function these strategies have during the reading comprehension process, since they are techniques which enable readers to monitor the reading process at different levels.
Although there are many strategies and skills outlined in skills and strategies taxonomies, what matters in strategic reading is not the number of strategies each student uses, but the way in which the known strategies are actively combined into clusters during the reading task (Cohen & Macaro, 2001; Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Grabe, 2009; Anderson, 2009; Pressley, 2006). This suggests that although all readers in the same RSI program may use the same strategies, good readers use strategies in a more effective way and they are more cognitively aware of strategic responses than poor readers. Most of the studies conducted on strategic reading have followed a set of strategies which are considered as important for readers to apply in reading in order to guarantee effective reading comprehension. While most some studies used pre-defined set of strategies taxonomies (e.g. Khezrlou, 2012; Ramsden, 1988; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Cabinda, 2014), few (Saricoban, 2002) have adapted and adjusted them according to the pre-reading, reading and post-reading approach. In the current section we do not deal with all of the existing skills taxonomies, since there are many similarities among them, as we will explain below in the next paragraphs. Among the existing reading skills taxonomies we can find the following: Deep and Surface Structure Strategy Features (Ramsden, 1988), Reading Skills Taxonomy (Munby, 1980), and Skills Grouping (Rosenshine, 1980). In the last skills taxonomy, Rosenshine (1980) has grouped reading skills in three parts (locating skills, simple and complex inferential skills). Looking at these three skills taxonomies (Ramsden, 1988; Rosenshine, 1980; Munby, 1980), we find that most skills have different names and they belong to different taxonomies, but there is absence of differences regarding their function in the reading process. In spite of the existence of different taxonomies with skills which have similar functions, skills taxonomies are important in reading. A good example is the Communicative Syllabus Design (Munby, 1978, cited in Munby, 1980), which was also effective in designing reading programs for both first and second language strategy users. The two groups of deep and surface structures in Ramsden (1988) seem to be much more meaningful since they mirror both the superficial (surface) use and the desired intellectual (deep) use of reading strategies. Therefore, there is a difference between a deep structure user (e.g. relates and distinguishes evidence and argument) and a surface structure user (principles are not distinguished from examples). A deep structure user has the ability to relate new information to previously acquired knowledge. S/he aims to obtain the entire picture, searches for a relevant meaning and makes connections between the learning
materials and daily life and personal experiences (Aharony, 2006). The surface structure user has the tendency to choose the quickest way to accomplish the task, does not inquire deeply as the deep structure user, looks at superficial aspects of the reading materials, which is also a sign of lack of interest, and relies on short-term memory and not on comprehension (long-term memory) (Biggs, 1993).

Although Biggs argues that both reading skills are sometimes used by the same reader depending on the reading purpose\(^1\), the surface structure user is more likely to also have a superficial understanding of a text while the deep structure user has more probability of gaining more from reading comprehension activities. Looking at our experience as lecturers, and considering that Mozambican university students involved in the current study had never had an RSI program before, it is more probable that the majority will fit into the surface structure user performance when it comes to engaging in reading. Looking at the background information on reading in Mozambique detailed in Chapter 1 as well as lack of formal and informal motivation to read (lack of reading habits), we can assume that most Mozambican readers are surface structure users than deep structure users.

Apart from the three skills taxonomies indicated above, the current study deals only with two reading strategies taxonomies: Strategic Reader Skills (Block & Presley, 2002, 2007, cited in Grabe, 2009) and Weir (1984)’s Reading Skills Taxonomy. It also deals with Sheorey & Mokhtari (2001)’s Reading Strategies Taxonomy. There are two positions we take into consideration while dealing with the skills and strategies taxonomies. First, both strategies and skills can lead to effective reading comprehension (Davis & Elder, 2006). Although we have different skills and strategies taxonomies, they all match in terms of their function in the reading process, which indicates that most of the times they mean exactly the same process but are just referred to with different terms. This can be witnessed by looking at the taxonomies of both skills and strategies in all the taxonomies in Tables 2, 3

\(^1\) There are several reading purposes such as reading to search for simple information (scanning and skimming); reading for quick understanding (skimming); reading to learn from texts; reading to integrate information; reading to evaluate, critique, and use (write) information; reading for general comprehension (Grabe & Stoller, 2002: 13; Grabe, 2009: 7-10).
and 4 below. In these tables, there may be a difference in the terminology used but the meaning and the action itself during the reading process is the same or similar.

Second, another perspective which is central in our RSI approach has to do with the three levels we can see in all the skills and strategies taxonomies. That is, no matter the different groupings, the skills and strategies in the 3 tables below can be grouped into three sections which show what a reader does before the actual reading action, during the reading process and after reading. This explains why among several RSI approaches indicated in 2.6.3 below section we have chosen the one which has structured strategies in pre-reading, reading and post-reading.

Table 2 below summarises what Block & Presley (2002, 2007, cited in Grabe, 2009: 241) have outlined as the common behaviour of a strategic reader, independent of the number of reading strategies they can master. Looking carefully at the skills from 1 to 8, we can clearly see that skill number 1 (pre-reading skill) refers to what a reader does in the beginning, that is, it is part of the pre-reading process. Skill number 2 to 6 are clearly about what a reader does during the reading process and these can be called while-reading skills. Skills 7 and 8 are obviously reflecting what a reader does after engaging in reading, which can be writing a summary or reflecting on how well reading skills were applied in the pre-reading and while-reading stages.

Table 2 Strategic reader skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Reading skills</th>
<th>Functions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Size up a text in advance to predict what the text will be about, looking at titles, text features, pictures, and format;</td>
<td>Pre-reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Monitor for comprehension continually;</td>
<td>Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Relate text information to prior knowledge;</td>
<td>Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Form questions and find answers to questions in the text;</td>
<td>Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Pay attention to text structure features that will help comprehension;</td>
<td>Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Initiate comprehension-support process when comprehension is unclear (reread, find point of difficulty, make inferences based on prior text and on background knowledge, connect key parts of prior text, form an initial summary);</td>
<td>Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Form a summary of the information in the text</td>
<td>Post-reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Reflect on the information in the text after reading</td>
<td>Post-reading</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Now we can look at Table 2 and last skills taxonomy included in this study, the Weir (1984)’s Reading Skills Taxonomy shown in Table 3 below. This list has 15 skills and they can also be divided into three sections. The only difference between the skills in Table 2 above and the skills and Table 3 is merely in the organization or numbering.
Looking at the grouping aspect, we find that while in Table 2 above pre-reading skills were placed in the beginning, while-reading skills were placed in the middle and post-reading skills are the last numbers, Table 3 did not follow that structure. This explains why we have pre-reading skills in number 1, 12 and 13. For instance, looking at Table 3, it is obvious that before we engage in reading, we look at the titles, subheadings and index in order to survey the book are the text we are going to read. That surveying process takes the form of a simultaneously scanning (skill 12) and skimming (skill 13) process. Skills 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 14 are while-reading skills.

Critical evaluation (skill 15) is what a reader does after reading the text, mainly when rereading the notes taken and evaluating the text according to the reading purpose. At this point we have referred to two skills taxonomies which are complementary, since skills referred to in Table 2 are exactly the same as those in Table 3 in terms of their function during the reading process, although they have different terminologies. Skill 1 in Table 2 reflects the same process undertaken in skills 1, 12 and 13 in Table 3, since they are all part of the pre-reading skills. Regarding while-reading skills, we can see that skill 5 in Table 2 reflects the same as skills 4 and 5 in Table 3, and they all refer to the need of looking for text structure hints in order to understand the text through its organizational structure.

We could mention many other similarities like the relation between skill 6 in Table 2 and skill 9 in Table 3. Actually, skill 6 in Table 2 is a condensation of strategies 8, 9 and 10 in Table 3, and they all deal with the ability students need to use their prior knowledge or background knowledge in order to be able to infer the meaning and the content of the current reading. As for the post-reading skills, the existing relation between reading skills in both tables is also obvious. Although necessary to explain in details, it seems to be redundant because the simple fact of having the skills grouped into post-reading is explanatory in itself regarding the common function of such skills.

Table 3  Weir (1984)’s reading skills taxonomy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Type of Skill</th>
<th>Functions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Reference skills (using titles, punctuation, etc. and selecting by use of contents, index, etc.)</td>
<td>Pre-reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skill Description</td>
<td>Timeframe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Word perception, decoding (both through understanding sub-technical vocabulary and through being able to deduce meaning using contextual clues)</td>
<td>While-reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Understanding relations within the sentence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Understanding relations between parts of a text. (Using an awareness of grammatical and lexical cohesion devices)</td>
<td>While-reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Understanding relations between parts of a text by recognizing indicators in discourse</td>
<td>While-reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Understanding the communicative value of sentences with or without explicit indicators</td>
<td>While-reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Understanding conceptual meaning</td>
<td>While-reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Understanding explicitly stated ideas and information</td>
<td>While-reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Understanding ideas and information not explicitly stated (through inference and understanding figurative language)</td>
<td>While-reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Separating the essential from the non-essential in a text. (Distinguishing the main idea from supporting detail)</td>
<td>Post-reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Transcoding information presented in a non-linguistic form</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Skimming. (Surveying to obtain the gist of a text)</td>
<td>Pre-reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Scanning the text to locate specific information</td>
<td>Pre-reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Note taking. (e.g. Extracting salient points for summary)</td>
<td>Post-reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Critical evaluation (e.g. assessing the worth of a text and the organization of the information therein)</td>
<td>Post-reading</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some of the skills in Tables 2 and 3 above are common to reading strategies which we will find in the Sheorey & Mokhtari (2001)’s Reading Strategies Taxonomy, presented in Table 4 below. Looking at the strategies in Table 4 we can also see a clear distinction between pre-reading (1, 2, 3, 4, 5), while-reading (the remaining strategies) and post reading (19, 20, and 21) strategies. The self-explanatory aspect of the strategies within the three groups does not require much explanation. Here is an example of skills and strategies which mean exactly the same action and therefore they have the same function during the reading process: skill 2 in Table 2 *size up a text in advance to predict what the text will be about* is called *skimming* and *scanning* in Table 3 (skill 12 and 13, respectively), and it is called *previewing text before reading* in Table 4, skill 2. With this information, could also have a new table with pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading skills and strategies based on Tables 2, 3 and 4. One second example we can find in Table 3 and Table 4 taxonomies. The skill 14 *note-taking* in Weir (1984)’s Taxonomy (Table 2), is the same as the strategy 1 *note-taking* in Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001)’s Taxonomy (Table 4). The metacognitive strategy 4 in Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) represents skills 1, 3 and 5 *text structure recognition* in Weir (1984)’s taxonomy. Similarities among skills and strategies indicate that most of the strategies in Sheorey & Mokhtari (2001) (Table 4) are based on Strategic Reader Skills (Block & Presley, 2002, 2007, cited in Grabe, 2009) and Weir (1984)’s Reading Skills Taxonomy. Skills and
strategies are used by readers before, during and even after the actual reading process, which indicates that both skills and the strategies serve the same function in the reading process. How could a teacher tell what is a skill and what is a strategy according to taxonomies? In the next section 2.6.1 we provide definitions of both skills and strategies in comparative means, but at this stage we can mention that skills are part of strategies which are unconsciously used by the reader because they are part of his/her cognitive repertoire. Therefore, skills are automatic and do not depend on deliberate control by the reader, while strategies are the opposite (Afflerbach, Pearson, and Paris, 2008, cited in Anderson, 2009). However, a distinction could be made between skills and strategies simply for instruction purposes, but for a teacher with no experience in RSI it cannot be easy explaining the existing differences between skills and strategies and even in relation to their use in the actual reading process.

Moreover, the distinction of skills and strategies made by Robeck & Wallace (1990) does not seem to be a complete answer to what are the clear differences between skills and strategies taxonomies.

Table 4  Sheorey & Mokhtari (2001)’s reading strategies taxonomy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Type of Strategy</th>
<th>General Classification</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Setting purpose for reading</td>
<td>Metacognitive strategy</td>
<td>Pre-reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Previewing text before reading</td>
<td>Metacognitive strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Checking how text content fits purpose</td>
<td>Metacognitive strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Noting text characteristics</td>
<td>Metacognitive strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Determining what to read</td>
<td>Metacognitive strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Using text features (tables, figures)</td>
<td>Metacognitive strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Using context clues</td>
<td>Metacognitive strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Using typographical aids (italics)</td>
<td>Metacognitive strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Predicting or guessing text meaning</td>
<td>Metacognitive strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Confirming predictions</td>
<td>Metacognitive strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Using prior knowledge</td>
<td>Cognitive strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Reading aloud when text becomes hard</td>
<td>Cognitive strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Reading slowly and carefully</td>
<td>Cognitive strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Trying to stay focused on reading</td>
<td>Cognitive strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Adjusting reading rate</td>
<td>Cognitive strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Paying close attention to reading</td>
<td>Cognitive strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Pausing and thinking about reading</td>
<td>Cognitive strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Visualizing information read</td>
<td>Cognitive strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Evaluating conflicting information</td>
<td>Cognitive strategy</td>
<td>Post-reading</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Robeck & Wallace (1990), skills are related to abilities and strategies are related to styles. In the reading process, skills include decoding and analysing words that make up a text for identification. Once the strategy decision has been made by the reader that an inference is needed, the making of that inference is a skill. However, deciding whether to decode or to guess from context, or to use both of these skills at once would be a strategy. The use of both skills and strategies by the reader (learner) enables him/her to process the "encoded" message and thereafter extract meaning from it (Cabinda, 2014). However, considering that once the strategy decision has been made by the reader that an inference is needed, the making of that inference is a skill, seems to be referring to both cognitive and metacognitive strategy use.

### 2.6.1 Reading Strategy Instruction

The current study is aimed at improving reading comprehension skills among Mozambican university students, and it is embedded in recent research on reading trends, which have shown that improving students’ reading skills enables the improvement of their comprehension abilities (Macaro & Erler, 2008; Akkakoson, 2013), as well as their writing, speaking and listening skills.

To the best of our knowledge, no study has been conducted in the Mozambican research setting regarding strategic reading instruction using English as a foreign language. Recently, Cabinda (2014) has also dealt with reading strategies, but instead of setting up an instruction program, he has identified the existing practice of strategy use among Mozambican university students. Cabinda (2014) recognizes the existing difference in terms of methodological approaches to reading strategies when he states that:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Resolving conflicting information</th>
<th>Cognitive strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Re-reading for better understanding</td>
<td>Cognitive strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Guessing meaning of unknown words</td>
<td>Cognitive strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Taking notes while reading</td>
<td>Supply strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Underlining information in the text</td>
<td>Supply strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Using reference materials</td>
<td>Supply strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Paraphrasing for better understanding</td>
<td>Supply strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Going back and forth in the text</td>
<td>Supply strategy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
learners at a tertiary level, i.e. university readers of texts in L1 and FL, must be able to apply most of the skills (...) effectively when reading academic texts. It is crucial to point out, however, that, without adequate reading instruction, such readers will not be able to develop their ability to use these skills adequately or effectively, thus making it difficult for them to comprehend a text (Cabinda, 2014: 72).

This statement is congruent with his findings regarding the generally weak strategy use ability among Mozambican university students. Although there are similarities between Cabinda (2014) and the present study, since we are both dealing with reading strategies at the same university and with a population with similar linguistic background, the previous citation also shows the difference between both studies, since we have dealt with the “adequate instruction” in a Reading Strategy Instruction (RSI) program. During the implemented RSI program, we have dealt with the use of pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading strategies in order to see students’ progress in terms of reading comprehension after the RSI program. Also, we assume that students involved in our RSI program already used a set of strategies but not in a consistent or conscious manner. Some (and not all) of these strategies are the focus of the questions posited by Bernhardt (2011: 125), when she looks at current trends in strategic reading research:

Is translation the key second-language reading strategy? Do readers of upper-register texts continue to use translation as a strategy or do they suspend it in upper reaches, having enough cognitive capacity and confidence not to resort to it or to find it superfluous? Should we perceive the use of prior knowledge as a “strategy”? Are there second language versions of prediction or interpretation strategies? Should we understand compensation in terms of strategies?

Together with the research questions outlined for each study phase below, we won’t be able to answer all of the questions posited by Bernhardt (2011), but we will certainly deal with the issue of considering translation as a strategy in foreign language reading among Mozambican university students. We concentrate on translation because some studies have referred to translation as part of the supply strategies used by readers in foreign language reading comprehension activities (Feng & Mokhtari, 1998; Sheory & Mokhtari, 2001; Mokhtari & Reichard, 2004; Pang, 2008). This issue is linked to an aspect indicated by Bernhardt (2011) as one that still needs to be studied, which has to do with how readers deal with cognates versus non-cognates, especially in a multilingual context such as the one
involved in our study, where there are language similarities both between English and Portuguese and between English and Bantu languages. These similarity aspects are detailed in the first phase of this study, in Chapter 4 (section 4.5.3).

Note that in defining reading strategies it is necessary to look at possible differences between a skill and a strategy, since in some situations these two concepts are used interchangeably (Davis & Elder, 2006). According to Anderson (2009: 132) “strategies can be defined as conscious actions that learners take to improve their language learning”, or support mechanisms intended to aid the reader in her/his quest to understand a text (Sheorey & Mohktari, 2001). These concepts entail that learners need to be aware of the strategies they are using during the reading task, which explains why strategies can also be defined as “actions selected deliberately” (Grabe & Stoller, 2002: 16) when they are used intentionally.

For students to be able to use strategies in a more conscious manner there is a need of reading strategy instruction so that strategies can become automatic and hence they are turned into skills. Therefore, skills are strategies that “are applied to a text unconsciously” because they are already part of the reading repertoire of the reader (Pang, 2008). In other words, when a strategy becomes automatic, when a reader is capable of using a strategy without thinking about it, then the strategy can be called a skill. These concepts are summarized in Afflerbach, Pearson, and Paris (2008, cited in Anderson, 2009: 134):

> reading skills are automatic actions that result in decoding and comprehending texts with speed, efficiency, and fluency, usually without the reader’s awareness of the components or control involved. Reading skills operate without the reader’s deliberate control or conscious awareness (...). Reading strategies are deliberate, goal-directed attempts to control and modify the reader’s effort to decode text, understand words, and construct meaning of text.

Both the concepts of strategy and skill show that we have two levels of strategy use, that is, it moves from a conscious, deliberate and effortful action to an unconscious, automatic and effortless action. When students are aware of the strategy being used, mainly during strategy training programs and practice activities, we can say that they are dealing with a strategy. Then there is a stage when a strategy is automatically used by a student, meaning that s/he has complete mastery of it in a sense that s/he can use it without thinking about using it. At this stage, a reading strategy is then considered as a reading skill (Han & Anderson, 2009). Although the definitions show that when talking about strategies and skill we are dealing
with two levels in terms of competence/awareness, throughout this dissertation we have been using these two terms interchangeably, and we have also explained in the previous section (2.6) that skills and strategies have the same functions in the reading process.

2.6.2 Benefits of RSI program implementation

At this stage we focus our attention on the role of RSI programs and review some studies which have shown the benefits of RSI program implementation. What has been observed is that for readers to use reading strategies in an efficient manner, they need to be involved in reading instruction programs. The relevance of involving students in an RSI program is that having a conscious use of strategies implies a difference in terms of their text comprehension abilities, since “strategies are chosen and activated to facilitate and evaluate comprehension” (Cohen & Macaro 2007: 187). This implies that students who use reading strategies may have an advantage over those who do not, which suggests that Mozambican university students’ lack of conscious reading strategies may result in poor reading comprehension and that can have an effect on their ultimate learning outcomes.

Strategy training has been conducted both in L1 settings (e.g. Pearson & Fielding, 1991; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995; Loranger, 1997), and in L2 settings (e.g. Anderson, 1999; Zhang, 2001 cited in Zhang, 2007; Akkakoson, 2013) as a tool for the improvement of learners’ reading competence. These L1 and L2 studies have shown that strategy instruction indeed enables readers to improve their reading comprehension through the conscious use of reading strategies. Although strategy use may also depend on learners’ learning styles, both the L1 and the L2 studies suggest that strategy instruction leads to autonomous learning and provides readers with the ability to choose the proper strategy to use in a certain reading task. As Malcom (2009) underlines, reading strategies awareness is crucial in academic reading comprehension.

Recent studies (Lau & Chan, 2007; Macaro & Erler, 2008; Akkakoson, 2013) have shown that students who are explicitly taught reading strategies have better scores in reading comprehension measures than their counterparts. Lau & Chan (2003) compared 83 good readers and 76 poor readers on their ability to use reading strategies in Chinese reading comprehension. Strategies have shown to have a strong relation to reading comprehension, since poor readers showed lower intrinsic motivation and scored lower than good readers.
in all cognitive and metacognitive strategies. This suggests that not only strategy reading instruction improves reading comprehension, but also it improves motivation to read among good readers.

Macaro & Erler (2008) employed a longitudinal intervention study during 15 months among Grade 7 learners of French as a foreign language in comprehensive schools in England. Their goal was to investigate the use of reading strategies in reading comprehension, as well as attitudes toward reading in French. Results showed that reading strategy instruction has positive benefits on reading comprehension, mainly when it is based on specific skills, during a considerably long period of time.

One recent study conducted in Thailand by Akkakoson (2013) during 16 weeks and applying a pre-test/post-test design investigated the relationship between strategic reading instruction, the process of learning second language-based reading strategies and English reading achievement among 82 Thai university students of science and technology. The study concluded that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the standardised English post-test regarding the use of second language-based reading strategies. This again suggests that RSI is an effective way of promoting strategic reading among EFL students, since it enables them to become fluent readers.

Several RSI programs have been conducted in order to improve strategic reading. For instance, a study conducted by Khezrlou (2012) among Iranian advanced students learning English as a second language, concluded that consciousness-raising of cognitive reading strategies had a positive impact on the reading development of Persian-speaking students in the experimental group (20 participants), while the control group (20 participants) showed no improvement after the training program. Also, this study noted no statistical difference between male and female students.

Using the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) (Chamot & O'Malley, 1996), Takallou (2011), involved 93 Iranian university students in a study on the effect of metacognitive strategies’ instruction, planning and self-monitoring. Results showed that the two experimental groups involved in the study, outperformed the control group on the reading comprehension test. Moreover, text type played an important role in the participants' reading comprehension ability, since subjects performed better on authentic texts. Results have also showed that experimental groups’ awareness of metacognitive reading strategies significantly increased after instruction.
In the current study we did not test L2 proficiency among the students we involved. Another study (Cabinda, 2014) which dealt with reading strategies, tested L2 proficiency of Mozambican university students at the same university where we conducted the current study. Cabinda (2014) concluded that these students do not have a good L2 proficiency since their scores in the IELTS test were below 6 out of 10, which suggests that if they wanted to study abroad they would not be admitted to all courses, since some courses require higher IELTS scores. This suggests that Mozambican students’ low level of L2 proficiency affects their reading comprehension abilities. All in all, what can be understood so far is that most studies have shown that RSI helps students to improve their reading comprehension as well as the ability to choose what to read and when to read, that is, it improved readers' autonomy. Even students at a low level of L2 proficiency improve their comprehension skills when involved in an explicit strategy instruction (Zhang, 2008; Aghaie & Zhang, 2012).

One important issue noted is that being a strategic reader does not mean that a reader is a successful comprehender. What is important here is that there is a difference between a strategic reader and a non-strategic reader, where the former is the one who never gives up even when he encounters difficulties during the reading process, while the later, after applying all the possible strategies and still facing comprehension problems, loses motivation and prefers to give up reading. In other words, a strategic reader is also a motivated reader and “reading skills are motivated by goals of fluency, effortlessness, and accuracy; they give rise to the student reader’s pride in ability, not effort (…) strategic readers feel confident that they can monitor and improve their own reading so they have both knowledge and motivation to succeed” (Afflerbach, Pearson, and Paris, 2008, cited in Anderson, 2009: 136). This in general indicates that there is a sense of autonomy and confidence when a reader uses reading strategies effectively and actively.

Therefore, reading strategies are part of “the knowledge and strategic resources that capable readers rely upon when reading” (Brown, 2008: 539). While some of these skills need to be explicitly instructed (e.g. use structures like comparison-contrast and cause-effect to summarize important information), others are developed by the individual readers themselves even without teachers’ guidance or scaffolding (e.g. positive self-talk, practice and partaking in communication situations) (Brown, 2008).
Reading strategy instruction has proved to be effective in enhancing reading comprehension among students in various degrees and contexts as seen in the above-mentioned findings. Apart from developing general reading skills, students involved in RSI programs improve both the cognitive and the metacognitive skills they need in order to deal with reading tasks. In fact, the practice in strategy use enables students to use them in an automatic way, which means that strategy use moves deliberate to automatic, from effortful to effortless (Han & Anderson, 2009). However, to date no study has been conducted in Mozambique in order to test the effectiveness of an RSI program among primary, secondary or university learners.

2.6.3 Approaches to reading strategies instruction

Students go to the classroom with their own beliefs and expectations about language learning, and they bring to class a certain knowledge, which has an influence on language learning, the so-called schemata (i.e. in-built background knowledge) in psycholinguistics’ theories (Oliveira, 1988). This suggests two aspects: firstly, there is a great deal of knowledge or sources of knowledge which play an important role in reading comprehension and, secondly, there is a need of strategic awareness for students to become good readers in the academic setting. Lack of strategic reading awareness affects students’ reading practice and classroom performance, since sometimes students use reading strategies but are not aware of their use. What is needed is a context where they can be explicitly taught how to deal with reading texts in a more strategic manner in order to understand its content without too much effort. In sum, “the goal for explicit strategy instruction is to move readers from conscious control of reading strategies to unconscious use of reading skills” (Han & Anderson, 2009).

In general, we can infer that for students to gain effective academic reading skills there is a need of good reading strategy mastery. One way of trying to achieve such mastery is to develop a reading strategy instruction program. Among several strategies used by readers in a foreign language context for more efficient and accurate construction of meaning, we can find the use of cognates, as well as a wide range of supply/support/compensatory strategies such as code mixing and translation in second and foreign language reading comprehension activities (Feng & Mokhtari, 1998; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Mokhtari & Reichard, 2004; Pang, 2008). What these and more studies have recently shown is that there
is a positive correlation between reading strategy instruction and reading comprehension skills among students involved in strategy instruction programs. Similarly, our study is interested not only in giving opportunities to students to practise reading strategies that they already use, but also to offer them the opportunity to become strategic readers, which is crucial for them to achieve positive learning outcomes.

For students to become strategic readers, they need guidance in their first stages of strategy use. Here, the role of the teacher in RSI programs is crucial. A study conducted by Neufeld (2005) showed that even when students have the notion of reading strategies, still there is a need of a scaffolding step. That is what we have mentioned before when we stated that although strategic reading promotes autonomy among the students involved in an RSI program, the role of the teacher is crucial in the first steps of strategic reading. Therefore, teachers are necessary not only for teaching reading strategies, but also for showing students some of the effective steps through which reading skills and strategies can be used separately or in clusters, and this can also be done through several methods including think-aloud methods (Ericsson, 2002b) as well as through classroom guidance using other approaches as detailed below. In think-aloud methods, participants of an RSI program have to tell what they are thinking and doing while performing a reading task (Yoshida, 2008). In general, teachers need to be there to raise awareness and to model strategic reading so as to enable students to become expert comprehenders of challenging texts and to be able to use reading strategies in a spontaneous manner as well (Harrison, 2004 & Singhal, 2004, cited in Huang, Chern & Lin, 2009), so as to become autonomous.

Studies testing the importance of teaching reading strategies to students include McNamara (2004, 2007) and Ozgungor & Guthrie (2004). One of the techniques used by McNamara (2004) is called Self-Explanation Reading Training (SERT), a process of explaining in an oral or written form to oneself the meaning of a written text, by using reading strategies, for the improvement of such strategies. McNamara (2004)’s study examined the effects of providing reading strategy instruction to improve the effectiveness of self-explanation. The effects of the RSI were examined both in terms of comprehension scores and self-explanation quality. The experimental group (42 participants) received SERT, which included reading strategy instruction and self-explanation practice with 4 science texts. The control group (42 participants) read aloud the 4 science texts. During the training phase, self-explanation, as compared to reading aloud, only improved comprehension for the most
difficult of the 4 texts. Prior domain knowledge consistently improved comprehension performance, whereas reading skill and reading span had minimal effects. After training, both experimental and control participants self-explained a difficult text about cell mitosis. SERT improved comprehension and self-explanation quality only for participants with low domain knowledge and it helped participants to use logic, or domain-general knowledge, rather than domain-specific knowledge to make sense of the text.

Moreover, there is not a linear and single sequence in which strategies need to be used, although we generally have pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading skills and strategies. In a design similar to Saricoban (2002), who involved Advanced English level Turkish subjects in strategic reading activities, Yigiter, Saricoban, and Gürses (2005) found that good readers shift their strategy use depending on the reading purpose. Predicting, interpreting, and reflecting, were just some of the strategies which showed to be important and effective throughout the reading process. The main goal of an RSI program is “to raise student awareness as to the purpose and rationale of strategy use, to give students opportunities to practise the strategies that they are being taught and to help them understand how to use the strategies in the new learning contexts” (Cohen, 2000: 71).

Some of the existing RSI approaches are presented in Table 5 below. This table shows some of the existing RSI approaches. While Grenfell & Harris, 1999) proposes five basic steps: awareness raising, modelling, general practice, modelling and evaluation, O’Malley & Chamot (1994); Rubin, Chamot, Harris, and Anderson (2007: 142) have identified four basic steps. Step 1 has to do with raising awareness of the strategies learners already use, as well as choosing the strategies that will facilitate the completion of a certain task. At the step 2, students become increasingly aware of their own thinking and learning process. Although Grenfell & Harris (1999) propose five steps, what these author consider as step 2 and 3 (modelling, general practice) are both part of one single step 2 in O’Malley & Chamot (1994)’s and Rubin, Chamot, Harris, and Anderson (2007)’s approaches.
Table 5  Approaches to reading strategies training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>Authors</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>O’Malley &amp; Chamot (1994)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grenfell &amp; Harris (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rubin, Chamot, Harris, and Anderson (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Monitoring</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Problem-solving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Evaluation</td>
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</table>

In fact, it is in step 2 where a teacher presents the strategy and models while students pay attention to strategy use and check comprehension. In step 3 students apply strategies in new reading contexts. Here, they find opportunities to move towards autonomous use of the strategies through gradual withdrawal of the scaffolding. At this step readers find solutions for unexpected problems while reading. Step 4 is basically for an evaluation which can be done both students and teachers. These evaluate the effectiveness of the strategies used in the reading task and transfer of strategies to fresh tasks.

The current RSI program was framed in the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach - CALLA Model below in Table 6 below, proposed by Chamot & O’Malley (1994) and applied by Chamot et al. (1999), Chamot (2005), and Chamot, Bernhardt, El-Dinary and Robins (1999). This RSI instruction approach uses basically six steps. The model was used in all stages, i.e., from prompting reflections on reading strategies to a final performance evaluation.

Although we have chosen the CALLA Model to apply in the conducted RSI, all the other indicated approaches were taken into consideration since the differences is only in terminology used and in the number of indicated steps.

Table 6  Chamot & O’Malley (1994)’s CALLA Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 1 – Preparation</th>
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<tr>
<td>Develop student’s metacognitive awareness and self-knowledge through:</td>
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<tr>
<td>- discussions about strategies students already use for specific tasks;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- small group interviews in which students describe and share their special techniques for completing a task successfully;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOTE: teacher identifies students’ current learning strategies for familiar tasks.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Step 2 – Presentation

Teach the strategy explicitly by:
- modelling the use of strategy with a specific academic task by thinking aloud as the instructor works a task (e.g. reading a text);
- giving the strategy a name and referring to it constantly by that name;
- explain to students how the strategy will help them learn the materials;
- describe when, how, and for what kind of what kind of tasks they can use the strategy;
NOTE: the teacher models, names, and explains whether and how a new strategy is used.

Step 3 – Practice

Provide many opportunities for strategy practice through activities such as:
- cooperative learning; - reciprocal teaching; provide oral or written reports;
NOTE: students practise new strategy; in subsequent strategy practice, teacher fades reminders to encourage independent strategy use

Step 4 - Self-evaluation

Develop students’ metacognitive awareness of which strategies work for them – and why – through self-evaluation activities such as:
- debriefing discussions after using strategies;
- comparing their own performance on a task completed without using a strategy and a similar task in which they applied a strategy;
- self-reports telling when they use or do not use a strategy, and why.
NOTE: students evaluate their own strategy use immediately after practice

Step 5 – Expansion

Provide for transfer of strategies through activities such as:
- scaffolding, in which reminders to use a strategy are gradually diminished;
- praise for independent use of strategy;
- self-report: students bring tasks to class on which they have successfully transferred a strategy;
- thinking skills discussions in which brainstorm possible uses of strategies they are learning;
- follow-up activities in which students apply the strategies to new tasks and contexts;
- analysis and discussion of strategies individual students find effective for particular tasks
NOTE: transfer strategies to new tasks, combine them into clusters, develop preferred strategies

Step 6 – Assessment

NOTE: teacher assesses students’ use of strategies and impact on performance

Since the six-step approach in Table 6 was thought to be better for clear explanation of the process among the students involved, this approach was chosen for the present study. Looking at Tables 5 and 6 we can find similarities in terms of the steps indicated. Step 1 in Table 5 is the same as step 1 in Table 6, and this is the same for the step 2. What readers are supposed to do in step 3 in Table 5 is the same as what
readers do in step 3, 4 and 5 in Table 6. Finally, step 4 in Table 5 is the same as step 6 in Table 6.

The existence of many RSI approaches explains why Grabe (2009: 218) concluded that there is no single or best RSI approach, since what matters is that "every strategy, once introduced and practised, must be recycled consistently and often, usually in combination with other strategies as part of pre-, during-, and post-reading strategies". This is the model we have used in the current study.

2.7 Extensive Reading

One aspect to be tackled in our research is related to the growing literature on the role of extensive reading (ER) in enhancing reading speed and reading comprehension. By ER is meant a program in which students read a large number of books. Such readings are selected by the readers themselves according to their choice, interest and proficiency level. Students read whether in the classroom or outside the classroom learning environment and they do not expect direct assessment, since the main goal in ER is reading for pleasure and not for evaluation or competition (Bamford & Day, 1998; Eskey, 2002; Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Leung, 2002; Iwahori, 2008; Waring, 2011; Kirin, Poolsap, Phongthong, 2011). This issue is detailed in Chapters 5 and 6, where a group of students was involved in an extensive reading program.

Among the existing means through which readers can improve their reading competence, ER has been pointed out as one of the best means. As Nuttal (1982: 68) puts it, “the best way to improve your knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among its speakers. The next best way is to read extensively in it.” In fact, several scholars (Grabe, 2004, 2009; Day & Bamford, 1998; Krashen, 1993; Eskey, 2002; Day & Bamford, 2004) have underlined the importance of reading extensively as a predictor of fluent reading, effective reading comprehension and acquisition of several linguistic and reading skills.

The ER principles’ number 4 (the purposes of reading are usually related to pleasure, information and general understanding) and 6 (reading materials are well within the linguistic competence of the students) refer to pleasure and linguistic competence,
respectively, and these are related to the theoretical support of ER programs. In the field of L2 research what supports ER is also the hypothesis that when involved in an ER program, readers enjoy reading since they read easy materials of their choice (referred to as “Pleasure Hypothesis”) (Krashen, 2004) and the hypothesis posited by (Krashen, 1982), that comprehensible input (CI) is a sufficient condition for L2 acquisition. The existence of graded readers\(^2\) that is, books which are read from the lowest to the highest level of difficulty, stems from this view. According to Krashen (2004)’s Pleasure Hypothesis, students read materials in which they are interested because such readings make the reading process pleasant and relaxing. While readers engage in self-selected reading or in-school (and out-school) free reading, they also develop their linguistic and communicative competence in a continuous and pleasurable manner (Liu, 2005).

2.7.1 Extensive reading vs. Intensive reading

In Chapter 1 we have mentioned that there are no extensive (ER) programs at university level in Mozambique, and IR (short texts for language learning purposes) is the common practice or the only practice in the Mozambican ELT setting. These two types of reading have considerable differences, but they serve to complementary academic purposes. According to Carrell & Carson (1997: 49-50), “extensive reading…generally involves rapid reading of large quantities of materials or longer readings (e.g., whole books) for general understanding, with the focus generally on the meaning of what is being read than on the language.” Day & Bamford (1998, cited in Safaeia & Bulca, 2012: 593) offer another description of ER from an ELT classroom implementation perspective:

> extensive reading is an approach of teaching and learning a foreign language through reading texts or books that are chosen personally by the students guided by the instructors… In this approach, the main aim is to develop a reading habit on the part

\(^2\)Graded readers are books (both fiction and non-fiction) written at various and increasing levels of difficulty from beginner to advanced and are the typical, but not only, materials used for ER. They are aimed at building readers’ fluency and speed and they have many benefits such as enabling readers to meet comprehensible input (CI) from one level to another, improving reading comprehension, as well as creating motivation for readers to engage in voluntary reading until (some) readers gain a native-like reading ability. (ERF, 2011; Waring, 2011).
of students, let them enjoy their reading, and have a general comprehension of what they read without using dictionaries.

In ER programs, students choose materials to read pleasurably, and they read as many books as they can, whether in the classroom or outside, and without the pressure of testing. Literature on extensive reading (reading longer texts for pleasure), has shown that ER improves reading comprehension and fluency (reading speed) (Mart, 2015; Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Krashen 1993; Day & Bamford, 1998, 2002; Rasinski, 2004; Samuels, 2006; Iwahori, 2008), and it also contributes to positive feelings and thoughts (attitudes) towards reading (Kirin et al., 2012; Baker, 2003; Cole, 2002; McKenna et al., 1995; Miller, 2003; Willis, 2002).

ER has to do with reading a large quantity of texts with reasonable comfort, motivation, with and without needing external aids or stopping constantly. This type of reading requires some awareness of text structure, knowledge of reading strategies even in a superficial manner, the ability of inferencing, monitoring and it is normally done over a long period of time (Carrell & Carson, 1997; Yamashita, 2004; Yamashita, 2008; Grabe, 2009).

Regarding the basic characteristics of a good ER program, the following are general suggestions put forward by Day & Bamford (1998: 7-8; Day & Bamford, 2002):

1. Students read as much as possible, and this may be in and definitely out of the classroom learning environment.
2. A variety of materials on a wide range of topics is available so as to encourage reading for different reasons and in different ways.
3. Students select what they want to read and have the freedom to stop reading material that fails to interest them.
4. The purposes of reading are usually related to pleasure, information and general understanding. The purposes are determined by the nature of the material and the interests of the reader.
5. Reading is its own reward. There are few or no follow-up exercises after reading.
6. Reading materials are well within the linguistic competence of the students in terms of vocabulary and grammar. Dictionaries are rarely used while reading because the constant stopping to look up words makes fluent reading difficult.
7. *Reading is individual and silent* and at the student’s own pace. It is done when and where the reader chooses.

8. *Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower* as students read books and other materials they find easily understandable.

9. *Teachers orient students to the goals of the program, explain* the methodology, *keep track* of what each student reads, and *guide* students in getting the most out of the program.

10. *The teacher is a role model of a reader for the students.* The teacher is an active member of the classroom reading community, and s/he demonstrates what it means to be a reader and the rewards of being a reader.

When these 10 principles are met, the ground is ready for an ER program implementation. As we can see from the principles, ER is different from intensive reading in its nature. Extensive reading as a term naming an approach to teaching a foreign language reading was introduced by Harold Palmer and Michael West after piloting a project of ER in India. Kelly (1969, cited in Day, 2015) claimed that Harold Palmer was the first to use the term *extensive reading* in foreign language (FL) teaching. In Palmer’s view of ER, students read a great deal and read quickly. Palmer believed that in ER, books were read for both language study and real-world experiences (i.e., pleasure and information). Day & Bamford (1998: 6) credited another ER pioneer, Michael West, with developing ER methodology. West’s term for ER was “*supplementary*” reading. “It is important to note the use of the terms *reading a great deal, reading quickly,* and *real-world experiences* in these early conceptions of extensive reading. These original aspects of ER continued to be recognized and utilized since the early days of ER” (Day, 2015: 294).

The term *extensive reading* was chosen to distinguish extensive reading from intensive reading. As Nuttal (1996: 23, cited in Carrell & Carson, 1997) stated:

intensive reading involves approaching the text under the close guidance of the teacher, or under the guidance of the task which forces the student to pay great attention to the text. The aim of intensive reading is to arrive at a profound and detailed understanding of the text: not only of “what” it means, but also of “how” the meaning is produced.
In intensive reading students read short quantities of (generally difficult) texts which are aimed at teaching some linguistic aspects and where students expect questions as part of the assessment. By contrast, in ER students read simpler materials and they are not required to demonstrate a deep understanding of the texts as it is required in intensive reading activities. Intensive reading can be associated with teaching of reading in terms of its component skills i.e. distinguishing the main idea of a text, reading for gist etc., while ER is a reading in which is associated with the aim of getting a general idea and not for understanding the meaning of individual words or sentences.

ER is used to promote fluency and involve more enjoyment than language learning and testing in intensive reading. The existing differences in reading purposes and types may also mean that different reading skills are used in IR and ER. Depending on the context in which we are reading, we may have different purposes for engaging in the reading process. These different purposes mean that there is also the need of using different skills in order to be able to achieve the reading goal.

While IR deals with short texts and it is concerned more with taking notes and reading efficiently, understanding meaning and relationships within the text, as well as understanding the important points in a certain text, ER deals with a large quantity of texts, and its purpose is reading for pleasure and not for academic purposes (Eskey, 2002; Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Yamashita, 2008). In other words, IR is the reading which is more interested in text details. In IR, students normally work with short texts with close guidance from the teacher. The aim of IR is to help students get detailed meaning from the text, to develop reading skills, such as identifying main ideas and recognizing text connectors and to enhance vocabulary and grammar knowledge. Reading skills such as inferencing and guessing word meaning from context are also addressed in IR activities.

In spite of differences between the two approaches to teaching reading - ER and IR – these should not to be seen as being in opposition, but as complementary reading types which a good reader needs to have, given that both serve different but complementary purposes (Carrell an& Carson, 1997; Nuttal, 1996, Mart, 2015). In this context, there are aspects learnt from IR which can also be acquired thorough ER, and vice-versa (Mart, 2015). Among several aspects gained through ER we can underline vocabulary, fluency, reading comprehension skills, among other benefits which will be discussed in the section below. However, by solely using intensive reading we cannot promote reading habits – which is
the main issue reported also by Mozambican scholars and librarians (Rosário, 2009; 2009; Buendía, 2010).

Although intensive reading is primarily intended to teach about language and even reading strategies, there are still other strategies which are best learned in longer texts, thence the need of ER as well. Here, ER and IR play a complementary role in terms of the skills required for dealing with reading comprehension activities. For instance, in both reading types we can have similar reading purposes (Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Grabe, 2009) such as reading for quick understanding and reading to search for simple information (scanning and skimming). Both scanning and skimming allow a reader to search for information and, for these purposes, the reader surveys the text quickly and with high rates of words per minute. This is why reading is also a rapid process. In both ER and IR we normally skim when we are looking for general information, a skill which is necessary in many contexts, including the academic context. It is also about guessing where the important information might be and drawing a general idea basing on what we have read quickly. After skimming, we may come to the conclusion that the text we have is or it is not the one we really need to read to find the information we are looking for.

Both ER and IR can be found in the academic setting but they are different from academic reading. Academic reading is therefore more challenging than ER. Academic reading takes the form of IR and not ER in most of the reading class activities. Academic English is defined as "the language that is used by teachers and students for the purpose of acquiring new knowledge and skills… imparting new information, describing abstract ideas, and developing students’ conceptual understanding" (Chamot & O’Malley, 1994: 40). Schleppegrell (2001: 432) defines academic English as a special ‘register’ that entails a specific ‘constellation of lexical and grammatical features’ used in the school context, a concept that specifies exactly ‘what’ language is being used for school tasks in terms of vocabulary, sentence structures, and kinds of genre. Students need to be able to use English in academic settings to perform tasks similar to the ones referred to by Wallace (1980: 9-51, cited in Gillet, 1996):

• Note taking and reading efficiently: surveying the text, chapter and paragraph; skimming the text and scanning to locate specifically required information; reading quickly.
• Understanding meaning: deducing the meaning of unfamiliar words and word groups; semantic implications of relations within the sentence or within complex sentences, e.g. comparison, purpose, cause, effect.; unravelling information not explicitly stated;

• Understanding relationships in the text: text structure; relations between the parts of a text through lexical and grammatical cohesive devices or in discourse.

• Understanding important points: distinguishing the main ideas from supporting details; recognising unsupported claims and claims supported by evidence; recognising fact from opinion; summarising; following an argument; reading critically; evaluating the text.

As will be discussed in Chapter 5, for the first ER program conducted in 2013, two tests (a pre-test and a post-test) were used and the text used for testing was not similar to the narratives or literary texts used throughout the ER program, but an academic reading text. The use of that text was within the Mart (2015)’s perspective of evaluating the relation between ER and other reading types, such as academic reading. Therefore, through ER, we will evaluate whether students do acquire some of the aspects which are mentioned above as specific to academic reading competencies.

2.7.2 Benefits of extensive reading

There are research-proven benefits of ER when it is conducted under the right conditions. As (Richards & Schmidt, 2002: 193-194) writes, "extensive reading means reading in quantity and in order to gain a general understanding of what is read. It is intended to develop positive reading habits, to build up knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and to encourage a liking for reading". This definition itself underlines some of the benefits of ER. For instance, when it refers to positive reading habits and the liking for reading, it is underlining the shift in the way students involved in an ER program think and feel about reading.

Regarding other benefits of ER, it was observed that although intensive reading is primarily intended to teach about language and even reading strategies, there are still other strategies which are best learned in longer texts, thence the need of ER as well. Taking into account
that there are some comprehension barriers found by university learners/readers, it has been concluded that “it is only through extended exposure to meaningful print that texts can be processed efficiently and that students will develop as fluent readers” (Grabe & Stoller, 2002: 30). Therefore, our hypothesis is that through ER Mozambican university students can develop some of the skills which they normally acquire only through IR and they can even acquire other skills and strategies which are not achievable through IR, but also bring considerable linguistic and reading comprehension gains. Extensive reading is a tool for success in several academic aspects, specifically in academic reading and, those students who engage more regularly in readings achieve significantly higher results (Worthy, 2002). ER is underlined as a means through which students can become fluent readers. These fluent readers accomplish numerous operations while reading. That is, “reading comprehension processes work in parallel when some skills are relatively automatic; some processes need to be relatively automatic if reading is going to work efficiently; and fast and efficient processing is the hallmark of fluent reading comprehension abilities” (Grabe & Stoller, 2002: 29). The aspect of reading fluency is detailed in Chapter 5, since one of the research questions within this study is understanding the relation between ER and reading speed, given that some studies (Nuttal, 1996; Day & Bamford, 2002; Yamashita, 2010) have underlined that the more one reads, the more s/he increases reading fluency, and enjoys reading.

Carrell & Carson (1997) state that ER involves a wide range of reading skills and strategies. Similarly, Mart (2015: 85) conducted an ER program among Arabic students learning English as a second language at Ishik University in Iraq. Mart (2015) involved an ER group, an IR group and a combined reading group. Students were tested for reading comprehension before the and during the ER program. Mart (2015) concluded that “learners gain skills and strategies through guided reading and/or free-reading or to put it in another way learners promote their language proficiency via reading for accuracy and reading for fluency”. A new approach which has been added in the study by Mart (2015) is the observation of the relation between ER and Intensive reading during the same reading program. We will come to this issue in Chapter 5, where we discuss our ER program results.

Since one of the benefits of ER is enhancing other linguistic skills, (Krashen, 1993) has proposed the reading hypothesis which postulates that ER has a facilitative effect on various skills such as reading comprehension, writing style, vocabulary, grammar, and spelling. In
fact, improving learners’ reading skills through extensive reading contributes to the improvement of fluency (Grabe & Stoller, 2002), including other skills (Dupuy & Krashen, 1993; Waring & Takati, 2003; Day & Bamford, 2004). When students are involved in reading activities, they do not develop only their general reading skills, but they also improve their listening, speaking and writing skills (Elley, 1991, cited in Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Dupuy & Krashen, 1993; Waring & Takati, 2003; Day & Bamford, 2004). Many studies have reported good results of ER programs, in term of, among others, reading comprehension and reading speed (Bell, 2001), vocabulary growth (Grabe & Stoller, 1997; Stanovich, 2000; Horst, 2005; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006), grammar (Yang, 2001), reading and writing (Hafiz & Tudor, 1989, 1990), fluency development (Kuhn & Stahl, 2003) writing (Tsang, 1996; Hafiz & Tudor, 1989), and general L2 proficiency (Mason & Krashen, 1997). According to several studies and scholars (Carrell & Carson, 1997; Yamashita, 2008), the benefits of ER are as follows:

- **ER improves reading comprehension**: the aim of is to improve both fluency and comprehension. ER enables learners to read texts at such a pace that they can easily understand what they are reading with no need of external aids like dictionaries or glossaries (Iwahori, 2008). In fact, several studies have shown that ER improves reading comprehension (Krashen 1993; Day & Bamford, 1998, 2002; Rasinski, 2004; Samuels, 2006; Iwahori, 2008). This suggests that the more students read, the more fluent they become, and the more fluent they are, the more confident they become as they read quickly and enjoyably with adequate comprehension and, by doing so, they don’t even need a dictionary (Waring, 2011). Also, bearing in mind that the rate at which one reads and the fact that getting better scores in comprehension questions somehow define readers’ reading fluency, we can expect that fluent readers are better at comprehending texts than poor readers (Robb & Susser, 1989). In other words, increased reading rate leads to increased fluency which, in turn, enhances reading comprehension (Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass & Gorsuch, 2004). Hence, there is an interrelationship between fluency and reading comprehension in the sense that when one is a good reader it also means that one is a fluent reader, and vice-versa. However, it should of course not be ignored that there are several factors that play a great role in the
improvement of reading comprehension such as motivation and the linguistic level of the readings (Bell, 1998). That is, reading is an interactive process in which readers use their knowledge and in which they need to be fluent so as to comprehend effectively the text they are reading, given that poor readers, during the reading process, might lose the existent connection between words and even between paragraphs (Sheu, 2003);

- **ER provides learners with comprehensible input:** the fact that in ER readers are mostly involved in readings that are selected according to their different levels, the so-called graded readers (Hafiz & Tudor, 1990; Waring, 2011), suggests that ER is not effective when the level of complexity of readings becomes more and more challenging in a gradual and comprehensible sequence, that is, readings are of an increasingly higher level of difficulty. This explains the existence of graded readers, which are books (both fictional and non-fictional) written at various and increasing levels of difficulty, from beginner to advanced and are the typical, but not only, materials used for ER. They are aimed at building readers’ fluency and speed and they have many benefits such as enabling readers to meet comprehensible input – (abbreviated as - CI) from one level to another (Bell, 1998), improving reading comprehension, as well as creating motivation for readers to engage in voluntary reading until (some) readers gain a native-like reading ability (ERF, 2011; Waring, 2011). For students to develop sustained automaticity and reading fluency there is a need for a great deal of input that needs to be comprehensible, and ER is one of the best ways through which students can be exposed to an input-rich learning environment (Ellis, 2005). According to the ER theoretical support, the Input Hypothesis, for both comprehension and acquisition to occur, the input must have forms and structures just beyond the current level of learner’s competence in the language (formalized as i+1) (Krashen, 1982: 2-3). This view was formulated by Krashen (1982) when he noted that when conditions like adequate exposure to the language, interesting materials, and a relaxed, tension-free learning environment are met, ER leads to language acquisition. In the context of this hypothesis,
readings should be at a considerably higher level than the student's current level of reading comprehension, and such readings have to be understandable for students with no need of external aids such as dictionaries. Unknown words will not affect the normal flow of their reading comprehension, since students can use all the known reading strategies in order to comprehend textual meaning. However, there are affective factors which can filter the amount of the input and the rate of the learner’s intake (Larsen-Freeman, D. & Long, M. H., 1991). We will deal with the Affective Filter Hypothesis in the section about ER and reading attitudes below.

- *ER enhances learners’ general language competence:* reading benefits all language skills other than reading skills (Elley, 1991). When students talk about what they are reading, they improve their speaking skills (Day & Bamford, 1998: 32-39). When they are listening to a story shared by a classmate, they are also improving their listening skills. When they are writing a summary of what they have read, they are improving their writing skills. Although some benefits may only be deeply observed after an extended period of time, some studies show that when reading improves listening, writing and even speaking skills also improve (Elley, 1991, cited in Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Dupuy & Krashen, 1993; Waring & Takati, 2003). ER gives opportunities for readers to be in contact with the target language, and by keeping in contact with the language they consolidate, broaden and deepen the knowledge about it. Since readers do not have that much time to be in contact with the language in the classroom learning environment, especially in EFL/ESL contexts like the one in which the current study was conducted, ER is then the solution for readers to keep in contact with English during a longer period of time.

- *ER extends, consolidates and sustains vocabulary growth:* it has been asserted that *ER* extends, consolidates and sustains vocabulary growth (Pigada & Schmitt, 2006, cited in Maley, 2007; Day & Bamford, 1998; Nation, 2001; Renandya & Jacobs, 2002; Horst, 2005; Samuels, 2006; Chun
et al., 2012). In fact, these and other researchers have shown that during an ER program, learners not only encounter new words that contribute to their vocabulary knowledge and growth, but they also encounter the same words used in different contexts and so they learn their different contextual uses and meanings. This enables them to deduce words meaning from the context where they are used (Pigada & Schmitt, 2006). This explains why words become decoded automatically and fluently and, in the meantime, sight vocabulary is gradually being increased. With sight vocabulary we refer to words that learners can recognize easily, rapidly and accurately, which happens when they encounter the same words repeatedly in many texts (Grabe, 1988; Iwahori, 2008). This means that automatic decoding is developed when readers have a large sight vocabulary and, in this situation, text comprehension becomes easier and faster (Samuels, 2006; Renandya & Jacobs, 2002). When students know most of the words they encounter in their readings, they become confident, independent and fluent readers (Day & Bamford, 1998), since the final goal of a fluent reader is to read at a normal speaking pace, meantime, comprehending what is being read (Rasinski, 2004).

- **ER enables learners to develop their syntactic and world knowledge:** when students are reading several stories they get in contact with the reality in the cultural, historical, ideological and even geographical perspective. While students read, they are also dealing with the structure of the language in all levels, from the word, sentence to the discourse level. Apart from their world knowledge (Nassagi, 2003 cited in Iwahori, 2008), ER enables readers to improve conceptual knowledge, as well as other academic skills (Grabe, 1986 cited in Grabe, 2009). For instance, Mozambique is a Portuguese-speaking country where few books have been translated into English so far. Although there are many readings imported from English speaking countries, reading translated books which reflect the Mozambican culture and history could be self-rewarding for Mozambican students. In other words, involving Mozambican students in an ER program cannot raise the habits of reading
for pleasure only, but having translated books which deal with local reality can also be a motivating factor for them to engage in reading.

- **ER creates and sustains motivation to read:** most of the fluent readers are also motivated because they enjoy reading. Motivation is linked to pleasure (Krashen, 2004) as well. That is the reason why ER involves readings that are easy for the reader and such books are chosen according to one’s proficiency and interest. Grabe (2009) citing (Elley, 2000; Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass & Gursuch, 2004) refers that ER not only creates and sustains motivation to read, but also it provides a positive experience for students who engage in reading, since readers become more fluent and confident, as their motivation increases side by side with their positive attitudes towards the foreign language. An increasingly positive attitude towards the foreign language may also influence the improvement that is seen on all the reading, speaking, listening and writing skills (Day & Bamford, 2004).

- **ER feeds into improved writing:** there is a link between reading and writing, the reason why in literature it is said that the best writers were or are still the best readers as well. The idea is that since we have a massive and extensive exposure to language through reading, our language acquisition mechanism is reflected into writing. Obviously, when readers are writing summaries of the stories they read, they are improving their writing skills, consciously or even unconsciously (Hafiz & Tudor 1989; Hoey, 2005). For instance, when students are supposed to write short summaries for them to report on what they are reading, they are exercising writing skills, and so ER feeds into improved writing, since the more we read, the better we write (Hafiz & Tudor, 1989, cited in Grabe, 2009; Mason & Krashen, 1997; Hoey, 2007, cited in Maley, 2007). Also, when students are orally sharing what they are reading or interacting in classroom discussion, they are also improving their speaking skills, meantime, those who are listening are also improving their
listening skills (Elley & Mangubhai, 1983). These are then the elements that sustain the conclusion that ER improves all four language components.

- **ER values and develops learner autonomy**: since students read individually, ER promotes individual language learning, autonomous language learning and independent language learning. Students are free to read at their personal pace, and they can read whatever, whenever and wherever they feel it is better for them, and they can start or finish reading whenever the conditions are created. Readers are also free to ask themselves explicit or implicit questions while reading. In the past decades, EFL was based on teaching grammar and vocabulary. However, in the 80’s and 90’s it was found that there was a need for teaching reading fluency through communication and by enabling learners to explore their own linguistic growth and communicative development (Waring, 2011). This then entails a design of activities that enable learners to be free from the classroom learning environment so that they can do what they feel that fits their level, interest and choice in and outside the classroom learning environment. For instance, writing summaries for reporting on readings may seem a compulsory activity in the beginning of an ER program, but as time goes by and students engage themselves in autonomous reading activities, although with the guidance of a model reader, that is, a teacher, reading becomes a voluntary task. ER values and develops learner autonomy, the state which all students and any successful course should strive for (Sheerin, 1998, cited in Cheng & Lin, 2010). Therefore, although the learning process is perfectly done through collaboration between the teacher and students, there is a moment at which students are responsible for their own learning process and where teachers are not more than facilitators. At this stage, readers choose what, where and when to read and they are free to use any reading strategy they want.

Looking at the benefits of ER outlined above, we can see that ER is important for the improvement of reading skills as well as for language acquisition. What generally happens in several studies undertaken in different ER programs so far is that each study emphasises
one or more benefits in one or several ER programs. Recent studies (Renandya, et al., 1999; Camiciottoli, 2001) indicate that when readers are involved in an ER program, they gain reading habits, they develop their autonomy, they improve their general language competence and reading comprehension, they develop general world knowledge, improve their writing and spelling (e.g. Krashen, 1989; Day & Swan, 1998), speaking and listening skills, they deal actively with comprehensible input, they feel motivated to read more and more, and they extend and gradually consolidate their vocabulary, among other benefits.

In sum, the need of ER programs in EFL contexts was already underlined by Grabe (1986, cited in Benson, 1991: 86), who stated that we have to “teach students to read and work with extended pieces of texts comfortably, applying those skills and strategies that are part of the native reader’s skill- for example, reading for general information and maintaining concentration over extended periods of time.”

### 2.7.3 Requirements for setting up an ER program

The ER practice started in the 1960s and 1970s with the onset of Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) programs in the United States and elsewhere, and the so-called “book flood campaigns” recommended since the 1950s. These programs meant having a classroom library with 50-100 books and encouraging students to read these books as a free and voluntary activity (Grabe, 2009). In spite of this long past, ER programs are not spread in many schools and even countries all over the world, since their implementation has shown some limitations in many academic contexts like the one we have in Mozambique, where there is shortage of academic and literary books in several libraries.

Promoting ER in the Mozambican context would be a step forward to promote reading habits and fluent reading, but conditions are not yet created in the academic setting and/or no one has yet proposed to implement ER programs as such because the education system does not value it so far. The implementation of an ER program can enable students to consolidate and improve their linguistic and grammatical competence (Bell, 1998), and they can also develop positive attitudes towards reading itself and towards the target language as a whole. The conditions for implementing an ER program can be summarized as follows: there are available books at different levels of difficulty; students value what they read since they read what they choose according to their linguistic level and interest and, hence should
read at a faster pace; students are aware of the benefits of reading for pleasure and teachers are available as models who are guiding/modelling the reading activities (Day & Bamford, 1998, 2002; Walker, 1997). Unfortunately, these conditions are not met in many academic settings.

One of the reasons for the lack of ER programs in many countries and universities is that most EAP programs are interested in teaching language skills, vocabulary, grammar, translation, or study skills and not fluency in reading. The second reason is that the implementation of ER programs requires a large quantity of different books (and sometimes copies of the same books) to distribute among the readers, which is costly. These reasons explain why in contexts like Mozambique, where there is a problem with reading materials from the primary to the university level, extensive reading programs have never been introduced. This is also the reason why the current study on ER was the first to be conducted in the whole country. The fact that there were no books available in the local library, no local literature on the issue, and sometimes no motivation among students, were among the factors that contributed to the challenging aspect of the study.

Another aspect which limits the implementation of ER programs is the belief that the development of accurate comprehension skills through intensive reading program will enable good comprehenders/readers to develop fluent reading skills on their own (Grabe, 2009) even without a close guidance of the teacher. For instance, at UEM, where the current study was conducted, students doing the English Language Teaching course are required to read and summarize about 4 to 8 books/novels during a semester, but such extensive reading skills are not thoroughly controlled which reduces the relevance of the task. Students are given a task which is similar to extensive reading but they are not introduced to the importance of reading extensively; they are never given time to read in class; they do not share their readings in the classroom; there is no control of how many pages they read in order to see their progress; and there is no measure that enables the teacher to see if the summary they give is their own or was downloaded from internet sites. In other words, they are just given the task and left on their own, with the belief that they will become fluent readers even without external guidance. This means that they can only become fluent readers if they are deeply interested in reading for some specific academic or professional purposes.
The problem we have just mentioned above may be linked to another problem which is related to teachers. Most of the times teachers are not prepared to teach reading because they have no experience with it or they do not even like reading for pleasure. In that case, they may lack abilities to deal with a practical ER program. Even more important is the lack of support for ER in curricula planning and on all design levels, due to lack of understanding of ER and its benefits. What happens in the case of Mozambique is similar to what Grabe (2009: 313) signalled as an important problem, i.e., “both teachers and administrators think that reading can be done for homework.” In this case, ER is considered as a secondary requirement and not as primary need in the curriculum. Since ER is not foreseen in curriculum planning, it can be expected that there will be resistance from teachers, because they will not let ER take place, since there is not enough time for this kind of program. Another aspect has to do with the role of the teacher in the teaching and learning process, where a teacher thinks that s/he has to be present whenever a student is learning in order to show that s/he is really teaching. For most of the teachers at UEM and in other academic settings, “working” means dealing only with syllabi and textbooks and not with programs and materials that are not foreseen in the syllabi (Grabe, 2009).

2.8  Reading attitudes among Mozambican readers

Mozambican students do not have the motivation to read since they do not have role models in their family and academic settings. In the Mozambican education system, there are no extensive reading programs and book clubs. This fact contributes to the lack of reading habits among students and, consequently, negative attitudes towards reading. This leads to the definition of reading attitude as “a system of feelings related to reading which causes the learner to approach or avoid a reading situation” (Alexander & Filler, 1976: 1, cited in Yamashita, 2013). Reading attitudes are learnt characteristics that influence whether students engage in or avoid reading activities and such attitudes can be influenced by societal, familial, and school-based factors (Baker, 2003; Cole, 2002; McKenna et al., 1995; Miller, 2003; Willis, 2002), since reading is a socio-cultural practice that has its roots in the relationships and interactions of parents/guardians and children even from an early age.
(Morrow & Young, 1997). If the Mozambican education system does not promote reading for pleasure, the society does not value reading as a self-rewarding practice, the family settings do not have role models for Mozambican students, and then few students will engage in reading.

It has been shown that ER not only promotes reading habits among readers who are involved in ER programs, but also that reading itself contributes to a change in the way students feel and think about reading, mainly when they are motivated to read (Mathewson, 1994; McKenna, 1994; Reeves, 2002; Yamashita, 2004; Yamashita, 2013; Stoeckel et al., 2012). In fact, studies have shown that when motivated to read (Fujita & Noro, 2009), students do shift their feeling and thoughts about reading and start valuing it not only for their academic purposes, but also for their linguistic, professional and even intellectual purposes.

Since university students need to read several academic texts in their daily academic lives, reading should be as normal as any other academic activity. However, according to our experience as lecturers in Mozambique, especially at the Eduardo Mondlane University, Mozambican students only read when they are told to and sometimes they don’t read even when they are told to do so. In addition to that, for most of students, the family setting does not provide them with reading role models in their L1, which could be important when transferring reading skills and the habit to the L2 reading context. In fact, Momi & Sahari (2013) have noted that access and availability of reading materials at home is the cornerstone of a successful reading culture.

Therefore, involving students in reading activities should be a major concern among students who do not have reading habits, so that they do not see reading as a compulsory activity, but as a free and voluntary activity. Lack of reading habits among university students resulting from lack of ER programs throughout Mozambique may be among the reasons why students are not good or fluent readers, which negatively affects their reading attitudes.

The definition of an attitude as “a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object”, used by Fishbein & Ajzen (1975: 6, cited in McKenna, 1994), is similar to the one which advocates that attitude is “a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour”, provided by Eagly & Chaiken (1998: 1). Both definitions
refer to an entity or object to which a subject may have either a favourable or unfavourable judgement.

With the term judgement, in the reading context, we refer to what a reader thinks or feels about a certain statement (about reading) to which s/he has to show her/his reaction which, as noted in the previous definitions of reading attitude, may be favourable or not. Taking into consideration that reading attitude has to do with what one thinks or feels about a given activity, object or entity as described in the concepts above, we can therefore consider that ER may foster positive reading attitudes, since throughout the reading process readers may gain reading habits and see its benefits, thus influencing the decision of not giving up even when faced with challenging reading activities.

We have noted elsewhere in Chapter 1 that Mozambican university students and even some librarians are not used to reading, and this is the same among the majority of the adult literate Mozambican people (Rosário, 2009), which indicates that their reading attitude is not as positive as it should be. This is also derived from the Mozambican popular belief that reading is only for those who have money to waste on books, or that people do not have time for reading, except those who have nothing else to do because they are done with the struggles of survival. In fact, it is not common to see someone sitting and reading a novel in Mozambique. In the few cases you find someone reading in a bus, train or in a garden, that person is seen as proud, someone who wants to “show-off”, who wants to show that s/he is more intelligent than the rest of the people around. These beliefs trace back to the idea expressed by Levine (2002), which underlines that the ability to read was traditionally a skill confined only to the noble and clergy. Taking into consideration that students’ attitudes are “perceived to be a function of the effect associated with the beliefs a person holds about the object” (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1972: 507), then we can predict that reading attitudes in a community where reading is not valued will be negative. This suggests that students' attitude with respect to reading academic texts and fictional literature does not differ broadly. Throughout the country students do not value either fictional literature or academic texts, since they are used to read only when they are told to do so. Our experience as university teachers in Mozambique has shown that students skip even academic readings that are compulsory for learning purposes.

Concerning the linguistic level and interest in reading, we can recall Krashen (1982)’s Affective Filter Hypothesis (Kirin et al., 2012). Krashen has shown that language learning
and comprehension could depend on comprehensible input, but the Affective Filter Hypothesis goes beyond that by showing that CI may depend on a filter which controls the level of the input and how it is subsequently turned into intake or acquired knowledge, as shown in Fig. 2 below.

This indicates that affective factors play a facilitative role in SLA and, in this case, in L2 reading. Among such emotional states we can find motivation, anxiety, self-confidence and attitude.

For instance, a high affective filter and the limited linguistic intake resulting from this may be the result of a lack of motivation and this may, in turn, result into anxiety and negative attitudes towards reading. High motivation, a positive self-image, self-confidence, and a low level of anxiety are necessary for learners’ success in SLA. It is then crucial to create a learning context in which readers do not get stressed when engaging in reading activities. The fact that students are involved in a tension-free environment enables them to choose what, where and when to read, depending on their choices and interests. Therefore, "when more reading is done and language learned, positive attitude and motivation to read increase simultaneously" (Kirin et al., 2012: 1179).

Furthermore, the concept of attitude is related to that of motivation, since recent studies have shown that motivated readers hold positive attitudes towards reading and, as a result, they become good readers, since their self-perception is also positive (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). Those students who are not motivated and who have not developed any self-confidence, eventually give up more easily when faced with new reading challenges (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997). Here, motivation and attitude are some of the positive effects of ER, and they have been reported in several studies (Cho & Krashen, 1994; McKenna, 1994; Constantino, 1994; Hayashi, 1999). That is, ER feeds into motivation
(Elley, 2000; Grabe, 2009) and it also values and develops learner autonomy (Sheerin, 1998, cited in Cheng & Lin, 2010).

Looking at the relationship between ER, motivation and positive attitudes towards reading (Lightbown, 1992, cited in Grabe, 2009), we can see that motivation is closely related to the rate and success of second or foreign language learning, since it is one of the most important factors influencing success or failure in learning the language (McDonough, 1983). There is a relation between motivation and language learning, and, especially reading, given that learner’s motivation to read is determined by attitudes towards the reading task. It was also observed that for linguistic attainment, attitudes are again linked to motivation, which suggests that curriculum designers have to take into consideration both elements when designing language teaching programs and when selecting reading tasks and activities (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Lifrieri, 2005). Also, students’ attitudes to reading have been found to have an effect on both engagement and achievement in reading (McKenna, Kear & Ellsworth, 1995). Those students with more negative attitudes engage less often in texts and generally achieve at levels lower than their age and class peers (McKenna et al., 1995).

A motivated reader is expected to be capable of reading for a long period of time per day, while less motivated students do not read for that long per day (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). This engagement is somehow the result of the beliefs and values that each learner attaches to reading. For those students who are not motivated to read, teachers need to understand that reading is linked to emotion and most of the times students read what they like, the reason why in ER programs students need to be given the opportunity to choose what to read according to their individual interest. The emotional connection between the reader and the text determines if one will engage in reading or not, and if one is not emotionally linked to the reading, the academic achievement will not be the desired. In this context, teachers need to enable students to like reading, making it attractive in order to enhance students’ positive attitudes (Deford, 2004). If the teachers are not good readers themselves, if teachers have negative beliefs about the relevance of reading in general, if the curriculum or the syllabus does not foresee reading activities, then how can we expect students to be motivated to read? It is important to note that some teachers agree on the idea that students’ reading attitudes are important, but limited class time appears to be devoted towards fostering positive reading attitudes (Kush & Watkins, 2001). As we have mentioned above,
this may be due to curricular requirements that foster teachers to rely on their syllabi and textbooks, which do not include reading for pleasure and include only intensive reading activities.

Moreover, reading attitudes are also linked to the social constructivist reading perspective which was prominent in the 1990s, and in which reading was regarded as a cyclic process that begins from birth and continued throughout one’s life in several degrees and settings through active interaction with other readers and language users (Crawford, 1995). That is, acquiring new reading skills and becoming aware of the role and function of reading are conscious and unconscious processes developed through observing other readers at the family, community, cultural and academic settings (Alloway & Gilbert, 1997; Anstey & Bull, 2004; Myoungsoon & Heekyoung, 2002). The problem of lack of motivation and role models for reading among Mozambican students can be traced from the education system itself and educators (experts on reading, administrators, teachers, parents). This reminds us of the point we mentioned above regarding reading fluency, which sometimes is, unfortunately, left to students to improve on their own (Grabe, 2009), with no guidance. In this context, the education system itself needs to feel the responsibility of engaging students in reading, because when students engage in reading they hold a purpose, they seek to understand, feel motivated to read more and more, increase reading comprehension and fluency, they believe in their own abilities and they take responsibility for learning. Therefore, by promoting strategic readers, we expect to have students who can “coordinate their strategies and knowledge within a community of literacy in order to fulfil their personal goals, desires, and intentions” (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000: 404).
Chapter 3  Methodology

3.1 Introduction

Considering the fact that in my study we will conduct three instruction programs (in three studies) which are aimed at improving reading comprehension abilities among Mozambican university students, we can say that we are dealing with an action research. According to Hensen (1996, cited in Hine, 2013: 152) action research

(a) helps teachers develop new knowledge directly related to their classrooms, (b) promotes reflective teaching and thinking, (c) expands teachers’ pedagogical repertoire, (d) puts teachers in charge of their craft, (e) reinforces the link between practice and student achievement, (f) fosters an openness toward new ideas and learning new things, and (g) gives teachers ownership of effective practices.

The current research is developed by a teacher and researcher at the UEM teaching and learning environment in order to understand and improve the quality of the reading process among Mozambican university students (Hensen, 1996; McTaggart, 1997; Mills, 2011; Johnson, 2012). The study provides the reader with new knowledge and understanding (Stringer, 2008; Mills, 2011) about how to improve the reading abilities among these students. Taking into account that action research is participatory in nature (Holter & Frabutt, 2012), the researcher is also part of the programs as explained in the methodology section of Chapters 4, 5 and 6. Therefore, with this action research, we aimed at empowering the teaching and learning process which involves both students and teachers (Fueyo & Koorland, 1997) in relation to strategic and extensive reading, meantime, promoting good
language learners. The steps taken in the selection of respondents and the general methods used in each of the three studies, as well as some general limitations are detailed below.

3.2 Selection of respondents

The three studies were conducted at UEM, involving students from three courses and two faculties. Study 1 (in 2012) was conducted at the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, among students majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT) (experimental group) and English/Portuguese Translation and Interpretation (control group) in the first semester of 2012. Studies 2 (in 2013) and 3 (in 2014) were conducted at the School of Communication and Arts (ECA-UEM), involving two classes majoring in Journalism, 2nd year, English 3, in the first semesters of 2013 and 2014, respectively. The first step for involving students in the current study was to visit the students and to explain to them the purpose of the study and how it would be conducted. Through a consent form (in English), students had to accept or decline their involvement in the study, and they had the opportunity to clarify any doubts they had about it. The consent form contained information about the study goals, how long it would take, and when and how the study would be conducted. Fortunately, all the students who were in the courses involved in the current study voluntarily accepted to be part of the study, although not all students returned the questionnaires in the first phase of the study. From the first day they were contacted, students knew that there could be no compensation other than simply contributing to the improvement of their English learning process as well as that of other students at the UEM, and that they were free to quit to at any time.

3.3 General Methods

The three studies conducted under this action research did not use the same methods since each phase was different from the other phases and that meant differentiated methodologies
as well. There are two aspects indicated by Bernhardt (2011) as important in reading research methodology. The first aspect is related to reading research measures. She noted that most studies have used a single measure of comprehension, because even though “there is no perfect measure of reading comprehension. Every measure is flawed; each measure provides one perspective. Therefore, multiple measures are necessary to provide a more than unidimensional picture” (Bernhardt, 1991, cited in Bernhardt, 2011: 120). In line with this observation, we have used different methods in the three different phases of our study, as shown in each study’s details below.

The second aspect indicated as important in reading research is the use of different texts in order to test different aspects of the reading process, or else, to activate several strategies for students to achieve an effective comprehension of their readings. This is what happened throughout this study, where we have also made sure that pre-test texts are different from the texts used for post-tests. Complete information about the population involved, methods applied, procedures and the analysis of the study are detailed in each of the three studies (from Chapter 4 to Chapter 6). In general, the methods applied depended on the focus of each phase of the study. Some of the methods applied were similar across different phases and others were specific. While Study 1 (Chapter 4) followed the design presented in Fig. 4, below, Studies 2 and 3 (Chapters 5 and 6, respectively) were about Extensive Reading. Below is some brief information about each study:

**Study 1: Reading Strategy Instruction among Mozambican University Students.**

Study 1 followed a quasi-experimental design, as presented in Fig. 3 below. In this study we applied a pre-test, a three-month strategy-based reading instruction program which included an RSI manual designed by the researcher, a post-test, an exit questionnaire (Appendix 5), as well as field notes. All of these instruments are indicated in Cohen (2000) as effective tools in researching reading strategies.
Fig. 3 indicates that in Study 1 (Chapter 4) we had an experimental group and a control group. Both the experimental group and the control group had a pre-test and a post test. While the control group had traditional classes, the experimental group had the RSI program. Both good and poor readers were compared through test achievement/scores. The test scores were analysed quantitatively in order to find out how far learners had improved in their language reading strategies during the strategy training course.

Throughout a three-month reading strategy instruction program, apart from cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies, learners were also introduced to the notions of active reader, the characteristics of a good learner, strategies for making sense of dense texts, how to be flexible through variation of the reading rate, among other notions. One of the abilities which was enhanced through the RSI manual was critical reading, that is, “reading in which the reader reacts critically to what he or she is reading, through relating the content of reading materials to personal standards, values, attitudes or beliefs, i.e. going beyond what is said in the text and critically evaluating the relevancy and value of what is read” Richards and Schmidt (2002: 134). These notions enabled the students involved in the RSI program to self-evaluate before, during and after reading. Since there are several taxonomies of strategies, the strategies involved in the reading instruction program were subdivided into three categories: pre-reading, while-reading and post reading strategies (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). Classroom observation enabled us to take field notes regarding the involvement of the students, their participation and progress throughout the RSI program.

Finally, for reflecting on their own reading strategies’ progress, at the end of the RSI, students were given an exit questionnaire, in order to assess the kind and degree of learners’
awareness of their strategy use. This method was similarly used by several scholars such as O’Malley et al. (1985), Ramirez (1986), Coleman & Briggs (2005), and Cohen et al. (2011). The questionnaire consisted of 13 open-ended and closed questions and employed a five-point Likert frequency scale with 1=never, 2=seldom, 3=sometimes, 4=often and 5=always. In this questionnaire students from both control group and the experimental group gave their feedback regarding their experience in their strategy use. A questionnaire is defined as “any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers”, Brown (2001, cited in Dornyei & Taguchi, 2002: 4). By means of a questionnaire, we wanted the students to share with us their experiences regarding the RSI program as well as to report on the strategy use throughout the reading process and mainly in the post-test.

**Study 2: Enhancing Reading Fluency and Comprehension through Extensive Reading**

Studies 2 and 3 followed common practice in extensive reading research by involving a single group only (e.g. Camiciottoli, 2001; Renandya et al., 2001; Iwahori, 2008; Kirin et al., 2012; Yamashita, 2004, 2008, 2010 and 2013). This explains why we do not have a control group in both the ER programs conducted in Studies 2 and 3. This does not mean that there are no ER studies which involved an experimental group and a control group (e.g. Al-Humoud & Schmitt, 2009; Bulca & Safaeia, 2012), but we chose not to do so.

The ER program in Study 2 took 16 weeks and the classroom Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) activities lasted 120 minutes per week, divided into two specific periods of 45 minutes and 75 minutes. In this second study a reading comprehension pre-test and post-test design (Yamashita, 2004; Yamashita, 2008; Grabe, 2009) was applied, as well as three-minute reading speed tests. Both the pre-test and the post-test involved two different texts. Before the pre-test was administered, a pilot test was run, in which 5 students had to take the same test (used as a pre-test and a post-test in this study 2) in order to check if it was suitable for the students involved in this study, in terms of the test itself and its content.

This research was basically about the influence of extensive reading on reading speed and academic reading comprehension. Most studies have investigated the relation between ER and reading speed and general reading comprehension but, to our knowledge, few have looked at the influence of ER on the reading comprehension of an academic text in a multilingual context. Reading aloud against a clock during three minutes was a reading speed exercise done only twice, the first in the middle and the second at the end of the ER
program. For testing reading comprehension we have chosen for both the pre-test and the post-test an extract from Macalister (2008)’s scientific article entitled ‘Integrating extensive reading into an English for Academic Purposes Program’, a suitable text for upper-intermediate and/or advanced English students. Note that the main focus in the 1st Semester 2013 (when we conducted Study 2) was the research itself, but the ESP classes influence may have affected the ER program results as well. This is something foreseen in the design of the current study, mainly because the text used for both the pre-test and the post-test is an academic text.

**Study 3: Extensive Reading and Reading Attitudes among Mozambican University Students.**

The common method in investigating reading attitudes is a questionnaire, a self-report instrument. Apart from the questionnaire, in the current study we have also used teacher notes. A twenty-question reading attitude questionnaire was administered among the students involved in the beginning and at the end of the program, since this is the common measure used for evaluating reading attitudes. The purpose of this questionnaire was checking if there was a change in learners’ reading attitudes after the four-month reading program through their indications in a four-point Likert scale, in which 1=strongly disagree, 2=agree, 3=disagree, and 4=strongly disagree.

Following from the claim that “effective extensive reading teachers are themselves readers, teaching by example the attitudes and behaviours of a reader” (Day & Bamford, 2002: 140), during both ER programs, in Chapters 6 and 7, the teacher also had to be part of the ER and so he read some of the readings done by the students and shared them in the classroom. Here, sometimes “think aloud method” was used while reading (Olson et al., 1994; Leow et al., 2004) in order to prepare students for the reading with pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading activities such as predicting the content, activating background knowledge, evaluating texts before, while and after reading (Tovani, 2004). Note that there was not much focus on the reading strategies in this study, but students had access to the list of strategies. Also, the think-aloud method was not applied consistently throughout the ER program. It was used on the day of the delivery of the list of reading strategies, since it was simply to give extra tools for students to use before, while and after reading for better comprehension. This explains why the use of strategies was not stressed or evaluated in this study.
3.4 Limitations of the study

Regarding strategic reading, there is a study by Cabinda (2014) which was conducted in parallel to this study, although with a different approach. While Cabinda (2014) identified the actual use of reading strategies among university students, we have designed and instructed reading strategies in order to see the improvement as a result of intervention or training. Regarding extensive reading we only had information of programs (involving the Portuguese language) which aimed at promoting extensive reading but which had failed in the past due to lack of space in the curriculum, lack of reading materials and inexistential libraries in most of the remote areas of the country. Therefore, all three stages of the current study were the first in the whole Mozambican research setting.

There were some limitations in conducting the three studies, and such limitations are detailed in each study phase. These limitations range from lack of previous studies in Mozambique (although we did use studies from other countries) to lack of materials for data collection, as well as for conducting strategic and extensive reading programs. Other limitations are related to methodological aspects regarding the two extensive reading programs conducted in 2013 and 2014. Looking at questions which can possibly be answered by research, it has been proposed that “large-scale instructional programs such as extensive reading need to be conducted under experimental conditions in order to glean which features of the program bring about the reported vocabulary and comprehension increases” (Bernhardt, 2011: 126). With such a recommendation, we consider as a limiting factor the fact the two ER programs conducted in this study did not involve a large number of students, it did not take a time spam more than a semester (since they were integrated in normal classroom learning calendar and programs). Although both ER programs have also involved a pre-test and a post-test design, they were not part of a quasi-experimental design as the RSI study. Each of the two ER programs did not have a control group, due to a lack of another similar group during the semesters in which the two ER programs were conducted.

Although this is a limitation, lack of a control group in extensive reading studies is a common practice among ER studies. We can find examples in Kirin et al. (2012) involving only an experimental group composed of 44 Thai students, Iwahori (2008) involving only an experimental group of 33 Japanese students and Yamashita (2004, 2010, 2013) also
involving one sole experimental group of 59, 33 and 69 Japanese students, respectively. In the Kirin et al. (2012)’s study, results of the quantitative analyses showed that students who read more pages performed better in their reading comprehension and speed. The results from Iwahori (2008)’s study also indicated that ER is an effective approach to improve students’ rate and general language proficiency. The last three studies by Yamashita (2004, 2010, and 2013) also indicated that ER promotes general reading comprehension as well as positive reading attitudes.

Another methodological aspect referred to by Bernhardt (2011) has to do with the involvement of the same population over a certain period of time in order to consider different conditions or different dispositions throughout the research. That is, instead of involving the same group of university students (which was due to availability of classes with similar conditions), we have involved three different groups from 2012 to 2014. We presume that if we had involved one single group in all the methods and programs we might have obtained different reading comprehension results.
Chapter 4  Reading strategy instruction in a foreign language among Mozambican university students

4.1 Introduction

University students need to have appropriate skills and strategies to deal with the reading they find in their academic lives. In this context, it has been stressed that reading with or without awareness of reading strategies entails a difference in terms of reading comprehension achievement, which means that there is a positive correlation between strategic reading and reading comprehension among first and second-language readers of English (e.g. Carrell, 1989; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995; Feng & Mokhtari, 1998; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). That is, although reading effectively in a foreign language is a challenge for many learners, mainly for those who did not have RSI training in their L1, using reading strategies has been argued to facilitate the reading process and ultimately the use of the learned language (Macaro & Erler, 2008; Akkakoson, 2013). A reader who uses certain strategies has an advantage in terms of reading comprehension and language proficiency over a reader who does not use any strategy (Lau & Chan, 2007; Khezrlou, 2012). This hypothesis was tested in the current study thorough the involvement of an experimental group and a control group.

McNamara (2009) has underlined that students may not be able to understand a text for several reasons. Students may have problems with single words, they may have problems with words joined together in a sentence and even if they understand a sentence, they may
still have problems with understanding the connections among sentences in a certain paragraph. Therefore, there are several skills readers need to manage at word level (Bailey & Heritage, 2008), sentence level (Shiotsu & Weir, 2007), and at discourse or textual level (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Bailey & Huang, 2011). Strategies are there to help students to overcome such problems, since “strategies are essential, not only to successful comprehension, but to overcoming reading problems and becoming a better reader and comprehender” (McNamara, 2009: 36). In this context, a strategy can be defined as a specific plan, action, behaviour, step, or technique that individual learners consciously use, to improve their reading comprehension in foreign language (Oxford 1999, cited in Oxford & Schramm, 2007).

Knowing strategies is not the only prerequisite for a reader to be a good comprehender, but also knowing how to apply such strategies has been proved to be a tool used by readers. This suggests that what matters in strategic reading is not only the number of strategies each student uses, but also the way in which the known strategies are actively combined into clusters during the reading task (Cohen & Macaro, 2001; Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Grabe, 2009; Anderson, 2009; Pressley, 2006). Although in the current study we have taught a certain number of strategies individually, their application will always depend on the reading activity at hand and on the application of the learned strategies by the reader. Here, in order to overcome comprehension breakdown, readers normally use cognitive and metacognitive strategies to control the reading process and the reading activity (McNeil, 2011; Dreyer & Nel, 2003, cited by Aghaie & Zhang, 2012). This control of the reading activity involves planning, checking, evaluating, understanding, monitoring and reasoning (Dewey, 1933; Thorndike; 1917), and such processes recall Goodman (1976)’s top-down model, when he posits that readers must ask themselves if what they are reading makes sense.

Apart from the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies, there are other strategies which are used by readers, especially in a foreign language context, to deal effectively with reading comprehension, mainly when they find problems in applying the instructed cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Such extra or compensatory tools for reading comprehension may be related to the transference of L1 abilities to the L2 reading context, and the use of supply strategies (Jimenez et al., 1995, 1996) or support strategies (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). Regarding L1 transfer, Jimenez, Garcia and Pearson (1994, 1995, 1996)
conducted a study in order to understand the cognitive and metacognitive knowledge of proficient bilingual (Spanish and English) readers. They found that the readers in this study possessed an awareness of the relationship between Spanish and English. Brisbois (1995) also found that French learners exhibited a reliance on their first-language literacy for their second. Similarly, Langer et al. (1990) found that bilingual Spanish children used knowledge of Spanish as support when they encountered difficulty in reading English. With qualitative techniques to generate evidence, Upton & Lee-Thompson (2001) probed the use of both L1 and L2 in L2 text processing, and they concluded that L1 and L2 are constantly present in all L2 text processing. This, in general, suggests that “learners compensate back and forth between and among knowledge sources for deficiencies in both language and literacy knowledge... There is an important first language / second language connection and the connection exists on multiple levels” (Bernhardt, 2001: 51).

Within second or foreign language reading contexts, readers also use supply or support strategies in a compensatory manner (Bernhardt, 2011). Apart from the five supply strategies shown in Chapter 2, in the Sheorey & Mokhtari (2001)’s Reading Strategies Taxonomy, Table 4, Jimenez et al. (1995, 1996) have shown that proficient bilingual and biliterate readers use supply strategies such as code mixing, translation, and they also make use of cognates during the reading comprehension process. The use of translation, for instance, may result from the influence of the L1 on the L2 reading process, mainly when there are language similarities such as between Portuguese and English, which is the situation in the current study. It is in this context that Jimenez et al. (1996) found that translation and searching for cognates were strategic activities for the Latino students. In a recent study, Malcolm (2009) investigated the strategy awareness of 160 Arab-speaking medical students studying in English. The translation strategy from English to Arabic was found mainly among low English proficiency readers. Also, the first year reported more translation than the upper-year students’ report, which can be linked to the threshold hypothesis (Upton & Lee-Thompson, 2001) (see Chapter 1, section 1.2.1 for more details). However, despite the reported effectiveness of RSI programs (see Chapter 2, section 2.6.1), it can be observed that, compatible with what Park (2010) noted in a study conducted in Korea, English teachers in Mozambique still ignore strategy training across ELT classes. This suggests that learning strategies generally seem to be beyond the concern of teachers, textbook authors, and administrators, which is also linked to a lack of reading habits among
students (Cabinda, 2014). An example of this is a seminar that shows the concerns academics have on the alarming issue regarding reading in Mozambique. It was held from 18th to 20th November 2009, under the topic “Teaching Process – Reading and Writing in the Primary Level”. This seminar took place in Maputo, the Mozambican capital city, and it focused on the need to find strategies to improve reading abilities and habits among L1 and L2 learners. The current study is within the Seminar’s recommendations, although it is undertaken not at primary level, but at tertiary level. The seminar focused on the fact that Mozambican readers are not aware of their reading strategies, even though university students have to read many texts in their daily academic lives. Our hypothesis is that an RSI (or SBI\(^1\)) program may contribute to the improvement of Mozambican learners’ reading comprehension skills at the university level.

Our hypothesis is that for readers to be able to use the above-mentioned strategies (e.g. setting the purpose for reading, understanding word meaning through context; questioning, self-monitoring, summarising, and so on) they need guidance mainly in their first stages of strategic reading, thence the need of a reading strategy instruction program (McNamara (2004, 2007; Ozgungor & Guthrie, 2004). In fact, a study conducted by Neufeld (2005) showed that even when students have the notion of reading strategies, scaffolding is still necessary. Teachers need to be able to raise awareness and to model strategic reading so as to enable students to become expert comprehenders of challenging texts (Harrison, 2004 & Singhal, 2004, cited in Huang, Chern & Lin, 2009), before they can become autonomous readers. It is in this context that this chapter aims to examine the effect of an RSI program in the Mozambican context, where a group of Mozambican students went through a three-month strategy-based reading instruction program. The results of a pre-test and post-test were compared to those of a control group. The results enabled us to determine the effectiveness of the RSI program.

The current study focuses on reading strategies among Mozambican students, to whom English is a foreign language. It aims to find out if a strategy-based reading program can enable students to improve their self-efficacy, especially through reading activities. It will

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\(^{1}\) “SBI (Strategy-based instruction) is a learner-centred approach to teaching that extends classroom strategy training to include both explicit and implicit integration of strategies into the course content.” (Cohen, 1998, p. 81)
also provide some recommendations on aspects to be included in a Reading Strategy Instruction (RSI) program in Mozambique, setting the ground for strategic classrooms which, according to Cohen & Macaro (2007: 92), “foster the development of strategies which will help learners to manage the contextual complexities and achieve successful outcome given their personal language learning goals”. Since it has been shown that RSI is effective in reading comprehension in several L1 and L2 contexts (e.g. Greenfell & Macaro, 2007; Zhang, 2008), introducing RSI programs in the Mozambican context may be important for enhancing the English language teaching and learning process in general.

Engaging learners in reading strategy instruction may reduce the popular belief among Mozambican students that reading in general is something for those who have spare time and money to ‘waste’ on books, as well as for people with a higher social status. This can also help build habits and the skills of reading for pleasure and for academic purposes. This is why the aim of this RSI program is “to raise student awareness as to the purpose and rationale of strategy use, to give students opportunities to practise the strategies that they are being taught and to help them understand how to use the strategies in the new learning contexts” (Cohen, 2000: 71). That is, the main purpose of this study is to evaluate the level of improvement of reading comprehension after a strategy-based reading program and not to evaluate reading in general, as well as checking whether there are other strategies which students use, apart from the ones which are going to be administered during the RSI program.

In conducting this study, we predict that the reading strategy intervention will enhance the reading skills of the Mozambican students and it will enable them to become strategic readers and autonomous learners. We also take into consideration that although students will be taught similar strategies, the way they practically apply them in a reading task may depend on each student’s general learning strategy, since people “learn in ways that are rather specific to their group” (Brislin & Yoshida, 1994: 121).

The ultimate goal of this RSI program was for the students involved to be capable of working independently on their reading tasks. The RSI program focused on the ability to think in an independent way, to reflect critically on a certain issue, to analyse and synthesise ideas, and to develop creative skills (Gillet, 1996). These aspects are found within the RSI program manual (see Appendix 4), since it was designed to enable students to think in an independent way (using reading strategies that are suitable to the reader and the task in
hand). Aspects related to critical thinking and summarising were also part of the training given to the students involved in the RSI program. This means that the strategies students used needed to be effective for their reading tasks. In this context, one main research question can hence be formulated:

Does Reading Strategy Instruction (RSI) facilitate effective English L2 reading among Mozambican university students?

4.2 Methodology

4.2.1 Study setting and participants

This study was conducted during the first semester of 2012. It involved 50 students at the Eduardo Mondlane University (UEM) in Maputo, Mozambique, taking English 5, i.e., an Advanced Level course for students majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT) and English-Portuguese Translation and Interpretation (T/I). All participants had already had 3 years of English language instruction at UEM, which means that, added to the previous 5 years of English language classes at secondary school (from grade 8 to grade 12) they had received English instruction for 8 years.

The experimental group was composed of 25 male ELT students, and the control group consisted of 25 (17 male and 8 female) T/I students. The participants’ ages ranged from 18 to 30, with a mean age of 25, and they were from all ten Mozambican provinces. Generally speaking, students entering ELT and T/I courses have a considerably good mastery of the English language since they use it in their daily professional lives. Ten of the participants were already English language teachers outside the university (5 in the control group and 5 in the experimental group). These were the only classes with similar conditions (English language level, academic year and syllabus contents) during that semester. As such, these were the only available and suitable classes that could be involved in the current study, and it was hence not possible to have the same proportion of male and female participants in the two groups. Regarding comparability of the two groups involved, we are aware that we are dealing with two different courses, but both groups were doing the same English 5 course,
with the same teacher and with the same syllabus. The fact that we have used the ELT class as the treatment group was a random decision and selection. While the names of the two courses and the focus of the strategic reading program differ between these classes, the purpose of the English 5 syllabus used in both classes, the textbooks and the reading texts used were the same. Similarly, both groups had normal classes where they learned about gap-filling and grammatical issues.

The students involved were given a consent form (see Appendix 11) on the first day, so that they could understand how the study was going to be conducted and, after reading and clarifying individual and general questions, the students signed and returned the consent form. It was through this consent form that we had information about the age and gender details of the participants. All participants had the right to withdraw at any time.

4.2.2 The reading strategy instruction program

This section is aimed at clarifying what the participants exactly did in the classroom sessions. The RSI involved both the experimental and the control group, although with different instructional focus. For the students in the experimental group to know how to apply reading strategies before, during and after reading a certain text, they had to be taught effective reading strategies enlisted below in the instruments and procedures section. The participating students (the experimental group) were involved in an RSI program during four months (from February 2012 to May 2012). There were four classroom contact hours per week, but only two hours per week (divided into 45’ and 75’) were reserved for the strategy instruction program. Note that the RSI program was integrated into normal EFL classes and there was a need of an alternation (2 hours for the RSI program and 2 hours for the normal classes) during the first semester, in 2012.

The first 45 minutes were reserved for students to share their readings with their classmates and teacher, to make some comments and to see whether they had any problems related to their reading (vocabulary, questions regarding language, topic). This was necessary in order to help students when they had problems, and it was during this time we also checked the summaries which they were supposed to write after each reading. Note that the control group had all the materials that the experimental group used (i.e. the list of the reading strategies, the reading materials and the RSI manual). While the control group dealt with
the readings, the teacher/researcher simply guided them, and during the first 45 minutes they could make comments and ask questions regarding their readings, the same as the experimental group did. However, the control group did not have instructions on how to deal with reading strategies in practical reading activities.

During the contact hours with the experimental group, the role of the teacher was that of “managing the learning strategies”, “encouraging the learners’ intention to learn” and “prompting practice and use” (Strevens, 1988: 44). The instruction aimed at enabling students to become independent and autonomous learners, being responsible for their own learning, where the teacher was only a guide, enabling each student to apply effectively his/her preferred reading strategy.

The study involved authentic and academic materials selected from different sources, some of which had been used in a Reading Instruction program at the English Studies Department at Ghent University (Belgium). These included: John Macalister’s article “Integrating Extensive reading into an English for Academic Purposes Program”; “Youth’s understandings of cigarette advertisements”; “Introducing Anthropology: An Integrated Approach”, Joyce Bell’s article “Reading Interpretations”. The readings involved in teaching not only included the ones we had from Ghent University, but also others which were chosen from academic readings found in the books used in the English Section at UEM - *Complete First Certificate* (2008) and specially texts found in *Certificate in Advanced English* (2009). The fact that one of the purposes of the RSI was improving reading abilities among university students in order to give them tools to be able to deal with their daily academic readings, justifies the choice of academic texts for the reading practice. The selected texts resemble those which are mostly used by university students in their academic lives.

Reading strategy instruction was defined as a scaffolding process in which strategy use was mediated by the teacher until the stage when explicit instruction was not needed. According to Oxford (2006a, cited in Oxford & Schramm, 2007), easy-to-remember strategy names, such as ‘skimming’ and ‘self-questioning’, and descriptions were used in order to show students how strategies could help them to do language tasks in a more effective and efficient manner.

Moreover, we have designed Reading Strategy Instruction - RSI manual as part of their learning materials for the students. Although it is known that there were metacognitive,
cognitive and supply strategies as specified in Chapter 2 in Sheorey & Mokhtari (2001)’s reading strategies taxonomy, students were familiarized with comprehension strategies (pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading strategies) through practical reading exercises that reinforced their use of strategies (Paris et al. 1996, cited in Hudson, 2007). We preferred this RSI approach because we had understood that most of the skills and strategies taxonomies fall into this functional grouping as explained in the section about reading strategies taxonomies in Chapter 2. Here, we have noted that this practice is not new, since Saricoban (2002) has also used pre-reading, reading and post-reading strategies. In general, the instruction involved common strategies used by good language learners and readers (Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

The current RSI program was framed in the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach - CALLA Model (Chamot & O’Malley, 1994; Chamot et al., 1999; Chamot, 2005). The model has six steps, as detailed in RSI program section in Chapter 2: preparation, presentation, practice, self-evaluation, expansion and assessment. The model was used in all stages, i.e., from prompting reflections on reading strategies to a final performance evaluation.

During the instruction, the teacher demonstrated when a certain strategy had to be used in other related tasks and situations. For a better delivery of the strategy instruction, we started teaching students the pre-reading strategies, then we moved on to the while-reading and then to the post-reading strategies. Students had to practise each section of strategies before they moved on to other strategies and after six weeks they had training in all the three sections of the strategies. The teacher, in introducing a certain strategy, had to give an example of how to use it practically, before students could use it, using the “think aloud” method, where the teacher read a passage and then showed students how they could proceed in its use. For instance, self-questioning in an argumentative text would be illustrated by the teacher by reading a passage and then asking: what does the author mean by stating this? Is the author talking about facts or just trying to persuade me as a reader to believe in what s/he is thinking about this issue? Is the information provided by the text good enough to sustain the author's claims? These are among the questions which can be raised and they are followed by the respective answers given by the reader, if such answers are available, since there are questions posed to the text/author that cannot be answered by the reader. In spite of that, they enable him/her to make some decisions regarding text content. Then,
volunteer students were asked to follow the teacher’s example, so that classmates could see how they could apply the strategy to the passage. This did not involve all students in a single class period, but was spread over different class periods.

Practical activities focused on variety, enjoyment, prediction, preparation, creativity, involvement (Hutchinson & Waters, 1998), as well as orientation, awareness-raising and positive feedback (Bimmel, 2001). For practicing their strategy use, students sometimes had to work in pairs, helping one another in terms of better strategy choice and implementation. In each pair there was always one student who had more effectively acquired the reading strategies and who could tutor his/her buddy. At the end of any given reading task, positive feedback was required in groups and in the whole classroom, in order to motivate and reinforce strategic reading. This learner-centred and individualized approach to language learning was used to provide learners with the opportunity to learn not only from the teacher, but also from each other.

Moreover, since university students have to read many texts, it was also important to teach them how to be selective and purposeful, so as to become flexible and critical readers (Pressley, 2000). That is, we read with different purposes in mind: to search for simple information, to skim quickly, to learn from texts, to integrate information, to write, to criticise texts or for general comprehension. However, knowing that the purpose for reading is not sufficient, we also need to make sure we are fluent readers. Thus, both linguistic and background knowledge are essential for building the reader’s interpretation of a certain text. Therefore, knowledge of the language and that of the real world outside the text, the ability to use this knowledge for questioning the text, as well as the ability to make predictions and inferences enable students to become active readers. All of these aspects of reading were targeted in the current RSI program.

4.2.3 Instruments and procedures

In this study, the following instruments were used: a pre-test, the Reading Strategy Instruction manual designed by the researcher, a post-test, a questionnaire and students’ written evaluations at the end of the program, as well as field notes by the researcher. Classroom observation enabled us to take field notes regarding the involvement of the students, their participation and progress throughout the RSI program.
The design of the manual was motivated by the fact that Mozambican students not only did not have a systematic knowledge regarding strategy use, but also did not have a general understanding of the reading process as a whole. The main purpose of the RSI manual (designed by the researcher) was basically to provide instruction on the pre-, while- and post-reading strategies. Note that I did not write most of the texts/tools found in the manual, since it is a collection of passages, extracts and strategies from other reading materials and websites, and these sources are indicated throughout the manual. However, instead of involving a single and simple list of reading strategies, the manual included other aspects which we consider as important during the reading process, that is, extra tools which are also part of strategic reading. These aspects included the characteristics of an active reader, common textual structure patterns in readings (in order to enable enhanced discourse knowledge), the characteristics of a good language learner/reader, and a brief explanation of the CALLA Model (Chamot & O’Malley, 1994; Chamot at al., 1999; Chamot, 2005) so that students would know which steps are to be taken in strategy use. The manual also included training on when a reader has to increase or decrease speed, critical thinking, and common strategies used by good readers (William & Fredericka, 2002), among other general aspects related to reading.

All of the used instruments (except the RSI Manual) are indicated in Cohen (2000) as effective tools in researching reading strategies. At the beginning of the study both the control group and the experimental group were given a reading pre-test, using an authentic text entitled The Key written by Durrel (2000). This 700-word-text (Appendix 2) was selected because it is from an authentic British source. It is aimed at teaching general proficiency to advanced learners of English. Moreover, it matches the text used as a post-test (see below) in difficulty. Note that both the pre-test and the post-test texts were authentic texts. The choice of these texts is justified by the proven “significance of authenticity in the reading process and that research should be directed toward understanding second-language reading within the context of authentic texts that are neither manipulated nor overanalyzed” (Bernhardt, 2011: 61).

The twenty-question test was divided into four sections: the first section comprised 8 comprehension questions (four of the questions were originally from the admission exam – UEM, 2004), the second and the third sections had vocabulary (5) and gap-filling (5) questions, respectively, and finally (2) summaries on text passages were required.
Vocabulary, gap-filling and summaries questions were designed by the researcher. One mark was assigned to each of the twenty questions, and hence the maximum score was 20. For interpreting the test, finding vocabulary meanings and summarising, students needed to use reading strategies. After doing the pre-test, the whole class orally shared the strategies they had used.

It was noted by the researcher that students already used some of the instructed strategies and could describe them, but did not know how to name them as such. This aspect was taken up in the researcher’s field notes. Then, the experimental group had the three-month Reading Strategy Instruction program while the control group was only given the list of strategies they should use in their readings and the RSI manual, but received no instruction on how to apply them in practical reading activities. Control group students did not have guidance in terms of text selection, did not have training on strategy use, but they read texts of their choice and commented on them in the classroom.

At the end of the RSI program, both groups were given a reading post-test designed by the researcher, based on a single reading text of 1,402-words taken from an IELTS exam and entitled *Lessons from the Titanic*. The RSI post-test (Appendix 3) was divided into three sections: the first section comprised 10 comprehension questions, the second section was a cloze test with 8 gaps and the third was a summary. The last section was aimed at checking whether students had improved their summarising skills in the course of the conducted RSI program. However, this post-test was not administered according to the IELTS forty-question testing system but was adapted to the twenty-question test system used in the Mozambican scoring system. There was 1 (one) mark for each question. For the first summary there were eight (8) marks and for the last summary there were two (2) marks.

Note that the length and items in the pre-test (700-word-text) and post test (1,402-words) were different but this was done on purpose because the idea was making sure the post-test was a bit more difficult so that we could see the value of the application of the instructed reading strategies through post-test scores. Again, the text was selected because it is from an authentic British source and it was also found to be suitable for the post-test, as the groups had already dealt with long texts aimed at teaching general proficiency to advanced English language learners. A comparison between the post-test scores and the pre-test scores would enable us to observe any progress made by the experimental group throughout the RSI. It is important to underline that for both the pre-test and post-test we focused our
attention more on comprehension questions as the best measure for reading comprehension strategies.

During the RSI program, classroom non-participant observation enabled us to take field notes regarding the involvement of the students, their participation and progress throughout the RSI program. These field notes were taken regularly, and they were only about the aspects which were considered as useful for this research.

Finally, for reflecting on their own progress, at the end of the RSI students were given a questionnaire (see Appendix 5) consisting of 13 open-ended and closed questions. The exit questionnaire (Appendix 5) included 13 questions, eleven of which were open-ended and two of which were closed questions in which students from both the control and the experimental groups gave their feedback regarding their experience in their strategy use as well as the evaluation of the RSI program’s effectiveness for students’ reading comprehension. The two closed questions were about the frequency of strategy use, where a Likert scale was applied and the other question was for students to rank their reading skills from 1 to 5. Here, 1 was the lowest and 5, the highest ability. The eleven questions were related to strategy use, while-reading strategies, word meaning, and RSI relevance, among other topics.

Moreover, question 10 also employed a five-point Likert frequency scale, where 1=never, 2=seldom, 3=sometimes, 4=often and 5=always. In this question, the students had to indicate how they applied the learned strategies and which strategies they thought they had mastered during the course. In this question, always meant major use or mastery of a certain strategy and never meant exactly the opposite. Students also shared with us their experiences in language learning, the strategies they consciously used when they were given tasks and the difficulties they encountered in reading.

### 4.2.3.1 Expected strategy use

For the purpose of this study, we considered all the strategies which are commonly used by ‘good’ readers, found in Grabe & Stoller (2002) and which can be subdivided into three categories: pre-reading, while-reading and post reading strategies. The complete list of the instructed strategies is shown below and in the Appendix 5:
Pre-reading Strategies

1. Previewing or surveying: advance looking at text to see its layout, illustrations, etc.
2. Activating schema knowledge: getting ready to read by using what is already known
3. Predicting content: anticipating possible content of text
4. Scanning for highlighted words or expressions: looking for highlighted words and expressions
5. Skimming: quickly reading a passage to get the main ideas, then go back to read.

While-reading Strategies

6. Self-questioning: asking questions about text
7. Self-monitoring: self-checking comprehension
8. Focusing on meaning, not form: paying attention to meaning, rather than form
9. Relating meaning to what is already known: connecting what is read with what is known
10. Word recognition: associating words with their synonyms and antonyms; associating new word sounds with known word sounds.
11. Reviewing main ideas after each “chunk” of reading: summarizing main ideas.
12. Asking how the main idea or purpose is related to previous paragraph: looking for logical relationships between paragraphs
13. Using context to make inferences of the unknown words/expressions: guessing the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary items through contextual clues
14. **Identifying main ideas and supporting details:** looking for relationships between main ideas (topic sentences) and details

15. **Identifying organizational patterns of text:** looking for the organizational aspects of text in terms of its typical structure (e.g. cause–effect, compare/contrast, etc.

**Post-reading Strategies**

16. **Evaluating reading:** examining how well the text is understood

17. **Giving personal response:** making critical/personal comments on the text

18. **Reviewing to summarize text meanings:** reading text again to summarize text meanings

19. **Checking effectiveness in strategy use:** reflecting on how effectively a strategy was used

20. **Review notes, glosses, text markings:** checking notes as well as all sorts of marks made while reading

These are the 20 strategies which we were expecting readers to use mainly in the post-test but, taking into account that university learners already used some strategies they acquired throughout their academic lives, we anticipated that they would also use some of such untaught strategies. In general, we were expecting students to use the instructed pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading strategies, as well some other skills acquired through the RSI manual attached in the Appendix 4.

Determining completely the strategies which could be used in a single task would be limiting the possibilities each student had. However, there are general strategies or skills which students were expected to use for accomplishing the pre-test and the post-test reading activities.

The pre-test had four sections: 10 comprehension questions; section two and three requested vocabulary knowledge (Hui-Tzu, 2008) but in different levels; and, section four required summarizing skills. The post-test had three sections: 8 comprehension questions;
vocabulary and summarizing. Although we have stated above that the 20 strategies had to be used in the pre- and the post-test, there are some general strategic competencies which can be underlined for each section. While the comprehension questions in the first section of the pre-test required students to use much more inferencing (strategy 13, 14), the first section of the post-test required students to use inference (strategy 13, 14) and factual information (strategy 4, 5) as well. That is, regarding the required comprehension skills mostly required in both tests, it was foreseen that readers would use mostly inference in the section one of the pre-test, as well as in also the post-test, but together with the recovery of factual information (which was made difficult through the types of the questions designed). For better inference, some studies (e.g., Brantmeier, 2004a; Carrell, 1991) have found that students use their awareness of text type and discourse organization as tools for reading comprehension.

The factual information recovery in the post-test was based on strategies 4 and 5, which refer to pre-reading strategies, scanning and skimming. In fact, Rusciolelli (1995) surveyed students on their reading strategy instruction and found that they considered instruction in skimming and guessing word meanings from context most helpful. The ability to use inferences while reading is possible because readers use background knowledge – and this is linked to world knowledge as well – and it is also within the top-down models (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; Gough, 1972; Coady, 1979).

Word knowledge (strategy 10 and 13) was relevant for dealing with the section 2 in the pre-test. Both the section 3 in the pre-test and the section 2 in the post-test were texts with gaps (cloze tests) which students needed to feel in. For completing this task, readers needed to understand the meaning from context, they needed to understand a whole paragraph, otherwise the paragraph would not make sense. They also needed to be able to understand the new words (quite difficult and new for them). Here, the context in the sentence enabled them to get the right word at the right place. Note that strategic reading includes the knowledge of the language in which one reads and L2 proficiency has 30% of incidence in foreign or second language reading (Bernhardt, 2011). Therefore, a cloze-test was considered, since they are also a tool for assessing L2 proficiency.

Moreover, in cloze tests, the assumption is that to test particular aspects of comprehension, certain elements should be deleted. According to Tremblay & Garrison (2010: 75) “researchers should find and administer a proficiency test that is sufficiently integrative
(e.g., assessing not only morphosyntactic competence, but also lexical and discourse competence). Tremblay & Garrison (2010) acknowledge that cloze tests meet validity and reliability standards of testing research and they can be completed within the time constraints of an experimental paradigm. Cloze tests are flexible and are both easy to create and to score. Cloze tests have been introduced by Taylor (1953) to measure readability, but since then they have been used for a variety of purposes such as testing both language proficiency (Keshavarz & Salimi, 2007) and reading comprehension in English as a second language (Sharp, 2009; Schmitt & Sha, 2009; Miller, DeWitt, McCleary & O’Keefe, 2009).

The last sections in the pre-test and in the post-test required students to use summarizing skills. So, these sections required the use of post reading strategies (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). In designing these questions, our aim was to enable readers to use not only pre-reading and while-(reading) strategies, but also post-reading strategies. For one to be able to summarize (strategy 18) a text (see all the strategies in Appendix 5, section 14), s/he has to be able to evaluate the reading process (strategy 16), s/he has to be a critical reader (strategy 6) and s/he also has to be able to review main ideas (strategy 11). The inclusion of summaries in testing was not a new approach. Oded & Walters (2001, cited in Bernhardt, 2011)) examined the effectiveness of two types of reading assessments (text summary versus making a list) and found that those who wrote summaries presented higher comprehension scores than those who were asked to perform the more mundane task of listing.

4.2.3.2 The characteristics of the texts

We are aware that the texts used in the pre-test and in the post-test belong to different genres. This means that each of these will have different organisational structures and discursive and linguistic features. However, the difference in these two texts did not imply any problem since the RSI program involved several types. Moreover, looking at the vocabulary difficulty level in the post-test, as well as the test length, we can see that more efforts were required in the post-test than in the pre-test. Normally, IELTS tests (post-test) are much more difficult than admission exams (pre-test) at UEM. The level of difficulty was an aspect considered in the choice of the post-test text, since it had to be much more difficult than the pre-test text, which was due to the fact that in the post-test, students had to apply the strategies learned in the RSI program, for effective reading comprehension.
Finally, we have mentioned above that in the pre-test we involved a novel and in the post-test we involved an historical recount (i.e. the retelling of factual events that have happened in the past). The use of both a novel in the pre-test and an historical recount in the post-test had both academic and background knowledge motivations. It is quite easy for Mozambican students to recall these types of texts due to their oral tradition cultural background (Finnegan, 1970; Matusse, 1997). In a similar situation, Davis, Gorell, Kline, and Hsieh (1992) surveyed learners about their reading of literary texts, and they found that students had positive attitudes toward such reading, coupled with a belief that reading literature would help them to understand French-speaking people better. Regarding the use of narrative texts, the choice was motivated by the fact that previous studies (Donin, Graves, and Goyette, 2004; DuBravac & Dalle, 2002) which examined narrative versus expository reading have found greater detailed recall from narrative texts. For instance, DuBravac & Dalle (2002) found that narrative texts helped readers to generate more questions than the expository texts used. Greater miscomprehension in the expository text was also found by these scholars and, as Bernhardt (2011) puts it, the findings are unsurprising given the assistance of background knowledge, which operates much more easily in narrative than in expository texts. Background knowledge was also paired with general world knowledge, since the historical event to which the post-test text refers is generally known through means other than reading as well, such as movies.

4.2.4 Data analysis

Quantitative analysis (SPSS) was used with pre-test and post-test data for both the experimental group and the control group, in order to find out how far learners had improved in their reading strategy use and reading comprehension during the three-month reading strategy training program. The questionnaire was also important in the quantitative analysis of the students’ responses. We have also dealt with field notes and the exit questionnaire in a qualitative way, in order to capture and refer to reflections on students’ strategy applications.
4.3 Results

The results are discussed in two separate subsections: the pre-test and post-test feedback from both the experimental group and the control group in 4.3.1 and the exit questionnaire results in 4.3.2.

4.3.1 Pre-test and post-test results

The first instruments used for checking progress in reading strategy use were the pre-test and the post-test. We are aware that when discussing results from the t-test of reading comprehension scores we are not dealing with a test of strategy use data only, but we consider the improvement in reading comprehension to be - at least partly – as an indication of improvements in strategy use, since that was the only variable that was different between the experimental group and the control group. Looking at both the Fig. 4 and the Fig. 5, and considering that marks range from 0-20, we can conclude that the four variables show a normal distribution in both tests, and this allowed us to continue with t-tests.

Figure 4  Pre-test: Experimental group and control group
Figure 5  Post-test: Experimental group and control group

We therefore used paired samples t-tests for our data statistical analysis, as can be seen in Tables 7 and 8 below. Table 7 presents the descriptive statistics of the pre- and post-test scores of the experimental and control groups. Looking at the pre-test means of both groups, we can see that the experimental group’s mean of 11.72 is highly similar to the control’s mean of 12.00. However, this situation changes quite drastically in the post-test, where the control group’s mean is 12.52 and that of the experimental group 14.36. In other words, both groups showed an increase in their means but, while this is modest for the control group (+ 0.52), it is quite striking for the experimental group (+2.64).

Table 7  Paired Samples Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Pretestexp</th>
<th>11.72</th>
<th>25</th>
<th>1,56</th>
<th>,31</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Posttestexp</td>
<td>14.36</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1,28</td>
<td>,25</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair</td>
<td>Pretestcontr</td>
<td>12.00</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1,35</td>
<td>,27</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Posttestcontr</td>
<td>12.52</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1,50</td>
<td>,30</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the pre-test of both the experimental group and the control group we can see that the latter group’s standard deviation (SD) of 1.35 is smaller than the former’s SD of 1.56. This is the opposite if we look at the post-test SDs of both groups: for the experimental group
1.28 and for the control group 1.50. Since a smaller SD suggests that the group is more homogenous in terms of strategy use, the experimental group seems to show more homogeneity in test scores and thus in reading comprehension after the reading instruction program. The results of the Paired-samples t-test are shown in Table 8 below.

Table 8  
Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 pretestexp – posttestexp</td>
<td>-3.26918 – 2.01082</td>
<td>-8.660</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 2 Pretestcontr – posttestcontr</td>
<td>-1.38847 – 1.236</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.229</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here, a paired-samples t-test revealed that the difference between the pre-test results of the experimental group and the post-test results of this group was highly significant (p<0.001). However, the difference between the pre-test and the post-test results of the control group proved not to be significant (p > 0.1).

4.3.2 Likert scale results

The exit questionnaire had two types of questions: one question (question No 10) which was related to strategy use frequency measured through the Likert scale, and the open-ended questions discussed in the Table 8 below.

Fig. 6 and Fig. 7 below present the mean (M) number of students in the control and the experimental groups who selected one of the five response options on the Likert scale to
questions probing their use of pre-reading strategies and while-reading strategies. Regarding the use of pre-reading strategies (Fig. 6), the most frequently chosen response given by the control group students was *sometimes* (on average 11 students picked this response). *Seldom* and *often* and *always* were less frequently picked (M = 4.2).

![Figure 6](image)

**Figure 6  Self-reported use of pre-reading strategies**

These observations for the control group students stand in sharp contrast with the results of the experimental group students, who most frequently reported to *always* use the pre-reading strategies under investigation (M = 13.4). In terms of frequency, while the control group shows a decrease when it comes to the use of reading strategies *always* and *often*, the experimental group shows a sharp increase in the use of these strategies, where *never* is in the lowest position and *always* in the highest.

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2 The graph visualising self-reported use of post-reading strategies is similar to the graphs presented in Figures 6 and 7, but is not presented here, as it is less relevant to the study’s aim. All these strategies are listed in the instruments of this article.
Concerning while-reading strategies, the most frequently chosen response by the control group students was again *sometimes* (M=11), followed by *seldom* (M = 5.7), *often* (M = 2.9), *never* (M = 2.7) and *always* (M = 2.6).

The experimental group frequency rocketed above 18 in the mean number of students who reported to *always* use the examined while-reading strategies (Fig. 7). None of the experimental group students reported to *never* use any of the while-reading strategies.

The distribution in terms of the number of students who selected one of the five options in the Likert scale (*never, seldom, sometimes, often* and *always*) may be seen in the Appendix 5, for the pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading strategies. Considering the difference between the experimental and the control group, it was expected that the experimental group would always use all the strategies involved in the RSI program and the control group was expected to have a balanced frequency from seldom to always.

The experimental group did not always use all the pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading comprehension strategies, and strategy use among control group students was not balanced as it was expected. While the experimental group showed to have *always* used the strategies 3, 6, 7, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, 18, 19, and 20, the control group showed to use most of the strategies only *sometimes*. Details about strategy use frequency for both groups can be found in the Appendix 5.

Looking at both the pre-reading and the while-reading strategies figures, we can see that the control group’s use of reading strategies shows an increase from *never* to *sometimes*, and it decreases from there, while for the pre-reading strategies *often* and *always* were chosen less
frequently compared to the use of the while-reading strategies by this group. Although the experimental group also uses both pre-reading and while reading strategies in an increased way, we can see that this group used the pre-reading strategies more *often* and *always*, compared to the use of while-reading strategies, as seen in the Fig. 7, where the figure of *always* shows a sharp increase.

### 4.3.3 Questionnaire open-ended questions results

The exit questionnaire had 13 questions which asked about the RSI program effectiveness and how students applied the instructed strategies during their reading process. Table 9 below presents some of the answers which we consider relevant for this research. For each question there were many answers, but we only report on the answers which are more relevant for this study and which were pointed out by more than 50% of the respondents in the experimental group (15 students) and slightly more than 25% among the control group (10 students). That is, the questions asked in the questionnaire were about several topics, but below we just present some of the answers which summarise the content of several answers which were commonly given by the majority of the students in the experimental group and in the control group.

As we have mentioned in the section 4.2.3, students also shared with us their experiences in language learning, the strategies they consciously used when they were given tasks and the difficulties they encountered in reading. This was somehow an evaluation of the program by both the control and the experimental group’s. The topics which had answers which frequently came up in relation to our research are: strategy use (question 3), the role of the RSI training (question 9), word meaning (question 4), reading and sharing (question 8) and while-reading strategies (question 7). Table 9 indicates the exit questionnaire’s statements of reading strategy use, the effect of the RSI program, the strategies used for finding the meanings of new words, the effect of sharing what each student read in and outside the classroom as well as the strategies students used during the reading process (while-reading strategies). These statements are among the prototypical output reported by the students involved in the RSI program and those in the control group.
### Table 9  Questionnaire open-ended questions results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire Statements</th>
<th>Strategy Use</th>
<th>Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;It was not always that I knew what I was doing, but I also had habits of looking at the possible strategies before finishing a given task, to make sure I am applying the right strategy.&quot;</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Sometimes I forgot about strategies and I was worried about finishing the exercises.&quot;</td>
<td>Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The role of RSI Training</strong></td>
<td>&quot;The training program helped me so much because there are things I used to do unconsciously but now I know when and what to do in reading. However, I still find it difficult to use my background knowledge in some unfamiliar topics and sometimes it is not clear to me what the main idea is and the supporting details are&quot;</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Having a reading strategy training can be important since we have many readings and most times we do not know what is better doing to improve our reading comprehension as fast as possible.&quot;</td>
<td>Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Word Meaning</strong></td>
<td>&quot;Similar words between Portuguese and English help me to find the meanings of new words, by means of translation, but the context is also important to understand the whole text. More proficient classmates were also important during the reading process.&quot;</td>
<td>Experiment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Asking a friend, looking in a dictionary and translating were helpful strategies. Sometimes I used the context, but it is not easy when you are reading something you really don’t know about.”</td>
<td>Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reading and Sharing</strong></td>
<td>“I believe that when we read we practise many skills because after reading all skills are called into action when we are writing summaries, comments and when we are sharing in the classroom.”</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“I think that reading and sharing is good because I would no longer hide what I write and when my friends are giving me feedback, we are both practicing our speaking and listening skills. Writing summaries after reading is also good, so that we don’t forget the story.”</td>
<td>Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>While-reading strategy</strong></td>
<td>“I use discourse markers and other language clues to understand the meaning of the words and the whole text content and I also keep making questions and finding answers to myself. I also used as many strategies as possible”</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“When I am reading I try to understand the content using my knowledge and using the questions to guide my reading process.”</td>
<td>Control</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The statements found in the role of strategy use and the role of the RSI reflect the feeling students had after being involved in the RSI program, and the thoughts of those who see it as a tool that improved their reading skills. As we can see, some of the strategies mentioned by students as tools used to find out the meanings of new words, in the questionnaire open-ended questions, were not part of the strategies they were taught. "Translation", "asking a friend" and finding "similar words between languages" or cognates, are among the strategies mentioned as being useful in the reading process.

4.4 Discussion

The main purpose of the study was to find out if a reading strategy training program could have an effect on Mozambican university English language learners/readers. Throughout the training program, the experimental group was instructed not only to use the pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading strategies according to Chamot (2005)’s Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), but the group has also performed a pre-test and post-test, since test scores were needed to evaluate students’ progress in strategic reading.

Looking at the reading comprehension pre-test and post-test scores we found that the experimental group, but not the control group, showed an improvement from pre-test to post-test. The study showed statistically significant differences between the pre- and post-test reading scores in the experimental group, but not in the control group. In fact, the difference between the pre-test and the post-test results of this group was highly significant (p<0.001). However, the difference between the pre-test and the post-test results of the control group proved not to be significant (p>0.1). We can therefore assume that the treatment group has benefited from the conducted RSI and reading performance was enhanced through strategy use. The results of this study confirm previous research findings on reading strategies which sustain that strategy instruction improves students’ L2 reading performance (Macaro, E. & Erler, L., 2008; Macaro & Erler, 2008; Aghaie & Zhang, 2012; Akkakoson, 2013).
Moreover, we found that there are 13 strategies which were always used by the experimental group students. The least and the most used strategies can be listed as follows: 14 reader for strategies 18 reviewing to summarize text meanings and 19 checking effectiveness in strategy use; 15 readers for strategies 8 focusing on meaning, not form and 20 review notes, glosses, text markings; 18 readers for strategy 12 asking how the main idea or purpose is related to previous paragraph; 19 readers for strategy 13 using context to make inferences of the unknown words/expressions; 20 readers for strategy 3 predicting content; 21 readers for strategy 7 self-monitoring; readers for strategy 14 identifying main ideas and supporting details; 23 readers for strategy 6 self-questioning, 24 readers for strategy 9 relating meaning to what is already known and 25 readers for strategies 11 reviewing main ideas after each ‘chunk’ of reading and 16 evaluating reading.

The use of these strategies is not specific to Mozambican university students, since previous studies have found similar results: the use of metacognitive awareness, syntactic knowledge, as well as the instructed reading strategies have been found by other researchers (Bernhardt, 1991; Grabe, 2009; Koda, 2005). Both the strategy 7 self-monitoring and strategy 19 checking effectiveness in strategy use focus on the metacognitive ability (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001) to monitor the reading comprehension process. Looking at these strategies in an integrated perspective, we can see an application (or replication) of the componential models (Frederiksen, 1982) within this study, since students did not rely only on the pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading strategies as shown in the Appendix 5, but they have also used several skills in combination and in a complementary manner (Cohen & Macaro, 2001; Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Grabe, 2009; Anderson, 2009; Pressley, 2006).

It also became clear that students in the experimental group were also able to shift their strategy use depending on the reading purpose (Yigiter, Saricoban, and Gürses, 2005). For instance, it was mentioned that pre-reading strategies used before the actual reading process took place, but even after reading, for answering text questions, especially in the pre-test questions related to figures and dates, students had to use the pre-reading strategies (4 and 5) in order to scan and skim for specific and detailed information in a quick manner. That is, in an activity in which students were required to apply a post-reading strategy, they also had to apply pre-reading and even while-reading strategies in order to complete a post-reading task.
Looking at the strategy use among the control group, we can see that although the majority used the reading strategies *sometimes*, the distribution of readers in terms of frequency from *never* to *always* is balanced. That is, except for the use of reading strategies *sometimes*, the remaining frequencies have more or less the same numbers of readers. This suggests that these readers are typical of the Mozambican university students who did not have any RSI training. Their reading does not differ from that of a poor reader who, according to Golinkoff (1975), reads all types of texts in the same manner. Indeed, poor readers generally use the same types of strategies in a balanced frequency.

Among the strategies *sometimes* used by both the experimental group and the control group’s, 35 out of 50 students reported that they *scanned for highlighted words or expressions* and they also *associated words in their synonyms and antonyms as well as associating new word sounds with known word sounds*. The fact that students could *always* use the while-reading strategies indicates that after being involved in the RSI program they could easily monitor their comprehension. This is directly related to an effective monitoring strategy (*monitoring comprehension*) more found in L1 (Baker, 2002; Presley, 2002b) than in L2 research, as Grabe (2007) noted. Drawing from L1 results, we can see that the effective use of while-reading strategies in the current study suggests that after the conducted strategy-based reading program, students had the ability to set a reason to read, they could easily find the main idea in a given paragraph, use background knowledge which is related to the text at hand, as well as recognizing the structure of their readings and their relevance, while reading carefully and clarifying misunderstandings.

In addition, from the exit questionnaire's results, students showed to be aware of reading strategies, although both the experimental group and the control group showed considerable differences. While the control group reports to have used most of the pre-reading and while-reading strategies only *sometimes*, the experimental group has used most of them *always*. When asked about what they exactly did to find the meanings of new words, both the control and the experimental groups reported that “context”, "lexical similarities", "asking a friend", "looking up the meaning in a dictionary” were important for them to find the meaning of new words.

However, not all of the strategies applied by the students involved in the RSI program were the ones they had been instructed. Among the strategies used *always*, we can see strategies 11 *reviewing main ideas after each “chunk” of reading* and 16 *evaluating reading*. Both
linked to summarizing and the metacognitive ability to monitor reading comprehension, while 11 is part of the while-reading strategies and 16 of the post-reading strategies. Regarding pre-reading strategies, we saw that strategy 3 *predicting content*, was highly used compared to other pre-reading strategies. Note, however, that strategies 4 and 5 (*scanning* and *skimming*) were used in an integrative manner, that is, in clusters (Cohen & Macaro, 2001; Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Grabe, 2009; Anderson, 2009; Pressley, 2006).

With respect to context, it was found that awareness of the discourse structure (strategy 15) is useful in the process of reading comprehension. Knowing whether a text is narrative or expository is a tool for an easy understanding of how the information is organized throughout a text, especially during the reading process. Both groups reported that *rereading*, *using hints like discourse markers or linking words*, *translating*, *retelling stories to classmates* and *writing summaries*, *asking a friend*, *relying on wording similarities between languages*, among other strategies, were important during the reading process.

Moreover, peer cooperation among the students involved in reading activities was observed in step 3 of the CALLA Model (Chamot, 2005). Throughout the RSI program, cooperation was important among Mozambican learners, since both groups reported that “asking a classmate/friend” was one of the strategies used apart from using a dictionary or guessing the meaning of new words from the context. Peer cooperation enabled less skilled students to overcome difficult aspects they encountered in reading strategy use. Most students in both the control and the experimental groups preferred asking a friend to looking up the word meaning in a dictionary, although it became clear that this was not the result of the treatment, since it is a common strategy used by both groups even before the RSI was conducted. In a similar context, Ghaith (2003) found that instruction based in cooperative learning was an effective tool for enhancing comprehension.

Previous studies have also shown that there is language material which is best learnt in an interactive social context (Grenfell & Macaro, 2007; Waring & Huber-Warring, 2006). In addition, Patrick et al. (2007, cited in Seitz, 2010: 32) found that "students’ perceptions of dimensions of their classroom social environment, including affiliation, cohesion, fairness, mutual respect, and support from teachers and students are associated consistently with adaptive motivational beliefs and achievement behaviours".

Finally, looking at the pre-reading and while-reading results, we can see that the experimental group achieved higher reading comprehension abilities in comparison to the
control group. A more detailed analysis revealed a number of quite remarkable aspects which will therefore be discussed separately below, i.e., autonomy, reviewing main ideas and the use of support strategies.

4.4.1 Autonomy

At the end of the course, each student had to make some comments on the RSI program and below is one of the selected statements from the students involved in this study. It explains that:

“The training program helped me so much because there are things I used to do unconsciously but now I know when and what to do in reading. However, I still find it difficult to use my background knowledge in some unfamiliar topics and sometimes it is not clear to me what the main idea is and the supporting details are.”

(Experimental group)

This statement from one of the experimental group’s students summarises the feeling of many, who feel that being aware of the reading strategies helped them in the reading process. Thus, with strategic reading awareness, students will not need teacher’s guidance, which is only possible in the classroom, but they will develop an autonomous ability to evaluate their reading, monitoring their actions and gaining more language proficiency from free and continuously self-rewarding reading activities.

In situations where peer tutoring and cooperation were not effective, field note data showed that students tried to use as many strategies as possible, rather than using one strategy in a given exercise. In fact, using a wide range of strategies is a skill used by readers in order to become self-confident (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001). This can be illustrated by the following statement taken from the experimental group exit questionnaire answers:

“I use discourse markers and other language clues to understand the meaning of the words and the whole text content and I also keep making questions and finding answers to myself. I also used as many strategies as possible”.

This shows that it is not just a wide range of known strategies (e.g. 6, 8, and others) but their combination in certain tasks that turns a reader into an active reader, as witnessed in previous studies (Presley, 2006; Presley & Fingeret, 2007, cited in Grabe, 2009).

According to Paiva (1997), this autonomous stage can be effectively achieved only with the previous guidance of a teacher, which is what happened in the current RSI. It is important
to note that what is relevant is not only the total number or variety of strategies learners knew (cf. Cohen, 1998), but the way in which they applied these strategies in reading tasks.

### 4.4.2 Reviewing main ideas and summarising

Among several strategies used by the experimental group we find that all the 25 students report to have reviewed main ideas after each “chunk” of reading. All students reported to have used this strategy because students nearly always had to write summaries of their readings. All of them also reported to have evaluated their reading, which is one of the cognitive strategies they used for checking their comprehension and for being able to write summaries. Here, the fact that the control group had access to the strategies but did not receive training on its use may explain why this group tried to use most of the strategies ‘sometimes’ and not ‘always’ (as it happened with the experimental group). Strategy 18 reviewing to summarize was used mostly due to the fact that students had been summarizing texts throughout the RSI program as part of the reading practice, but summarizing was also part of both the pre-test and the post test, and it is a strategy which has been proven effective in reading comprehension (Block & Presley; 2002, 2007, cited in Grabe, 2009: 241; Oded & Walters, 2001, cited in Bernhardt, 2011). For students to be able to summarize a text, they also need to be able to identify main ideas and supporting details (strategy 14), that is, the ability to look for relationships between main ideas (topic sentences) and details. This again recalls the ability to use strategies in combination with others.

In the current study, summarising was one of the assessment strategies used. Summaries were routinely presented in the classroom to share what each student was reading. Similar to our assessment approach, Oded & Walters (2001, cited in Bernhardt, 2011) examined the effectiveness of text summary vs. listing (two different types of reading assessments) and the results showed that higher comprehension scores were obtained on summaries than on listing. However, in the current study we did not look at summaries in contrast to listing. Some novels used by students had been summarized by other readers worldwide and summaries could be found online. The problem here is that some students downloaded them and tried to use these as their own. Lack of a clear policy on plagiarism at UEM can be one of the reasons for students to try to do these copy-paste acts, but knowing the proficiency level of the students’ discourse structure in writing and the fact that they were required to
share their stories orally were some of the assessment tools used to check the originality of their summaries. The fact that students could in fact write acceptable summaries showed that strategy 11 "Reviewing main ideas after each ‘chunk’ of reading: summarizing main ideas" has been assimilated by students throughout the RSI program.

### 4.4.3 The use of support strategies

We have mentioned above that both groups reported that rereading, using hints like discourse markers or linking words, translating, retelling stories to classmates and writing summaries, asking a friend, relying on wording similarities between languages, among other strategies, were important during the reading process. Mozambican university students involved in the current study showed the ability to adjust their efforts to the way they understand the tasks and therefore to choose the best strategy to find meanings of unknown words. Looking at the reported strategy use, through the questionnaire, it is clear that most of the strategies used by the experimental group were the result of training, while other strategies like the use of "language similarities", "asking a friend" and "translation" were strategies used by both groups but with no training on their use, which suggests that these did not depend on training but on the normal strategy use among these students. Looking at these strategies, we can see that they are used in order to compensate for a handicap in word recognition/decoding, as alternative routes for comprehension. These strategies can be termed supply strategies (Jimenez et al., 1995, 1996) or support strategies (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001), or even compensatory strategies in Bernhardt (2011)’s perspective. They are part of alternative means through which word meanings could be understood, and their application also involved rereading, reading ahead and focusing on important sentences, as well as drawing on prior relevant knowledge.

Such support strategies are derived from students’ practical and previous reading experience, from the trust on peer cooperation (asking a classmate), from language proximities between English, Portuguese and, sometimes, Bantu languages (word similarities) and from L2 proficiency level (translation). The aspect of language level is related to the issue of whether reading is a language problem or a reading problem (Bernhardt, 2011). Although RSI programs are there to solve reading problems of those learners who find difficulties when reading, it is also obvious that strategies like translation
are linked to L2 proficiency problems, since a certain level of L2 proficiency is crucial in reading comprehension. Therefore, although Mozambican university students do have reading problems related to a lack of reading strategy awareness and use, they also have problems linked to their L2 proficiency level.

In her recent book, Bernhardt (2011: 125) put forward the following question to be answered by future studies: "Is translation the key to second-language reading strategy? The actual strategy use among Mozambican students has shown that mental translation (of single words) is in practice a strategy used by these readers. By using the translation processes, students could find the meaning of difficult passages and so they could easily integrate stretches of discourse for better understanding. That is, through translation, students could easily understand the meaning of separate words and this, in turn, enabled them to grasp the content of the sentences and paragraphs, which enabled them to make connections of several paragraphs in a given text. Although mental translation was not the most frequently used strategy, it was a strategy almost every participant used even though it was not explicitly taught or included in the RSI program. In fact, Grabe (2009) refers to mental translation as an effective comprehension strategy. Also, Kern (2000) found positive reasons for students to use mental translation as a comprehension strategy, since it allows students to integrate stretches of discourse for better understanding and it "supports students' comprehension as they try to work through the meaning of difficult passages, particularly for students with weaker abilities" (Kern, 1994: 215).

The use of mental translation is generally linked to two aspects. The existence of language similarities between Portuguese and English, as well as the L2 proficiency level which, in this study, could be observed through cloze questions, in section 3 for the pre-test and in section 2 for the post-test questions. The while-reading strategy 10 (associating words with their synonyms and antonyms; associating new word sounds with known word sounds) was frequently applied but we need to take into account the many cognates between Portuguese and English. Bernhardt (2011: 56) noted that “first-language literacy knowledge buttresses or shores up a lack of direct knowledge about the second-language comprehension process”, which means that there is an L1/L2 intersection and support, where lack of knowledge in L2 is compensated by L1 knowledge, especially regarding vocabulary. Associating words with their synonyms and antonyms or associating new word sounds with known word sounds is an effectively feasible strategy when dealing with English and
Portuguese languages, since we have English-Portuguese word pairs such as “normal=normal”, “crucial=crucial”, “intelligent=inteligente”, and “cognitive=cognitivo”, which are different in pronunciation, but the same or similar in their written forms and which have the same meanings in both languages. These similarities are found not only in the relation Portuguese-English, but also in the relation Bantu languages-English, as can be seen between Xichangana and English in these words: “kettle = ketlela”, “spoon = xipuni”, “chewing-gum = xiwinga”. In the same line, Firmino (2001: 118) has shown more examples: “xitimela – steamer/train”, “buku – book”, “bayibele – bible”, “watchi – watch”, “phayipi – pipe”, “penisela - pencil, and pen”.

Due to the above-mentioned similarities, participants reported that they could easily understand the meaning of new words and this, in turn, contributed to the understanding of sentences and the general content of the involved readings. In fact, this finding confirms Chamot (2001, 2005, cited in Zhang & Aghaie, 2012)’s and Cortés (2005)’ studies which showed that RSI enables students to transfer strategies from the L2 to other languages and to other tasks (Harris, 2004; Graham & Macaro, 2008) and even back to the L1. However, in this case, we are not exactly talking about the transfer of a certain strategy from L1 to L2 or vice-versa, but we are dealing with a situation in which “the L1 was used to reduce the cognitive load during L2 reading comprehension” (Cohen & Macaro, 2007: 196). This explains why some “readers rely on their first language vocabulary in order to try to make sense of L2 vocabulary words” (Paribakht, 2005).

The interlanguage influences have to be considered when dealing with speakers of Portuguese, English and Bantu languages. It is also possible that this focus on translation may reduce as students improve their English language skills. Consider that at UEM, students can take English level 1 through English level 6 and the students involved in this study were taking English 5. Upton & Lee-Thompson (2001: 197, cited in Grabe, 2009) noted that “there may be a threshold of L2 proficiency where thought in L1 becomes less efficient than simply reading the L2 text using automatic and proficient L2 reading skills”.

Similarly, Alderson (1984) sustains that there is a threshold level L2 readers need to achieve before they can efficiently transfer their L1 reading skills to the L2 reading context (Guo & Roehrig, 2011). This idea of the threshold level entails that it is possible that the (partial) reliance on translation among Mozambican students may be due to the fact that they have not yet developed automatic L2 reading skills, coupled with their low L2 proficiency. This
may change as they become more proficient in English, "particularly for students with weaker abilities" (Kern, 1994: 215). The fact that lower L2 proficiency level may result in reliance on translation and language similarities can be seen if we look at Malcom (2009)’s study results. Malcom (2009) investigated the awareness of a hundred-sixty Arab-speaking medical students studying in English. Translating strategies from English to Arabic was found mainly among low English proficiency readers. Also, the first year reported more translation than the upper-year students.

However, the awareness of language similarities suggests that students could think of how to deal with the reading task and which strategy to apply when dealing with new word meaning. Students could self-regulate according to given tasks (Fujita & Isaacson, 2006; Zimmerman, 2008; Zumbrunn, Tadlock & Roberts, 2011). Thus, by knowing that English and Portuguese have the same origin and so have lexical proximities, students sought to find lexical similarities whenever possible. In doing so, they had to take care to avoid the so-called false friends (Cortés, 2005), that is, words which may be similar but with different meanings, such as actually, which is not “actualmente” in Portuguese, but it is “na verdade”; while “actualmente” means currently in English. For dealing with false friends and possible ambiguity, students had to rely on the context in which a word was used to make sure they understood its actual meaning.

4.5 Limitations

Although the current study showed positive results, there are aspects which we think that could have contributed to considerably different and more thorough results. The first limitation has to do with the use of the questionnaire at the end of the RSI program. Asking participants to report on what strategies they usually employed while reading and to what extent was not the only measure used in this study. We are aware that mere answers to a questionnaire may depend not only on students’ actual use of the strategies, but also on how aware they are of their reading behaviour. Also, students in the experimental group, by knowing that they were participating in a training program and/or in a research program, may have biased responses, where answers may reflect their expectations, not their actual
behaviours (Damato et al., 2005). Their answers may have also been socially desirable responses, since the questionnaire was not anonymous.

In spite of this limitation, similar RSI studies (Ozgungor & Guthrie, 2004; McNamara, 2004, 2007; Park, 2010) which have used a questionnaire including the use Likert Scale have also found good benefits of RSI. However, in order to avoid basing our conclusions on possibly biased answers, we have involved both qualitative and quantitative questions. Apart from this double aspect of the questionnaire, in order to guarantee reliability of the questionnaire answers, we have also given a post-test to the students involved in the RSI.

Moreover, there are some other aspects which can be considered to be limitations. One limitation has to do with sampling without control for comparable L2 knowledge and strategy use before intervention. That is, while the experimental group (ELT students) might from the start have a stronger tendency towards strategy use and/or a stronger L2 background than the control group (Translation and Interpretation students), the latter may also be more oriented towards stylistic, discursive, and linguistic features of texts than the former group. One of the reasons for the choice of these two groups is that they were all doing English 5 (first semester of the third academic year at UEM, since each semester corresponds to one level), and this English level has the same (EGP) syllabus, so they were dealing with the same topics and, coincidently they even had the same teacher. Moreover, the same EGP syllabi have been used from English 1 to the English level they were doing at the time of the intervention. In spite of that, non-random sampling may have limited the explanatory power, although in a quasi-experiment this is quite normal. So, a random sampling in the ELT and T/I classes would have been better, but that proved practically impossible.

Another limitation has to do with the considerable differences between the pre- and post-tests with regard to length and items. The post-test was so designed as to make sure there were differences in terms of difficulty level from the pre-test. However, even though the post-test was considered harder than the pre-test, there were similarities in terms of strategies that were required in order to answer the questions, as we have explained in the discussion section. So, the aim was that a post-test with slightly much harder questions than the pre-test was better for assessing strategy use.

Even though the treatment positively influenced students’ reading skills in this study, there is still a need to conduct similar studies involving a larger number of learners and during
more than 3 months. Such future studies should also consider learners’ individual differences (e.g. gender, anxiety, personality factors, learning styles, etc.) that may influence strategy use, especially in multilingual contexts.

4.6 Conclusions and recommendations

The current study aimed at clarifying whether a strategy-based reading instruction program could have a positive effect on enabling learners to become strategic readers. After the RSI was conducted, the experimental group students reported a better mastery of pre-reading, reading and post-reading strategies, which was confirmed by a considerable improvement between reading comprehension pre-test and post-test scores among this group compared to the results of the control group. Student responses to the exit questionnaire have also confirmed an effective use of reading comprehension strategies, although with differences in terms of frequency between the experimental and the control group students. While most of the strategies were always used among the experimental group, most strategies were sometimes used among the control group.

Questionnaire answers showed that the RSI indeed raised students’ awareness since they started using strategies in a more deliberate way, paying attention to strategies which were suitable for some specific exercises. This suggests that the intervention generally had a positive effect among Mozambican university students since, for instance, they could easily comprehend and summarise a text at the end of the program. This would entail that strategy-based instruction is indeed effective in promoting reading skills, as a result of a greater awareness and monitoring of the reading task itself. In fact, previous studies have also reported that apart from tending to be less dependent on the classroom learning environment (autonomy), students involved in RSI programs improve their reading competence and they also develop cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Grenfell & Macaro, 2007; Khezrlou, 2012).

Moreover, throughout the RSI program it was found that students used strategies which they had not been taught but which were effective during their reading process. Students used compensatory/supply/support strategies (Jimenez et al., 1995, 1996; Sheorey &
Mokhtari, 2001; Bernhardt, 2011) such as translation, asking a classmate and using similarities between languages, depending on the situation and the problem found while reading. Peer cooperation was also used as a reading strategy among Mozambican students and it is linked to their culture of learning which values cooperative learning and group work. Apart from the identified similarities between languages, strategies such as "mental translation" suggest the existence of both the language problem (low L2 proficiency) and reading problem (lack of strategic reading skills) in the EFL reading process (by speakers of Portuguese and Bantu languages) within a multilingual tertiary context. Strategies derived from peer cooperation "asking a classmate" can be seen as derived from the students' cultural background. Moreover, during the study students did not use individual strategies but they applied them in clusters (Grabe, 2009) and this enabled them to be autonomous in strategy selection and use.

In this context, the current study suggests that an implementation of a strategy-based reading curriculum can be beneficial to Mozambican EFL and EAP students and possibly to other students who are taking other university courses at UEM as well. So, implementing RSI programs for second language learners in an academic environment may enable students to be less dependent on the classroom learning environment to develop cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies, and ultimately to improve their reading competence. Future RSI programs should take into account the number of supply strategies commonly applied in each student’s academic context (or discipline), in order to enable them to be autonomous in language learning and, specifically, in reading comprehension. Apart from general reading strategies, there is a need to look at strategies which are specific to a certain field of study (e.g. social sciences), mainly in an ESP context. So, a curriculum that involves RSI would not replace intensive reading (see also Mart, 2015), as may be wrongly interpreted by local EFL/ESL practitioners, but would reinforce the sole practice of intensive reading for academic purposes, which has shown some limitations in terms of providing learners with strategic and meta-cognitive reading skills so far.

Finally, concerning the issue of the language problem/threshold, and bearing in mind that most of the academic literature in Mozambican academic libraries is in English, involving students in strategic reading is a way of enabling them to improve their learning outcome not only in the English language classes, but also in other subjects. That is, most of the books available in the university libraries are written in English, and for students to
understand the books' content and even other several readings given by different lecturers, students also need to have English language reading skills, no matter which university course they are taking.
Chapter 5  Enhancing reading fluency and comprehension through extensive reading

5.1  Introduction

Several studies have documented the effectiveness of Extensive Reading (henceforth - ER) with respect to reading aspects, including reading speed and reading comprehension (e.g. Leung, 2002; Iwahori, 2008; Nishino, 2007; Takaze, 2007; Yamashita, 2004; Hitosugi & Day, 2004; Kweon & Kim, 2008). The current study was conducted in a foreign language reading context, where students learn English as a foreign language, and most of the time actually as a 3rd or 4th language. In similar contexts, ER generally focuses on text messages with the purpose of building readers’ fluency, speed and general comprehension of reading texts (Waring, 2011). Specifically, the focus of this chapter is on two reading aspects: reading speed and reading comprehension. To date, this is the first study in the Mozambican research setting which deals with ER and reading fluency, as well as the relation between ER and reading comprehension. Lack of previous studies in the local setting was a limiting aspect but the research has shed light on how Mozambican university students deal with reading and how speed can be related to reading comprehension among foreign language readers.

The aim of ER programs is for students to cultivate the ability to read a long text and still gain its understanding, and to read and understand words and sentences at first glance and without need to reread (Richards & Schmitt, 2002; Yamashita, 2008). In addition, ER involves reading large quantities of text, where learners’ current linguistic and communicative competence is also taken into consideration in the choice and selection of...
texts. This is due to the fact that reading many and selected quantities of texts enables readers to improve their reading comprehension and reading speed (Bell, 2001, cited in Leung, 2002; Walker, 1997), since students involved in an ER program read more than they do in their normal and daily academic routines.

Current research in L1 and L2 reading contexts has shown that ER is an effective way of acquiring, maintaining and improving language, while its primary goal is reading in order to gain information and enjoy texts (Bamford & Day, 1998; Eskey, 2002; Grabe & Stoller, 2002). Research in many reading aspects has shown that ER is beneficial for readers. Recent studies have shown that ER values and develops learner autonomy (Waring, 2011; Sheerin, 1998, cited in Cheng & Lin, 2010); ER feeds into improved writing (Hafiz & Tudor 1989; Hoey, 2005; Mason & Krashen, 1997; Hoey, 2007, cited in Maley, 2007), apart from writing, reading and speaking skills, ER improves listening skills (Elley & Mangubhai, 1983); ER creates and sustains motivation to read (Elley, 2000; Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass & Gursuch, 2004; Day & Bamford, 2004); ER enables learners to develop their syntactic and world knowledge (Nassagi, 2003 cited in Iwahori, 2008); ER enhances learners’ general language competence (Elley, 1991, cited in Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Dupuy & Krashen, 1993; Waring & Takati, 2003); and provides learners with comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982). It is in this context that graded readers are aimed at building readers’ fluency and speed and they have many benefits such as enabling readers to meet comprehensible input, abbreviated as CI, at different levels of proficiency (Bell, 1998), improving reading comprehension (ERF, 2011; Waring, 2011). Finally, ER improves reading comprehension (Iwahori, 2008; Rasinski, 2004). The fluency gained through ER enables readers to be able to comprehend texts efficiently, mainly because the more one reads, the better his/her comprehension skills improve and, according to Nuttall (1996), the faster one reads, the better comprehension will be (Krashen 1993; Day & Bamford, 1998, 2002; Rasinski, 2004; Samuels, 2006; Iwahori, 2008).

In addition, ER extends, consolidates and sustains vocabulary growth (Day & Bamford, 1998; Nation, 2001; Renandya & Jacobs, 2002; Maxim, 2002). More recently, vocabulary gains were also documented by Horst (2005), Samuels (2006), and Pigada & Schmitt (2006, cited in Maley, 2007), who find that extensive reading is supportive of vocabulary growth and offers suggestions for assessing vocabulary growth.
Typically, ER programs take one of two perspectives: while in some ER studies readers engage in reading the same book either as a classroom activity or as homework, our study follows the line of those in which the students involved read many and different books selected on the basis of their individual choice, linguistic competence level and interest (e.g. Kirin, Poolsap, Phongthong, 2011; Leung, 2002; Iwahori, 2008). The readings used in an ER program are at the readers’ current linguistic competence level so that they are not in need of other aids such as dictionaries for grasping the meaning of words and the general content.

In the broad concept of ER programs, readers do not expect interpretation questions (Day & Bamford, 2004; Krashen, 2004), but rather they expect to just read and share their readings in the classroom. Similar programs have been termed Sustained Silent Reading - SSR (Garan & Devoogd, 2008; Reutzel, Fawson & Smith, 2008), or Free Voluntary Reading – FVR (Krashen, 1993). In these programs, students read either in class or outside the classroom learning environment, in their free time, whenever and wherever they enjoy reading.

Therefore, reading extensively is a self-selected reading and voluntary activity which motivates readers to engage in reading a large number of books, but with grading being indirectly involved. More important than the grades is that readers choose to read according to their interests, and this, according to Krashen (2004)’s Pleasure Hypothesis, makes the reading process pleasant and relaxing (see Chapter 2, section 2.7). While the students are reading, they are also developing their linguistic and communicative competence in a continuous and pleasurable manner (Liu, 2005). In sum, ER is “intended to develop good reading habits, to build up knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and to encourage a liking of reading” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002: 194). It is thus expected that by reading several books of their interest, readers may easily improve not only general linguistic skills (vocabulary, grammar and other skills), but they also can improve the way they think and feel (reading attitudes - although the relation between ER and reading attitudes is not detailed in this, but in the following chapter) about reading in general. This explains why the current study has also as its purpose to see whether reading extensively influences Mozambican university reading speed and comprehension.

In this chapter, we are first looking at the effect of ER on reading comprehension because, as we have indicated above, there are several studies which show the effectiveness of ER
programs on students reading comprehension. Secondly, through reading speed pre- and post-test we are looking at the relation between ER and reading speed (in terms of the number of words students read per minute). Thirdly, we aim to find out whether there is a relation between reading speed and academic reading comprehension among the readers involved in the current ER program. The main issue here is that there are reading strategies which can be learnt through intensive reading and academic reading (we are taking these two types together in terms of the reading strategies and skills), but there are other strategies which can be learnt through ER and which can therefore lead to an improved academic reading comprehension improvement. In this context, Nuttal (1996: 38-39) has already noticed that most of the skills and strategies we want our students to have “are developed by studying shortish texts in detail. But others must be developed by the use of longer texts, including complete books”. The relation between ER, reading speed and reading comprehension, as well as between of the ER and intensive reading has been documented by several scholars (e.g. Robb & Susser, 1989; Sheu, 2003; Bell, 2011; Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass, and Gorsuch, 2004).

Moreover, the context in which the current study was conducted still needs to be explored, as we found no previous ER studies so far in Mozambique. Within the ER program, the researcher was at the same time also the teacher in the Journalism course where the study was conducted, so the study was conducted in normal teaching/learning classes and, according to the syllabus used in English 3 the students were doing, English classes involved intensive/academic reading activities, as well as listening, speaking and writing exercises. This somehow suggests that reading activities (academic reading) necessary in their normal English 3 syllabus became part of ER program, although we have avoided dealing with academic reading activities throughout that semester (first semester 2013).

In the present study we have chosen to evaluate the relation between ER and academic reading by using an academic reading test to evaluate reading comprehension progress among students involved in an ER program. To the best of our knowledge, there are only a few studies (e.g., Guo, 2012; Walker, 1997; Wang & Wang, 2013a) which examine the relation between ER and reading comprehension of an academic text in a context of English as a foreign language, and to date no similar study can be found in Mozambique. In fact, “there has been insufficient research to explore the effects of extensive reading that utilizes authentic materials” (Guo, 2012: 96).
In Taiwan Guo (2012) investigated the impact of authentic materials as the main source of extensive reading. The study involved 50 students (25 experimental group and 25 control group) from a five-year college who were English majors in their fourth year of study - the equivalent to freshmen in a regular university. This quantitative study employed a pre- and post-test design using a simulated English proficiency test and an attitudinal survey. The study aimed at discovering the effects of extensive reading using online materials on students’ language proficiency, and students’ attitudes toward the extensive reading activity. Study results indicated a strong relationship between extensive reading and vocabulary development, as well as overall English ability and knowledge. However, Crowhurst (1991) noted that ER leads to an improvement of language skills, as well as better writing skills, but that ER of authentic academic texts may be of limited benefit. As a solution, Wang & Wang (2013b: 53) suggest “since ER of academic texts is often not feasible owing to the difficulty of academic texts, instruction in academic reading strategies could be targeted at lowering the language threshold requirement for L2 readers”. However, providing students with reading strategy training was not part of the program for the current study.

Among the few studies which have explored the effects of extensive reading that utilizes authentic materials, Walker (1997) is very relevant to the current study. Walker (1997) conducted an ER study involving 60 students over a year, but the results are based on 29 participants who were doing General English (11 students) and English for Academic Purposes (18 students) at a Language Centre attached to the University of Exeter. These students were preparing for tertiary level studies through English, which explains why it was necessary to improve their reading comprehension skills. The study was motivated by two main issues: the language problem and the need for a better implementation of ER programs (Walker 1997: 122). Both these issues were the same as those which motivated our study, since they mirror what happens in Mozambique as well. Among several reasons pointed out by Walker (1997) the following also apply to our participants:

- Students do not actually read much in reading classes: time and texts are, of necessity, short;
- The conditions (i.e. when, how, where, how long, what for) are controlled by the teacher, not the readers;
• Reading is only part of what is done: for example, texts may be used as vehicles for information about language, or as stimuli for a series of integrated skills for a series of integrated skills activities or the production of spoken or written discourse.

This is clearly showing that the readings done in the classroom are not guided by students’ choices and therefore do not bring topics which could motivate students to read and enjoy reading. An immediate result could be the vicious cycle (Nuttal, 1996) mentioned in the section (5.1.1) below. This also reminds us of the issue referred to in Chapter 1 (section 1.9), where we mentioned that reading in Mozambique is centred in intensive reading activities and not in ER.

The second reason for the development of the ER project in Walker (1997)’s study was the need for effective systems for the management of ER, to evaluate and to give recommendations which would be observed in future ER projects. Linked to this goal, our ER project was aimed at evaluating the implication of an ER project in the low-income context of Mozambique. Our recommendations will refer to language policy and planning activities in the education system at different levels in Mozambique and in similar contexts. Walker (1997) showed that:

- EAP students considered reading graded reader as worthwhile, despite the fact that these were different in genre from the texts they are required to read for study in their subject area.

- For estimating how much each student read, Walker (1997) used the number of words read per minute, by using the students’ reading records as we have done in the current study. The conclusion was that students at lower levels read fewer texts than students at higher levels, and vice-versa. This suggested that speed and comprehension are positively correlated as shown in the present chapter, section 5.3.3.

- Students found reading enjoyable, useful (79%) and beneficial.

- Students felt that, due to the ER program, both their reading speed and comprehension had improved. Therefore, “by reading faster and
understanding more easily the ability to process written texts improves” (Walker, 1997: 137).

Reading skills acquired through ER can be used in academic reading situations. This explains why Walker (1997: 141) concluded that “classroom reading needs to be complemented by reading schemes in which the students can develop reading fluency, and independence and autonomy with regard to the task of reading in English, so that the business of L2 reading becomes an activity more like L1 reading and less a pedagogic means to an end”.

In this context, we do recognize that intensive reading is different from extensive reading, even basically in terms of reading skills required, where academic reading requires more advanced skills than ER. However, extensive reading is a tool for success in several aspects, specifically in intensive reading and, those students who engage more regularly in readings achieve significantly higher reading comprehension results (Worthy, 2002; Mart, 2015). Concerning the transfer of skills acquired from ER (simplified texts) to IR or academic reading (unsimplified texts), Walker (1997)’s study showed that EAP students (78%) reported that ER was a good preparation for reading unsimplified texts. This suggests that skills acquired in an ER program may be useful in academic reading, and vice-versa. In fact, “extensive reading... may be one of the few ways to increase exposure to examples of language use for the purposes of language acquisition, or to reinforce and recombine language learned in the classroom” Bamford (1984: 219). However, ER is not necessarily the entire answer to teach reading comprehension. Students generally need special help with certain reading skills, and need these skills to achieve particular goals such as academic reading proficiency. In this situation, IR is more appropriate than ER. What is supposed is to find balance between these two approaches in EFL teaching (Yu, 1993, Walker, 1997; Day & Bamford, 2004). Intensive reading helps with faster vocabulary acquisition and awareness of certain language structures. In addition, ER practices the skill of reading. Therefore, the ability to read gained through IR should be combined with developing reading habits through ER.

In spite of superficial differences between extensive reading and intensive reading (see Chapter 2, section 2.7.1 for a discussion), these should not be seen in opposition but as complementary reading types which a good reader needs to have in an EAP curriculum, as Carrell & Carson (1997) have already underlined. In fact, a study conducted by Mart (2015: 219) demonstrated that ER is not necessarily the entire answer to teach reading comprehension. Students generally need special help with certain reading skills, and need these skills to achieve particular goals such as academic reading proficiency. In this situation, IR is more appropriate than ER. What is supposed is to find balance between these two approaches in EFL teaching (Yu, 1993, Walker, 1997; Day & Bamford, 2004). Intensive reading helps with faster vocabulary acquisition and awareness of certain language structures. In addition, ER practices the skill of reading. Therefore, the ability to read gained through IR should be combined with developing reading habits through ER.

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85) in Iraq has shown that “the combination of extensive and intensive reading leads to substantial proficiency gains in language learning process; while extensive reading aims at fluency, intensive reading aims at accuracy”. Therefore, as Nuttall (1996: 23) reminds us, “intensive and extensive readings are complementary and both are necessary”. Although ER and academic reading are different, their complementary role in reading comprehension is plausible. Looking at the benefits of ER, we can see that there are several skills which are learnt in academic texts and which are also acquired through ER. For instance, syntactic knowledge and vocabulary are acquired through intensive reading or academic reading, but they are also acquired through ER. In fact, Nation (2001) claimed that when learners read, they not only learn new words and enrich known ones, but they can improve their syntactic knowledge.

A final worth mentioning aspect has to do with the implementation of ER programs. Basic requirements for setting up an ER program can be found in Chapter 2 (section 2). There are a number of limitations that make it difficult to establish the importance of ER in academic contexts, particularly at the tertiary setting like the one in which our present study was conducted, the chief one being time and resources. That is, ER requires a significant commitment of time on the part of the learners to notice language gains (Grabe, 2003; Waring, 2009). However, the quantity of academic readings university students have to deal with in their daily academic lives may somehow limit their availability, but that does not mean ER should not be promoted at university level, as shown in this chapter. However, as Macalister (2007, cited in Wang, & Wang (2013a) points out, there seems to be a predominant notion or sentiment in much of the English language teaching field that ER is mostly suited to learners in primary or secondary school levels.

5.1.1 Extensive reading and optimal reading rate

Normally, ER programs lead to faster reading (Day & Bamford, 2002). This indicates that ER is typically a contributor to reading fluency. In fact, ER has been indicated by many studies as a tool for promoting reading fluency among readers (e.g. LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; 1996: 30; Paran, 1996; Mathson, Allington, & Solic, 2006; Iwahori, 2008). For instance, for L1 readers, reading fluency is related to building the relationship between aural vocabulary and print, which is not the same for L2 readers. Bernhardt (2011) argues that
for L1 readers there are many more potential matches. We can illustrate this with two English words: *bring* and *bride*. While for an L1 reader it is a matter of matching the print with the phonological system acquired from the native language, for an L2 readers there are still questions of whether the “i” in both words is read as /ɪ/ as in *bring* or /ʌɪ/ as in *bride*. This explains why reading fluency may be hindered by low pronunciation accuracy mainly among lower (or intermediate) level L2 readers. This suggests that L2 reading comprehension achievement can therefore be affected by too much attention to pronunciation accuracy.

It in this context that Paran (1996: 30) claimed that “if L1 readers possess attributes in reading which L2 readers do not, then it is the task of the language teacher to develop ways of encouraging the development of these attributes”. The previous paragraph indicates that, in word decoding, L1 readers are in advantage compared to L2 readers. This shows that L2 teachers should find a way of fostering automaticity among L2 readers (Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; Mathson, Allington, & Solic, 2006; Rasinski & Hoffman, 2003). The theory for reading fluency, the *automatic information processing* proposed by LaBerge & Samuels (1974), indicates that although many learners are able to recognize words accurately, they spend excessive time and energy in the process of word identification, which may lead to comprehension breakdown. This then suggests that when learners have greater capacity for attention, it leads to textual comprehension because they are able to recognize words accurately and rapidly. In order to enable learners to process information in an automatic way, they need to decode and comprehend text simultaneously (Samuels, 2006). For that to be possible, there is a need to guarantee appropriate speed of reading, accuracy in word decoding, prosodic reading (pitch, stress and timing) and automatic processing (Martinez, Roser, and Strecker, 1999; Reutzel, 2006; Rasinski, 2004). These are some of the suggested components of reading fluency, given that a fluent reader is one who can read rapidly, recognize words automatically, and interpret phrases correctly (Blevins, 2005). Although each scholar takes different perspectives and use different terms regarding reading fluency, what is common among them is that accuracy of word recognition and reading speed are essential in reading fluency.

According to the *automatic information processing* theory, decoding and comprehension are two steps involved in getting the meaning from printed words. While decoding is a process in which printed words are translated into spoken words, “comprehension is a
constructive process of synthesis and putting word meanings together in special ways, much as individual bricks are combined in the construction of a house” (Samuels, 1994: 820). Since reading starts from the word level, passes through the sentence till the discourse level (as detailed in Chapter 2, section 2.4), the first level, decoding, plays a crucial role in the reading process. This explains why Eskey (1988) claimed that rapid and accurate decoding of words is crucial to any kind of reading, especially L2 reading. After readers can decode the meaning of single words, they can look at their interrelations and combinations in order to construct the meaning of and comprehend a sentence.

ER’s theoretical support is the automatic information processing theory, which shows that the human mind has a limited capacity, mainly when it has to deal with processing difficult words. Normally, processing in ER should not be a problem for L2 readers if the principle “reading material is easy” is observed. To enable effective decoding and comprehension, the text should not be too difficult, because the readers need to direct all their attention to the simple decoding of words, rather than to text comprehension. Therefore, guaranteeing that students engage in reading activities for a considerably long period of time, or even creating reading habits among them, is important for them to become good readers and comprehenders. This is explained by the fact that, over time, reading practice reduces the amount of effort needed for the tasks, and eventually, the effort required for performing reading tasks drops drastically (Samuels, 1994). For instance, with respect to automatic decoding and sight vocabulary (Renandya & Jacobs, 2002; Samuels, 2006), it is argued that when students find the same word many times they can read it and find out its meaning automatically in several textual contexts where it appears. This explains why it has been argued that ER enhances vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension, since it creates opportunities for readers to see the same words used several times and in several different contexts.

Moreover, extensive reading enables students to improve their reading speed as well as their reading comprehension, which is why reading speed and reading comprehension are the main focus of this chapter. According to Day & Bamford (2002), ER promotes reading fluency and increases reading speed. Speed is crucial in ER because it promotes enjoyment and comprehension (Yamashita, 2010). According to Taguchi, Gorsuch, and Sasamoto (2006), automatic and efficient use of lower-level skills of the reading process, i.e. word recognition and speed, is necessary for the success of reading comprehension. Taguchi &
Gorsuch (2002) and Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass, and Gorsuch (2004) examined rapid word recognition by having subjects use a technique called repeated reading. Here, they noted that while it was possible to increase reading fluency in a second language, such an increase in fluency did not necessarily lead to increased comprehension. Similarly, Bernhardt (2011: 54) underlined that fluency in word recognition is a necessary yet insufficient condition for second-language text processing. When there is too much focus on word form and pronunciation, then comprehension may lag slightly behind.

In spite of this finding, Nuttal (1996) has shown that there is a relation between the increase of comprehension and the increase in reading speed. Nuttal (1996) noted that there is a vicious cycle, that is, when one reads slowly there is no enjoyment since the reading pace is slower which, in turn, slows down comprehension. The fact that most readers do not make any progress in reading is due to the fact that there is a correlation between reading speed and reading comprehension, and most readers are trapped in the vicious circle of the poor reader as shown in Fig. 8 (left panel) below.

As a result of the slow reading rate and lack of enjoyment, poor readers find reading difficult and they tend to avoid it in general. By increasing the reading rate, that is, when one reads faster, there is motivation to read more and more in an enjoyable manner, meantime, improving comprehension.

![The vicious circle of the poor reader (left panel) and the good reader (right panel)](image-url)

Figure 8 The vicious circle of the poor reader (left panel) and the good reader (right panel)

Regarding the reading rate in minutes, Higgins & Wallace (1989: 392, cited in Anderson, 1999) consider 180 words per minute (henceforth – wpm), to be “a threshold between immature and mature reading and that a speed below this is too slow for efficient comprehension or for the enjoyment of text”. While some scholars consider 200 wpm as the
optimal reading rate (Dubin & Bicyna, 1991), others claim that “for an L1 speaker of English of about average education and intelligence… the reading rate is about 300 words per minute” (Nuttal, 1996: 56). The learners involved in this study are foreign language readers and they will face some of the issues mentioned above regarding reading fluency, but there is a need to evaluate the relation between fluency and reading comprehension among these students, in order to inform future ER programs in terms of good practices needed in promoting fluency.

5.1.2 Research questions

It should be pointed out that the students involved in this study did not read academic texts during the ER program. Instead, they read non-academic texts of their choice. The reason for this is that in the current study we are interested in examining whether the skills acquired in an extensive reading program will or will not enable students to deal with academic reading, which is what they encounter in their daily academic lives through intensive reading.

In conducting this study, we bear in mind that the more one reads the faster one becomes. Therefore, an ER program should enable students to increase their reading speed. Secondly, most studies (e.g. Anderson, 1999; Zhang, 2001 cited in Zhang, 2007; Duke & Pearson, 2002; Zhang, 2008; Akkakoson, 2013) have looked at the influence of ER on students’ general reading comprehension, in general language skills, reading speed and reading comprehension, but those studies have not examined the degree to which reading habits cultivated through repeated reading in and outside the classroom may influence academic reading comprehension skills (in ESL). Moreover, it is necessary to evaluate the implementation of an ESL ER program in the Mozambican context described in the Chapter 1 (section. In this context our research questions are:

- What is the effect of an extensive ESL reading program on reading speed among Mozambican English language learners?
- What is the effect of extensive ESL reading on reading comprehension of English academic texts?
5.2 **Methodology**

In order to evaluate the relation between reading speed and reading comprehension, scholars like Iwahori (2008) and Kirin et al. (2012) used several methods which, apart from the ER program itself, consisted of reading comprehension surveys, reading speed tests, reading amount records, reading progress forms, and opinion surveys on students’ progress in reading. Our study also made use of some these tools. Before the ER program itself was conducted, students were given a pre-test. This was followed by a speed pre-test which was given in the middle of the program. At the end of the program, students were given two tests, a reading comprehension post-test and a reading speed post-test.

5.2.1 **Study setting and Participants**

The conducted ER program involved 30 university students doing English III (upper-intermediate level) while majoring in Journalism at the UEM, School of Communication and Arts, in 2013. With the exception of one slightly older student aged 38, all participants were between 19 and 26 years old (mean age: 21): 17 were male and 13 female students. English was a foreign language for all students and their mother tongues were mostly Bantu languages and Portuguese, the official language in Mozambique. Through the consent form (see the model in Appendix 11) given to students on the first day of the program, which also contained some background information questions, we obtained information not only about age and sex, but we also found that the majority of students spoke at least three languages, and that they came from all ten Mozambican provinces.

5.2.2 **Treatment**

This section describes extensively what was done in the classroom during the ER program. The current extensive reading program took 16 weeks. Classroom sustained (silent) English reading activities lasted 120 minutes per week, divided into two specific moments: the first part took 45 minutes, the second 75 minutes. During in-class activities, in the experimental group, the first 45 minutes were dedicated to classroom interaction, where the teacher
helped students to understand texts and get clarifications regarding some linguistic issues other than only reading. These first 45 minutes were reserved for students to share their readings with the teacher and classmates, to draw some comments and to see whether they had any problems related to their reading (vocabulary, questions regarding language level, topic). This was necessary in order to help students in case they had any problem, and it was during this time we also checked the summaries which they were expected to write after each reading. While some students’ doubts prompted discussions on different topics depending on the stories shared in the classroom, others clarified meaning of difficult words which could not be understood even in context.

The next 75 minutes were reserved for individual silent reading. It was during these minutes that, to monitor classroom reading activities, the researcher walked around the classroom talking to students about their individual readings, answering individual questions regarding personal readings, checking the diversity and difficulty of the books being read by each student, and giving advice on whether to carry on reading a given book or changing to another closer to the student's linguistic competence. Throughout the course, students read different books of their choice (sometimes with the help of the teacher) at their own pace, in and outside the classroom learning environment. It is not easy to state precisely how much time students spent reading outside the classroom, but they were urged to spend at least one hour a day reading in their spare time. Moreover, the division between the two parts (that is, 45 and 75 minutes) was not followed during the days students solely had to share their readings in class. In such classes, the whole 120 minutes were reserved for assessment (book reports, summaries, and general comments).

Habits of reading long texts were prompted and promoted from the first day onwards, when the teacher facilitated a discussion on students’ reading beliefs. Since the students involved in this study had never taken part in a Reading Strategy Instruction program, basic notions of reading strategies were introduced in the first week so that students would be aware of their reading strategies. It was then also explained how the program was going to be conducted during the following weeks. Among the skills students learned during the first two weeks we can underline the ability to talk about different aspects related to text content, setting, and characters. Similar to Yamashita (2008), classroom administration, lectures and activities aimed at maintaining students’ motivation.
Aiming at integrating reading, writing, listening and speaking and encouraging critical thinking, as well as checking effective comprehension of the readings, students had to share their readings in one or more ways: on the one hand via presentations of personal readings using imagination and their own interpretation and on the other hand via book reports/summaries which were also shared online at the UEM Reader’s Corner (https://www.edmodo.com/). The use of this platform is grounded in two perspectives. First, there was a need to create a space where students could freely share their readings, mainly those learning styles, beliefs and attitudes which they did feel comfortable sharing in the classroom (Cagiltay & Bichelmeyer, 2000; Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005; Chen, 2008; Ertmer, 1999). Also, Kim (2004) found that literature circles helped to enhance reading comprehension for second-language learners of English, and the online platform was, for all of the students involved in this study, the first online circle for sharing reading.

Apart from simply sharing readings in the classroom, students had the opportunity to use ICT for reading and also for language learning purposes, which is a common practice in extensive reading research (e.g. Case & Truscott, 1999; Jonassen, 2000; Ybarra & Green, 2003; Pérez Correa, 2004; Harmer, 2007). For instance, a recent study investigated Algerian EFL university students’ attitudes and teachers’ reactions to the use of computer/internet in an extensive reading classroom. Results showed that “computer/internet have major benefits on students’ achievement in reading/extensive reading in the sense that these technologies motivate students to read both intensively and extensively, strengthen their reading competence and make them enjoy the reading act” (Assia, 2012: 57). This suggests that involving university students in online reading circles is a rewarding step and our reading comprehension results may have been influenced by this experimental online involvement as well.

Moreover, throughout the course, oral comprehension activities were involved and these invited students to adapt the text, change the ending or extend it creatively, thereby changing the stories at crucial points. This generally involved retelling stories orally, talking about textual structure and settings, or about the topic and characters, among other salient textual aspects (Reutzel et al., 2008).
5.2.3 Materials

The ER was also aimed at helping learners to develop general world knowledge, mainly because the literature read was Mozambican, African and world literature. Thus, while reading and interpreting texts, learners were also learning about their culture, other cultures, past and present issues in the world and, by doing so, they increased their knowledge (Renandya & Jacobs, 2002; Iwahori, 2008; Rosário, 2009).

The average number of books read by the students during those four months was 12. A wide range of genres, styles and topics enabled students to choose according to their interests, purpose, readings’ availability, level of difficulty and enjoyment. Book selection followed the Wide Range Genre Wheel designed by Reutzel & Fawson (2002) and it included fantasy, folktales, fables, adventure, science fiction, humour, sports, mystery, biography, historical fiction, autobiography and poetry.

Since there was no English literature at the local library for the current ER program, students borrowed books from friends outside the university and from a private library of the Modern Languages’ Centre which belongs to a legal organization called Students and Artists Entrepreneurs’ Association of which the researcher is the founder, the current president and one of the facilitators of the Association’s reading group called the Reader’s Corner, which has face-to-face, radio and online activities. Most of these books were offered by the British Council Mozambique to the Association in 2012. The books read in the current ER program included Mozambican literature: Zabela, my wasted life by Bento Sitoe - translated from a Bantu language - Xichangana - into English; The Last flight of the Flamingo (novel), Voices Made Night (short stories), Sleepwalking Land (novel), Under the Frangipani (novel), all written by Mia Couto (winner of the 2014 Neustadt International Prize for Literature) and translated by Brookshaw from Portuguese into English; Ualalapi and Orgy of Fools both novels written by Ungulani Ba Ka Khosa and translated by Alcance Editores from Portuguese into English; At The Hiding Place (short stories) by Tanguene, written originally in English); African literature (Arrow of God by Chinua Achebe); and world literature (Harry Potter and the Sorcerer's Stone by J. K. Rowling; The Street Lawyer by John Grisham; Andersen's Fairy Tales by Hans Christian Andersen), just to mention some examples.
The participants dealt with non-graded novels not only because there were no available graded readers, but also because literature is motivating, it enables learners to learn more about the language itself and about new socio-cultural meanings of the words in different contexts, it helps learners to handle linguistic creativity, it contributes to intercultural understanding, stimulating imagination as well as critical and personal response, thus contributing to readers’ education in general (Picken, 2007; British Council, 2009).

5.2.4 Instruments

For this study three tools were used: reading speed tests, reading comprehension tests and classroom observation. Reading speed and reading comprehension both had a pre- and a post-test, while classroom observation refers to teacher’s involvement as explained in the treatment section. In the first 45 minutes (and in the following 75 minutes) of the ER program filed notes were taken, including general and brief evaluations of students’ participation in the program.

5.2.4.1 Reading speed

In this study, reading aloud against a clock during three minutes was an exercise done only twice: once in the middle and once at the end of the ER program. We did not include the reading in the beginning because we wanted students to get involved in the reading process before we could evaluate them. As we have mentioned a few times before, Mozambican students are not used to reading and starting with a read speed evaluation would not be beneficial for the students themselves. Establishing the ER program had first priority.

The two different passages used for reading speed were taken from the novel “The Godfather”, written by Mario Puzo (Appendices 7 and 8). The passage used for the first test had 230 words and for the second test it had 211 words. All students knew they were being timed while doing the three-minute reading speed test. The passages were selected not because of proficiency level, which was at least at upper-intermediate level, but they were chosen because they were part of a novel and students were reading literature during the ER program, including “The Godfather”.

Studies by Iwahori (2008) and Kirin et al. (2012) have shown that it is not a simple task to evaluate reading speed, added to the problem of pronunciation and accuracy (Bernhardt,
2011) in reading aloud. Our methodological approach was derived from Bell (2001)’s study. Bell conducted an ER study involving an experimental and a control group. The reading speed test took 3 minutes and two identical texts were used for the pre- and post reading speed tests. Participants’ reading rates were calculated by looking at the number of words they were able to read per minute. The results showed that the experimental group students outperformed the control group students.

In the current study, our students were instructed to read at their normal speaking pace, pronouncing all the words clearly and making sure their voice was heard by all the other students in class. In both the reading speed pre-test and post-test, students knew that they would have to answer questions about the passages they were reading as soon as they had finished reading. One question was randomly picked in any issue related to the text. This was not part of the evaluation but it was necessary for students to balance their reading speed and their reading comprehension, and to reduce a mismatch between reading speed and reading comprehension (Taguchi & Gorsuch, 2002; Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass, and Gorsuch, 2004; Bernhardt, 2011).

To keep individual records and to evaluate how many words students read per minute, we counted the total number of words read during the 3 minutes and divided them by three. It is important to note that the three-minute-reading-speed-test was the same for both the poor readers and the good readers (in terms of reading comprehension results; see further down) and, after keeping on reading the same passage during the controlled three minutes, the test taker had to stop reading and, after s/he had answered one simple question about the passage, another student carried on.

We should acknowledge that readers who heard the text many times could have an advantage, if they could use their short-term memory. However, language proficiency, reading speed and reading comprehension, as well as listening, writing and speaking skills differ from one student to another. In order to avoid the use of short-term memory (memorization) of questions and colleagues reading performance, students did not know who was going to be the next reader, although they were almost all ready for the test. The turns were not taken completely randomly, since the teacher guided the alternation between a “good” and a “poor” reader.

Note that the students had to read the passages for three minutes, and if they finished before the three minutes they had to carry on reading the same passage to the end of the time under
evaluation. The difference in the length and in the structural aspects (one is purele descriptive narrative, another contains a certain proportion of dialogue, etc.) of the passages was not a limiting problem for the pre- and post-tests. Students were also instructed to read clearly and at a normal speaking pace so that the others could clearly understand the message in the passage. This was to avoid that some of the students would rush and there would be a mismatch between decoding and comprehension, thereby also creating a mismatch between listening and comprehension for their classmates.

This speed evaluation method was based on the concept of repeated reading, a procedure involving repetition of the same text. According to Han & Chen (2010), there is highly converging evidence of the potency of repeated reading for reading fluency, accuracy and comprehension, but research has been conducted mostly in L1 and rarely in second and foreign language contexts. There are three approaches to repeated reading, ranging from silent reading (Anderson, 2008, 2000), to listening to and simultaneously or subsequently reading aloud (Chomsky, 1978), and to having the learner read aloud (Samuels, 1979). Therrien (2004, cited in Han & Chen, 2010: 245) found that repeated reading improves reading fluency and comprehension, and that “reading aloud to an adult produces greater improvement than reading to a peer”. The benefits of repeated reading were seen by Taguchi (1997) who conducted a study among 15 native speakers of Japanese taking beginning to intermediate English classes. Results showed a correlation between increase of silent reading rate and the number of readings. In another study, Taguchi and Goursuch (2002) involved 18 Japanese students in an experimental and a control group intervention which had a pre-test and a post-test. Taguchi and Goursuch (2002: 51-51)’s treatment used the following procedure: (1) students (in the experimental group) read the previous passage to remember what they had read in the last session; (2) students timed their first reading of a new passage with a stopwatch; (3) students read the passage three times while listening to the exact taped version with headphones; (4) students read the passage silently three more times and timed each of their readings with a stopwatch.”

This study use words per minute to measure reading rate, the same as it is done in our present study. Taguchi & Gorsuch (2002: 58)’s study concluded that: “(1) the reading rate of the experimental group improved significantly from the initial reading of the pre-test passage to that of the post-test passage. But the experimental group did not perform significantly better than the control group. (2) With regard to reading comprehension, the
reading performances by the experimental group were not significantly different from those by the control group.” These findings were the result of two main issues: there was no equivalence between the pre-test and the post-test and the texts used in the tests were more difficult than the texts used in the treatment. The second reason is that foreign language readers are at a disadvantage compared to L1 readers, since they face issues such as phonemic awareness, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension (Hu, 2008, Han & Chen, 2010). Despite possible limitations among foreign language readers, the reading pre-test and post-test in the current study (repeated reading aloud) was based on Chomsky (1978)’s and Samuels (1979)’ approach regarding reading aloud, as well as on Taguchi & Gorsuch (2002)’s and Han & Chen (2010)’s studies which proved that “repeated reading practice can facilitate general reading fluency for some unskilled readers, for normal readers given difficult text, and in regular classroom instruction (Moyer, 1982: 620).

5.2.4.2 Reading comprehension: pre-test and post-test

Before the pre-test was administered, a pilot test was run, in which 5 students had to take the same test in order to check whether it was suitable for the students involved in this study, in terms of the test itself and of the text content. The pilot test was also given to two English teachers working at UEM so as to check content relevance for the students’ level and interest. After checking the text topic, vocabulary, length, students’ language level, enjoyment as well as the content of the students’ curriculum, the teachers gave a positive judgment. This procedure ensured us that the text used in the tests was motivating, as well as academically and contextually relevant.

In order to test reading comprehension, we selected a longer academic text (1,206 words). The text chosen for both the pre-test and the post-test was an extract from Macalister (2008)’s scientific article entitled: ‘Integrating extensive reading into an English for Academic Purposes Program’ (Appendix 9). This text is suitable for students at the upper-intermediate or advanced English level. There are, however, a few aspects we need to consider about the choice of the text used in this ER program, as well as the use of the same text for both the pre-test and the post-test, as did Bell (2001, cited in Yamashita, 2010). The text was chosen because it is an academic text and all students could understand it because it was at their English proficiency level. By using an academic text, the purpose was to see
whether the skills students gained through the ER program could be effectively applied to an academic reading comprehension text.

Even though the academic reading text was about Extensive Reading, the researcher did not talk about Extensive Reading during the classes and students did not have training in reading strategies (although we have mentioned the use of reading strategies in the ER program classes), not even in other subjects or modules, so that they could read using their own skills and at their own pace. After the pre-test, there was no in-class test correction. This was purposefully done in order to make sure that students did not see the test again before the post-test and that their test scores were kept unknown to them. They only had access to pre-test and post-test scores after the post-test results. Also, before the post-test students did not know that the post-test was going to be the same as the pre-test, they did not know their scores, and they did not know what was right or wrong.

As mentioned, the text was relatively long, i.e. it contained 1,206 words. Since there were 20 items/questions to be answered in the pre-test and post-test, each item was scored 1 mark. The time limit was 90 minutes for each test. The reading text was available to the students during the tests so that students could go back to the text whenever they needed to. The test had three sections: section A (10 multiple-choice reading comprehension questions; section B (2 open-ended comprehension questions); and section C (8 multiple-choice vocabulary questions). Section A and section B were two different types of questions but both tested comprehension, since several studies link ER to reading comprehension and, in this case, comprehension of an academic text.

5.2.5 Procedure

This section gives information about data collection and analysis, that is, it describes when and how the instruments and treatment were administered. Data collection took over 16 weeks, from February to May. In the beginning, the students involved were given a written consent form with clear explanations of the purpose of this study and they all accepted to partake. From this consent form it was clear that students would not receive anything in exchange for their participation since it was voluntary, and that they could withdraw at any time. That is, the students involved in the current study did not have any training on reading strategies or on ER in general, but it was explained to them how the ER program would take
place and how it would work during the four months, including basic notions of ER and reading strategies.

In addition, in order to evaluate students’ reading speed, two tests were administered: one in the middle of the ER program (during the eighth week) and another at the end (during the sixteenth week). Reading comprehension was assessed through a pre-test and a post-test. To help students in their selection of reading texts and to enable reading speed evaluation, we divided the group into two on the basis of the pre-test results: poor readers (14) and good readers (16). All those who scored 12 or more out of 20 marks in the reading comprehension pre-test were considered as good readers and those who scored 11 or less were considered as poor readers. This division did not mean a different treatment between the two groups but it was simply to enable students to choose books which were suitable for each group, with the help of the researcher, as well as to facilitate the analysis of the progress of each group.

In terms of quantitative data analysis, we firstly analysed reading speed, focusing on the number of words read per minute. Reading speed was measured through the number of words read aloud per minute in the middle and at the end of the ER program.

In addition, using SPSS statistical analysis, three paired-samples t-tests were administered. The first was a comparison of the reading rate for all participants together in pre- and post-test. The second and third were comparisons of reading rate performance in pre- and post-test, by poor and good readers, respectively. Lastly, to compare the performance of 14 poor readers (those who scored below 12) with that of 16 good readers (those who scored 12 or more) we needed independent samples t-tests. We did two independent samples t-tests, one for the pre-test and one for the post-test.

Secondly, we focused on reading comprehension, basing our analysis on the pre- and post-test results. Considering the number of the participants (30), we have calculated the minimum and maximum scores, the mean and the standard deviation (SD) in both the reading pre-test and the post-test. Lastly, a qualitative analysis is based on non-participant classroom observation. Moreover, students’ discussions and the stories shared by each student through summary presentations and e-reading activities were qualitatively analysed, since these steps were also used to evaluate (together with the students) to which extent they were involved in the reading process, whether they felt they were really reading and what they thought about reading itself.
5.3 Results and discussion

This section first deals with the reading speed results, that is, the effect of ER on students’ reading speed. The second aspect has to do with the influence of ER on academic reading comprehension. Here, we will also look at the relation between reading speed and reading comprehension. The last discussion is based on classroom observation of the sustained silent reading activities as well as on the online summaries shared by students during the ER program.

5.3.1 Effects of ER on reading speed

The effects of ER on reading speed are presented in four tables below: Table 10 and Table 11 refer to the number of pages read per week. That is, in order to see the progress of their reading amounts throughout the ER program, students recorded the pages they read from the beginning until the end of the treatment as shown in Table 10 and Table 11.

The whole group showed an improvement, given that in the beginning the lowest number of pages read was 4 and at the end it was 10. As for the maximum number the increase was only in two pages, from 18 in the beginning to 20 at the end of the treatment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pages</th>
<th>Beginning Min.</th>
<th>Beginning Max.</th>
<th>Beginning Mean</th>
<th>End Min.</th>
<th>End Max.</th>
<th>End Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pages/week</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to see whether the ER program was beneficial to all readers in terms of reading amounts, we decided to divide up the group into poor readers (n=14 - those who scored below 12) and good readers (n=16 - those who scored 12 or more) in the reading comprehension pre-test. Table 11 below shows the averages in the two groups.

At the beginning, in the 75 minutes reserved for silent reading and outside the classroom learning environment, poor readers read 6 pages per week on average (min. 4 – max. 8) and good readers 16 (min. 14 and max. 18). At the end of the ER program poor readers read 12
pages per week (min. 10 and max. 13) and good readers 18 pages (min. 15 and max. 20) during the same period.

Table 11  Average reading records

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pages/week</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Begin Min.</td>
<td>Begin Max.</td>
<td>Begin Mean</td>
<td>End Min.</td>
<td>End Max.</td>
<td>End Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor readers</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good readers</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The good readers group made little progress on number of pages read per week (increasing by just 2 pages), whereas the poor readers increased 6 pages on average. However, looking at the reading amounts of both groups it is clear that the good readers outperformed the poor readers, since at the end of the program poor readers maximally read only 13 pages which is still less than the minimum of 15 pages by the good readers. The maximum difference between poor (13) and good (20) readers even amounts to 7 pages.

It is also important to note that although we mention the reading amounts (pages per week), we did not use them as measures of reading speed, since for this purpose the words per minute (wpm) were used (see Tables 12 and 13). To evaluate students’ reading speed we calculated the number of words read per minute, as shown in Tables 12 and 13 below. The numbers of wpm are the result of the two tests conducted in the middle and at the end of the ER program. Table 12 and Table 13 present the results of the reading speed test which was measured through the number of words read aloud per minute in the middle and at the end of the ER program. For this test, we used Nuttal (1996)’s assessment approach, also applied in Sheu (2003), in which the calculation formula is X (the number of words in the text) divided by Y (the number of minutes spent in reading the text) equals Z (the number of words read per minute, wpm).

Note that the numbers presented in Table 13 below are those of the reported pages read per week in class, from the first week and the last week of the program.
Table 12 shows the number of words read by students in the middle (week two) and at the end (week sixteen) of the ER program.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Words</th>
<th>First test Mean</th>
<th>Second test Min.</th>
<th>Second test Max.</th>
<th>Second test Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>wpm</td>
<td>82.8</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A study conducted by Taguchi et al. (2004), indicated that the average reading rate of Japanese university students ranges from 80 to 119 wpm. Looking at the second reading speed test results among Mozambican students, we can see that Mozambican students in our study showed a considerable increase in their reading speed test, since their scores range between 85 wpm and 150 wpm. Overall, the results of a dependent t-test showed that on average, participants read faster, i.e. read more words per minute, in the post-test (M = 120.47, SE = 3.835) compared to the pre-test (M = 82.80, SE = 3.139), t(29) = -22.591, p < .001.

Compared to Bell (2001)’s study, our reading speed results show that Mozambican students have a smaller number of wpm in the post-test. Bell (2001) looked at the extensive reading vs. the intensive reading methodology with young adult EFL learners in Yemen, reporting changes in reading speed and reading comprehension over one year. Time-on-task was equivalent for the two groups, and the reported results are quite impressive indeed. The IR group’s rate increased from 78.45 wpm to 92.54 wpm, while the ER group increased from 68.10 wpm to 127.53 wpm, both of these gains being statistically significant and the post-treatment difference between the two groups also being significant. The ER group also made higher comprehension improvement than the IR group. These results suggest that ER is indeed a tool through which students can improve their reading speed, while IR does not offer the same possibility. Concerning reading speed, note that while the ER group increased from 68.10 wpm to 127.53 wpm in Bell (2001)’s study, they increased from 82.80 wpm in the pre-test to 120.47 wpm in the post-test in the present study.

Although the comparison of pre-test and post-test reading speed results among Mozambican university students show an improvement, looking at the threshold between immature and
mature reading (180 wpm) considered by Higgins & Wallace (1989: 392, cited in Anderson, 1999), we can consider that all of the students in our study still need to improve their reading speed rate. Apart from the results of the whole class, we have also looked at the differences with regard to poor and good readers, and these are presented in Table 13 below.

Looking at the mean numbers, we can see that while in the beginning poor readers and good readers read on average 65 and 98 wpm respectively, at the end of the program, poor readers could read 100 wpm and good readers 138 wpm.

Table 13   Words per minute: poor and good readers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Readers</th>
<th>1st test</th>
<th>1st test</th>
<th>1st test</th>
<th>2nd test</th>
<th>2nd test</th>
<th>2nd test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Min.</td>
<td>Max.</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Min.</td>
<td>Max.</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor readers</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wpm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good readers</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wpm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In general, looking at the reading speed progress differences for both groups, we find that the average reading speed among poor readers increased with 35 wpm while for the good readers there was an average increase of 40 wpm. These data give the impression that the reading speed progress was roughly equal for both groups, although obviously with a considerably larger number (5 more wpm) among the good readers. In addition, the difference in reading rate between pre- and post-test was significant for the poor as well as for the good readers: the poor readers (N = 14) read more wpm in the post-test (M = 101.14, SE = 2.961) than in the pre-test (M = 65, SE = 1.104), t (13) = -16.98, p < .001. The good readers (N = 16) were similarly faster in the post-test (M = 137.38, SE = 2.413) than in the pre-test (M = 98.38, SE = 0.386), t(15) = -15.42, p < .001.

Similarly, if we look at the maximum number of wpm in the pre-test and the number of wpm in the post-test for both the poor and good readers, we find that while poor readers showed a progress of 45 wpm, good readers increased by 50 wpm, which also indicates clearly that good readers outperformed the poor readers only in 5 wpm.

Fig. 9 below shows the difference in the first and the second test of each student’s reading rate in wpm.
The line chart clearly shows that all participants, regardless of whether they are poor or good readers, read faster at time 2 than at time 1. For instance, a comparison of the first and the second reading speed test showed that students 1, 6, 10, 12, 15, 17, 25 and 27 (all good readers) showed an increase of more than 45 wpm in the second test.

The result of an independent t-test showed that in the pre-test, the good readers (M = 98.38, SE = .386) read more wpm than the poor readers (M = 65, SE = 1.104), t (16) = -28.527, p < .001. (Note that Levene’s test was significant, p < .001, so equal variances could not be assumed.) The difference remained statistically significant in the post-test, in which good readers (M = 137, SE = 2.413) read faster than poor readers (M = 101.14, SE = 2.961), t(28) = -9.575, p < .001; Levene’s test was not significant, p < .05, so equal variances could be assumed).

Clearly, differences in the numbers of wpm between the first and the second test is substantial, showing that there was an improvement among good and poor readers in terms of reading rate. This proves that the more we read the faster we become (Iwahori, 2008; Kirin et al., 2012). In spite of the observed difference, both the poor readers and the good readers show an improvement in both the number of wpm and the number of pages read throughout the ER program.

Huffman (2014)’s investigation of the reading rate gains of Japanese nursing college freshmen during a one-semester ER course. The study took over 15 weeks and each meeting lasted 90 minutes. It involved 66 female first-year students, enrolled in a 4-year nursing
college in Japan. The study had an experimental group (34 students who were enrolled in an extensive reading course) and a control group (32 students who were enrolled in an intensive reading course). This study provides strong empirical support for the claim that extensive reading yields substantial improvements in reading fluency.

5.3.2 Effects of ER on reading comprehension

In order to check students’ reading comprehension, we applied both a pre-test and a post-test and then we compared the results (Table 14) of the two tests. Here, all participating students (poor and good readers: n=30) had the same reading comprehension pre-test and post-test. The highest mark was 20. Among the 30 students, only three had the same scores in the pre-test and in the post-test: two students obtained a score of 14 in both tests and one had a score of 13 in both tests. Two students had higher marks (17 marks) in the pre-test and lower marks (16) in the post test. The remaining 25 students had higher marks in the post-test than in the pre-test. For instance, only three students had a score of 12 in the pre-test, but each of the three had a higher score in the post-test, i.e., respectively 13, 16, and 17.

Table 14 Pre- and post-test scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14 shows the number of participating students, which was 30, the minimum and maximum scores, the mean and the standard deviation (SD) in both the reading pre-test and the post-test. The post-test mean is 14.9 and it is higher than that of the pre-test which is 11.6. The minimum score in the pre-test is smaller (6) than that of the post-test (11), and this is the same for the pre-test maximum score (17) which is lower than the post-test’s (20). Clearly, from the first to the second test there was a substantial improvement in test scores, which suggests an improvement in general reading comprehension.

Also, in the pre-test we can see that the standard deviation of 3.12 is higher than that of the post-test 1.86. Since a smaller SD suggests that the group is more homogenous in terms of reading comprehension progress, the students involved show more homogeneity in their reading comprehension skills after the conducted ER program. We can therefore assume
that the group has benefited from the conducted ER and that reading performance of the academic text used in the pre-test and post-tests was enhanced through extensive reading activities. These results are also linked to the positive role of ER on reading comprehension shown in several previous studies (e.g. Krashen 1993; Day & Bamford, 1998; Bell, 2001, cited in Leung, 2002; Rasinski, 2004; Samuels, 2006; Iwahori, 2008).

Moreover, while previous studies have looked only at the relation between extensive reading and general reading comprehension, our study goes beyond that, and it looks at how extensive reading may influence reading comprehension of academic texts. That is, during the ER program, students read several non-academic texts of their choice as in other previous studies, but both the reading comprehension pre-test and the post-test were based on an academic reading text. The observed improvements in the post-test scores show that extensive reading not only enables students to improve their general reading comprehension, but also that it enables them to improve academic reading skills since they manage to comprehend both literary and academic reading texts. This means that, extensive reading, when carried out in a Mozambican university setting, whether in normal reading classes or in specific extensive reading programs, can improve Mozambican students’ academic reading skills. However, taking into account that the study was conducted in a short period of time and with a limited number of participants, the improvement in reading comprehension is the result of the implemented ER program, but there are other factors which need to be considered, and these are detailed below in the section on classroom observation feedback (6.3.4).

5.3.3 Relation between reading rates and reading comprehension

In Fig. 10 reading rate is combined with comprehension (wpm vs. scores out of 20). The horizontal axis contains the number of words read per minute in the pre-test (time 1) and post-test (time 2), and the vertical axis the comprehension test scores. Fig. 10 shows that there is a clear relation between reading speed and reading comprehension, since the improvement in comprehension entails an increased reading speed which, in this study, was measured in terms of wpm. Taking into account that good readers read more words per minute than poor readers and achieved higher scores in comprehension tests, we can see that the faster one reads the better the comprehension is.
This finding is linked to the vicious cycle referred to by Nuttal (1996) (see section 5.1.1, Fig. 8 above).

![Relation between comprehension test scores and reading rates](image)

**Figure 10  Relation between comprehension test scores and reading rates**

That is, with the increase of the reading rate, readers become more and more motivated and they also enjoy reading, meantime, improving their comprehension skills. In sum, “reading fluency is the combination of both reading rate and reading comprehension. Fluency is not one of these elements alone, but the combination of both” (Anderson, 2013: 6). Similarly, a study conducted by Kirin et al. (2012) showed that students who read more pages performed better in reading comprehension and reading speed tests.

These results are linked to other previous studies which have found gains in the relation between reading speed and reading comprehension. That is, the fluency gained through ER enables readers to be able to comprehend texts efficiently (Krashen 1993; Day & Bamford, 1998, 2002; Rasinski, 2004; Samuels, 2006; Iwahori, 2008). These “studies have shown consistently that the amount of reading is associated with reading comprehension achievement” (Grabe, 2009: 322). Similar to the above-mentioned studies, the current study has shown that there is positive correlation between reading speed and reading comprehension.
In addition, the wpm rate in the read-aloud post-test increased for both the good and the poor readers to roughly the same degree, but the number of pages count of silent reading increases proportionally a lot more for the poor than for the good readers. In this context, while poor readers showed more increase in the number of pages, those considered as good readers showed a smaller increase in terms of page numbers.

5.3.4 Classroom observation and reading comprehension

The results discussed above show that Mozambican university students have increased the number of wpm from the reading speed pre-test to the reading speed post-test, and they have also improved their reading comprehension skills as shown through the comparison of both the reading comprehension pre-test and post-test results. These results are in congruence with several studies which were conducted with the purpose of evaluating the influence of ER on reading speed (Iwahori, 2008; Blevins, 2005, Reutzel, 2006; Rasinski, 2004) and on reading comprehension (Krashen 1993; Day & Bamford, 1998, 2002; Rasinski, 2004; Samuels 2006; Iwahori, 2008). Note that in the current program the ER did not show only its positive influence on reading speed and on general reading comprehension, but on reading comprehension of an academic text.

However, it has been argued that through extensive reading only, learners do not acquire sufficient proficiency, which suggests that detailed comprehension is necessary for readers involved in an ER program to achieve perfect mastery of the target language (Paran, 2003; Mart, 2015). Although the reading comprehension scores of the university students involved in this program may have been the result of the conducted ER, there are two additional aspects which may have played an important role in the improvement of the reading comprehension skills among the participating university students.

First, the non-participant observation (and field notes) of the researcher revealed that the improvement of students’ reading comprehension skills is presumably also the result of the monitored silent reading activities. Although some researchers have noted that unmonitored students in classroom silent reading may still read (Herda & Ramos, 2001), our experience confirmed what Stahl (2004) has already found, namely that when unmonitored, not all students actually involve themselves in the reading activity during the time reserved for classroom reading. In fact, while some students were really reading, others were just doing
something else. At least to prevent or to minimize reduce this, the teacher/researcher avoided sitting at the front desk reading all the time. Instead, the researcher moved around the classroom asking individual questions about the content with which each student was dealing. This was done as a way of checking or even scaffolding students’ reading comprehension. This enabled the teacher to reduce readers’ distraction and to involve all students in sustained silent reading activities (Garan & Devoogd, 2008; Reutzel et al., 2008). These findings are congruent with Reutzel et al. (2008) who noted that silent reading in which teachers guide the selection of texts, encourage reading different topics, monitor student progress, discuss books briefly, provide students with feedback, and require accountability for time spent reading silently, represents a viable, complementary, and motivating approach.

Secondly, bearing in mind that the ER program was conducted in parallel with ESP classes, it is possible that the knowledge acquired through general ESP classes possibly influenced reading comprehension of the academic text used in both the pre-test and post-test. This reinforces the idea that there is a complementary relation between ER and intensive/academic reading since, for instance, in the recent study conducted by Mart (2015) it was found that extensive reading allowed learners to become aware of how language items they studied in intensive reading function in sentences. This suggests that some of the skills acquired in ER may be applied in academic reading, and vice-versa.

One skill which is typically acquired through academic reading and which was also acquired during the current ER program is the summarizing skill. In spite of the difference between extensive reading and academic reading, during an ER program, students were involved in reading activities that imply the use of academic reading skills as well, since summarizing may be the result of academic reading skills such as note-taking, understanding the meaning and the relationships within a certain text, underlining the main ideas in any reading text, among other skills which were mentioned in Chapter 2 as academic reading skills. In addition, the summarizing skill was practised not only in the classroom, but also in the online discussion platform. Although our research questions were not related to the relation between ER and ICT, the involvement of students in the online circle/reading group has shown that there is a need of innovative online tools and techniques in the reading classroom, since reading and sharing online engages students actively in the fruitful skill of extensive reading (Pérez Correa, 2004; Harmer, 2007; Assia, 2012). Following from Pérez
Correa (2004)’s guidelines for successful computer-reading instruction which indicates that computer reading should link reading to writing, we have observed that this ER approach was also relevant in writing practice (summarizing) for the online commentators. However, regarding this issue, further and deeper research is necessary in the Mozambican context, where authors such as Rosário (2009) have indicated the lack of ICT tools in education as limiting aspect in the language teaching and learning process.

The information we obtained about the use of ICTs came from the field notes discussed in Chapter 4, in which we dealt with reading strategies. In that chapter, we observed that the majority (15 students) enjoyed sharing summaries and the respective reading material, but some students (10 students) reported to sometimes feel comfortable when sharing, but other times wanted to do things on their own and they did not want to share neither their summaries nor their reading material in the classroom. If ICTs had been used in the RSI program, those students who did not feel comfortable with sharing their readings openly in the classroom learning environment, could have had the opportunity of sharing online. The different attitudes of the learners are generally related to individual differences in language learning and, in this regard, personality, self-concept, identity, and even motivation and the Confucian concept of losing face (i.e. linked to shyness and fear of making mistakes, common among Chinese students, Cortazzi & Jin, 2006) are among the intertwined factors. Also, what a student considers as a good learning strategy (Brislin & Yoshida, 1994), as well as beliefs and expectations (Nhapulo, 2013) are likely to influence motivation and language learning performance as well as learning strategies (Sakui & Gaies, 1999; Dogancy-Aktuna, 2005) and learning styles (Biggs & Moore, 1993 cited in Kennedy, 2002).

We can conclude that there are reading strategies that readers normally learn through IR, which can also be learnt through ER, and vice-versa. While using an academic text for testing reading comprehension, we have noticed an improvement in the post-test reading comprehension scores, suggesting that participants benefited from the ER program. According to Mart (2015), there is a need of evaluating the implementation of an ER together with an IR program, which is what we have partially done by conducting an ER program alternating with normal English language classes, which suggests that these extra IR classes may have influenced student’s reading comprehension during and after the ER program. In addition, the study showed that involving learners in online reading activities has contributed to improvement of their summarizing skills in general. Online activities
were also important since they enabled participation of all students, even those shy students who were sometimes afraid of expressing themselves in the classroom (Sandhu, 1995 cited in Darlene, 1997).

5.4 Limitations of the study

In spite of the achieved results, there were some limiting factors. Our findings generally show positive effects of engaging Mozambican students in reading activities. Sharing in the classroom and posting comments online were some of the steps used to check whether students were really engaging in reading. Some of the readers, however, sought their story summaries online and that endangered the authenticity of their summaries. This was clear from the language level used in some of the summaries, which showed that they were the result of plagiarism. Since it turned out that some students used online summaries, it is possible that in some cases we overestimated the summarizing skills of the students in the ER program. Although we tried to avoid the use of plagiarized summaries by giving students the opportunity to share stories orally without depending on a written summary as a guide, it is possible that some parts of summaries were still not the students own writing. A second limitation was time constraint. The current ER program was conducted during four months and there was no opportunity to extend this period, since it was conducted in the normal classroom activities in the course of one semester. The duration of the current ER was relatively short and we are aware that for deeper results we should have undertaken this study for a longer period of time (Grabe & Stoller, 2002) and with a larger sample. Further ER studies specifically at UEM should consider an extended period of time and involve a larger number of students.

Thirdly, another aspect has to do with the increase of the number of words in the post-test. Knowing that the essence of reading fluency is making sure that students are reading at a faster pace and understanding what they are reading (Samuels, 2006), it is not so clear whether this is what was happening in the reading speed tests or not, since students may have been faster in their reading rate, but lagging behind in comprehension. Knowing that they were being timed may have raised the spirit of competitiveness in reading speed test-
taking and that may have played a considerable role in the increase of the number of wpm in both tests. In spite of that, the fact that the second test showed an overall improvement in terms of the number of wpm, suppresses the influence of task effect on reading speed results. The fact that students knew that after the reading test they would be asked a comprehension question was also another tool which we have used to make sure readers were balancing reading speed and reading comprehension.

Fourthly, looking closely at the aspects concerning graded readers and book selection, it seems that speed and reading amount results shown above could have been different. It is expected that with graded readers students could have been in contact with readings which could have been more comprehensible to them, and this could have increased their reading speed and comprehension. This indicates that the use of graded readers is recommended in ER programs, and it explains why (Walker, 1997: 141) underlined that “in the case of EAP students, it would seem wise to approach the development of the reading ability with as many tools at one’s disposal as possible, and the use of graded readers, particularly at lower levels of ability, I would argue, is indispensable”.

Finally, we acknowledge that using the same test as a pre- and a post-test could have resulted in a sequencing effect (i.e., the same text fragment with the same questions was administered twice) and an effect on background knowledge. That is, the text used in the pre- and post-tests to test academic reading comprehension concerned exactly the activity the students were carrying out during the ER intervention (see Appendix 9). Students will have a better (albeit intuitive) understanding of this topic after the intervention than before it. This means that it might be actually only the background knowledge of the participants that has improved rather than their reading comprehension. In order to avoid these influences students did not have the results of their pre-test scores, students did not have the correction of the test (so they did not know what was wrong and right in their tests, as we explained in the methodology section 5.2.4), and students did not know that they were going to do the post-test using the same text and the same questions.
5.5 Conclusions and recommendations

The current study was interested in answering two specific questions related to the influence of ER on reading speed and reading comprehension of an academic text, as well as the feasibility of ER program implementation in Mozambique at university level. Study results showed that both poor and good readers improved their reading speed, since the number of words per minute they read in the post-test was higher than the number of words they could read in the test conducted in the pre-test. However, the increase in the wpm among good readers did not show a considerable difference compared to slow readers.

Concerning the transfer of skills and the influence of ER on the reading comprehension of an academic text, we found that there was an improvement in test scores in the post-test, which indicates that students' academic reading comprehension improved as a result of the conducted ER program. Looking at the transfer of skills acquired from ER (simplified texts) to intensive reading (IR) or academic reading (unsimplified texts), Walker (1997) showed that 78% of the participating EAP students reported that ER was a good preparation for reading unsimplified texts. This suggests that skills acquired in an ER program may be useful in academic reading, and vice-versa. In fact, “extensive reading... may be one of the few ways to increase exposure to examples of language use for the purposes of language acquisition, or to reinforce and recombine language learned in the classroom” (Bamford, 1984: 219). However, an ER program like the one we have conducted in this study is not necessarily the entire answer. What seems necessary is to find a balance between these two approaches in EFL teaching (Yu, 1993, Walker, 1997; Day & Bamford, 2004): intensive reading helps with faster vocabulary acquisition and awareness of certain language structures and extensive reading practices the skill of reading. Therefore, the ability to read gained through IR should be combined with developing reading habits through ER.

Although the current study indicates an improvement of academic reading skills through ER, it has been argued that through extensive reading only, learners do not acquire sufficient proficiency, which suggests that detailed comprehension is necessary for readers involved in an ER program to achieve perfect mastery of the target language (Paran, 2003; Mart, 2015). In fact, the involvement of students in parallel normal ESP classes may also have influenced their summarizing skills, since they had to share their readings through summaries in the online platform and orally in the classroom. This aspect needs to be
confirmed by future studies, since limited time and a relatively small number of participants resulted in an incomplete picture of this influence.

Moreover, the comparison of both the results of reading speed and reading comprehension has shown that students who read faster, that is, those who read a larger number of words per minute, are also the ones whose reading comprehension scores were high. This result is linked to the notion of the vicious cycle of a good reader noted by Nuttal (1996), which underlines that the faster one reads, the more motivated one becomes and, as a result, reading comprehension improves considerably. It can therefore be assumed that the conducted ER program had a positive effect on both students’ reading speed and their text comprehension progress.

Concerning motivation, we have observed that although students improved their reading speed and reading comprehension, their motivation seems not to have changed considerably. In sustained silent reading (SSR) programs, it is not the actual time spent in reading that counts, it is the desire to read more that counts (Krashen, 2004b). This suggests that the participating students may not carry on reading voluntarily after the ER program. In fact, students who are not motivated tend to give up more easily when faced with new reading challenges (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997). Studies have also observed that for second language acquisition, attitudes are again linked to motivation, which suggests that curriculum designers have to take into consideration both elements when designing language teaching programs and when selecting reading tasks and activities (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Lifrieri, 2005).

Finally, study results suggest that the introduction of an ER program could be beneficial. Including an extensive reading component in all curricula designed to teach L2 readers is recommended, because it gives readers the opportunity of practicing their reading skills (Anderson, 2013). In this context, not only ER programs in the classroom learning environment, but also reading activities outside the classroom learning environment (reading groups and e-reading), including online platforms (Assia, 2012) might be suitable for developing automaticity (Samuels, 2006) and broad reading speed and comprehension among Mozambican university students/readers, which could also have a positive effect on their reading comprehension of academic English texts.
Chapter 6  Extensive reading and reading attitudes among Mozambican university students

6.1 Introduction

In ER programs it is expected that by reading several books of their interest, readers may easily improve not only general linguistic skills (vocabulary, grammar and others), but they can also improve the way they think and feel about reading in general. This is the reason why the current study has as its purpose to see whether reading extensively influences Mozambican university students’ reading attitudes.

Recent studies (McKenna, 1994; Glopper, 2004; Grabe, 2009; van Schooten, de Glooper & Stoel, 2004, cited in Yamashita, 2013) have focused on the existing relationship between extensive reading and reading attitudes, where it has been proven that ER has a positive effect on readers’ reading attitudes. However, positive attitudes do not always mean an improvement in reading (Yamashita, 2004, 2013). In spite of that, several studies have shown that when students are involved in a reading program that spreads throughout a considerably long period of time, their attitudes towards reading are positive since they become used to reading for pleasure and they become aware of several advantages of engaging themselves in reading activities. Moreover, the scores students get from exams also increase as the result of the rise of the level in their attitudes towards reading (Altunay, 2000; Kılıç, 2004 & Balcı, 2009, cited in Bas, 2012).

Unfortunately, no study has been conducted in the Mozambican education system regarding the impact of ER on reading attitudes and, as we have mentioned in the previous chapter, to date no previous ER studies have been conducted in the country despite the widely proven
benefit of ER in several academic aspects, especially among foreign or second language learners (Camiciottoli, 2001; Constantino et al., 1997; Gradman & Hanania, 1991; Janopoulos, 1984). Lack of ER programs may be the result of several factors, such as a lack of knowledge of its relevance in language learning and especially in reading. However, there are also several problems linked to ER implementation such as the considerable cost and effort required to set them up, and the curriculum time demanded for private reading, and supplementary reading schemes (Davis, 1995; Urquhart & Weir, 1998). So, in conducting this study we expect that by involving Mozambican students in an ER program, they will cultivate and acquire positive reading attitudes, since among them there is no habit of reading for pleasure (in any language, whether it is a L1 or L2), and local libraries do not offer material for students to engage in free and voluntary reading. This is still a gap which is observed from the primary to the university level in the whole Mozambican education system.

6.1.1 Extensive reading and reading attitudes

Although recent studies (Schoech, 2000; Yu & Yang, 2006; Simsek, 2008; Chua, 2008; Bas, 2012) have looked at reading attitudes in general, few have looked at the effect of extensive reading on students’ reading attitudes. No similar study is found in the Mozambican research context, which explains why this is the first study to be conducted at the national level.

There are several studies (Mathewson, 1994; McKenna, 1994; Reeves, 2002; Yamashita, 2004; Yamashita, 2013; Stoeckel et al., 2012; van Schooten, de Glooper & Stoel, 2004, both cited in Yamashita, 2013) which focus on the relation between ER and reading attitudes. These studies have looked at the influence of reading attitude on reading behaviour, the acquisition of reading attitude, the three components of reading attitude and the factors involved in the construction of the meaning of a given text (Ruddell, 1994, cited in Yamashita, 2013). Mathewson (1994), McKenna (1994) and Reeves (2002) are among the few scholars who point out the three dimensions or components of reading attitudes: affect (feelings and emotions), cognition (thoughts and beliefs) and conation (intentions for action). In this study we look at affective and cognitive aspects of reading. The affective dimension is composed of Anxiety and Comfort and the cognitive dimension has three
variables: Intellectual Value, Practical Value and Linguistic Value. Brantmeier (2005) addressed issues concerning L2 reading and anxiety at the advanced stage of acquisition. Brantmeier (2005)’s study involved 92 university students enrolled in an advanced level Spanish grammar and composition course. The study addressed whether the following exists: (1) anxiety about L2 reading as a separate phenomenon from other language skills, (2) anxiety about performance variables involved after L2 reading: oral and written tasks, and (3) a relationship between reading anxiety and comprehension. Results showed that anxiety about L2 reading is not a factor at the advanced level of language instruction as it does not hinder comprehension (as measured via multiple choice and recall). Findings also indicate that anxiety about post-L2 reading oral tasks does indeed exist at this stage, but its levels were lower with literacy tasks than with oral tasks.

Mills et al. (2006)’s study involved 95 (26 male and 66 female) university students enrolled in third and fourth semester French (intermediate) courses in the south-eastern United States. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the relationship between self-efficacy (i.e. personal beliefs in one’s capabilities), anxiety, and gender on the listening and reading proficiency of third and fourth semester French students. Results showed that anxiety was positively related to the listening proficiency of both males and females. This indicates that positive affect is related to higher reading scores. Put together, the indicated studies suggest that students who can have higher scores in reading (comprehension) tasks they tend to have lower anxiety levels. In this context, Day & Bamford (1998) have designed a model of the acquisition and development of L2 reading attitudes, which includes on the one hand L1 reading attitudes and on the other previous L2 reading experiences, attitudes to the L2 and the related culture and people, and L2 classroom environment. While situating itself in the above-mentioned tri-dimensional model of reading attitudes, i.e., in terms of affective, cognitive and conative (i.e. behaviour directed toward an action) aspects, the current study is not going to focus on the last dimension since - following from Yamashita (2004)’s view - entails availability of materials in a local library, which is not the reality at the faculty where this study was conducted. So, it will only be possible to focus on both the affective and the cognitive components of reading attitudes.

Furthermore, there are several factors which can affect reading attitudes. Believing that reading is important, enjoying reading, having a high self-concept as a reader (Walberg & Tsai, 1983), and the motivation given by and the environment found among family members
(Bintz, 1993) are among the factors that contribute to one’s love or dislike of reading activities in general. Morni & Safari (2013) have noted that access and availability of reading materials at home is the cornerstone of a successful reading culture. Similarly, Davis, Gorrell, Kline, and Hsieh (1992) probed student attitudes in relation to their literary study and they found that positive attitudes were related to recreational reading habits in the foreign language. Unfortunately, most of the Mozambican family settings do not have the habit of reading, so, generally speaking, there are no models for students from their childhood to the time they enter university, neither at home or at school. In fact, recent studies (Kubis, 1994; Metsala, 1996; Reutzel & Fawson, 2002) have shown elsewhere that students who had positive attitudes were those whose families held positive attitudes towards reading and those who had been used to reading since when they were at the primary level, which is not the reality for the majority of the Mozambican university students. Moreover, a study conducted by Ro & Chen (2014) concluded that lack of time was appointed as a reason for weak engagement on reading for pleasure. That is the reason why an ER program may raise both positive and negative judgements, and so the teacher has an important role of modelling not only the reading task, but also the feelings students may have towards reading.

As mentioned above, Day & Bamford (1998) found that attitudes to the L2 and motivation are crucial in promoting positive reading attitudes. Students need to be motivated so that they can keep on reading and the fact that they choose readings according to their interest, and that in ER direct evaluation from the teacher is not expected, as well as a lack of the spirit of competitiveness among classmates, may be some of the elements which feed into positive feelings towards reading. In fact, a study conducted by Yamashita in 2004 among Japanese students reported that comfort with reading and positive self-perception of the reader in L1 and L2 have a significant correlation with the amount of ER reading, which indicates the more one engages in reading, the more comfortable with readings one feels. Moreover, in Chapter 4 we mentioned that the use of translation as a reading strategy could be explained by both the existing similarities between the readers’ L1 and their L2 proficiency - linked to the threshold hypothesis (Upton & Lee-Thompson’s (2001: 197, cited in Grabe, 2009). However, looking at the attitudes perspective, there is another interpretation of the L1/L2 transfer or L2 readers’ reliance on L1. Similar to Sahari & Morni (3013), Kamhi-Stein (2003) explored the impact of home-language attitudes towards
reading in a second language and found that the four students involved in the study had positive attitudes towards their home language and saw it as a positive resource in the L2 language learning and reading process, which explains why they relied on translation regardless of their English (L2) language proficiency level. As we can see, reliance on L1 for grasping and dealing with L2 is not only the result of lower L2 proficiency level, but it can also be a result of a positive attitude towards the L1, seen as an efficient tool in the L2 reading process. This suggests that reliance on L1 overrides L2 language knowledge, since prior reading instruction has been proven to have greater impact on attitudes toward second-language reading (Suh, 1999). Similarly, Camiciottoli (2001) found that the amount of L1 reading was one of the significant predictors of L2 reading performance and attitude, suggesting a strong association between L1 and L2 reading.

6.1.2 Research question

University students need to read several academic texts in their daily academic lives, and this suggests that reading should be as normal as any other academic activity. However, it is known that Mozambican students only read when they are told to do so and, in my experience as a lecturer in Mozambique, sometimes they don’t read, even when they are recommended to read. In addition to that, for most students, the family setting does not provide them with reading role models, which could be important when transferring reading skills and habits to the L2 reading context. As we have explained in the introductory chapter, Mozambican university students involved in this research did not have any formal (at the school and education system level) or informal (at the family and community level) motivation to read. This suggests that their attitudes towards reading are generally low.

Since ER is essentially effective in promoting fluent, independent and competent readers (Richards & Schmidt, 2002; Yamashita, 2008; Yu, 1993), involving students in reading activities should be a major concern with respect to students who do not have the habit of reading, so that they do not look at reading as a compulsory activity, but as a free and a voluntary activity. So, a lack of reading habits among university students derived from a lack of ER programs in the current Mozambican education system may be among the reasons why students are not good or fluent readers, which affects negatively their reading skills and attitudes. It is in this context that our research question is:
What is the effect of Extensive Reading on reading attitudes in English as a Foreign Language among Mozambican university students?

6.2 Methodology

6.2.1 Study setting and participants

A four-month (February 2014–May 2014) ER program involved 27 students (14 male and 13 female students) doing English III (upper-intermediate level), in their 2nd academic year, majoring in Journalism at the Eduardo Mondlane University - UEM, at the School of Communication and Arts. With the exception of two slightly older male students aged 41 and 31, the majority was aged between 18 and 26, and the mean age was 19. English was a foreign language to them and their mother tongues were mostly Bantu languages and Portuguese. The students involved had been learning English for 7 years: 5 years (from grade 8 to grade 12) and 2 years (at the university level).

This was the second time we conducted an ER program among Mozambican university students majoring in Journalism English III (upper-intermediate level). The first time was during the study described in Chapter 5. So, this is the second generation of students taking the same course. While in 2013 we were looking at the relation between ER and reading speed, ER and reading comprehension, as well as the relation between reading speed and reading comprehension, in this chapter our aim is to evaluate the effect of ER on reading attitudes.

6.2.2 Instrument

The current study used the questionnaire in the first day of the program as a pre-test and at the end as a post-test. A twenty-question reading attitude questionnaire (Appendix 10) was administered among the participating students, since this is the common measure used for evaluating reading attitudes. The questionnaire was adopted from Yamashita’s (2007, 2013) questionnaire items, which deal both with the affective and the cognitive aspects of reading.
attitudes. The fact that a similar questionnaire was used not only by Yamashita (2013) among Japanese students, but also by Stoeckel et al. (2012, cited in Yamashita, 2013) makes it reliable for using it in the current study since it has shown to be effective for this kind of reading research.

The purpose of this questionnaire was to find out whether there was a change in learners’ reading attitudes after a four-month extensive reading program, since the expectation was that their attitudes could be either negative or positive after their involvement in an ER program. This could be seen through their selection in a four-point Likert scale, in which the values are: 1. strongly disagree, 2. agree, 3. disagree, and 4. strongly disagree. The questionnaire items were grouped according to five attitudes’ variables in two dimensions: Affective (Comfort and Anxiety) and Cognitive (Intellectual Value, Practical Value and Linguistic Value). While the Affective dimension items refer to what students think and feel about reading as an activity, the Cognitive items refer to what students think and believe are the outcomes of being involved in a reading activity in general. These benefits may be at the linguistic, academic and even at the professional level.

6.2.3 Treatment

Since the study was conducted in normal English language teaching classes where students also had to deal with other academic aspects, students were only involved in ER activities for 120 minutes per week, during 16 weeks.

During these in-class ER activities, the first 45 minutes were dedicated to classroom interaction, where the researcher helped students to understand some of their readings and enabled them to practise language skills other than only reading. These skills included the use of pre-reading, reading and post-reading strategies (without any thorough instruction as in the RSI program focused on in Chapter 4). A think-aloud method was applied when the strategies were briefly explained in order to exemplify their application but no further approach was taken regarding their use. Story retelling in the classroom, general comments on some issues noted by students in their readings as well as some general information given by the teacher/researcher were part of the first 45 minutes. This was the period in which the teacher/researcher talked about general issues regarding reading and students shared their
feelings and thoughts about individual readings. The rest of the time (75 minutes) was left for students to engage in their individual readings.

The notions of Reading Strategies and Extensive Reading were briefly introduced during the first week so that students could be aware of some reading strategies and the benefits of ER, as well as how the program was going to be conducted during the following weeks. Among the skills students learned during the first two weeks we can underline the ability to talk about different aspects related to text content, setting, and characters.

Aiming at integrating reading, writing, listening and speaking and encouraging critical thinking, as well as checking effective comprehension of the readings, students voluntarily had to share their readings in one or more ways: presentation of personal readings using their own imagination and interpretation, book reports/summaries (not more than two pages), and comments on what students found interesting regarding the texts’ content. In these assignments, students could adapt the text, change the ending or extend it creatively, thereby changing the story at crucial points. This generally involved retelling stories orally, talking about the structure and setting, or about the topic and characters, among other salient textual aspects (Reutzel et al., 2008).

An effort was undertaken in order to make sure that a wide range of genres, styles and topics were available for students to choose according to their personal interests, purpose, readings’ availability, ease and enjoyment, involving not only hard copies but also e-publications and online reading materials, as these are some extra options suggested by Maley (2007). In spite of the wide range of books brought from the teacher/researcher’s private library, surprisingly, there were many summaries of the same books, which suggested that most students preferred to exchange the same books during the program.

Students had to read one book each week and they had to summarise it in no more than two pages. Page numbers were recorded, but the number of words was not counted since reading speed was not the topic of this study. The general amount of pages read per week was between 40 to 70 pages. For the whole 16-week program, the average number of pages read per person was between 640 and 1120. Unfortunately, there were no graded readers since the university library has no books for reading for pleasure and so students had to bring their own books from other libraries, friends, etc. and from online sources.
6.2.4 Procedure

On the first day the participating students were given a written consent form (see the model used in all the three studies in Appendix 11) with clear explanations of the purpose of the current study and they all accepted to partake in it. Then a questionnaire was administered in order to understand what students felt or thought about reading. Both the consent form and the questionnaire were written in English because all the students felt comfortable with the language.

While the questionnaire (pre-test and post-test) was analysed quantitatively, teacher notes taken during the ER program and based on students’ reading practice and comments in the classroom and the stories shared by each student through summary presentations and related activities, were qualitatively analysed.

The twenty-question questionnaire was divided according to the two dimensions of reading attitudes: Affective and Cognitive. The Affective domain includes Comfort and Anxiety, while the Cognitive domain includes Intellectual Value, Practical Value and Linguistic Value. Each variable had four statements. These variables were considered in both the pre-test and the post-test and the results were measured on the basis of a four-point Likert scale, with: 1. strongly disagree, 2. agree, 3. disagree and 4. strongly disagree.

6.3 Findings

The findings are presented in two different graphs. A percentage of the total number of students by item (in Fig. 11) and by variable (in Fig. 12) is shown. Both Fig. 11 and Fig. 12 reflect students’ feelings and thoughts as they emanate from the twenty questionnaire statements. These figures show the increase and decrease in terms of the number of students who expressed their agreement or disagreement in relation to the questionnaire's statements, both in the pre-test and in the post-test. Since there is no need to present both the agreement and disagreement results, only the information on the agreement percentage has been included in the graphs below, with the exception of statement 3 where the percentage of disagreement was taken up (since disagreement showed higher comfort).
Fig. 11 below presents the percentages of agreement in the pre-test and post-test. These percentages are found on the vertical axis, while the horizontal axis represents the 20 statements divided in five variables, where each variable has four statements. That is, in the Affective domain there were eight items, 4 expressing Comfort (from 1 to 4) and 4 expressing Anxiety (5 to 8). In the cognitive domain there are 12 items divided in three variables: Intellectual Value (9 to 12), Practical Value (13 to 16) and Linguistic Value (17 to 20).

An overall observation of the pre-test and post-test results in Fig. 11 shows that there was an improvement in terms of attitudes in the post-test, though with differences from statements 1 to 20.

![Figure 11 Reading attitudes agreement percentages](image)

Fig. 12 shows the average/mean percentage within each variable. While on the vertical axis we have the mean percentage of the four statements found in each of the five variables, on the horizontal axis we have the grouped variables: Comfort, Anxiety, Intellectual Value, Practical Value and Linguistic Value.
Generally speaking, for the variable Comfort, we find 49.25 in the pre-test and an increase to 62.75 in the post-test. For Anxiety we have 70.25 in the pre-test and an important decrease to 57.5 in the post-test. In the Intellectual Value the mean is 44 and 73 for both the pre-test and the post-test, respectively. For Practical Value the mean is 39.75 in the pre-test and 59.25 in the post-test. Finally, we find 47.25 in the pre-test and 68.25 in the post-test for Intellectual Value. The decrease in anxiety and increase in comfort, intellectual, practical and linguistic values indicate that after the ER program students have generally developed positive reading attitudes towards reading. This can be observed if we look at some salient statement percentages within the five variables. Below we discuss the findings of both Fig. 11 and Fig. 12, looking specifically at each of the five variables, but focusing on the statements themselves which can easily explain the improvement of students’ reading attitudes.

6.4 Discussion

The current study was conducted in a 16-week ER program with the aim of evaluating the progress of students’ attitudes towards reading, as the result of their involvement in reading activities. Generally speaking, looking at Fig. 11 and Fig. 12, our findings show positive
effects of ER on students’ reading attitudes. Questionnaire results show that there was a clear positive effect on what students thought and felt about reading before the ER program. Similar to Yamashita’s (2013) results, the current study’s findings show that students’ feelings of comfort have improved, that the anxiety was lower, and that they considered reading as more important intellectually, practically and linguistically.

Looking at the overall agreement findings, we can see that after the ER program the involved students felt more comfortable with short or long texts, as was registered in, for example, statement 3 (30% in the pre-test and 52% in the post-test). There was a notably lower anxiety: students read even if it is not compulsory, e.g. statement 8 (74% in the pre-test and 56% in the post-test). Students could see the intellectual value of the reading process, e.g. statement 12, and we could also find an increase in the linguistic value they gave to reading. This, in general, indicates that the conducted ER was effective in promoting positive feelings among the involved university students. These findings are similar to those found in previous studies evaluating the effect of ER in reading attitudes (Chua, 2008; Morni & Sahari, 2013; Yamashita, 2004, 2013).

In the following sections we will look at each of the five variables in more detail.

### 6.4.1 Comfort

The improvement regarding Comfort (see Table 15 below) can be seen if we look at the percentage of all the four statements in this variable. All the percentages of agreement are higher in the post-test, except for the statement 3 (*I feel tired when I am presented with a long text*), which shows an apparent decrease (the decrease in agreement shows an increase in comfort in this statement). Since statement 3 is negative, our attention will be more on disagreement percentages. The following are the percentages of disagreement: pre-test 30% and post-test 52%. The fact that 52% of students do not agree that they *feel tired when presented with a long text* at the end of the ER, suggests that they could feel comfortable with whichever text, regardless of its length. The fact that only 30% agreed with the statement in the pre-test shows that in the beginning of the ER students felt tired when presented with a long text, which is not the case after the ER program.
Table 15  Comfort

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Questionnaire Statement</th>
<th>Agreement</th>
<th>Disagreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I feel relaxed if I read in English</td>
<td>Pre 15%</td>
<td>Post 16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pre 56%</td>
<td>Post 59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Reading English is enjoyable and self-rewarding.</td>
<td>Pre 14%</td>
<td>Post 19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pre 52%</td>
<td>Post 70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I feel tired when I am presented with a long text.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Pre 8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Post 30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Post 14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Post 52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I feel refreshed and rested if I read English.</td>
<td>Pre 16%</td>
<td>Post 19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pre 59%</td>
<td>Post 70%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After the ER they felt a bit more comfortable with readings and so tiredness reduced as it is shown by the increase of the percentage of disagreement. In other words, the increase in the disagreement in the post-test shows those students felt more comfortable with short or long texts than before. As the result of an increased comfort, 59% of students felt relaxed (statement 1), and 70% reported that they feel refreshed and rested if they read in English. Looking at the average/mean percentage of comfort in Fig. 12, we find that this variable had an increase from 49.25 in the pre-test to 62.75 in the post-test. This suggests an increase in the students’ self-confidence (Matsui & Noro, 2010), which results in positive attitudes towards reading in general. The fact that after the ER program 70% of the students found reading in English as enjoyable as shown in statement 2 shows that they felt more comfortable with reading than before the ER program.

6.4.2 Anxiety

Regarding anxiety, in the beginning of the program, 85% of the students (see Table 16 below) reported that they felt anxious when they were not sure whether they understood a book content (statement 6), which decreased to 74% for the same statement in the post-test. Clearly, looking at statement 5, we can see that after the ER program students are aware of the need of using reading strategies, but since they have practised some of them during the reading program, the level of their anxiety has lowered down compared to the beginning of the program.

In Chapter 1, as well as in Chapter 2, section 2.8, we have mentioned that Mozambican university students do not have reading habits (Rosário, 2009, Issak, 2009). This explains why before the ER program 74% of the students (statement 8) reported that they prefer avoiding reading as much as possible. In fact, students who are not motivated tend give up
more easily when faced with new reading challenges (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997). Concerning reading and motivation, Wigfield & Guthrie (1997) pointed out that motivated readers can read for a longer period of time per day than less motivated readers. This suggests that after being involved in free voluntary reading activities, students found reading pleasurable as well, since motivation is linked to pleasure (Krashen, 2004).

Table 16  Anxiety

| Anxiety                                                                 | Questionnaire Statement                                                                 | Pre | %  | Post | %
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>I sometimes feel anxious that I may not use effective reading strategies when I read.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I feel anxious when I am not sure whether I understood the book content.</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I don’t mind even if I cannot understand the book content entirely.</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>If it is not compulsory, I prefer to avoid reading as much as possible.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The avoidance shown in statement 8 has been inverted after the ER program, since only 44% of the students (statement 7) reported that they do not mind even if they do not understand the book content. The reduction of the percentage in statement 7 shows that students were motivated to read after being involved in the ER program. Low anxiety is also shown in Fig. 12, where the average percentage was 70.25 in the pre-test and 57.5 in the post-test, suggesting that students were motivated to read after the ER program. Within the Krashen (1982)’s Affective Filter Hypothesis, it is understood that high motivation and the resulting low level of anxiety are necessary for learners’ success. Previous studies have shown that ER feeds into motivation (Elley, 2000; Grabe, 2009), and motivated readers hold positive attitudes towards reading (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). Therefore, the interest in reading shown in Table 16 is within studies which have shown that motivation and attitude are positive effects of ER (Cho & Krashen, 1994; McKenna, 1994; Constantino, 1994; Hayashi, 1999).

However, considering that Mozambican university students do not have reading habits, the fact that students anxiety in this study was low after the ER program, does not serve as a complete link to their future reading activities. This is in line with the results found among Italian students. That is, even when students have positive attitudes towards reading, their frequency may not increase as the result of such positive attitude (Camiciottoli, 2001). Lack of reading habits, which can be traced from their L1, can be seen as one of the reasons for
this considerable but short increase in their comfort. In spite of that, ER is necessary for lowering anxiety and improving comfort Mozambican university students need inside and outside the classroom reading environment, so that they can become motivated to engage actively in free and voluntary reading.

6.4.3 Intellectual value

In terms of Cognition, the positive effect of the ER on the Intellectual Value can be seen in the rise of the percentage in statement 12 (see Table 17 below), where students recognise that they can get various forms of information if they read. Such various forms of information can refer to cultural, moral, artistic, historical and anthropological elements of a given community (Nassagi, 2003 cited in Iwahori, 2008; Rosário, 1989), which can be acquired through creative and extensive reading. The relevance of reading expressed in statement 12 is also restated in statement 9, where it is said that readers can broaden their knowledge when reading in English. This is true considering that reading will always bring new information and in several fields of study, since most of literary books read in an ER program have stories which represent readers’ daily lives at the national (Mozambican literature) and international levels (African and world literature).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Questionnaire Statement</th>
<th>Agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I can acquire broad knowledge if I read English.</td>
<td>Pre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I get to know about new ways of thinking if I read English.</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I get to know about different values if I read English.</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I can get various kinds of information if I read English.</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Considering that ER enables readers to improve conceptual knowledge, as well as other academic skills (Grabe, 1986 cited in Grabe, 2009), 52% of the students involved in the ER program consider that from reading they can get to know new ways of thinking. This is also true considering that reading is an active interaction between the reader and the author/text (see the profile of an active reader in Appendix 4, point 2), where knowledge within the text may change or improve the way we see and judge many life (social, professional, historical) events. This is clarified in statement 11, and it has been also pointed out by Rosário (1998)
that readings mirror what happens in the real world and it brings in it the didactic and moral side which is important for information and education. Finally, the statements in Table C replicate one of the principles of ER, which indicates that, in ER, the purpose of reading is usually related to pleasure, information and general understanding (Day & Bamford, 2002).

6.4.4 Practical value

Statement 13 (see Table 18 below) shows that students were not aware of the Practical value of readings in the beginning of the program. The percentage of this statement in both pre-test and post-test is 37%, which suggests no evolution regarding how students see the practical value of reading for their future career. These results for statement 13 indicate that there has been no shift in the understanding of the relevance of reading in English for students’ future professional practice. This is surprising considering that the students involved in this study were majoring in Journalism, considering that, nowadays, a journalist needs to be in contact not only with Portuguese, but also with English readings and speakers. Statement 13 reflects almost the same as statement 16, but students’ percentages of both statements are surprisingly different. This difference may be justified by that fact that all Mozambican university students know that English is a prerequisite for getting any job in Mozambique. However, students do not see it as important in their profession as such. It is true that knowledge of English is necessary to get any job in Mozambique, and 74% of students is aware of that, but the 37% in statement 13 shows that students do not consider English as relevant for journalists in Mozambique, since it is a Portuguese speaking country where most of their work will be conducted either in Portuguese or in a Bantu language.

Table 18 Practical Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practical Value</th>
<th>Agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Reading English is useful for my future career.</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Reading English is useful to get a good grade in class.</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Reading English is useful to get credit for class.</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Reading English is useful to get a job.</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
One of the ER principles pointed out by Day & Bamford (2002) indicates that reading is its own reward. This is also linked to the difference between intensive reading and extensive reading to which we have referred in Chapter 2, section 2.7.1. While IR is concerned with using reading texts for teaching the language itself, ER deals with a large quantity of texts, and its purpose is reading for pleasure and not for academic purposes (Eskey, 2002; Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Yamashita, 2008). This reminds us that Mozambican university students are used to deal with intensive reading, where grading is considered, while ER does not imply any assessment that involves scoring. Despite the fact that grading was not involved in the conducted ER, the percentages in statements 14 (56%) and 15 (70%) show that students are aware of the relevance of reading skills they gain from ER. Skills such as summarizing are required both in ER and in IR, so the link in terms of usefulness is therefore plausible (Mart, 2015). Although students did not have any instrumental motivation in order to engage themselves in reading, still they could see the Practical value of ER, as seen through the increase in the post-test scores in statement 14 and 15. The increase in the Practical Value mean from 39.75 in the pre-test to 59.25 in the post-test is also another sign of ER’s Practical value awareness among the students involved in the ER program.

6.4.5 Linguistic value

Similar to statement 13 (see Table 19 below) regarding Practical value, statement 16 (37% pre-test and 74% post-test) and the statement 20 (37% pre-test and 59% post-test) also show that students were not aware of the Linguistic value of readings in the beginning of the ER program. Statement 19 appears to have risen from 67% in the pre-test to 81% in the post-test, showing that students could now see the importance of reading not only for the way they looked at reading as a normal activity, or for gaining vocabulary (statement 17) and improving reading skills (statement 18 and 20), but also for improving the way they deal with reading in English in general.
The increase in the percentage of statement 17 (63%) has been revealed in several previous studies (Pigada & Schmitt, 2006, cited in Maley, 2007; Day & Bamford, 1998; Nation, 2001; Renandya & Jacobs, 2002; Horst, 2005; Samuels, 2006; Chun et al., 2012). The studies have shown that ER extends, consolidates and sustains vocabulary growth. That is, when students are involved in an ER program, not only they encounter new words that contribute to their vocabulary knowledge and growth, but they also encounter the same words used in different contexts. This enables them to learn words’ different contextual uses and meanings (Pigada & Schmitt, 2006). When words are encountered in many and different contexts, they can be decoded automatically and fluently, resulting in the increase of sight vocabulary (Grabe, 1988; Iwahori, 2008). In addition, is has been proven that ER enhances learners’ general language competence, since reading benefits all language skills other than reading skills (Elley, 1991; Day & Bamford, 1998). Detailed information concerning linguistic benefits of ER can be found in Chapter 2, section 2.7.2.

### 6.4.6 Affective and cognitive dimensions

The affective dimension (Comfort and Anxiety) has to do with what students feel about reading, depending on their reading experience, while the cognitive dimension (Practical, Intellectual and Linguistic value) has to do with what students think about the relevance of extensive reading (Yamashita, 2013). The improvement of both the affective and cognitive aspect has shown not to be at the same level.

Looking at the affective variables (Comfort and Anxiety) and Cognitive variables (Intellectual value, Practical Value and Linguistic Value) we can see that the improvement in both affective and cognitive dimensions is to some extent balanced.
While the mean value of Comfort was 49.25 in the pre-test, it increased to 62.75 in the post-test, showing that the ER program contributed positively to students’ feelings about reading. This is shown by the important decrease in the level of Anxiety from the average percentage of 70.25 in the pre-test to 57.5 in the post-test.

Compared to all the three cognitive variables, the Intellectual Value shows the highest mean in the post-test 73, which is also too much higher than its mean of 44 in the pre-test. This suggests a greater awareness of the importance of reading among the students involved in the study. The increase from 39.75 in the pre-test to 59.25 in the post-test also shows that students could see the Practical value of reading extensively. However, comparing the post-test mean in the Practical value and the post-test mean in Comfort, we can see that students felt more comfortable after the ER program, but they did not see the Practical value of readings at the same level, mainly regarding their future professional career. The decrease in Anxiety and increase in Comfort, Intellectual, Practical and Linguistic (47.25 in the pre-test and 68.25 in the post-test) values indicate that after the ER program students have generally developed positive reading attitudes towards reading.

The results show that the conducted ER was important in enabling students to learn more general information as well as gaining linguistic skills (aspects of the intellectual and the linguistic value), it increased students’ feeling of comfort, and it reduced their anxiety substantially, although it did not bring greater awareness on the practical value of reading compared to other variables.

### 6.4.7 Classroom observation and reading attitudes

The fact that students' awareness of the practical value of reading did not increase as much as that of other cognitive variables can also be related to the fact that students are not used to ER but to intensive reading. In intensive reading activities students are basically reading short texts with the purpose of learning a certain linguistic aspect. This was observed through the assessment process in which students had to present summaries. Here, the sole habit of involvement in intensive rather than extensive reading activities was reflected through the habit of exchanging the same books among them, and the will to share the same readings. Students presented most summaries of the same books even when other books were available for individual choice.
However, the fact that each student had to read his or her single book has to some extent promoted autonomy needed in these kinds of activities (Sheerin, 1998, cited in Cheng & Lin, 2010), since readings were selected according to individual choices. The common habit among these students is reading one book and sharing it among them. Reading several books promoted autonomy and it contributed to the increase in comfort, which is crucial in promoting positive reading attitudes and which has always been seen as a core driving force for students to engage in reading (Guthrie & Wigfield, 1997; Seitz, 2010). Nevertheless, sharing the same books for summarizing may imply that Mozambican students have not developed self-confidence or autonomy as required, and so they may end up giving up when faced with new reading challenges (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997).

The understood assumptions and expectations about the reading behaviour (or culture of learning) among Mozambican students are somehow limited to sharing one and not reading different books. So, ER does promote positive attitudes toward reading, but especially when the materials are used according to their culture of learning (Leung, 2002). That is, although students had the opportunity of sharing their individual readings with peers, the degree of that sharing was not so valuable than if they had been reading one book and then share its content. That is, in the Mozambican classroom learning environment, “individuals find satisfaction working with a group for a collective goal rather than working individually for their own achievements” (Brislin & Yoshida, 1994: 138).

A lack of summarizing skills was observed through some of the summaries presented by these students, since some of the students used a copy-paste technique in which they copied some passages of the original story and joined them together (and considered that as a summary), instead of using their own words. We have seen in Chapter 4 that summarizing skills are a sum of other skills such as critical reading and the ability to understand the flow of the textual message through cohesion and coherence, which are skills not deeply developed among Mozambican university students who had not had an RSI program.

Moreover, my experience as a teacher in Mozambique and looking at the Mozambican Education System we find no ER programs from primary to university schools. Students do not have ER programs even in the recent cases in which their mother tongues (L1) are used as the languages of instruction. Lack of ER in the L1 among Mozambican students may also explain the initial low positive attitudes towards reading, since studies conducted in L1 settings show that L1 reading skills and habits may be transferred to L2 reading activities.
(Walberg & Tsai, 1985; Greaney & Hegarty, 1987), but in the Mozambican academic setting students do not have extensive reading opportunities neither in their L1 nor in their L2. In fact, studies (Sahari & Morni, 2013; Camiciottoli, 2001) have shown that parental modelling and encouragement, and availability of reading material in the home have an influence on reading attitude and reading frequency. Therefore, the Mozambican university students involved in the current research were motivated to read due to the advantages they could see at the intellectual and linguistic levels, but they did not attach reading to their future career as journalists. For them the practical value of reading was not at the same degree as the intellectual and the linguistic values.

6.5 Limitations

Although the study has shown that students do improve their reading attitudes towards reading after an ER program, two issues can be underlined as needing correction in future studies. First, the fact that the students involved in this research had problems in writing summaries suggests that an ER program in which students are expected to deliver summaries as a proof of their involvement in the reading activities, needs to include a training on summarizing skills. The mere fact of referring to (and not really teaching) reading strategies in the first week of the ER program was not a good enough contributor in terms of summarizing strategies needed for students to deal with readings, mainly because they were not used to dealing with long texts. So, the role of an RSI program prior to an ER program would need to be investigated. This suggests the need of a study in which RSI is effectively conducted within an ER program, in order to evaluate how strategies learnt in the RSI contribute to the improvement of reading comprehension and attitudes after an ER program.

Another aspect which is valid for this and the previous chapter has to do with the involvement of one single group for an ER program. Although in our methodology of the previous chapter we have shown a number of recent studies involving solely one single ER group, there is a need to compare the results in a quasi-experimental study design with an experimental and a control group. This would allow depth in the stated conclusions.
So, similar studies should be conducted in Mozambique, involving a larger number of students and books, as well as for a longer period of time, since the more one reads the more one gets used to reading and so the attitudes towards reading may also increase with time. In fact, when students spend longer time on reading there is more probability of positively affecting their reading comprehension success (Mazzoni, Gambrell & Korkeamaki, 1999). In spite of these remarks which are somehow the limitations of this study, we can still underline that ER is crucial in promoting positive feelings and thoughts about reading, although we do not want to claim that this is not the only route to be taken in an academic setting.

6.6 Conclusions and recommendations

The current study was interested in evaluating the effect of an extensive reading program on reading attitudes and it was conducted during 16 weeks at UEM. Self-selection of materials and free voluntary reading were part of the program. At the end of the program, students showed positive feelings and thoughts towards reading in general, although the Practical value attached to reading remained relatively low.

As the result of their involvement in the conducted ER program, students have increased their reading motivation, which was shown by lower anxiety. Regarding cognitive reactions, only the Practical value was seen as less relevant compared to the Intellectual and Linguistic values. Both affective variables (Comfort and Anxiety) and cognitive variables (Intellectual value, Practical value and Linguistic value) have shown that students have developed positive attitudes towards reading. Since positive feelings and attitudes are part of motivation for reading (Yamashita, 2013), we can therefore state that Mozambican university students were motivated to read after being involved in the ER program, as can be seen looking at the mean average percentages in all the five variables.

Classroom observation has shown that Mozambican university students do not have the habit of reading individually. That was observed through the practice of sharing the books they read, as well as writing summaries of the same books. This may be both due to the cooperative learning culture but also may entail lack of reading habits in an ER program,
since most of the readings they had in their academic lives are intensive readings in which all students in the same class read and answer questions about the same texts. This suggests that the Mozambican university students involved in the current study may not read frequently even after it has been observed that they have improved their attitudes towards reading (Camiciottoli, 2001), which means that teacher’s guidance (Sahari & Morni, 2013) is still necessary for them to engage in future reading activities.

The current study results suggest that there is a need to introduce ER programs at UEM, and reading the same book and then sharing in the classroom should be the type of ER which is preferable, since students strive for common success and growth and reading individual books resembles an environment of competition among them.
Chapter 7  Conclusions and recommendations

7.1  General overview

This chapter presents a summary of the results of the studies conducted for this dissertation and draws some general conclusions based on these studies. The current study can be considered as action research which aimed at enhancing reading comprehension skills through the implementation of one reading strategy instruction program and two extensive reading programs among Mozambican university students. The programs aimed at improving reading comprehension abilities among Mozambican university students studying English as a foreign language at the Eduardo Mondlane University. The first program, the RSI (conducted in 2012), was an assessment of the role of a strategy-based instruction program on students’ reading comprehension. The second and the third programs were extensive reading programs conducted in 2013 and 2014, respectively, and the main goal was to investigate whether such programs would have an effect on Mozambican university students’ reading speed and reading comprehension, as well as on students’ attitudes towards reading.

The entire study contains 7 chapters but only 3 (Chapters 4, 5 and 6) deal with our own action research. General conclusions and recommendations are mostly based on Studies 1, 2 and 3 described in Chapters 4, 5 and 6, respectively. Each of the 3 studies had its own specific goal as follows:

Study 1 - Specific goal: to evaluate the effect of a strategy-based reading program in relation to students' reading comprehension. The question posed in Study 1 was: does RSI facilitate effective reading among Mozambican university students?
Study 2 - Specific goal: to evaluate the relation between an extensive reading program and students' academic reading comprehension. Two questions were answered within this research goal: what is the effect of an extensive reading program on reading speed among Mozambican English language learners? And secondly, what is the effect of Extensive Reading on reading comprehension of academic texts?

Study 3 - Specific goal: to evaluate the effect of an extensive reading program on students’ reading attitudes. The question posed to deal with this research goal was: What is the effect of Extensive Reading on reading attitudes in English as a Foreign Language among Mozambican university students?

Before moving on to the concluding remarks, we briefly summarize the issues with which we have dealt from Chapter 1 to Chapter 6. In Chapter 1 we sketched the context in which the study was conducted. We have shown the motivation that led to this study through the presentation of the research problem in its three dimensions: at the university - UEM), in the Mozambican education system and in the second/foreign language research field dimension. In this chapter we noted that students entering university have a double edged problem: a reading problem (linked to strategy use) and a language problem, linked to students’ English proficiency level, as shown in Cabinda (2014)’s study. We have pointed out that Mozambican university students generally do not have reading habits and they are often not capable of dealing with the academic readings they find in their daily academic lives. In this context, we have also noted that the curriculum has remained the same at UEM for quite a long time (Cabinda, 2013), with no reading strategy instruction, no extensive reading programs and actually with no innovation regarding academic reading and students' academic needs. Even though this research was conducted at UEM, similar situations may be found in other Mozambican Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) which deal with ELT. We have argued that the Mozambican education system needs to actively promote reading habits among learners from primary to university level. Although some attempts have been made in order to promote reading at the primary and secondary levels (e.g. Reading/Comprehension Program – in Portuguese), a lack of reading programs (aimed at improving reading comprehension in English as a foreign language), as well as a lack of reading materials and libraries have always been a stumbling block.

With respect to the research field, we talked about some problematic issues regarding reading comprehension, mainly the fact that some studies see L1 as important in L2 reading,
while others look at L2 proficiency as a predictor of reading comprehension achievement. Several studies undertaken in both L1 (e.g. Loranger, 1997) and L2 contexts (e.g. Macaro & Erler, 2008; Akkakoson, 2013), stress the role of strategic reading and extensive reading (Iwahori, 2008; Waring, 2011) in promoting reading comprehension, fluency and positive attitudes towards reading. In the current study we have not only looked at general reading comprehension, but we have also looked at academic reading comprehension skills, which is an innovative step since we have found no previous studies evaluating the influence of ER on academic reading comprehension texts in a multilingual context. Finally, we have also argued that most of the Mozambican university students’ weaknesses may be the result of weaknesses in the education system and, specifically, in the primary and secondary schools’ ELT curricula.

Chapter 2 was dedicated to theoretical concepts related to our research. In this chapter, we looked at the complex concept of reading and the aspects or components involved in the reading comprehension process, that is, the demanding cognitive and metacognitive processes involved in reading. We also discussed existing skills and strategy taxonomies. We underlined the existence of similarities among taxonomies which, in terms of their function during the reading process, all contain strategies related to three dimensions: pre-reading, reading and post-reading skills or strategies. The difference between academic reading (in EAP), intensive reading (IR) and extensive reading (ER) was discussed: whereas IR has to do with reading in order to learn from texts, ER has to do with reading for pleasure and general understanding, and EAP refers to the language that is used by teachers and students for the purpose of acquiring new knowledge (Day & Bamford, 1998; Safaeia & Bulca, 2012; Nuttal, 1996; Chamot & O’Malley, 1994).

Chapter 3 dealt with the methodological design of the current study. We mentioned that the study was conducted in Mozambique, at UEM, involving students majoring in English Language Teaching, English/Portuguese Translation and Interpretation, as well as students majoring in Journalism. These students were from the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences and from the Schools of Communication and Arts. In order to achieve the above-mentioned research goals, throughout the three stages of the study, we have used different research methods, since this has been shown to be the best approach in reading research (Bernhardt, 2011). Details about the specific methods applied in the individual studies can be found in
Chapters 4, 5, and 6. The studies presented in these chapters are discussed in more detail in section 7.2 below.

Chapter 1 also referred to an earlier study (Nhapulo, 2013) which contained an evaluation of learner and teacher beliefs about language learning and an evaluation of students' attitudes towards reading, with the purpose of promoting positive beliefs about language learning and teaching and positive attitudes towards creative and academic reading.

The current study was conducted with some considerable limitations which are expected to be reduced in future research which will be conducted in Mozambique and in other similar contexts. These limitations are discussed in the individual chapters, sections 4.6, 5.4, and 6.5, but can be summarized as follows:

- A first limitation is the lack of previous studies on topics such as teacher and learner beliefs, reading strategies, extensive reading, reading speed and reading comprehension, as well as attitudes towards reading in the Mozambican academic context, at the primary, secondary and university level, and thus a lack of local bibliography to support some of our conclusions;

- Secondly, there was a lack of previous strategic reading and extensive reading programs following from a lack of a curriculum that involves RSI and ER programs from primary to tertiary level;

- Thirdly, there is a lack of graded readers which could serve effectively to a large number of readers. Added to a lack of reading materials is the lack of libraries and nationwide reading programs aimed at promoting reading for pleasure.

- A final limitation are the negative attitudes towards reading among Mozambican university students.

In spite of these general limitations, the current dissertation has shed some light on how to improve reading comprehension skills through the implementation of different reading programs which, if implemented in future innovative curricula, may successfully contribute to the promotion of reading habits and reading strategies needed to improve reading
comprehension, fluency and attitudes towards reading among Mozambican university students.

7.2 Summary of findings and general conclusions

In this section, we present a summary of the findings of each of the three stages of the current research, followed by some practical implications derived from such final conclusions. The concluding remarks will therefore be presented taking into account the problems presented in Chapter 1 as the motivation for the current study.

7.2.1 The reading problem

Mozambican university students have many problems related to reading, and here we underline both the language problem in ESL and the reading problem, although our focus lies on the reading problem rather than on the language problem. A study conducted by Cabinda (2014) looked at the metacognitive and cognitive strategies Mozambican university readers apply in the reading process, and he found that these students apply metacognitive, cognitive and supply reading strategies but mostly they are stranded due to a lack of English language proficiency needed to deal with general and academic readings at hand. This confirms that Mozambican university students do have an English language problem which affects the degree of their reading comprehension. Similarly, Li (2010) involved 180 participants who completed a 30-item questionnaire of metacognitive awareness of reading strategies while reading academic texts. Li (2010) found that highly proficient students used 27 reading strategies more frequently than the low-proficient students. Put together, these studies indicate that L2 proficiency has an effect on strategy use and, consequently, on reading comprehension.

As just mentioned, our focus in the current research is on the reading problem. As one of the solutions to the reading problem in foreign language reading, students transfer reading strategies and reading knowledge across languages. It is generally accepted that L1 reading skills may be efficiently transferred to L2 reading activities (Harris 2004; Graham &
Macaro, 2008), but due to a lack of RSI and ER programs in their L1, our study participants had to learn reading strategies and practise them only in the context of their L2 (English), which is actually a 3rd or even a 4th language for most of them. Note that L1-L2 interdependence has already been underlined by Cummins (1979, cited in Bernhardt, 2011) when referring to L2 reading skills as being borrowed from first language literacy abilities. However, lack of strategic and extensive reading programs in previous classes among Mozambican university students forces them to depend on compensatory strategies such as translation, language similarities and asking a friend as was shown in the RSI study (Study 1) during reading comprehension activities. In fact, as an example of the effectiveness of language similarities, 50% of the students, focusing on their beliefs about language learning, stated that they learn effectively when teachers show them vocabulary similarities and differences between English and Portuguese (Nhapulo, 2013).

In addition, we have mentioned in Chapter 1, section 1.2.1 that lexical similarities between English and Portuguese languages may both be a problem when students are faced with false cognates but also an advantage when the L1 contributes to the L2 reading process. Concerning development of teaching/learning materials, 50% of the students involved in a study conducted in 2012 at UEM believe that Mozambican teachers should develop teaching materials considering the existing similarities between Portuguese and English (Nhapulo, 2013). However, most teachers and students think that considering language similarities between English and Portuguese is better than English and Bantu languages, mainly because not all students found in one single class speak the same Bantu language as their mother tongue (Nhapulo, 2013). However, regarding the existing lexical similarities between English and Bantu Languages (Firmino, 2005), 40% of the teachers believe that it is effective to point these out to the students, so that they can easily learn from what they already know in their mother tongue. Looking at these beliefs, we can see that flexibility is needed in order to enable university students to use L1 knowledge when learning to read a foreign language. Concerning flexibility, Lopes (1997) claims that the method applied in language teaching and the way one guides a lesson until its end depends mostly on the teacher and the teaching context. This is the classroom and the student syllabus referred to by Hutchinson & Waters (1998). In this context, having materials that explore language similarities between Portuguese and English, together with the use of translation and different learning and teaching techniques, may be part of the solution to the language and
the reading problem among Mozambican university students. Whether this also applies to the use of certain reading strategies involving the L1 is a question that was dealt with in Study 1.

### 7.2.1.1 The role of RSI in reading comprehension

Following from Alderson (1984, 2000) and Bernhardt (1999, 2000), we can see that the main issue among Mozambican students is not only the language but also and specifically the reading problem, which is related to how they deal with extensive, intensive and academic readings at hand. In search for the solution to the reading problem, we can underline the following: the role of RSI in reading comprehension, the need of reading materials and curriculum innovation and a lack of formal and informal motivation.

Several studies have shown that students need to be explicitly taught how to deal with reading strategies in real reading practice activities (e.g. Yoshida, 2008; Hudson, 2007; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Grenfell & Harris, 1999). A lack of RSI programs may therefore be a problem for Mozambican readers. A recent study conducted by Cabinda (2014) at UEM has shown that students do not use cognitive and metacognitive strategies effectively. As a result, these students rely on supply strategies (e.g. translation and cognates) to compensate for the lack of strategic reading. The weak reading comprehension strategy use is seen in Cabinda (2014) as the result of low L2 proficiency among Mozambican university students. Our study (discussed in Chapter 4) is complementary to Cabinda (2014) since it has also shown that Mozambican students use several metacognitive, cognitive and supply strategies (Jimenez et al., 1995, 1996) or support strategies (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). Our results suggest that weak strategy use among Mozambican university students may be the result of two main aspects: the low L2 proficiency as already shown in Cabinda (2014), and the result of a lack of RSI training. Students involved in our study showed an improvement in reading comprehension after being trained in (pre-reading, reading and post-reading) strategy use. This was clearly seen through the comparison of both the pre-test and the post-test results of the reading comprehension assessment as students achieved higher comprehension scores in the post-test than before the RSI program in the pre-test. Therefore, although Mozambican university students have both a language and a reading problem (due to a lack of reading strategies), our study indicates that if involved in an RSI program their reading comprehension abilities may improve considerably.
Our finding is also in accordance with several recent studies which have shown that when students are involved in an RSI program they improve their comprehension skills (e.g., Carrell, 1989; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995; Feng & Mokhtari, 1998; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Macaro & Erler, 2008; Akkakoson, 2013). In our RSI study we have learnt that Mozambican university students are not aware of the reading strategies they use and they have no formal background knowledge in strategic reading, since they had not been involved in an RSI program before. Some of the instructed strategies were already being use by the participants involved but they did not know how to describe them. The conducted strategy-based instruction showed that it is indeed an effective tool in promoting strategic reading, as a result of a greater reading strategy awareness and enhanced ability to monitor the reading task itself. The fact that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the reading post-test suggested that the conducted RSI program has improved reading comprehension skills through strategy awareness and effective use.

7.2.1.2 The need of reading materials and curriculum innovation

Among several problems, the fact that there is a lack of reading materials throughout the country contributes to the reading problem in Mozambique. In Chapter 5, where we have dealt with the relation between ER and both reading speed and reading comprehension, we have noted that there are no available graded readers to be used in an ER program in almost any of the school levels, and this limits even those students who would like to read for pleasure. We have noted in Chapter 1 that one of the reading challenges in Mozambique is defining policies and strategies which take into consideration the promotion of reading materials, empowering the existing libraries and creating more libraries (Buendía, 2010). Dealing with learning and teaching resources is also dealing with curriculum innovation in the whole Mozambican ELT system. Curriculum innovation issues, particularly at UEM, were explored in a Needs Analysis study conducted by Cabinda (2013). Cabinda (2013) noted that the use of out-dated and commercially driven textbooks does not help to improve students’ reading abilities. In line with this conclusion, participants in our study recognize that there are signs of curriculum innovation, but only at the secondary level, since there are new textbooks and dictionaries (e.g., Sitoe & Schulz, 2005) rooted in the Mozambican reality, and written by Mozambican authors. However, there are no textbooks written by Mozambican authors targeting students at the university level. At this level, there is still a
lack of up-to-date teaching materials that fit university students’ daily academic lives, as well as an effective curriculum and syllabus design that takes into consideration students’ beliefs, needs and cultural background (Nhapulo, 2013).

Moreover, there is still a challenge among English language teachers at UEM, concerning ESP teaching materials. That is, the English language is taught in all the university faculties as ESP (except at the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, where it is also taught as EGP), but not all university courses have the specific materials needed for effective syllabi to be implemented. What happens so far is that when a teacher is assigned to teach English, for instance, in a Geology course, s/he is given a syllabus which was designed according to the course requirements and by course coordinators who do not have any background in ELT. The teaching materials that the English teacher collects are an attempt to comply with the requirements of that specific course (which sometimes requires linguistic abilities that students entering university in their first year still cannot master). To reduce the impact of that mismatch, collaboration (Kerfoot & Winberg, 1997) among the Department of Languages (where we find the English Section), the university’s faculties and the respective courses’ coordinators in which English is taught, is still needed in order to guarantee good syllabi implementation in all of the university ESP courses.

In sum, there is a need to develop EGP/ESP materials relevant for different university course programs’ needs at UEM. Automatic and rapid word recognition ability (e.g. Just & Carpenter, 1977; Nassaji, 2003; Perfetti, 1985) are among several aspects which need to be considered in the design of such materials, since reading comprehension starts from the ability to recognize words in the respective student’s field of study, to the ability of joining sentences in a complete discourse. For instance, at the discourse/textual level, students need to be aware of some organizational conventions or patterns such as sequenced events and hierarchical structure when dealing with a story or scientific information, respectively (Schleppegrell, 2001; Bailey & Huang, 2011). Considering that the strong predictors for academic reading comprehension is not simply the ability to know vocabulary (Nergis, 2013; Shiotsu & Weir; 2007), syntactic awareness and metacognitive reading strategies need to be reinforced in order to promote strategic reading among Mozambican university students.
7.2.1.3 Formal and informal motivation

The fact that Mozambican students are not motivated to involve themselves in free voluntary reading activities has a negative influence on their reading comprehension achievement and on their attitudes towards reading. A study conducted by Takaze (2007) concluded that intrinsic motivation for both L1 and L2 reading determined the amount of ER. However, Mozambican students do not have or they are not given enough motivation (from early classes onwards) in order to engage in reading. This implies that motivation also increases when students are involved in reading activities. This is in line with the Pleasure Hypothesis posited by Krashen (2004), which sustains that there is a connection between reading and enjoyment, mainly when students are involved in ER activities. The role of the teacher/facilitator/mentor is also crucial in the process of developing motivated readers. That is, students need to be motivated so that they can hold positive attitudes towards reading and, as a result, they can become good readers, since their self-perception will also be positive. When intrinsically motivated, students tend to be self-confident and they do not give up when they are faced with reading challenges (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997; Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). However, a lack of materials and reading habits from the primary to university level, as well as a lack of an environment that promotes reading both inside and outside university explain the lack of intrinsic motivation (which deserves further study in the Mozambican context). Unfortunately, as in Morni & Sahari (2013), we have noted in the current study that students do not have role models in the family, in societal or in academic settings. The Mozambican education system still needs to promote reading as a tool in language learning and in the promotion of habits of reading for pleasure and for academic purposes. Morni & Sahari (2013) have noted that availability of reading materials at home (referred to as informal motivation in this section) is the cornerstone of a successful reading culture.

Moreover, simplistic reasons are always presented as excuses for reading avoidance. The belief that completing the assigned readings is not a sole means through which students can pass their courses is another reason why most students do not see reading as a compulsory activity (Nkapulo, 2013). Chapter 6 showed that the use of textbooks, classes and lecture notes is unquestionable in academic settings, but a lack of a reading culture is justified by the excuse of time limitations and readings' non-availability. Furthermore, the whole social (Morni & Sahari, 2013) and academic setting does not give a pleasurable and sufficient
input for reading, which explains why negative attitudes towards reading are prevailing throughout the education system involving students, parents, teachers and education professionals at all levels.

Moreover, both strategic and extensive reading activities need to be targeted in order to resolve the problems among Mozambican university readers. Advanced and good readers are able to cope with reading strategies and reading speed in a more efficient manner than poor readers. However, both good and poor readers have a similar reading rate, but we showed that good readers read significantly faster. We have also concluded that when conducting an ER program, a teacher needs to participate in the program as a reader as well, so that s/he can easily help students in the selection of suitable materials for their proficiency level, as well as guaranteeing that all conditions (Day & Bamford, 1998, 2002; Walker, 1997) and principles of ER (Day & Bamford, 2002) are observed in its implementation.

7.2.2 Reading strategy use among Mozambican university students

In the current study, an RSI program was designed and implemented and its progress was evaluated through a pre- and post-test design. This program was framed in the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach - CALLA Model (Chamot & O’Malley, 1994; Chamot et al., 1999; Chamot, 2005), following six necessary steps: preparation, presentation, practice, self-evaluation, expansion and assessment of pre-reading, reading and post-reading strategies.

After the RSI was conducted, experimental group students reported a better mastery of reading strategies in the exit questionnaire (see Appendix 5), which was confirmed by the considerable improvement between pre-test and post-test reading comprehension scores among this group, compared to the results of the control group. This confirms that “strategies are essential, not only to successful comprehension, but to overcoming reading problems and becoming a better reader and comprehender” (McNamara, 2009: 36). Better mastery of reading strategies after the RSI program also indicates that the intervention had a positive effect among Mozambican university students. Moreover, the fact that the experimental group outperformed the control group in reading comprehension after an intensive RSI program suggests that the former group has indeed benefited from the RSI program.
With respect to the RSI instruction approach, we have placed our study in relation to Saricoban (2002), who considered the division of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in three functions: pre-reading, reading and post-reading. The strategies were taken from Hudson (2007) and Grabe & Stoller (2002), since these strategies are commonly used by good readers. In the same perspective, Grabe (2009: 218) concluded that there is no single or best RSI approach as such, since what matters is that "every strategy, once introduced and practised, must be recycled consistently and often, usually in combination with other strategies as part of pre-, during-, and post-reading strategies". Note that most studies deal with skills and reading comprehension strategies in a non-discriminated way, since they deal with a single list of strategies (see, for instance, Cabinda, 2014). The fact that the students in the present study showed an improvement in reading comprehension in the post-test may also be the result of an easy and clear application of pre-reading, reading and post-reading strategies, since students knew what to apply before, during and after reading in a linear manner, but they also understood that in practice such strategies had to be applied in clusters.

Strategy-based instruction is effective in promoting reading and autonomy, as a result of a greater awareness and monitoring of the reading task itself. In fact, previous studies have also reported that apart from tending to be less dependent on the classroom learning environment, students involved in RSI programs improve their reading competence and they also develop cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Grenfell & Macaro, 2007; Khezrlou, 2012), which lead to autonomy. Indeed, data from the questionnaire and field notes from the RSI program suggested that strategy training and use was effective, since students reported that the program enabled them to understand texts more easily as well as to summarise them using their own words.

The RSI exit questionnaire results (Appendix 6) showed that there are strategies that are always, often, sometimes, seldom used and those which are never used. Chapter 4 showed that both the poor and good readers use the same strategies, with the later group using most of them always in contrast to the former, which used most of them only sometimes. Among the most effective pre-reading, reading and post-reading strategies used by the experimental group, we can underline one post-reading strategy mostly used by our participants: summarising. Sharing personal readings was linked to the summarizing skill, since this was one of the ways which contributed to the monitoring and assessment of individual readings.
Similar to Oded & Walters (2001, cited in Bernhardt, 2011), our study examined the effectiveness of text summary through classroom and online sharing, and it was concluded that students had the ability to differentiate between main ideas and supporting details. Writing summaries is also important since it enables students to revise their readings and rewrite them using their own words, thereby increasing their vocabulary and improving both their reading and their writing skills. That is, the ability to review the main ideas after each chunk of reading was crucial for drawing a summary of what they had read. This was done and reported by all experimental group students as an effective strategy since all of them had to write a summary as this was used as an assessment tool during the RSI program. Interestingly, while implementing the RSI program and evaluating its progress, we found that students not only applied the instructed pre-reading, reading and post-reading strategies, but they also applied other untaught strategies which enabled them to reach the meaning of, for instance, unknown words and difficult textual passages. The use of such supply strategies is related to different knowledge sources that are intertwined in the reading process referred to by Bernhardt (2011) in her compensatory model of second language reading. Such knowledge sources operate synchronically during a reading process. According to this model, micro-level (word recognition) and macro level (background knowledge) features operate synergistically and knowledge sources that are non-existent or which are not effective are aided by other knowledge sources in a compensatory form. In reading comprehension there are several factors, strategies and means which "are inextricably intertwined because they are used by readers simultaneously in a compensatory fashion" (Bernhardt, 2011: 63). Our research confirms that in strategic reading among Mozambican university students, there are some reading strategies which are used to compensate for a lack of some skills and several sources of knowledge, in the perspective of bottom-up and top-down approaches that are simultaneously and interactively applied. Apart from relying solely on the clusters of reading strategies they have been taught during the RSI program, they have also implemented all the other possible strategies. That is, in order to compensate for a handicap in word recognition/decoding - echoes of both the reading and the language problem - Mozambican L2 readers followed alternative routes for reading comprehension such as: rereading, reading ahead and focusing on important sentences, drawing on prior relevant knowledge, looking at lexical similarities, as well as using translation. Drawing on prior knowledge and reading ahead can be linked to the
instructed reading strategies, while *looking at lexical similarities* and *translation* are related to the untaught and common compensatory strategies among Mozambican university students. Among the most common compensatory strategies used by Mozambican students we could find *peer cooperation, asking a friend, using similarities between words or lexical structures in different languages*, and *translation* from Portuguese or a Bantu language into English and vice-versa. The untaught compensatory strategies, together with the pre-reading, reading and post-reading strategies proved to be effective tools both in general and in academic reading comprehension activities (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.3.1). In the following paragraphs, apart from autonomy and reading strategies’ combinations, we discuss three main compensatory or support strategies: mental translation, language similarities, and the role of cooperative learning in language learning.

**a) translation as a compensatory/supply/support strategy**

One of the strategies used by the Mozambican university students in this study is translation. The use of translation is related to one of the questions posited by Bernhardt (2011: 125), which is: “Is translation the key to second-language reading strategy?” The actual strategy use among Mozambican students showed that mental translation (of single words) is in fact a strategy used in reading comprehension activities. Questionnaire results showed that mental translation is a strategy used by both the experimental group and the control group students. This strategy is used in order to understand the meaning of new and unknown words as well as textual passages. That is, it was mostly used in situations where students found themselves stranded due to linguistic and contextual reading problems.

Note that the use of translation as a compensatory strategy is not specific to Mozambican university students, since Feng & Mokhtari (1998) have also found that Chinese university students use several supply strategies while reading in English and in Chinese. Jimenez et al. (1996) found that translation and searching for cognates were strategic activities for the Latino students. Therefore, our study is in line with these studies and it has shown that Mozambican university students use *translation and cognates* as compensatory strategies, which explains why in the section of recommendations below we underline the need to considering translation mainly among readers with lower L2 proficiency.

Our finding regarding mental translation is in line with previous research conducted among bilingual and biliterate readers learning English as a foreign language, which
have shown that mental translation can be a constructive means for promoting L2 text comprehension (e.g., Kern 1994; Jimenez et al., 1995, 1996; Feng & Mokhtari, 1998; Malcolm, 2009; Cabinda, 2014). In the same context, a study conducted by Yau (2009) among 144 Taiwanese students learning English as a foreign language showed a positive relation between mental translation and L2 reading performance. Similar to other support strategies, translation was used by most students and it may be, in fact, connected to the fact that their language proficiency is not advanced enough. As we have mentioned above, it may also be the result of a language problem but it can certainly be linked to a strategic reading problem. The use of translation among Mozambican university students is also in line with the threshold hypothesis (Upton & Lee-Thompson, 2001) which sustains that there is a threshold level L2 readers need to achieve before they can efficiently not depend on the L1-L2 transfer (Guo & Roehrig, 2011), since they will have developed a considerable L2 proficiency. Similarly, Malcolm (2009) investigated the awareness of 160 Arab-speaking medical students studying in English. The translation strategy from English to Arabic was found mainly among low English proficiency readers. In this context, the use of translation, for instance, as a support strategy during reading activities, can be linked to a lack of both linguistic (L2 proficiency) and reading skills, since vocabulary limitations and the inability to understand relationships among paragraphs is both a language and a reading problem. Therefore, it is possible that the partial reliance on translation among Mozambican university students may be due to the fact that they have not yet developed automatic L2 reading skills, and that their lexical knowledge does not allow them to process the meanings of most of the difficult words they encounter.

After looking at the role of translation as a compensatory strategy in reading comprehension we can now deal with the following question: *should translation be valued in ELT, especially in a foreign language reading context like Mozambique?* While discussing principles and problems of language policy in Mozambique, Lopes (1997: 66) stated that "there is no harm in using translation, and since teachers have got that skill, why shouldn't they make it available? The major reason why translation (or contrastive analysis) has been avoided is because most native speakers cannot do it; therefore, they say you shouldn't". In fact, the current study has shown that our university students still consider translation as helpful. One of the reasons why some students consider translation as important at university level stems from the fact that some of these university students reach the
university level with weak English speaking, reading, writing and listening skills required for their academic survival. In a context like this, translation of difficult words into Portuguese (or a Bantu language) is considered by them as an effective tool for reading comprehension. However, given that students in the same class speak different Bantu languages as their mother tongues, translating English into a Bantu language is not an effective teaching tool for the whole class, although 75% of the students agree that “teachers may use Portuguese, English or any Bantu language, so long as students can understand what they are being taught” (Nhapulo, 2013).

In spite of the language problem among Mozambican university students (Cabinda, 2014), when they have a considerable command of the English language, many Mozambican university students believe that “it is effective for students to learn English through English itself” (Nhapulo, 2013). Here, the use of translation, if linked to the notion of the threshold hypothesis (Alderson, 1984), may entail that translation may be regarded as a tool in lower English language competence readers but, as students increase their language level and they learn more about reading strategies and practise them with different texts, English should be the sole language of instruction. Thus, apart from the plausible role of translation at university level, students share the same belief about the effectiveness of using English as the language of instruction in advanced English classes. Bearing in mind that ELT students are future English teachers, we can infer that they consider the use of Portuguese throughout the ELT course as not so effective as the exclusive use of the English language as the sole language of instruction.

b) language similarities in English language learning

Language similarities are to some extent the result of the existing lexical (structure) similarities. Word pairs showing similarities can be found in Chapters 1 and 4. The similarities can be successfully used as a reading strategy due to language lexical proximities and similarities between English and Portuguese and between English and Bantu languages (Firmino, 2005). Referring to the compensatory steps taken by students in their reading activities, Bernhardt (2011) assumes that there are interactions of background knowledge, processing strategies, vocabulary level, and relationships between and among various cognate and non-cognate L1s and L2s. Looking at the use of language similarities, Bernhardt (2001: 51) states that “learners compensate back and forth between and among
knowledge sources for deficiencies in both language and literacy knowledge (...). There is an important first language/second language connection and the connection exists on multiple levels”. Therefore, similar words between Portuguese, Bantu languages and English, that is, cognates, were among the more easily identified words, and this showed that “the L1 was used to reduce the cognitive load during L2 reading comprehension” (Cohen & Macaro, 2007: 196). As for false friends (Cortés, 2005) in the RSI study, the context was also used to understand the real meaning.

c) **Peer cooperation and learning outcome**

Cooperative learning (Strickland & Morrow, 1991) as a strategy was reflected in the classroom learning environment, where the students taking part in our study reported to prefer sharing and working in pairs or groups rather than individually. This has been observed in the ER program (Chapters 5 and 6), where students preferred sharing the same books over reading books of individual choice. That is, the way they interact throughout the learning process values cooperative learning and collective achievement. Moreover, strategies such as "asking a classmate" used in the RSI Study and peer cooperation found in Chapter 5 (in the ER program) are part of cooperative learning strategies which have shown to be used by Mozambican learners to process and organize information or to react within their learning environment. By asking friends/classmates before consulting a dictionary, less skilled students could overcome difficult aspects they encountered during their reading strategy use. Similarly, examining Arabic-speaking learners of English in a cooperative learning environment, Ghaith (2003) found that cooperative learning positively affected reading achievement and yet had no impact on self-esteem and attitudes toward schooling.

Since Mozambique is a multicultural and multilingual country, Mozambican “learners should, in their process of learning a language, understand language, also acquire an ability to identify with, understand and accept others and their culture” (Lopes, 1997: 68). Thus, guaranteeing cross-cultural communication and successful learning outcomes in multicultural classrooms has to do with the integration of culture as content in L2 learning-teaching contexts. Language is therefore part of the learners’ enculturation, given that it shapes all kinds of their learning styles, that is, the classroom interactions and expectations, which are culturally rooted (Dogancay-Aktuna, 2005; Nhapulo, 2013).
In line with the consideration of the social context in language learning, Patrick et al., (2007, cited in Seitz, 2010: 32) found that "students’ perceptions of dimensions of their classroom social environment, including affiliation, cohesion, fairness, mutual respect, and support from teachers and students are associated consistently with adaptive motivational beliefs and achievement behaviours". Recalling these conclusions does not mean the sole consideration of the social aspect of language learning as stronger than the cognitive side (Shuel, 1986; Jensen, 1998; Darlene, 1997), but it is the consideration of both cognitive and affective aspects which may lead to the desired learning outcome among Mozambican students, where achievement is linked to collaborative work.

In sum, since “culture must be incorporated outright as an essential component of second language learning and teaching” (Kuo & Lai, 2006: 1), we would suggest that the cooperative culture found in the multilingual and multicultural context of Mozambican classrooms needs to be taken into account in curriculum design and implementation, since our study showed that students showed a preference for strategies which are linked to cooperation and mutual achievement. Therefore, enhancing learning strategies and teaching techniques that reinforce collaborative work is expected to positively influence learning outcomes among Mozambican students.

\[d) \textit{autonomy and reading strategy combinations}\]

The use of self-regulated strategies and the fact that students could choose what to read and when to read enabled them to become autonomous in their reading process. In fact, questionnaire results have shown feelings of autonomy among the students involved in the RSI, with statements that confirm the use of the RSI program for students to gain the ability to read even without the teacher’s guidance, the ability to evaluate their reading, monitor their actions and gain more language proficiency from free and continuously self-rewarding reading activities.

The background idea, especially among students who do not have previous knowledge about strategic reading, is both providing them with strategic reading abilities and enabling them to become autonomous readers. Similar to our findings, Aghaie & Zhang (2012) also concluded that strategy instruction among Iranian students improved reading comprehension, as well as the ability to choose what to read and when to read, that is, it improved readers’ autonomy.
The students involved in the present study did not only use reading strategies separately, since their questionnaire answers showed that, depending on the reading task at hand, they reported to combine strategies into clusters. There are several activities in which students applied pre-reading, reading and post-reading strategies in a simultaneous manner. Through the use of strategies in clusters students became active readers (Presley, 2006) and that corresponds to an autonomous stage which they only achieved through previous teacher's guidance (Paiva, 1997). The fact that students in the control group did not report the use of strategies always in clusters is one of the differences between them and their counterparts who received the RSI program. This indicates that explicit strategy instruction raises awareness in strategy use and improves comprehension (Zhang, 2008), as seen in the post-test results, compared to the pre-test scores of both the control students and the experimental ones. Although the control group used reading strategies, mainly the commonly used support strategies used by Mozambican university students, they did not become self-confident and autonomous as the experimental group did. This seems to confirm the idea that learners who appropriately use a wide range of strategies are self-confident and able to develop as autonomous learners (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001).

Apart from being able to use strategies in clusters, autonomous readers are also capable of evaluating their reading, monitoring their actions and gaining more language proficiency from free and continuously self-rewarding reading activities. These metacognitive skills are acquired through previous guidance by the teacher in the early stages of strategy use, which explains why the use of metacognition is considered to be the result of the conducted RSI. That is, while the experimental group was involved in multiple practice opportunities that helped them move towards autonomous use of reading strategies through gradual withdrawal of the scaffolding reading strategy instruction, the control group did not have that opportunity.

Finally, it is important to note that English language learning is better when it reaches the point at which the learner is independent, but it is also important to note that “there is language material that is best learnt independently, [and] there is also material which certain learners best learn in an interactive social context” (Grenfell & Macaro, 2007: 42). The use of a wide range of strategies as well as the use of known strategies in clusters and not individually, are means through which an autonomous reader deals with reading in a way that fits the reading context, whether it is in the classroom or outside, group or individual
work, as well as the type of the reading task at hand. Therefore, the results suggest that the use of strategies in clusters should be reinforced during RSI programs.

7.2.3 Extensive reading input

The second study dealt with two specific issues: the effect of the conducted ER program on reading speed and on reading comprehension of an academic text. Throughout the ER program, students read in and outside the classroom learning environment. Below we underline three aspects we could learn from the ER implementation. Basically, through ER, we could understand that we can promote reading speed and reading comprehension among Mozambican university students, as well as positive attitudes towards reading.

a) Promoting fast readers

The ER program was expected to contribute to the improvement in reading speed and reading comprehension. In Chapter 5, when looking at the relation between ER and reading speed, we found that reading habits increase the speed of reading if reading activities are developed during a certain period of time. A study by Nuttal (1996) showed that “for an L1 speaker of English of about average education and intelligence… the reading rate is about 300 words per minute” (Nuttal, 1996: 56). This is different among our students who have English as a foreign language, that is, a 3rd or even 4th language for most of the Mozambican students. Despite L1 and L2 differences, the reading speed test results among Mozambican university students have shown a considerable increase in their reading speed, since their scores ranged between 60 to 98 words per minute (wpm) in the pre-test and 85 to 150 wpm in the reading speed post-test. When students are involved in an ER program, the more they read, the more they get used to reading and their reading speed increases, as previously proven in several studies (Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; Mathson, Allington, & Solic, 2006; Rasinski & Hoffman, 2003). This increase may also be related to a growing sight vocabulary and increasing habits of reading for pleasure. The number of wpm students read before the ER program was smaller than the number of wpm read after the program. Most importantly, we concluded that not only poor readers and good readers improve in terms of the number of wpm after an ER program, but the reading speed tests also showed that good readers read faster than poor readers. This proves that the more we read the faster we become (Kirin et
al, 2012), and vice-versa. In fact, students who read faster are more impelled to read more and more books in a motivating vicious cycle (Nuttal, 1996), and in a pleasurable/enjoyable manner (Krashen, 1984), meantime, improving reading comprehension. However, in line with the (comprehensible) input hypothesis (Krashen, 1982) in which it is maintained that a learner must receive a comprehensible input, it was clear that reading (too) difficult texts slowed down the reading speed, mainly among good readers. Therefore, the choice of difficult books among good readers contributed to the small difference in terms of reading speed between them and poor readers involved in the same ER program.

For improving Mozambican learners’ reading speed, ER indeed seems to be an effective program but guidance is required in terms of the choice of readings made by students at least with respect to the level of difficulty of the texts. One of the principles of ER states that students choose what, when and where they read, so students should be free to choose the content and the style of the readings. Another issue has to do with guidance in terms of the reading process itself. Within the automatic processing theory (Samuels, 1994), rapid and accurate decoding of words is crucial to any kind of reading, especially L2 reading. Enabling readers to decode and comprehend text simultaneously (Samuels, 2006) is important. This suggests that accuracy and comprehension are essential in reading speed, so that there is no mismatch between speed and comprehension of what is being read. However, considering the different levels of L2 proficiency and the existing varieties of accents worldwide (Skutnab-Kangas, 2002), accuracy in pronunciation (Rasinski, 2004; Blevins, 2005; Reutzel, 2006) should not be put forward in assessing reading fluency. This explains why in the current study our assessment did not focus on pronunciation, given that the automatic processing theory indicates that the human brain has a limited processing ability and attention to pronunciation accuracy may affect reading comprehension achievement. This does not mean ignoring the words per se, given that reading starts from the word level (Bailey & Heritage, 2008), where general academic vocabulary (Nation, 2001), context-specific academic vocabulary (Bailey, 2007) and specialized academic vocabulary (Scarcella & Zimmerman, 1998) can facilitate or even lower speed, depending on how comprehensible the input is. However, Shiotsu & Weir (2007) underlined that vocabulary knowledge was less relevant than syntactic awareness in L2 reading comprehension. Even if students have deep knowledge of all of the words found in a given
text, being able to understand their connections (Bailey & Huang, 2011) is essential in reading speed and comprehension assessments.

b) **Promoting good and strategic readers**

It was expected that becoming a good reader can be promoted through RSI and ER programs (Almasi, 2003; Brown, 2008). Indeed, the effective use of reading strategies and the complementary skills were contributors to the enhancement of reading skills among the Mozambican university readers involved in this study. This suggests that for students like those involved in our research, there is a need to teach them not only the pre-reading, reading and post-reading strategies, but also other skills which are commonly used by good and active readers. Therefore, RSI programs should not consider solely the existing strategies and skills taxonomies, but should also involve several reading skills which are found to be useful among a certain group involved in the experiment. The RSI program developed in the current study is innovative, since previous ER studies have always dealt with a single list of strategy taxonomies. In the current study, we have not only opted for pre-reading, reading and post-reading strategies, as was done by Saricoban (2002), but we have also included an RSI manual which had other reading skills which are necessary in the reading process, such as the notion of critical reading (see Appendix 4).

Students involved in the ER program (Chapter 5) not only gained improvements in reading speed, but also in reading comprehension abilities. Furthermore, it became clear that ER could also be important in promoting academic reading skills. An example of the gains from ER which feed into improved academic reading skills was found here, where through non-academic texts, students gained summarizing skills which are necessary and crucial in academic reading. Reading strategies such as reviewing the main ideas, note-taking and self-monitoring (Grabe & Stoller, 2002) are important for writing a better summary and these cannot be gained only through an RSI program, but also through an ER program. This explains why promoting ER also contributes to the promotion of academic reading skills among readers. To evaluate the effect of ER on the reading comprehension of an academic text, we have used an academic text for both the reading comprehension pre-test and the post-test. Reading comprehension results showed that reading skills gained through ER are important for the improvement of academic reading comprehension skills as well. Test
scores also showed an increase in the post-test, which suggests an improvement in the reading comprehension of academic texts.

In addition, looking at the role of ER in the comprehension of an academic text is an innovative aspect since several studies have looked solely at the relation between ER and general reading comprehension. That is, taking into account that we have conducted the current study in order to improve general and academic reading skills among university students, our focus was on testing the possibility of improvement in academic reading comprehension through non-academic readings. It was confirmed that reading non-academic texts feeds into academic reading skills since some of the skills needed for reading non-academic texts are the same as those required for academic reading. This suggests the need for future studies comparing the role of both ER and IR in EAP reading comprehension.

Finally, in Chapters 5 and 6 it became clear that summaries were used as a tool for assessing the reading activities. Specifically, in Chapter 6, we have found that the use of summaries as tools for checking reading activities showed that students had a lack of summarizing skills. This indicates that ER programs should also be conducted together with an RSI program given that there are strategies which are needed in ER and which can be achieved through RSI, and vice-versa.

c) Promoting positive reading attitudes

In this section we focus on the results of the study about ER and reading attitudes conducted in 2014 and discussed in chapter 6. What students believe about language learning and teaching has a direct influence on their attitudes towards the language they are learning and, ultimately, on the reading process itself, since their actions are highly affected by their beliefs about language teaching and learning (William & Burden, 1997; Brown, 2009; Yang, 1999). Nhapulo (2013) argued that some negative beliefs of Mozambican university students follow from a lack of interest in the foreign language as it is erroneously seen as non-relevant for students’ social, academic and professional lives. Nevertheless, students generally believe that there is a need for speaking practice and they need to be involved in reading groups outside the classroom learning environment to improve their reading and writing, while simultaneously improving their speaking and listening skills (Nhapulo,
2013). In chapter 6 we focussed on whether an ER program could have a positive influence on students’ attitudes towards reading in English as a foreign language.

The study discussed in chapter 6 presents an evaluation of students’ attitudes towards reading, since it had been shown that Mozambican students, as well as some teachers and librarians lack reading habits (Rosário, 2009). A lack of reading habits has a direct influence on the learning process since not all students do the readings they are assigned to read. Although we did not look closely at the Mozambican university students' attitudes towards reading textbooks, from my experience as a lecturer and through non-participant observation during the current research it became clear that students do not read because they are not used to reading, and “time constraints” are always presented as the main reason. Due to a lack of reading habits and practice, Mozambican students have not developed self-confidence or autonomy as required, and so they may end up giving up when faced with new reading challenges (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997).

Although ER studies have shown that they do promote reading habits through the improvement of attitudes towards reading, our ER research itself does not guarantee that students will engage in reading after an ER program (see Chapters 5 and 6). Similar to Mart (2015)’s findings, ER cannot be a solution for all reading problems or even learning problems among Mozambican students, which is why an introduction of an RSI program (next to an ER program) could be an additional tool to enable students to become good readers.

It is only through reading itself that students become good readers (Nuttal, 1996) and believing that reading is important, enjoying reading, having a high self-concept as a reader (Walberg & Tsai, 1983), and role models among family members (Bintz, 1993), are among the factors that contribute to the love or dislike of reading activities in general. Unfortunately, most Mozambican family and academic settings do not offer opportunities for students to see the importance of reading for pleasure, since they do not have role models and reading materials which could contribute to positive attitudes towards reading. The reasons for these were pointed out above, stemming from the lack of reading habits, lack of libraries, shortage of books in the existing libraries, lack of reading programs at all academic, social and professional levels (Rosário, 2009; Issak, 2009; Buendía, 2010).

In both Chapters 5 and 6 students selected books with which they felt comfortable according to their choice, interest and competence. After the ER program, students showed positive
attitudes towards reading in general, which implies a change in how they thought and felt about reading, especially, extensive reading. The experiment showed that after the conducted ER program students showed an improvement in affective variables (Comfort, Anxiety) and cognitive variables (Intellectual Value, Practical Value, Linguistic Value). The short duration of the ER program, however, may also have contributed to the relatively low increase in some students’ attitudes towards reading. In spite of the ER’s short time spam, the twenty-question reading attitudes questionnaire used as a post-test showed that students involved in an ER program see gains and thus they have shifted the way they thought and felt about reading before the ER program.

In sum, the introduction of ER programs, at least at university level, but possibly also at primary and secondary education levels, might lower the anxiety towards reading in English as a second language and improve the comfort that students need inside and outside the classroom reading environment.

d) Promoting habits of reading for pleasure

Chapter 1 showed that even where literacy programs were conducted involving the Portuguese language, these did not turn “literate” people into good readers, since reading is not simply decoding what is written (Rosário, 2009), but understanding what is written as the result of a good interpretation. In this context, we postulate that the lack of reading skills among Mozambicans is also the result of a lack of reading opportunities earlier in their lives (at primary and secondary education levels). Taking into consideration that most schools do not have libraries, some Mozambican students enter a library for the first time when they are at university. Most Mozambican students have the opportunity of practicing the four basic language skills (writing, listening and speaking skills), but only during the few minutes reserved for English classes in the classroom learning environment.

In addition, the cooperation between School Libraries’ Network and the National Reading Plan in 2009 has shown that reading skills promotional activities are to be targeted at libraries, but Mozambican schools lack libraries and reading materials. This proved to be a stumbling block for such cooperation, added to the fact that, within the curriculum, extensive reading is not yet considered as a crucial activity, since reading activities are still limited to the common practice of intensive reading.
However, the relevance of extensive reading, even at university level, was proven by the results of the ER program that looked at readers’ attitudes. After being involved in the ER program students started noticing the advantages of being involved in a reading program, since all the benefits of extensive reading witnessed in several studies (Day & Bamford, 2002; Richards & Schmitt, 2002; Yamashita, 2008) are recurrent in almost all ER programs. Negative attitudes towards reading and negative beliefs about language teaching and learning may therefore originate from the lack of an academic preparation that emphasizes the role of learning English and reading in this language. Learner beliefs are therefore linked to their attitudes towards learning and reading in the English language, and this can also be linked to the deficit in reading skills (Riley, 1980; White, 1999; William & Burden, 1997). In Chapters 5 and 6 we concluded that students involved in the conducted ER programs have improved their reading comprehension, their reading speed and they have also improved their affective and cognitive attitudes towards reading. Instead of reading only when they are told to do so, we expect that students with positive attitudes towards reading may be motivated to engage actively in free and voluntary reading. However, a lack of reading habits which can be traced from the students’ L1 can be seen as one of the reasons for the observed considerable but short increase in their comfort.

7.3 Implications for professional practice and policy

This last section is dedicated to recommendations with respect to English language learning and teaching at UEM, within the Mozambican education system and the field of ESL and/or EFL in general. From the general conclusions indicated above some implications can be drawn and used as tools: in the development of new teaching programs, as well as updated teaching and learning materials; in the process of curriculum innovation; and in the promotion of habits of reading for pleasure and the improvement of strategic, general and academic reading comprehension.

Taking into consideration that some of our findings have shown that some of the problems faced by university students are linked to students’ academic needs in general and a lack of curriculum innovation at all academic levels but with more incidence at the tertiary level,
our study implications may not only be related to the university level, but also to the primary and secondary levels. It is important to remind the reader that the current research has been conducted within a Capacity Building Project (see Chapter 1, section 1.1), which explains why some of our recommendations fall into this perspective.

### 7.3.1 The role of RSI and ER programs

- Our research suggests that an implementation of a strategy-based reading curriculum can be beneficial to Mozambican university students who learn English as a foreign language, inside and outside UEM. This indicates that the implementation of RSI programs will enable students to develop cognitive and meta-cognitive reading strategies and to improve their reading comprehension skills. A curriculum that involves RSI should not replace intensive reading, but would guarantee that there are other reading options than the sole practice of intensive reading for academic purposes. RSI programs are needed to enable Mozambican students to become good readers and good comprehenders of general and academic readings. Moreover, given that the use of reading strategies contributes to the improvement of students’ reading proficiency, knowledge of reading strategies may lead to more positive learning outcomes in several university courses. That is, since 65% of the academic literature in Mozambican libraries is in English (Lopes, 2004), involving students in strategic reading programs is a way of enabling them to improve their learning outcomes not only in English language classes, but also in other subjects. Taking into account that one of the teachers’ roles is to enable students to become good readers, ER and RSI programs can play an important role, considering that through these programs, foreign language learners can be taught and they can practise comprehension strategies commonly used by good readers (Block, Gambrell, & Pressley, 2002; Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

- The conducted ER program had a positive influence on the participants’ reading comprehension skills in the second/foreign language classroom. This explains why our study results suggest an introduction of an ER program,
especially within ELT courses. In other words, there is a need to promote both strategic reading and extensive reading programs in order to improve general and academic reading comprehension abilities among Mozambican university students. Putting students in smaller groups and fostering peer cooperation are the methodological tools which need to be stressed in practical ELT classrooms and ER programs, since Mozambican university students have reported to use strategies such as *asking a friend rather than checking the meaning of unknown words in a dictionary and exchanging books for summarizing*, which are indicative of a cooperative culture. Chapter 5 has shown that since the cooperative learning culture among Mozambican students enables them to strive for common success and growth, reading books individually resembles an environment of competition among them. Instead of only relying on ER as a self-selected reading program in which students read different books, reading the same book and then sharing it in the classroom should be another option.

✓ In order to promote positive attitudes towards reading, students should be given opportunities to learn to read effectively at an early age as difficulties and negative attitudes towards reading may affect self-concept and self-esteem in later years when peer relations and pressures become more evident in social, professional and academic settings (Myoungsoon & Heekyoung, 2002; Westen, 1996). Although reading activities in Portuguese are currently promoted in Portuguese by “Fundo Bibliográfico da Língua Portuguesa” (as mentioned in Chapter 1, in 1.9), we believe that ER programs in English should be introduced at the secondary level (grade 8) as well. Macalister (2007, cited in Wang & Wang, 2013) has already pointed out that ER is mostly suited to learners in primary or secondary school levels, since there may be doubts concerning the practicality of extensive reading for English language development at the university level, owing in large part to time constraints and curricular demands. We have mentioned earlier that grade 7 (for reading activities in Portuguese) corresponds to a late introduction of reading activities, since reading habits needs to be promoted from an early age. At this age, reading can be linked to entertainment, as it is known that
children can easily deal with complex activities as long as they are developed in an enjoyable and tension-free environment (Hillesheim & Fachin, 2003, 2004). In addition, to promote reading habits in Mozambique there is also a need to implement a network of school libraries (Issak, 2009). Therefore, we have underlined that libraries are important in the promotion of reading habits, since reading is also part of enculturation and readers need to be used to it from the primary level onwards.

- Classroom activities are efficient in promoting reading skills, but extra-mural (social) activities are also relevant in this regard. Considering the promotion of reading in a tension-free environment and the need to promote reading habits among Mozambican students, having resource centres, book clubs, round-table projects and reading groups outside the classroom learning environment, should be one step ahead. Creative Reading Groups are necessary to promote habits of reading for pleasure among universities, as well as secondary and even primary school students, ELT teachers, library users and the wider public passionate about creative writing and literature. Therefore, “all curricula designed to teach L2 readers must include an extensive reading component. It is within the context of the ER component of a curriculum where learners have practice opportunities” (Anderson, 2013: 6-7). In this context, the Ministry of Education should guarantee the introduction of reading groups and/or book clubs at all school levels. Nowadays, there is an increase in the number of reading groups formed worldwide, each of which is organized in a different way, some using reading group meetings at libraries, schools, via radio programs, and more recently, e-reading groups through the internet. Moreover, the number of English language learners (as a compulsory language or part of modules) at different levels from primary school to university, IMAP (national teacher training centres) and private schools has been increasing steadily in Mozambique in the last few years. Finally, there are basic requirements needed for the promotion of reading activities and these include setting, reserved time within the ELT curriculum as well as a large amount of reading materials. In spite of these challenging conditions for setting up ER programs, it is still
possible to involve students in reading activities which involve summarising and classroom discussion as assessment tools. In these programs, teachers will act as reading models to motivate students to read more and more and to enable them to have positive beliefs about and attitudes towards reading in general. Added to reading groups, TV and radio programs in English, linked to ELT and reading in general, would be a fruitful step for the Mozambican ELT setting. An attempt to deal with readings and creative writing programs was made at the Maputo Corridor Radio by the facilitators of the *Artists and Entrepreneurs Students Association* (a legal organization of students, teachers, translators and interpreters), which started the *Reader’s Corner project* (which had a face to face and online reading group) in 2010, but a lack of funding led to the halt of the reading project. The *UEM Reader’s Home* (an e-reading step involving students majoring in Journalism in 2013, who were involved in Study 2) was experimentally used in Study 2 and also part of the above-mentioned Association projects. Although the *Reader’s Corner* was recognized by the Ministry of Education, specifically by the Education Department of the capital city, Maputo, a lack of all sorts of support slowed down the reading groups’ project, after it had involved more than 2 secondary schools (Manyanga, Josina) and UEM.

Even though e-reading activities only lasted for a short period of time, it was worthwhile involving readers in the online reading group, since this was the first online reading group in the whole country, and it resulted in international publications\(^1\) and prizes. In order to minimise the shortage of reading materials, Resource Centres or Community Libraries outside the school setting should be created, where not only students, but also community members can have access to reading materials. Therefore, promoting reading

\(^{1}\) *Inspiration: treading the Poetic Path* Vol I

<http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/sites/teacheng/files/Inspiration__ELT_Online_Reading_Group.pdf> and

*Inspiration: treading the Poetic Path* Vol II

<http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/sites/teacheng/files/Treading_the_Poetic_Path_vol_2_2012.pdf>,
groups means making practical decisions, designing teaching programs and implementing them, taking into consideration all the needed financial, material and technical support. Looking at these concluding remarks, we can assume that “ER is not just an added component to a curriculum, but rather an essential component that provides opportunities for development of the learning outcomes that programs establish” (Anderson, 2013: 8).

In Chapter 5 (section 5.4) it was shown that the lack of graded readers may have affected reading speed among the readers involved in the ER program. Guaranteeing the existence of graded readers and translating Mozambican literature into English would be important steps because those reading materials would guarantee ER programs throughout the country in the English language. With the lack of graded readers, there is a need to translate Mozambican novels into English so that they can be used in extensive reading activities. Although there are many readings imported from English-speaking countries, we have also noted that reading translated books which reflect the Mozambican culture and history could be self-rewarding for Mozambican students, in terms of their worldview. Most Mozambican books, novels, fables or stories are collections of stories which the majority of the current Mozambican university students shared in their childhood. This is supported by the fact that in Mozambique, there is no urbanized community which can be separated from traditional life and from oral tradition. What happens in most of the Mozambican literature is the reflection of the oral tradition, since the written form was, from its beginning, a textual strategy used to construe marks of a literary identity (Matusse, 1997). In sum, translated books are only important taking into consideration that we are looking at reading in two perspectives: as a way of promoting reading habits and as the means through which Mozambicans can learn the English language. However, if we look at the general principles of ER, that is, if we want to make sure that readers are aware of the philosophy, history, traditional wisdom and even mythological aspects within their local culture (Rosário, 1989, 2009), then national books written in Bantu or in Portuguese are more appropriate for starting local ER programs.
7.3.2 Curriculum innovation and teacher training

The three studies conducted for this dissertation have shown that there is a need for a renewal in the curriculum concerning aspects such as the inclusion of students’ beliefs and expectations, reading strategy instruction, reading materials and reading programs. Therefore, we argue that curriculum innovation in the Mozambican ELT context is necessary and it needs to involve new teaching and learning materials (teaching materials that can deal with the current, local and global challenges of tertiary education, especially regarding ELT). For quality in teaching, teachers also need to be skilled so that they can provide learners with good motivation, a wide range of teaching and learning techniques, a suitable learning environment, and content that is relevant for the learners’ background and goals. Conducting a needs analysis (Cabinda, 2013) focusing on EAP students’ needs, wants and lacks (Hutchison & Waters, 1998), as well as a needs analysis on the teaching-learning process, are the steps which need to be taken towards an effective curriculum innovation (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001. The need for a new curriculum is within the need of incorporating new challenges "as curriculum renewal is an ongoing and never-ending process, adaptations and alteration will certainly be considered as time and needs change" (Yurekli, 2012: 66).

There is a need to produce teaching materials that enable students to be autonomous and which fit learners’ needs, learning styles, beliefs, attitudes, and reading strategies (Victori & Lockart, 1995; Hibbs, 2009; Hosenfeld, 2003; Kalaja, 2003; Cohen, 2000, Chawhan & Oliver, 2000). Teaching practice should consider the use of translation as a scaffolding teaching practice that is effective because it fits the students’ learning practice. When materials do not meet learner’s expectations and practice (Ker, 1995; Horwitz, 1985, 1999; Kalaja, 2003), teachers need to be able to use such materials in a way that enables students to understand the content, and that can be done through enjoyment, diversity and student involvement in the applied teaching methodology (Hutchinson & Waters, 1998; Dogancay-Aktuna, 2005). Moreover, translation has been shown to be a compensatory
strategy used in cases where readers encounter difficulties in processing the meaning of single words or textual passages. Although translation as a common compensatory strategy for learning seems to be effective, especially in lower English levels, or among students who are not efficient in strategic reading due to a lack of RSI in their L1 and L2, English should be used as the sole medium of instruction in ELT courses at UEM (Nhapulo, 2013). In fact, Mozambican English teachers (70%) and learners (50%) also believe that for ELT students, learning English through English itself is more effective than having classes that are taught in Portuguese (Nhapulo, 2013).

✓ English language learners develop their beliefs about language learning based on their learning experiences and such beliefs directly affect their performance and their learning outcomes. Understanding such beliefs helps in the adjustment of students’ attitudes (Benson & Lor, 1999). As Holec (1987) underlines, it helps teachers prepare their learners to be receptive to new ideas and information by “deconditioning” learners’ prejudices or mistaken beliefs that may cause resistance to some instructional approaches or activities (Vibulphol, 2004). Teacher training programs, like the ELT course at UEM, should put teachers in a position to shift negative beliefs about language teaching and learning so that they can be able to enable their future students to think positively about their learning process. This is due to the fact that negative beliefs are directly linked to teachers and learners’ performance in the classroom, and such beliefs have an influence on students’ learning outcomes and on teachers’ professional practice, while positive beliefs can compensate for learners’ limited abilities (Mori, 1999). This explains why “teachers need to consider to what extent the underlining principles of their chosen methodology will correspond with the set of assumptions that learners bring to the classroom” (Dogancay-Aktuna, 2005), because teachers’ classroom practices reflect their own beliefs: some with skill-based, rule-based or function-based theoretical beliefs, while others are authoritative or act like managers, seeing students as consumers and not producers in the classroom (Holec, 1987; Johnson, 1992, 1994).
In Chapter 1 (section 1.10) we have talked about some of the teacher selection processes undertaken a few years ago at UEM, and which are still used to date in some faculties. Teacher training programs and the evaluation of student teachers, content relevance, learner specific academic needs, and the learning environment have to be taken into consideration in designing a new curriculum. A more thorough input regarding curriculum innovation and Internal Quality Assurance (IQA) system at UEM may be found in Zavale et al. (2014; 2015). These authors looked at several internal aspects related to policies, resources (lecturers’ management, infrastructure, and learners), research and extension, and evaluation. Looking at that input there is a great deal to be done within faculties, departments and courses. Within the ELT Section, we can underline that there is a need to invest in teacher training/upgrading in order to guarantee quality in ELT teaching. For being good at EAP teaching, teachers need to be communicators, educators, evaluators, educated human beings and agents of socialization (Horwitz, 2008; Fillmore & Snow, 2002, cited in Adjer et al., 2002). According to these authors, there are several subjects EAP teachers need to make sure they master: language and linguistics, language and cultural diversity, sociolinguistics for education in a linguistically diverse society, language development, second/foreign language learning and teaching, the language of academic discourse, text analysis and language understanding in educational setting. Taking into consideration that Mozambique is not an English-speaking country, it is also necessary to make sure Mozambican EAP teachers know the structure of English and they are familiar with typical patterns and processes in second language acquisition. Moreover, since theories are linked to instructional design features, knowledge of syllabus design (where the ESP subject at UEM should be considered as compulsory and not optional as it is considered so far within the ELT course) will also enable teachers to implement it, always taking into consideration the current learner’s needs and developmental stage. It is from syllabus design that teachers will know syllabus objectives and specifications, types of activities, the role several elements like the teacher, the learner and the learning content...
play in the teaching and learning process (Hutchinson & Waters, 1998; Rodgers, 2001). English teaching also means knowing a bit more about students’ learning styles and strategies, the role of variables like motivation, beliefs, personality, proficiency, and the role the learning environment plays in the choice and use of language learning strategies among other issues which are in need of further research in the Mozambican second/foreign language learning context.

Finally, there is a need to share EAP/ESP/EFL research among practitioners, which means that publications, seminars, and workshops are among the means through which the ELT field can be improved in the whole country. Furthermore, the new curriculum has to challenge the problem found by Johnson (1994), which indicates that the way most teachers deal with the teaching practice reflects the beliefs and the practice they experienced during their formal learning. In fact, in a multicultural classroom, and in this changing globalized world, pedagogy will always need to reflect “the living hand of cultural tradition, including culturally specific learning style differences as well as the social, linguistic, and cognitive requirements of a future characterized by change and diversity” (Brislin & Yoshida, 1994: 123).

7.3.3 Recommendations for future research

Although the RSI treatment reported in the current study has positively influenced students’ reading skills, there is a need to conduct similar studies involving a larger number of learners and a longer period of time. Such future studies should also consider learners’ individual differences (e.g. anxiety, personality factors, learning styles, etc.) that may influence strategy use and the ultimate level of L2 attainment. Moreover, the existence of complementarities between ER and RSI, considering that skills and strategies learnt from RSI may be applied in and ER program, and vice-versa, indicates the need of a study in which both programs are simultaneously conducted in order to see how comprehension abilities are developed.
Further studies are necessary in the Mozambican context for exploring more deeply the relation between beliefs and individual differences, since beliefs may be derived from a group but their effect may be felt or seen in individuals' classroom involvement and achievements as well (Allen, 1996; Baiyinna, 2011; Scharlach, 2008; Kramsch, 2008). Teachers should provide students with reasons for learning that are consistent with students’ personal needs and goals (Cheng & Len, 2010), and not reasons that are solely linked to teachers’ teaching assumptions derived from their former (and sometimes outdated) learning experiences. This not only has to do with the teaching methodologies and beliefs that have an influence on their classroom teaching performance, but also regarding innovation in the materials used in their daily teaching activities (since research is not a static but a progressive process). In sum, future research in the Mozambican ELT context should deal with several current issues which contribute to innovations in the English language teaching and learning processes throughout the world such as the relation between extensive reading and intensive reading, aspects involved in second/foreign language reading comprehension (Bernhardt, 2011), the role of translation as a reading strategy especially in multilingual and foreign language contexts, the relation between extensive reading and reading comprehension, and the connection between an extensive reading program and a reading strategy instruction program. Several issues related to curriculum innovation, teaching methodology, the teaching and learning process in its complexity are still to be explored.

Since ER research in Study 2 (Chapter 5) involved an academic text for both the pre-test and post-test, research is needed to find out more about the relation between extensive reading and academic reading, so as to enable learners to use more effective strategies which are relevant not only for improving reading habits, but also for improving intensive and academic reading comprehension needed in their daily academic lives. Another route to be taken in future research has to do with the increasing types of ER. That is, it is also necessary to conduct studies in which the implementation of an ER program is evaluated together with an IR program. Apart from blended
extensive and intensive reading (EIR) programs, supervised and independent EIR programs need further research.

✔ Another aspect which is important and which needs to be researched thoroughly in the Mozambican context and in similar contexts has to do with the relation between RSI and ER. Hayashi (1999) conducted a study among Japanese students and found that involving reading strategy instruction in an ER program enables more reading skill enhancement than direct strategy instruction. Through the involvement of both RSI and ER, students get motivated to read and they also gain the ability to discover suitable strategies for their reading tasks on their own.

✔ The bilingual practice of using both the Portuguese and the English language in different ELT course’ subjects may have an impact on students’ future language skills and professional performance (Nhapulo, 2013). So, further studies should track these future teachers in their professional setting and see whether their professional and language skills (reading, speaking, listening and writing) are those expected for a Standard English teacher in the Mozambican education system. Another complementary step should be a comparative study in which ELT courses that are conducted exclusively in English are compared to the current “bilingual” ELT courses at UEM.

✔ Future research in the Mozambican context should also deal with RSI and ER in the students’ L1, which is mostly a Bantu language or Portuguese (for a minority of students born in urban areas) in order to evaluate the results and see whether such studies show equally positive results as in the current RSI and ER programs which involved a second/foreign language. That is, the RSI and ER programs in the current research were conducted in the students’ foreign language and not in the students’ L1. Therefore, it should be important to promote similar studies but involving Portuguese, which is the language in which most students start learning to read in Mozambique, and then compare results with the results of the current study, as well as with Cabinda (2014)’s study. Since English is the Mozambican students’ foreign language, it would be predicted that an ER or an RSI program involving the
Portuguese language would result in increased reading comprehension than in the current study results.

7.4 Contribution of the study

Firstly, the study is under the capacity building subproject at UEM, which explains why it focuses on new elements that could be taken into consideration when designing a new ELT curriculum at UEM. The input from this study directly contributes to programs aimed at improving reading comprehension, reading speed as well as promoting positive attitudes towards reading among Mozambican university students. The current study has shown that reading comprehension depends on beliefs and expectations about language learning and teaching, knowledge and use (in clusters) of reading comprehension strategies, L1-L2 similarities, but linked to the reader’s level of L2 language proficiency, reading speed (since fluency is linked to comprehension in terms of efficiency) and, finally, reading comprehension depends on the attitudes the readers have towards reading itself.

Secondly, the university students involved in this action research were able to deal with reading comprehension in a more effective way through strategy training and extensive reading programs. Since reading contributes to the improvement of other language skills (speaking, listening and writing skills), there was an improvement in foreign language acquisition in general among those students. Therefore, the benefits of this study are not only useful for Mozambican university students and teachers, especially at UEM, but also for Mozambican English language learners and readers in general.

Another relevant aspect which is detailed in Chapter 3 (section 3.3) is the fact that we have employed more than one method to evaluate reading proficiency: we have used several texts and we have involved many students with different academic backgrounds. This methodological procedure is considered as important in reading research because “multiple measures were rarely employed within individual studies over the past years” (Bernhardt, 2011: 120). The tools used in the current research can be applied in several similar contexts (a multilingual context where English is learnt as a foreign language), and similar and/or complementary results can be achieved.
Moreover, the results of the current study will enable curriculum designers to take into account its recommendations, especially regarding the teaching and learning processes of reading in general, in the context of EFL, ESL, ESP and EGP. In this sense, the study contributes to the development of the foreign language reading field. That is, from this study we have gained insight into the strategies used by Mozambican university students, some of which are the result of the multilingual context in which they are studying, as well as the type of abilities, thoughts and feelings they have gained as the result of their involvement in the reading programs conducted in this study. We have also understood that the use of compensatory/supply/support strategies does not result directly from the ER and RSI programs conducted within this study, but they result from past reading experiences which constitute the common strategy use among Mozambican readers. Looking at the field of second/foreign language reading within Applied Linguistics, we expect that this study will be useful for future studies related to reading strategies and extensive reading in Mozambique and in other multilingual and multicultural situations elsewhere.

The study draws some recommendations on the elements to be included in an ELT reading curriculum while, setting the ground for strategic classrooms which “foster the development of strategies which will help learners to manage the contextual complexities and achieve successful outcome given their personal language learning goals” (Cohen & Macaro, 2007: 92). The EAP curriculum that will be following this study’s recommendations will have to take into consideration the Mozambican situation, with the purpose of creating an environment in which foreign language learners (or good readers) are supported, where habits of reading for pleasure are promoted, where students and institutional goals are achieved and where strategic classrooms are successfully promoted.

In conclusion, the field of ESL/EFL is in a changing motion. It is therefore almost impossible to set final conclusions that fit all academic settings, although in the context of the current study some preliminary conclusions have been put forward. We hope that the current study has contributed to the scientific knowledge in the ESL/EFL field and that it may have been a contribution to current and future theoretical reflections on English language reading comprehension, especially in multilingual settings. Finally, we hope that further studies, as well as language policy and planning activities will take our recommendations into consideration.
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APPENDICES
Appendix 1

Revised Compensatory Model of Second-Language Reading

Performance Predictions (2010)

Source: Bernhardt (2011: 38)
Appendix 2

RSI Pre-test: "The Key"

1. Read the text “The Key” and choose the correct answer (a, b, c or d). Choose ONLY one answer for each question. Complete the questions entering your answers in the table provided.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
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*The Key*

She stood before us looking very composed as she gave us good morning. Sabri cleared his throat, and picking up the big key very delicately between finger and thumb – as if it were of the most fragility- put it down again on the edge of the desk nearest her with the air of a conjurer making his opening dispositions. “We are speaking about your house”, he said softly, in a voice ever so faintly curdled with menace. “Do you know that all the wood is…” he suddenly shouted the last word with such force that I nearly fell off my chair, “rotten”. And picking up the key he banged it down to emphasize the point.

The women threw her head with contempt and taking up the key also banged it down in her turn exclaiming: “It’s not”.

“It is” Sabri banged the key.

“It is not.” She banged it back.

“It is.” A bang.

“It is not.” A counter-bang.

All this was certainly not in an intellectual level, and made rather ill at ease. I also feared that the key would be banged out of shape so that finally none of us would be able to get into the house. But these were the opening chords, so to speak, the preliminary statement of the theme.

The woman now took the key and held it up as if she were swearing by it. “The house is a good house” she cried. Then she put it back on the desk. Sabri took it thoughtfully, blew into the end of it as if it were a six-shooter, aimed it and peered along it as if along a barrel. Then put it down and fell into an abstraction. “And suppose we wanted the house” he said “which we don’t, what would you ask for it?

“Eight million meticais”

Sabri gave a long and stagy laugh, wiping away imaginary tears and repeating “Eight million meticais” as if it were the best joke in the world. He laughed at me and I laughed at him, a dreadful false laugh. He slapped his knee. I rolled about in my chair as if on the verge of acute gastritis we laughed we were exhausted. Then we grew serious again. Sabri was still as fresh as a daisy, I could see that. He had put himself into the patient contemplative state of mind of a chess player.
“Take the key and go.” He snapped suddenly and, handing it to her, swirled around in his swirl chair to present her with his back; then as suddenly he completed the circuit and swivelled round again. “What” he said with surprise. “You haven’t gone.” In truth there had hardly been time for the woman to go. But she was somewhat slow-witted, though obstinate as a mule: that was clear. “Right” she now said in a ringing tone, and picking up the key put it into her bosom and turned about. She walked offstage in a somewhat lingering fashion. “Take no notice” whispered Sabri and busied himself with his papers. The woman stopped irresolutely outside the shop, and was here joined by her husband who began to talk to her in a low cringing voice, pleading with her. He took her by the sleeve and lead her unwillingly back into the shop where we sat pointedly reading letters. “Ah! It’s you,” said Sabri with well-simulated surprise. “She wishes to discuss some more” explained the cobbler in a weak conciliatory voice. Sabri sighed. “What is there to speak of? She takes me for a fool.” Then he suddenly turned to her and bellowed, “Seven million meticais and not a piastre more.” It was her turn to have a paroxysm of false laughter, but this was spoiled by her husband who started plucking at her sleeves as if he were persuading her to be sensitive. Sabri was not slow to notice this. “You tell her” he said to the man. “You are a man and these things are clear to you. Tell her what it is worth”.

Laurence Durrell

(*Bitter Lemons*, in *Proficiency in English Course*, The Bath Press)

(adapted)

Section 1

1. Another possible title for the test is
   A) Sabri and the woman
   B) The seller and the uneducated buyer
   C) The house
   D) The uneducated buyer and the innocent woman

2. The woman stopped irresolutely outside the shop because
   A) She wanted to go back into the shop and lower the price
   B) She did not know which step to take from then on
   C) She was so upset that she just wanted to go home
   D) She was so anxious that nothing could stop her from selling the house

3. The use of the word “fragility” in the text suggests that
   A) could easily be broken
   B) was very light in weight
   C) was very precious
4. Sabri shouted the word “rotten” in order to
A) Express his anger
B) Give intense emphasis
C) Terrify the woman
D) Terminate the argument

5. The writer felt “ill at ease” because
A) The proceedings seemed inappropriate to the occasion
B) He was afraid that the contestants would become violent
C) He felt that no progress was likely to be made
D) He was not accustomed to this stupidity

6. Sabri dismissed the woman because
A) He had had enough argument
B) He wanted to show his disgust at the suggested price
C) He wanted to give the impression that he had lost all interest in the sale
D) He wanted time to think the matter over

7. Why does the man bring the woman back
A) He has suggested some new argument for her
B) He was very anxious to sell the house
C) He is afraid she might have offended a potential buyer
D) He wants her to negotiate on his behalf.

8. The main message of this passage is
A) A psychological analysis of the people involved
B) An account of the successive stages involved in the purchase
C) Sabri’s technique in reducing the price of the house
D) A light-hearted study of bargaining technique in general.
Section 2
2. Vocabulary
Find words used in the text to replace the words in italics in the following sentences.

1. The magician stood among the crowd and ate a frog.
2. The way she talked to me showed that she has no respect.
3. The worst thing was that threatening voice that she had during the discussion.
4. Do not lean on that, it is going to move around and drop the glasses put on top of it.
5. She was so upset that she did not want to talk anymore, but he had to deal with it, unfortunately.

Section 3
3. Complete the paragraph using the following words: obstinate, menace, lingering, pluck and pleading.
I am________________for your comprehension, I am not a duck and please don’t ________________ my hair because that is a _______________ to my health and the way you are taking time doing that, or else, ________________, I am going to end up finishing your _________________ resistance by calling my husband.

Section 4
4. What can we summarise about Sabri’s behaviour?
The woman’s behaviour?

The End
Appendix 3

RSI Post-test: "Lessons from The Titanic"

Section 1

Read the text carefully and answer the questions that follow. Only one choice is possible for each question.

From the comfort of our modern lives we tend to look back at the turn of the twentieth century as a dangerous time for sea travellers. With limited communication facilities, and shipping technology still in its infancy in the early nineteen hundreds, we consider ocean travel to have been a risky business. But to the people of the time it was one of the safest forms of transport. At the time of the Titanic’s maiden voyage in 1912, there had only been four lives lost in the previous forty years on passenger ships on the North Atlantic crossing. And the Titanic was confidently proclaimed to be unsinkable. She represented the pinnacle of technological advance at the time. Her builders, crew and passengers had no doubt that she was the finest ship ever built. But still she did sink on April 14, 1912, taking 1,517 of her passengers and crew with her.

The RMS Titanic left Southampton for New York on April 10, 1912. On board were some of the richest and most famous people of the time who had paid large sums of money to sail on the first voyage of the most luxurious ship in the world. Imagine her placed on her end: she was larger at 269 metres than many of the tallest buildings of the day. And with nine decks, she was as high as an eleven storey building. The Titanic carried 329 first class, 285 second class and 710 third class passengers with 899 crew members, under the care of the very experienced Captain Edward J. Smith. She also carried enough food to feed a small town, including 40,000 fresh eggs, 36,000 apples, 111,000 lbs of fresh meat and 2,200 lbs of coffee for the five day journey.
RMS Titanic was believed to be unsinkable because the hull was divided into sixteen watertight compartments. Even if two of these compartments flooded, the ship could still float. The ship’s owners could not imagine that, in the case of an accident, the Titanic would not be able to float until she was rescued. It was largely as a result of this confidence in the ship and in the safety of ocean travel that the disaster could claim such a great loss of life.

In the ten hours prior to the Titanic’s fatal collision with an iceberg at 11.40pm, six warnings of icebergs in her path were received by the Titanic's wireless operators. Only one of these messages was formally posted on the bridge; the others were in various locations across the ship. If the combined information in these messages of iceberg positions had been plotted, the ice field which lay across the Titanic’s path would have been apparent. Instead, the lack of formal procedures for dealing with information from a relatively new piece of technology, the wireless, meant that the danger was not known until too late. This was not the fault of the Titanic crew. Procedures for dealing with warnings received through the wireless had not been formalised across the shipping industry at the time. The fact that the wireless operators were not even Titanic crew, but rather contracted workers from a wireless company, made their role in the ship’s operation quite unclear.

Captain Smith’s seemingly casual attitude in increasing the speed on this day to a dangerous 22 knots or 41 kilometres per hour, can then be partly explained by his ignorance of what lay ahead. But this only partly accounts for his actions, since the spring weather in Greenland was known to cause huge chunks of ice to break off from the glaciers. Captain Smith knew that these icebergs would float southward and had already acknowledged this danger by taking a more southerly route than at other times of the year. So why was the Titanic travelling at high speed when he knew, if not of the specific risk, at least of the general risk of icebergs in her path? As with the lack of coordination of the wireless messages, it was simply standard operating procedure at the time. Captain Smith was following the practices accepted on the North Atlantic, practices which had coincided with forty years of safe travel. He believed, wrongly as we now know, that the ship could turn or stop in time if an iceberg was sighted by the lookouts.

There were around two and a half hours between the time the Titanic rammed into the iceberg and its final submersion. In this time 705 people were loaded into the twenty
lifeboats. There were 473 empty seats available on lifeboats while over 1,500 people drowned. These figures raise two important issues. Firstly, why there were not enough lifeboats to seat every passenger and crew member on board. And secondly, why the lifeboats were not full.

The Titanic had sixteen lifeboats and four collapsible boats which could carry just over half the number of people on board her maiden voyage and only a third of the Titanic’s total capacity. Regulations for the number of lifeboats required were based on outdated British Board of Trade regulations written in 1894 for ships a quarter of the Titanic’s size, and had never been revised. Under these requirements, the Titanic was only obliged to carry enough lifeboats to seat 962 people. At design meetings in 1910, the shipyard’s managing director, Alexander Carlisle, had proposed that forty eight lifeboats be installed on the Titanic, but the idea had been quickly rejected as too expensive. Discussion then turned to the ship’s décor, and as Carlisle later described the incident … ‘we spent two hours discussing carpet for the first class cabins and fifteen minutes discussing lifeboats’.

The belief that the Titanic was unsinkable was so strong that passengers and crew alike clung to the belief even as she was actually sinking. This attitude was not helped by Captain Smith, who had not acquainted his senior officers with the full situation. For the first hour after the collision, the majority of people aboard the Titanic, including senior crew, were not aware that she would sink, that there were insufficient lifeboats or that the nearest ship responding to the Titanic’s distress calls would arrive two hours after she was on the bottom of the ocean. As a result, the officers in charge of loading the boats received a very halfhearted response to their early calls for women and children to board the lifeboats. People felt that they would be safer, and certainly warmer, aboard the Titanic than perched in a little boat in the North Atlantic Ocean. Not realising the magnitude of the impending disaster themselves, the officers allowed several boats to be lowered only half full.

Procedures again were at fault, as an additional reason for the officers’ reluctance to lower the lifeboats at full capacity was that they feared the lifeboats would buckle under the weight of 65 people. They had not been informed that the lifeboats had been fully tested prior to departure. Such procedures as assigning passengers and crew to lifeboats and lifeboat
loading drills were simply not part of the standard operation of ships nor were they included in crew training at this time.

As the Titanic sank, another ship, believed to have been the Californian, was seen motionless less than twenty miles away. The ship failed to respond to the Titanic’s eight distress rockets. Although the officers of the Californian tried to signal the Titanic with their flashing Morse lamp, they did not wake up their radio operator to listen for a distress call. At this time, communication at sea through wireless was new and the benefits not well appreciated, so the wireless on ships was often not operated around the clock. In the case of the Californian, the wireless operator slept unaware while 1,500 Titanic passengers and crew drowned only a few miles away.

After the Titanic sank, investigations were held in both Washington and London. In the end, both inquiries decided that no one could be blamed for the sinking. However, they did address the fundamental safety issues which had contributed to the enormous loss of life. As a result, international agreements were drawn up to improve safety procedures at sea. The new regulations covered 24 hour wireless operation, crew training, proper lifeboat drills, lifeboat capacity for all on board and the creation of an international ice patrol.

IELTS.Exam.net. Lesson from the Titanic. Available at <http://www.ielts-exam.net/preparing/Sample_reading_text/222/>

Section 1

1. The twentieth century as a dangerous time for sea travellers because:

a) There were limited facilities, and shipping technology was still in its most advanced stage.

b) Shipping technology was still in its ingenuous stage and communication was advanced.

c) Shipping technology was still in its ingenuous stage and there were limited communication facilities.

d) Sailing on the first voyage of the most luxurious ship in the world was exciting.
2. Titanic was big and She was the most luxurious ship in the world because:

a) She than many of the tallest buildings.

b) The Titanic carried 329 first class, 285 second class and 710 third class passengers with 899 crew members and people paid large sums of money to sail on it.

c) The Titanic was larger than 269 metres.

d) She carried enough food to feed a small town.

3. The so-called unsinkable Titanic sank because:

a) She floated after she knocked on the iceberg.

b) Shipping technology was still in its ingenuous stage and communication was advanced.

b) Everybody believed that She was unsinkable or that she could be easily rescued.

d) She had sixteen watertight compartments which offered safety during the shipwreck.

4. The Titanic’s fatal collision with an iceberg at 11.40pm was caused by:

a) Lack of prudence and lack of formal procedures for dealing with information from wireless.

b) Six warnings of icebergs in the RMS Titanic's path were received by the Titanic's wireless operators.

b) Procedures for dealing with warnings received through the wireless had been formalised across the shipping industry at the time.

d) The wireless operators were not even Titanic crew.

5. One of the reasons why Captain Smith increased the speed on this day to a dangerous 22 knots or 41 kilometres per hour is:

a) His ignorance of what lay ahead and the current practices accepted on the North Atlantic.

b) He believed, wrongly as we now know, that the ship could turn or stop in time if an iceberg was sighted by the lookouts.

c) Captain Smith knew that these icebergs would float southward and had already acknowledged this danger.

d) Captain Smith was following the practices accepted on the North Atlantic.
6. There were around two and a half hours between the time the Titanic rammed into the iceberg and its final submersion. During this time:

a) 1,500 people were loaded into the 705 lifeboats.

b) There were enough lifeboats to seat every passenger and crew member on board.

c) 473 people were loaded into 1,500 lifeboats.

c) 705 people were loaded into the sixteen lifeboats and four collapsible boats.

7. The recommended number of lifeboats in the Titanic was:

a) 48.     b) 1910.

c) 962.   d) 1894.

8. Lifeboats were loaded only half full because:

a) Only women and children were allowed to board the lifeboats and the officers were reluctant to lower the lifeboats at full capacity.

b) The officers in charge of loading the boats did not want man to board the lifeboats.

c) The crew and seniors officers believed that the Titanic was unsinkable and most people did not want to be perched in little boats.

d) The lifeboats would have buckled if they had been fully loaded.

9. Californian, was the ship seen motionless less than twenty miles away, but it did not rescue the Titanic because:

a) Californian arrived two hours after the Titanic has sunk.

b) The Californian operators did not wake up their radio operator to listen for a distress call.

c) Wireless was new and the benefits well appreciated.

d) The ship failed to respond to the Titanic’s eight distress rockets and communication at sea was operating efficiently.

10. What is true about the sinking of Titanic?

a) The sinking of the Titanic prompted an overhaul of standard operating procedures which made ocean travel much safer.

b) The sinking of the Titanic enabled the improvements in the use of wireless and lifeboats.

c) The sinking of the Titanic was to blame on the crew and the Californian.
d) The sinking of the Titanic was an accident that could not have been avoided.

Section 2
1. Complete the summary below. Choose your answers from the words below. There are more words than spaces so you will not use them all. You may use any of the words more than once.

Passengers; happy; float; advanced; lifeboats; confident; dangers; ocean; worried; inadequate; enormous; excitement; fast; handbook; water; float; record; fast; procedures; orders; drown; size; sink; safety.

The Finest Ship Ever Built
The North Atlantic Ocean crossing on the Titanic was expected to set a new standard for ______________ travel in terms of comfort and __________. The shipping industry had an excellent safety ______________ on the North Atlantic Crossing over the previous forty years and the Titanic was the finest and safest liner ever built. The Titanic combined the greatest technology of the day with sheer ______________, luxury and new safety features. The Titanic’s owners were ______________ that even if the Titanic were letting in _____________ she would ______________ indefinitely until help arrived. In hindsight we know that the Titanic was not unsinkable and that technology alone could not save lives when facilities were ______________ and humans did not follow safe ______________ whether because of arrogance or ignorance.

Section 3
2. Write a small composition, summarizing all the reasons that lead to the Titanic’s sinking.
Appendix 4

**Reading Strategies Instruction Manual**

**Course Aims:**
- To enable students to become efficient, active and critical readers;
- To enable students to think on their reading practice;
- To improve students’ academic reading strategies, developing strategic readers.

**Course Duration:** 10 weeks – 2hrs/week

**Evaluation:** Pre-test and post-test

**NB:** during the 10 weeks, students will be given reading exercises, so that they can practise reading strategies’ use in the classroom.

1. **Introduction**

Here you are at the outset of what will hopefully be a successful at university, in your Masters or PhD programs. A major part of your studies will of course involve not only listening to formal English, for example in lectures, but also reading substantial quantities of text (textbooks, articles, essays, novels, plays and so on).

During this course you will be encouraged to examine critically the ways in which you tackle different kinds of texts with a range of purposes in mind. In particular, the RSI course aims to:

- Introduce you to critical reading skills such as skimming, scanning, reading for gist and for detail.
- Equip you with tools to approach different text types efficiently. These texts will include:
o Informative texts - here you will consider facts, dates, statistics;
o Research texts - raising issues of authorship, citation, sources;
o Literary texts - enabling you to understanding critical discussion of literary style and language;
o Texts with significant subtexts - recognizing irony, exaggeration, understatement.

As we consider these genres, you will be encouraged to match the way in which you read a text to what you want to get out of it. Given the considerable challenge ahead of you of reading, understanding and evaluating substantial amounts of information, theory and opinion, it makes sense to get into the right kinds of habits sooner rather than later. To this end, it therefore makes sense to give some thought to the activity of reading itself, and in particular, to think about your present reading habits.

2. The Active Reader

A reader needs to be confident and take matters into his/her own hands so to speak and reads actively rather than passively. Think about the way in which you would usually tackle an academic text (an essay, book chapter, an article on the internet) and compare your thoughts to the following points. The active reader:

- will deal with the text on his/her own terms. S/he will not wait for the book to gradually reveal its secrets, but will ask questions of the text and try to anticipate the direction(s) it will take.
- instead of getting bogged down by a dense, difficult passage, will try to get a sense of the wider perspective - and this will often provide the key to understanding the difficult details.
- will tailor his/her reading approach and speed according to the purpose and the kind of text in question.
- will compare what the book has to offer with what s/he already knows.


Cause and effect; classification; comparison; contrast; definition; description; narrative sequence of events; problem and solution; procedures.
4. Be Flexible - Vary Your Reading Rate

Good readers are flexible in their reading approach changing the speed and concentration of the reading according to the reading purpose. Good readers are flexible in their reading attack, and well-trained readers have the capacity to adjust their speed to the material. Reading speeds will also be influenced by the nature and difficulty of the material and the amount of previous experience you have had with the subject.

Base your rate adjustment on:

- Your purpose. What do you want to get from the material?
- The nature and difficulty of the material.
- The amount of previous experience you have had with this subject.

**Your reading purpose:** Circumstances will determine why you are reading and how much you have to get out of your reading. For example, a chapter may have been assigned in class, or you may be gathering material for a speech, or you may need to develop a critical analysis of a passage from Shakespeare. Be conscious, not only of these general purposes, but also of your specific purposes while reading each section of the assignment.

The reading purpose will vary according to circumstances. For example your reading of a Shakespeare sonnet in preparation for an essay on the poem will be a much more detailed and concentrated process than, say, scanning through a textbook for a specific piece of information; trying to understand a complex theory that is new to you will involve a reading pace that is more moderate than it would be if you already had a firm grounding in the area. Here then are some of the main purposes we might have in our reading:

- To "get the gist," read very rapidly;
- To understand general ideas, read fairly rapidly;
- To get and retain detailed facts, read at a moderate rate;
- To locate specific information, skim or scan at a rapid rate;
- To determine value of material, skim at a very rapid rate;
- To pre-read or post-read, scan at a fairly rapid rate;
- To read for enjoyment, read rapidly or slowly, depending on what you want;
- To build general background, read rapidly.
**Note taking and difficulty of material:** Reading involves an overall adjustment in rate to match your thinking ability. Obviously, overall level of difficulty depends on who's doing the reading. While Einstein's theories may be extremely difficult to most laymen, they may be very simple and clear to a professor of physics. Hence, the laypeople and the physics professor must make different overall adjustments in rate of reading the same material. For most of us, **taking notes while reading** helps us to find out what's there, get the overall picture, and fill in the details without becoming lost. General reading which is difficult for you will require a slower rate; simpler material will permit a faster rate.

**Decrease speed** when you find the following:

a) **An unfamiliar word not made clear by the sentence:** try to understand it from the way it's used; then read on and return to it later. You may wish to underline the word so you can find it again quickly.

b) **Long and uninvolved sentence and paragraph structure:** slow down enough to enable you to untangle them and get an accurate idea of what the passage says.

c) **Unfamiliar or abstract ideas:** look for applications or examples which will give them meaning. Demand that an idea "make sense." Never give up until you understand, because it will be that much easier the next time. Find someone to help you if necessary.

d) **Detailed, technical material:** this includes complicated directions, abstract principles, materials on which you have scant background.

e) **Material on which you want detailed retention:** he key to memory is organization and recitation. Speed should not be a consideration here.

**Increase speed** when you find the following:

a) **Simple material with few ideas new to you:** move rapidly over the familiar; spend most of your time on the few unfamiliar ideas.

b) **Unnecessary examples and illustrations:** these are included to clarify ideas. If not needed, move over them rapidly.

c) **Unnecessary details:** detailed explanation and elaboration which you do not need.

d) **Broad, generalized ideas:** these can be rapidly grasped, even with scan techniques.
Skip that material which is not suitable for your purpose: while the author may have thought particular information was relevant, his/her reason for writing was not necessarily the same as your reason for reading. You must practise these techniques until a flexible reading rate becomes second nature to you.


5. Getting to Know Your Textbook
a) Examine the title page:
- Who are the authors?
- What is their standing in their fields? (Perhaps you can ask your teacher)
- Do their training and background qualify them to write a book of this type?
- Who are the publishers?
- When was the textbook published? What does that tell you about the book?

b) Examine the preface or introduction:
- Why is a preface written?
- What does it tell you about the book?
- Do the authors introduce any unusual features of your book in the preface and prepare you to be on the lookout for them?

c) Examine the table of contents:
- What does the table of contents tell?
- How is the textbook organized? What main division has?
- Compare the table of contents with that of another book in the same field. Do the two books cover the same topics? Are these the topics you expected to find covered in this text?

d) Examine index, glossary and other material at the back of the book:
- How does the index differ from the table of contents? How does it resemble the table of contents?
- What sort of topics should be looked up in the index instead of the table of contents?
What are cross references?

Is there a glossary in your textbook? Can you use diacritical markings successfully to pronounce a word?

Is there an appendix in your book? Why isn't this information included in the body of the book? How would it have affected the organization?

What is the literal meaning of "index" according to the dictionary?

e) Examine study questions, guides, and other aids to understanding:

Does the text provide study aids to help in understanding the text?

Are the study aids in the form of questions, exercises, or activities?

If questions are used, do they simply require finding the answers or must you do some critical problem-type thinking to arrive at answers?

Are there study aids both preceding and following a chapter? Which types of aids help you most?

Does the text provide suggestions for other readings or materials designed to help you understand this chapter?

f) Examine chapter headings, sectional headings, and margin guides:

Look at the chapter heading and then the section headings that follow. Write them down and see if this gives an overview of the chapter.

How do headings help in skimming a chapter for specific information?

Do you find different kinds of type in your chapter? Does this help you understand the organization of your textbook better? How?

Does the text provide help in identifying material to be found within each paragraph? Is the topic sentence indicated?

Does the book use summaries? How do these help? What is the difference between giving the gist of a chapter and summarizing its contents?

g) Examine maps, pictures, charts, diagrams, and tables:

Which of these visual aids is used? Do you understand them?


<http://www.dartmouth.edu/~acskills/success/reading.html>
6. Critical Reading Strategies

This is one of the most difficult of reading skills to acquire, especially when starting out on university education. One can be forgiven for feeling a little daunted, not only by the quantity of reading that must be done, but also by the learning and eloquence of those whom we read. The first step to becoming a critical reader is to get into the habit of asking questions of the text, and not simply accepting the ideas we come across at face value. Over time and with practice you should be able to recognise gaps or weaknesses in a writer’s arguments compare a text with others that cover the same area, begin to form your own position on a particular issue. Developing a sense of how persuasive a piece of writing is will also help you to develop as a critical writer. If you are used to asking certain critical questions, you will begin to address similar questions in your own work.

6.1 Critical Reading Checklist

The checklist below provides a number of useful questions that you might address to the text you are reading. The questions on this checklist are designed as a guide to the process of reading academic texts critically and analytically. You can apply these questions to most academic texts

- What is the author's approach/perspective?
- Is there another theoretical or philosophical approach which might have been taken?
- Who/what is left out of the text?
- Does the author write from an insider's/outsider's perspective? How does this effect what is included/excluded from the text?
- Do you agree with the points the author is making?
- Are the points made by the author supported by evidence?
- Is the evidence anecdotal or is the evidence the result of scientific study/research?
- Is the evidence referenced? Is it recent?
- Does the writer present opinion as fact?
- Does the writer use valid reasoning?
- Are any assumptions the writer has made clear to the reader?
- Does the writer oversimplify complex ideas?
- Does the writer make unsupported generalisations?
• Does the writer make reasonable inferences?
• Does the writer represent the ideas of others accurately? Fairly?
• Does the writer distort the ideas of others or present them out of context?
• Does the writer use unfair persuasion tactics such as appeals to prejudice or fear?
• Does the writer present a balanced picture of the issue?
• How would you characterise the writer's tone? How does the tone affect your response to the text?
• Does the writer's language, tone, or choice of examples reveal any biases? If so, do the writer's biases reduce his or her credibility?
• Do your reactions reveal biases in your own thinking?

In sum,
Previewing, contextualizing, questioning, reflecting, outlining and summarizing, evaluating an argument, and comparing and contrasting related readings.


7. Good language Learner
There are two theories which emerged as the result of research conducted on the interpretive thinking and strategic actions of good readers. These are the “Constructively Responsive Reader Model” (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995) and the “Good Strategy User Model” (Almasi, 2003). According to Brown (2008: 539), “both theories depict the knowledge and strategic resources that capable readers rely upon when reading”.

Generally speaking, good readers:
• have a good will and they are accurate guessers;
• they are good at communication; they are often uninhibited;
• they are not afraid of making mistakes;
• always focus on form by looking for patterns and analysing;
• always find opportunities for language practice;
• they monitor their speech as well as that of others, while paying attention to meaning;
they attend to whether his or her performance meets the standards they have learned;

they have good self-image and confidence;

they have good academic skills and enjoy grammar exercises;

positive self-talk, practice and partaking in communication situations are also pointed as the means through which good L2 learners face inhibition (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

make connections and inferences based on background knowledge, and this enables them to understand what they are reading, since they are associating the new information with what they have in their long-term memory;

make predictions (of what happens next) while reading. This is part of the analytical and deductive top-down models which will be explored below;

visualize text content through mental images of what s/he is reading. This has to do with making mental images of descriptive passages in order to find out what is not clearly provided by the author and here background knowledge is also important;

make questions for monitoring comprehension strategically throughout the text. Also, as readers make questions, they stay motivated to read throughout the text in order to find the answers of questions they pose while reading;

use structures like comparison-contrast and cause-effect to summarize important information;

enact problem-solving and clarifying strategies like rereading and guessing meaning of new words through context;

For good readers to have these abilities they do not depend only on the language proficiency level they have, but also they depend on explicit instruction which enables them to deal with more complex and highly demanding textual passages.
8. The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach - CALLA Model

The model has six steps:

1. *preparation* (teacher identifies students’ current learning strategies for familiar tasks);
2. *presentation* (teacher models, names, explains whether and how a new strategy is used);
3. *practice* (students practise new strategy);
4. *self-evaluation* (students evaluate their own strategy use immediately after practice);
5. *expansion* (students transfer strategies to new tasks, combine strategies into clusters, develop repertoire of preferred strategies);

(Chamot & O’Malley, 1994; Chamot et al., 1999; Chamot, 2005)

9. Common Strategies Used by Skilled Readers

Specifying a purpose for reading
Planning what to do/what steps to take
Previewing the text
Predicting the contents of the text or section of text
Checking predictions
Posing questions about the text
Finding answers to posed questions
Connecting text to background knowledge
Summarising information
Making inferences
Connecting one part of the text to another
Paying attention to text structure
Rereading
Guessing the meaning of a new word from context
Using discourse markers to see relationships
Checking comprehension
Identifying difficulties
Taking steps to repair faulty comprehension
Critiquing the author
Critiquing the text
Judging how well objectives were met
Reflecting on what has been learned from the text


**10. Fluent Reading comprehension**
Reading is a rapid, an efficient, an interactive, a strategic, a flexible, an evaluating, a purposeful, a comprehension, a learning and linguistic process.


Rereading and extensive reading can also promote fluency.


**11. Practicing Reading Strategies**
a) **Reading:** reading a text and commenting on the strategies used while reading.

b) **Are You a Passive or an Active Reader?**
Do you:
- Wait for the text to gradually reveal its secrets?
- Ask questions / predict the content before you start reading?
- Get slowed down by denser, difficult passages?
- Consider the context and perspective of the author?
- Adapt your approach and speed according to the purpose and the kind of text in question?
- Get distracted by vocabulary you don’t understand?
- Compare what the book has to offer with what you already know / common sense?

c) **Learn to Read Actively**

**Step 1: Context**
Consider the context of the text. What general knowledge do you already have?
What key word from the title do you need to understand in order to read the article?

**Step 2: Predict**
According to the title of the text:
What do you think the text is about?
Predict as much information as possible about the subject domain, genre, register, content and opinions which might be expressed in the text.

**Step 3: Read for Gist**

Skimming for main ideas: quickly read titles, subtitles and first and last sentences to get the gist of a text;
Scanning: rapidly reading sections to locate key sentences or words.

**Step 4: Reading for Detail**

To get more information required for answering questions about the text.

d) Vocabulary

Putting vocabulary into sentences
Guessing the meaning from the context of appearance
Choosing the correct word among many words

**12. Signal Words**

They enable the reader to predict rhetorical structure, to comprehend it and to reread the text.

William & Fredericka (2002: 223)

**13. Pre-reading, Reading and Post-reading strategies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Pre-reading</th>
<th>Reading</th>
<th>Post-reading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Establishing a good physical environment</td>
<td>Checking comprehension throughout the reading activity</td>
<td>Appreciation of text and writer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Setting reading purpose</td>
<td>Identifying the main idea</td>
<td>Revising pre-reading expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Accessing prior knowledge</td>
<td>Making inferences</td>
<td>Review notes, glosses, text markings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Asking questions based on the article</td>
<td>Recognising patterns in the text structure</td>
<td>Reflect on text understanding</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Semantic mapping</td>
<td>Looking for discourse makers</td>
<td>Consolidate and integrate information</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Skimming for general idea</td>
<td>Monitoring vocabulary knowledge</td>
<td>Review of information</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Previewing the text; examining headings; pictures, title, etc.</td>
<td>Predicting the main idea in each paragraph</td>
<td>Elaborate and evaluate</td>
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<td>Reviewing instructions</td>
<td>Glossing</td>
<td>Determine what additional information is needed</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Identifying text structure and genre</td>
<td>Comparing what is read and what is known</td>
<td>Apply new information to the task at hand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Determining what is known about the topic</td>
<td>Evaluating value of what is being learned</td>
<td>Relate the text to own experience</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
14. Different Stages in the Use of Reading Strategies

**Pre-reading Strategies**

1. *Previewing or surveying:* advance looking at text to see its layout, illustrations, etc.
2. *Activating schema knowledge:* getting ready to read by using what is already known
3. *Predicting content:* anticipating possible content of text
4. *Scanning for highlighted words or expressions:* looking for highlighted words and expressions
5. *Skimming:* quickly reading a passage to get the main ideas, then go back to read.

**While-reading Strategies**

6. *Self-questioning:* asking questions about text
7. *Self-monitoring:* self-checking comprehension
8. *Focusing on meaning, not form:* paying attention to meaning, rather than form
9. *Relating meaning to what is already known:* connecting what is read with what is known
10. *Word recognition:* associating words with their synonyms and antonyms; associating new word sounds with known word sounds.
11. *Reviewing main ideas after each “chunk” of reading:* summarizing main ideas.

12. Asking how the main idea or purpose is related to previous paragraph: looking for logical relationships between paragraphs

13. Using context to make inferences of the unknown words/expressions: guessing the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary items through contextual clues

14. Identifying main ideas and supporting details: looking for relationships between main ideas (topic sentences) and details

15. Identifying organizational patterns of text: looking for the organizational aspects of text in terms of its typical structure (e.g. cause–effect, compare/contrast, etc.

**Post-reading Strategies**

16. Evaluating reading: examining how well the text is understood

17. Giving personal response: making critical/personal comments on the text

18. Reviewing to summarize text meanings: reading text again to summarize text meanings

19. Checking effectiveness in strategy use: reflecting on how effectively a strategy was used

20. Review notes, glosses, text markings: checking notes as well as all sorts of marks made while reading

Grabe & Stoller (2002)
Appendix 5

Exit Questionnaire: Reading Strategy Instruction

This questionnaire is under the “Effective Reading Strategies in English for Academic Purposes” study conducted by Marcos Nhapolu at UEM. This questionnaire is only to help you to reflect about your own reading strategies after the reading program in which you were involved. We will not use your details and contacts without your kind permission and agreement.

1. Rank your fluency in Reading in English language from 1 to 5. ______________

2. Do you have any written stories, poems, etc. that you would like to publish? What do you write?
_____________________________________________________________________________

3. Did you know which strategy you were using whenever you were using it/them?
_____________________________________________________________________________

4. When you find unknown words in a text, what do you usually do?
_____________________________________________________________________________

5. Imagine that you are reading a text for answering test questions. What do you do just after reading a text and before answering the test questions?
_____________________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________________
6. What did you use as clues when answering comprehension questions?
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

7. What do exactly you do while you are reading a text?
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

8. Reading and sharing can improve your speaking, listening and writing skills. True?
________________________________________________________________________

9. What do you think could be the benefits of reading in your language learning?
________________________________________________________________________

10. Below are different Reading strategies. According to your strategy use, rank them from 1 to 5:
1 Never  2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Often 5 Always.

**Pre-reading Strategies**

1. *Previewing or surveying:* advance looking at text to see its layout, illustrations, etc.
2. *Activating schema knowledge:* getting ready to read by using what is already known
3. *Predicting content:* anticipating possible content of text
4. *Scanning for highlighted words or expressions:* looking for highlighted words and expressions
5. *Skimming:* quickly reading a passage to get the main ideas, then go back to read.

**While-reading Strategies**

6. *Self-questioning:* asking questions about text
7. **Self-monitoring:** self-checking comprehension

8. **Focusing on meaning, not form:** paying attention to meaning, rather than form

9. **Relating meaning to what is already known:** connecting what is read with what is known

10. **Word recognition:** associating words with their synonyms and antonyms; associating new word sounds with known word sounds.

11. **Reviewing main ideas after each “chunk” of reading:** summarizing main ideas.

12. **Asking how the main idea or purpose is related to previous paragraph:** looking for logical relationships between paragraphs

13. **Using context to make inferences of the unknown words/expressions:** guessing the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary items through contextual clues

14. **Identifying main ideas and supporting details:** looking for relationships between main ideas (topic sentences) and details

15. **Identifying organizational patterns of text:** looking for the organizational aspects of text in terms of its typical structure (e.g. cause–effect, compare/contrast, etc.

**Post-reading Strategies**

16. **Evaluating reading:** examining how well the text is understood

17. **Giving personal response:** making critical/personal comments on the text
18. Reviewing to summarize text meanings:  reading text again to summarize text meanings

19. Checking effectiveness in strategy use: reflecting on how effectively a strategy was used

20. Review notes, glosses, text markings: checking notes as well as all sorts of marks made while reading

1. Which readings do you like, novels, poetry or another type?

2. What are the difficulties you normally found while reading texts? Is there a difference in terms of reading skills you had before and after the three months?

3. What do you think could be the benefits of belonging to a reading group?

4. Please, fill in your details for future contact and/or reference
   Name: ___________________________ Age ___________________________
   English Level: _____________________________
   University/School: _____________________________
   Contact: __________________ Email: ______________________________
   Participant’s Signature: ____________________________
   Date: _____________________________

The End
Appendix 6

Exit Questionnaire Results: Strategy Use

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<th>Sometimes</th>
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Appendix 7

The Godfather: Reading Speed Test 1

Chapter 1 - Wedding on Long Island

On the last Saturday in August, 1945, Miss Constanzia Corleone, daughter of Don Vito Corleone, married Carlo Rizzi. Her father had invited hundreds of people to the wedding at his huge house on Long Island, just outside New York. As the guests arrived, Don Corleone welcomed them all, rich and poor, with an equal show of love. Many of the guests had reason to be grateful to Don Corleone for their good luck in life, and they called him 'Godfather' to his face. Standing next to him as he welcomed the guests were two of his three sons, Santino - or Sonny, as he was called — was the eldest. He was a tall, strong, good-looking man with thick brown hair. He looked uncomfortable in his white shirt and black suit. The second son, Fredo, was completely different. He was weak-looking and pale, with sad dark eyes and thin lips.

The youngest son, Michael, was sitting at a table in the corner of the garden with his girlfriend, Kay. There was a gentle, innocent quality to him, with his soft dark eyes and full lips, but his army uniform suggested that this was not a weak man. Just a quiet one. He was embarrassed by all the singing and dancing, but he was quietly pleased that Kay was enjoying herself. This was the first time that she had met his family.

* Godfather: the head of an important family in the Mafia, which is a secret group of criminals. It is used here as a title of great respect.

Puzo (1998: 5)
Appendix 8

The Godfather: Reading Speed Test 2

Chapter 1 - Wedding on Long Island

'Who's that funny little fat man over there?' she asked, her eyes shining with excitement. 'He looks about sixty years old but he's dancing like a teenager.'

'That's Pete Clemenza,' Michael said. 'He's an old friend of my father's.'

'And what about him?' Kay looked at a large, ugly man who was sitting alone outside the house, talking to himself. 'He's very frightening.'

'That's Luca Brasi,' Michael smiled at Kay. 'He's waiting to speak to my father in private.'

'Yes, but who is he?' 'He helps my father sometimes,' Michael replied quietly, looking at his food.

Suddenly, the big man stood up and Kay looked away quickly, afraid that he was coming over to talk to her. But another man came up to the table instead. He had thin fair hair and blue eyes. Michael stood up and the two men hugged each other warmly.

'My brother, Tom Hagen, this is Kay Adams,' Michael finally said.

Tom Hagen shook Kay's hand, then whispered to Michael: 'My father wants to know why you don't go to see him.'

Michael sat down without speaking, and Tom walked away into the house, followed by Luca Brasi.

'If he's your brother, why does he have a different name?' Kay asked Michael when Tom had gone.

Puzo (1998: 5-6)
Appendix 9

Extensive Reading Pre-test and Post-test
The following text is an extract from John Macalister’s article ‘Integrating Extensive reading into an English for Academic Purposes Program.’ Read the text then answer the multiple choice questions entering your answers in the table below. Unclear answers will be marked as incorrect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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</thead>
</table>

Ever since the classic Fijian ‘book flood’ reports (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981, 1983), there has been a growing body of research to support the use of extensive reading in the language classroom. The claim is that through readings lots of easy, enjoyable books learners will have better language learning outcomes. The impact of extensive reading on different skill areas including listening, reading comprehension and speed, writing, vocabulary, examination performance and attitudes to reading in the target language has been well documented (Bell, 2001; Cho & Krashen, 1994; Hafiz & Tudor, 1989; Janopoulos, 1986; Mason & Krashen, 1997; Pitts, White, & Krashen, 1989; Robb & Susser, 1989; Tsang, 1996).

Yet there is a dilemma. As Grabe (1995, p. 44) pointed out, ‘We learn to read by reading a lot, yet reading a lot is not the emphasis of most reading curricula.’ It appears that this absence is particularly apparent in programmes targeting the needs of more advanced learners, such as university preparation programmes. It is possible that teachers in such situations are not convinced of the merits of extensive reading for their students, and for this reason alone ‘the role of extensive reading needs to be examined more closely for its potential contributions to student success in advanced EAP settings’ (Grabe, 2001, p. 26).
Appropriate further research may encourage teachers to reconsider the possible role of extensive reading in their programmes.

However, an investigation of teachers’ attitudes towards and practice of extensive reading (Macalister, in preparation) suggests that teachers generally hold positive beliefs about the power of reading, and that a lack of attention to extensive reading in their classrooms has a range of causes other than a lack of research evidence, including the challenge of finding time to add a new activity to already-crowded teaching programmes and the belief that students preparing for university study will not view extensive reading as a valid activity. That second cause is of particular concern in situations where classes typically consist of international, fee-paying students, as is the case in New Zealand. With these thoughts in mind, two questions arise for the teacher wishing to include extensive reading in an EAP programme:
- will the students respond positively to an extensive reading component in the programme?
- how should extensive reading be included in the programme?

This paper addresses these questions by reporting on three iterations of an EAP programme which included an extensive reading component. The experiment took place within a well established, 12-week, theme-based programme taught at a university in New Zealand. An IELTS score of 4.5 is required for entry to this course, and the motivation for most students enrolling in the programme is university preparation.

**Pilot Study**

The first attempt to implement extensive reading in an EAP class has been reported elsewhere (Macalister, 2007), and is here summarised briefly. The class was relatively low proficiency and consisted of 18 students, mostly from the People’s Republic of China, but with others from South Korea & Indonesia. With the exception of one slightly older student, all were aged between 19 and 24. Six of the class were not intending to pursue university study in New Zealand. The nature of the extensive reading programme was 20 minutes a day
of sustained silent reading in class, at the end of the three-hour morning session each day. This amounted to almost one full teaching week over a 12-week course. Students read self selected graded readers. There were no follow-up activities related to this reading, and only informal monitoring/guidance. In its implementation, the programme met all ten of Day and Bamford (2002)’s principles, which are:

1. The reading material is easy.
2. A variety of reading material on a wide range of topics must be available.
3. Learners choose what they want to read.
4. Learners read as much as possible.
5. The purpose of reading is usually related to pleasure, information, and general understanding.
6. Reading is its own reward.
7. Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower.
8. Reading is individual and silent.
9. Teachers orient and guide their students.
10. The teacher is a role model of a reader.

Because this course was taking place in an ESL environment where learners had opportunities for exposure to English language input both inside and outside the classroom it would have been difficult to isolate any impact of the extensive reading on the learners’ language development. This difficulty was compounded by the fact that the 18 learners were reading a wide assortment of books, and that the course was of relatively short duration. The principal concern was that these learners as a group would do as well on the end-of-course tests as previous groups with similar entrance scores. It was important to be reassured, in other words, that the devotion of almost one full week of class time to extensive reading was not penalising the students in any way. The final results were, in this respect, reassuring.

Qualitative data about the extensive reading component in the pilot study was obtained from various sources, and indicated positive attitudes towards the reading. For example, one
student reported during the course:

Before sleeping, I always read fiction book which borrow from school.

Another wrote of the programme’s benefits on the final evaluation questionnaire:

Help me read more books. Reading. I like reading now.

The feedback suggested that the learners had accepted the in-class reading component as a worthwhile activity.

As a result, it [was] felt that the pilot study had given permission to proceed with the inclusion of extensive reading in this EAP programme. All the same, it was clear that there were some issues that needed to be addressed. These included:
- a degree of scepticism among teaching colleagues as to the merits of privileging extensive reading over some other component of the existing programme
- an on-going concern to ensure that extensive reading as part of the programme had face validity for international, fee-paying students

The appropriate response to these issues appeared to be to achieve greater integration between the extensive reading component and the remainder of the programme. As implemented in the pilot study, extensive reading was of the stand-alone nature criticised by Green (2005) in the context of the Hong Kong secondary schools. It had worked successfully in the New Zealand pre-university context, but that was no reason not to try a more integrated approach. Such an approach would, however, require pre-selection of reading texts, discussed in the following section. Pre-selecting the texts appeared to compromise at least one of the Day and Bamford principles, *Learners choose what they want to read*, and deliberate integration of the reading into the programme would have an impact on another, *Reading is its own reward*. As the value of the principles is as guidelines rather than rules, this was not seen as problematic.

It did, however, seem important to retain the pilot study’s commitment to daily in class reading in any subsequent inclusion of extensive reading in the EAP programme. This
was simply to ensure reading was done. After all, as Mohd Asraf and Ahmad (2003) noted of
a programme in Malaysia, ‘without incorporating extensive reading as part of a class
program, the students might not read English books on their own.’

SECTION A

1. **The author cites Jonopoulos 1986 as an example of a commentator who**
a) believes that extensive reading can have a detrimental effect on learning outcomes
b) believes that wide and frequent reading can have a positive effect on a range of language
skills
c) is in favour of extensive reading specifically in the language classroom
d) is in favour of extensive reading in the language classroom but feels that there are many
practical obstacles.

2. **According to the article the current problem with the notion of extensive reading in
the EAP (English for Academic Purposes) classroom is that**
a) the majority of teachers are not convinced of its merits because of a lack of research in
the area
b) there is a lack of research in the area which increases the possibility that teachers will
have reservations about its effectiveness
c) teachers have been shown to be hostile to the idea on the grounds that teaching
programmes are already overcrowded with materials
d) insufficient research in the area means that fee-paying students might feel that it is a
waste of time and money.

3. **The paper from which this excerpt is taken addresses the questions of student
response and how extensive reading should be included on an EAP programme**
a) by studying a class of 18 low proficiency students who had scored 4.5 or above on the
IELTS to gain access to the language course they were on
b) by examining why prospective students for an EAP course at a New Zealand university
wanted to enrol on an EAP programme
c) by conducting a study based on three cycles of a language course that included extensive reading
d) by studying student responses to a course in which extensive reading occurred for 20 minutes in each 3- hour teaching session.

4. The final scores of the students on the course examined in the pilot study
a) were reassuring because they gave a good indication that extensive reading helped improve the students’ language skills in general
b) were reassuring once the effect of the extensive reading component had been taken into account
c) were not of direct relevance because the students were in contact with English outside as well as inside the classroom
d) allayed the fear that an extensive reading component would have a detrimental effect on the students’ performance on the course.

5. The feedback from students on the course from the pilot study showed that
a) students were positive about the inclusion of extensive reading, teachers’ uncertainties about its implementation were fully answered and that as a result strong evidence was available for the inclusion of extensive reading on EAP programmes
b) fee-paying students would not be hesitant about joining such a course and teachers would no longer be sceptical about its benefits
c) extensive reading was regarded by teachers as a worthwhile activity and students were encouraged to read more widely outside of the classroom
d) there was strong evidence to suggest the merit of extensive reading as part of an EAP course even though a number of concerns remained.

6. Reservations about the merits of extensive reading raised during the pilot study were addressed by
a) advocating extensive reading components that connect to other parts of the EAP course
b) considering a more integrated approach backed up by its success in a New Zealand pre-university context  
c) reluctantly abandoning the integrated model because it contradicted two of Day and Bamford’s reading principles  
d) rejecting a stand-alone model (on the grounds that it had been criticised by Green, 2005) in favour of a more integrated approach.

7. The commitment to daily in-class reading recommended in the excerpt
a) is important because as the Asraf and Ahmad (2003) study has shown students in Malaysia do not read English texts outside of class  
b) to ensure that the chief activity of an extensive reading component takes place  
c) is valuable because as Day and Bamford suggest ‘Reading is its own reward.’  
d) underpins the principle of a student reading with a guide or mentor (the teacher) present.

8. From the excerpt we can surmise that the author has
a) published 2 articles on the area of extensive reading  
b) has published 3 articles on the area of extensive reading  
c) has published one article and is currently preparing a second article on the area of extensive reading  
d) has worked jointly with other academics on the publication of 2 papers on the area of extensive reading.

SECTION B
1. What do you think the main idea of this text is?  
2. What would you infer as the benefits of extensive reading?
SECTION C

Vocabulary

Enter your answers for the following ten multiple-choice questions in the table provided.

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</table>
1. These five boxes are ___ to requirements, we don’t need them.
   a) additional
   b) extra
   c) surplus
   d) superficial

2. The idea that money brings happiness is a ____.
   a) fallacy
   b) syllogism
   c) dogma
   d) a hunch

3. In the court the prosecution argued the case of the ____.
   a) defendant
   b) hearing
   c) attorney
   d) plaintiff

4. The starving children of this region stand as a(n) ____ of the government’s corruption.
   a) liability
   b) symbol
   c) indictment
   d) probation

5. As he is my ___ child, he will inherit my estates.
   a) lawful
   b) legitimate
   c) legal
   d) liable
6. In this country good referees are few and far ____.
   a) to see  
   b) between  
   c) away  
   d) apart

7. Jen and Carrie are now firm friends, they ____ the hatchet earlier this year.
   a) planted  
   b) halved  
   c) buried  
   d) swung

8. The victim of the attack was ___ dead on arrival at the hospital.
   a) stated  
   b) pronounced  
   c) alleged  
   d) seen

9. Tom ___ Helen’s claim to the land, he was convinced he was the rightful owner.
   a) disputed  
   b) denounced  
   c) disavowed  
   d) displayed

10. The price of cotton was dramatically ___ because of the glut on the market.
    a) curbed  
    b) harvested  
    c) slashed  
    d) pushed
Appendix 10

Reading attitudes questionnaire results

This questionnaire is under the “Extensive and Reading Attitudes among Mozambican University Students” conducted by Marcos Nhapulo at UEM. It contains a number of statements about Reading. You will have to complete the statements below by writing what you yourself think about them. Your opinion is what is wanted. According to what you think, rank the items from 1 to 4: 1 strongly agree; 2 agree; 3 disagree; 4 strongly disagree. 1 represents the lowest and most negative impression on the scale and 4 represents the highest and most positive impression. We will not use your details and contacts without your kind permission and agreement.

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<td>Post %</td>
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<td>I feel relaxed if I read in English</td>
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<td>56</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Reading English is enjoyable and self-rewarding.</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>I feel tired when I am presented with a long text.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I feel refreshed and rested if I read in English.</td>
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<td><strong>Anxiety</strong></td>
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<td>I sometimes feel anxious that I may not use effective reading strategies when I read.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I feel anxious when I am not sure about the message in the text.</td>
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<td>I don’t mind even if I cannot understand the book content entirely.</td>
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<td>If it is not compulsory, I prefer to avoid reading as much as possible.</td>
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<td><strong>Intellectual Value</strong></td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>I can acquire broad knowledge if I read in English.</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>I get to know about new ways of thinking if I read in English.</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>I get to know about different values if I read in English.</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>I can get various kinds of information if I read in English.</td>
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<td>44</td>
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<td><strong>Practical Value</strong></td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>Reading English is useful for my future career.</td>
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<td>Reading English is useful to get good grades in class.</td>
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<td>Reading English is useful to get credit for class.</td>
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Reading English is useful for getting a job.

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<td>I can acquire vocabulary if I read in English.</td>
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<td>63</td>
<td>16</td>
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<tr>
<td>I can develop good reading abilities if I read in English.</td>
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<td>70</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>56</td>
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<td>30</td>
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<tr>
<td>I can improve enjoyment reading in the English language if I read it more and more.</td>
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<td>67</td>
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<td>81</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>33</td>
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<td>19</td>
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<td>I can improve reading skills if I belong to a reading group.</td>
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<td>37</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>11</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Yamashita (2007)
Appendix 11

Consent to Participate in Research

Project Title: Reading Strategy Instruction among Mozambican University Students.
Researcher
Name: Marcos Abílio Nhapulo
Emails Address: marcnhapulo@yahoo.com.br Contacts: 847688480; 823838710
Office Address: Department of Languages, English Section.

The Department of Languages of the Eduardo Mondlane University has given approval for this research project. You can contact the Department/researcher for information on your rights as a research subject.

Introduction
We are currently undertaking a study on the use of reading strategies among English language learners at this university. This form will describe the purpose and the nature of the study. Please take whatever time you need to discuss with the researcher. The decision to participate or not is yours, but as a member of this class, the Department of Languages encourages you to participate, so, please sign and date the last line of this form.

Background and Purpose of the Study
Several studies have shown that good readers are those who use effective reading comprehension strategies. This explains why we are interested in finding out the most effective reading strategies learners of English as a foreign language use in their reading tasks at UEM. We hope you will also learn how to use reading strategies during this study, and that will contribute to the improvement of your reading comprehension.

Total Number of Participants
About 50 people will take part in this study.

General Plan
During the study we will use academic reading materials that will be provided by the researcher. You will be given an opportunity to read outside the classroom as well, and you will be part of the Reading Strategy Instruction Program which will be conducted under this research. The reading strategy instruction program will last for 2 hours/week and there will not be a great difference from other lessons during this semester.

Length of the Study
The study will last for 16 weeks, the whole semester, from February to May.

Confidentiality
Whenever data from this study are published, your name will not be used.

Data Security
The information about this study will be stored in a computer that only the researcher will have access.

New Findings
The results of this study will be published in a dissertation, so you will all have access to the information.

Payment
You will not be paid for participating in this study.

Your Rights as a Participant
Your participation is entirely voluntary. You are free to quit at any time. The material used in the class will all be copied and given to you for free.
Problems and Questions
Email or call the researcher if you have any questions or problems during the study.

Researcher’s Statement
I have fully explained this study to the participant. I have discussed the procedures and treatment and have answered all the questions that the participant has asked.
Signature of the Researcher_________________________ Date ____________________________

Participant Consent
I have read the information provided in this Informed Consent Form. All my questions were answered to my satisfaction. I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.
Your Name: ___________________________________ Gender ___________________ Age _______
Native language__________________ Other Languages____________________________________
Your Signature:_____________________________ Date: ______________________________