School of Languages

Department of English

Applied Linguistics

An Investigation into Reading Assessment Strategies Used by Tripoli EFL University Teachers

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for MA Degree in Applied Linguistics

Submitted by:

Raneem Saleh Al-trabulsi

Supervised by:

Dr. Abdussalam Saleh Tantani

May 2024

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

﴿ قَالَ هَذَا مِن فَضْلِ رَبِّي لِيَبْلُوَنِي أَأَشْكُرُ أَمْ أَكْفُرُ وَمَن شَكَرَ فَإِنَّمَا يَشْكُرُ لِنَفْسِهِ وَمَن كَفَرَ فَإِنَّ رَبِّي غَنِيٌّ كَرِيمٌ ﴾

سورة النمل الآية 40

قال ﷺ: "من سلك طريقا يلتمس فيه علما، سهل الله له به طريقا إلى الجنة" .

Abstract

Reading comprehension as a research topic has been extensively researched, and it is still of current interest in addition to its assessment. Assessment is a systematic approach to collecting information and making inferences about the ability of a student or the quality of success of a teaching course on the basis of various pieces of evidence. This study, therefore, investigates EFL teachers reading assessment strategies and some of the reasons that stand behind choosing and implementing a specific strategy to assess reading skills. In order to achieve the two goals of this study, mixed approaches, quantitative and qualitative, were used. The quantitative data were represented by administering a questionnaire to investigate teachers' background knowledge about reading assessment in general and to what extent they use the reading assessment strategies in their classes in particular. The researcher selected a random sample that comprised of forty teachers from different colleges at Tripoli University The data gained from the questionnaire was analysed by SPSS software. On the other hand, for in-depth data about teachers' choice of a certain strategy, semi-structured interviews with five teachers were conducted as a qualitative data instrument. The qualitative data were analysed by the thematic analysis method. The findings of the study show that reading teachers have a good understanding of assessment strategies but struggle with implementing them effectively. The majority use formal and informal assessments, but only half use them to track student progress. Comprehension is a key issue, but teachers face challenges in selecting appropriate methods. The study emphasizes the importance of clear scoring criteria, subjective criteria, and balancing objectivity and flexibility. Less than 50% of EFL teachers use summarization and paraphrasing strategies for reading comprehension when they assess their students. The research indicates that most teachers do not use formative assessment, set goals, use critical thinking tasks, connect and predict tasks, or use analytical scores. Instead, they use summative assessment, vocabulary tasks, and holistic scores. These failures are attributed to internal and external challenges such as choosing appropriate assessment categories, assessing different types of reading, planning tests, ensuring valid scoring, and a lack of resources and training sessions. Finally, the researcher provided interesting conclusions and some implications and recommendations.

Declaration

I declare that this dissertation titled "Reading Assessment Strategies Used by Libyan FL University Teachers" has been carried out by me in English Department at the School of Languages in the Libyan Academy. I certify that all material in this dissertation which is not my own work has been identified and that no material has previously been submitted and approved for the award of a degree, diploma or other similar title of recognition by this Academy or any other University.

Signature: ……...............…   Date: …………….............

Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to the soul of my kind-hearted mom

MUBROKA SALEM AL-TARHONI

and to my great dad

SALEH AL-MUKHTAR AL-TRAPLSI*.*

Thank you for your unconditional love and support.

I Will Always Make You Proud.

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I thank Allah for granting me the ability and strength to chase my dream and complete this dissertation, it would be just a dream without Allah's mercy, grace and conciliation.

My appreciation and deep thanks go to my supervisor, Dr. Abdulsalam Saleh Al-Tantani, for his guidance, moral support and patience during my MA journey. His inspiring character and valuable feedback have triggered me with motivation and wider insight to gain an understanding through the study. Thank you, dear professor, for fighting with me all the odds and made them be in our favor.

My sincere and special thanks for the participants who have had an important role in enriching my case study and development.

My warmest gratitude and deepest love go to those who stood and supported me during my whole life, my wonderful parents and my siblings.

Last but not least, I want to thank me for always believing in me. I want to thank me for doing all this hard work. I want to thank me for having no days off. I want to thank me for never quitting. I want to thank me for being me at all times.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

Chapter One

Introduction

1.0. Introduction

This research is initiated with a review of the research background. Then, it formulates the problem statement and the aims of the study. It states the research questions and the significance of the study. It includes the methodology adopted in the study. The structure of the research is also provided.

1.1. Background of the Study

Although the world is inundated with visual and auditory media, the written word continues to serve its purpose of conveying information, amusing and entertaining us, and formalizing our social, economic, and legal conventions (Bamford & Day, 2010). Thus, in foreign language learning, reading is a skill that teachers expect students to acquire. Brown (2004) argues that "reading is a skill that is taken for granted" (185). Reading is considered a receptive language skill; students receive information and input to understand; they do not need to produce language. Reading is sometimes known as a passive skill. Moreover, Hughes, (2003) states that the problem with receptive skills (Reading or listening) does not manifest itself directly in overt behavior, and it is a challenge for the language tester because the test will not cause students to exercise receptive skills but to demonstrate the overt behavior of successfully using those skills.

Furthermore, in order to learn and acquire knowledge, reading comprehension is essential. Reading comprehension is one aspect of language skills that students must master (Brown, 2007). To be able to interpret and absorb information from reading materials, students should have good understanding abilities. Al-Regeb (2009) and Al Khawaldah (2011) also affirmed that reading increases readers' knowledge. It builds a wide vocabulary and other language skills. Reading comprehension, according to the National Reading Panel (2000), is a complicated process. Salmerón, (2023) mentiond that it is frequently regarded as the essence of reading. Reading comprehension is intentional cognition in which the reader and the text collaborate to create meaning; "the content of meaning is influenced by the text and by the reader's prior knowledge and the experiences that are brought to bear on it" (ibid, pp. 4-5.)

1

In the educational system, teachers have the ability to make this complex process easier by applying their prior knowledge and helping students understand what they are reading and its purpose (Enerson, 1994). Teachers have to consider the appropriate reading assessment tool for collecting information about students' knowledge (Smith, et al. 2021). According to Lowman (2020), effective teachers must be willing to reconsider whether the material and methodology used in language assessment are appropriate. It is a vital aspect of the whole language teaching and learning process because it influences the students' future (Mellati, 2018). Thus, teachers are required to use different teaching techniques and various strategies of reading assessment.

In general, assessment is the process of gathering and discussing information from multiple and diverse sources in order to develop a deep understanding of what learners know, comprehend, and can accomplish with their knowledge as a result of their educational experiences; the process is completed when assessment results are applied to enhance further learning (Huba and Freed, 2000). The term "assessment" is defined as any method, strategy, or tool a teacher may use to collect evidence about student progress toward achievement of established goals (Chen, 2003). In other words, it is a process of collecting information about what the students have gained (Chen, 2003; Wishon, 1998). According to Chen (2007), assessment can be classified into two main types: formative assessment and summative assessment. The first type is generally carried out throughout a course or project (Jones, 2005). The latter type is a tool designed to provide evidence of student achievement for their future.

The word "strategic" is defined as a plan of action designed to achieve a long-term or overall aim (Hattie, 2003). In the educational system, strategies are important while learning, teaching, and assessing students. However, the effect of reading strategies is thought to be extremely important in all reading activities. King (2008) also highlighted that reading strategies are what set excellent readers apart from inadequate readers. The word "strategic" is also defined as a plan of action designed to achieve a long-term or overall aim. In the educational system, strategies are important while learning, teaching, and assessing students. However, the effect of reading strategies is thought to be extremely important in all reading activities. King also highlighted that reading strategies are what set excellent readers apart from inadequate readers.

Furthermore, Brown (2007, p. 119) defines strategies as "specific methods of approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, and planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information". Moreover, Pani, (2004) argues that reading strategies are the cognitive processes readers participate in as they effectively approach a text to comprehend what they read. As compared to struggling readers, good readers frequently and effectively adopt more strategies. Brown (2001) for example, points out that "reading comprehension is a matter of developing appropriate, efficient comprehension strategies" (P. 306), such as identifying the purpose of reading, using different silent reading techniques, skimming the text for main ideas, scanning the text for specific information, analyzing vocabulary, and distinguishing between literal and implied meanings. Darrin et al., (2021, p. 20) argues that there are four types of reading, which start from the simplest to the most complex. They explained these types in a comprehensive and direct manner.

- *Perceptive reading* involves letters, words, punctuation, and other elements of longer passages of discourse that must be paid attention to in perceptive reading assignments, including picture-cued objects, reading aloud, written responses, and multiple-choice questions.

- *Selective reading* is the ability to detect syntax, discourse elements, which is taken into consideration while reading tests. Short paragraphs and reading sections are used in order to achieve this. Matching, editing, and gap-filling exercises are examples of common assessment items.

- *Interactive reading* is the technique of extracting meaning from the text. The readings are also more authentic in character, as they might include announcements, directions, recipes, and so on. Assessment involves standard assessment items such as cloze tasks, impromptu reading plus comprehension questions, short answers, editing longer texts, scanning, and ordering tasks.

- *Extensive reading* is reading an excessive amount of material. Being able to see the "big picture" are both characteristics of extensive reading. The learner must be able to distinguish the key ideas from the supporting details. Some strategies for assessing this type of reading are skimming tasks, summarizing and responding, note-taking, and outlining.

In addition, the pervious literature focuses more on teaching and learning reading and how to develop students reading skills, and their reading difficulties than assessment. Zoghi et al., (2011) stated that many Libyan students face problems in L2 reading due to a lack of reading strategies and skills when reading English texts. This is obvious when Elmadwi and Shepherd (2014) blame the teachers' poor knowledge of teaching techniques and low-quality practice when teaching reading. Another study was conducted by Nezami (2012) that investigated the difficulties that students face in learning English, particularly reading comprehension. Locally, there have been some studies on the focus of assessment for other language skills. Al-Shareef (2022) conducted a dissertation topic about *different assessment strategies for assessing the listening skill*. The findings revealed that some teachers' problem is the limitation of their knowledge about using listening assessment strategies in class, a lack of experience about assessing listening tasks, and a lack of listening resources and equipment. These studies are important and interesting to explore and investigate, as well as to provide suitable solutions and recommendations for the teacher to promote the students' performance. Moreover, another dissertation was conducted by the graduate student Omar (2022) about *the strategies used by teachers to assess speaking skills at the University of Zawia*. The findings were internal and external challenges that teachers face. These challenges include difficulties in choosing an appropriate assessment tool to assess speaking, ensuring valid and reliable scoring, choosing tasks, and a lack of training sessions. Thus, the research was worth doing to investigate and provide solutions for the issue. Furthermore, another study was conducted by Fheleboum (2018) about *EFL teachers' perception of the appropriate writing assessment techniques*. This study aims to understand the attitude of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) university teachers towards writing assessment and its importance. A questionnaire was used to measure teachers' perceptions and data was collected from 50 teachers and 15 mid-term exam paper markers. Results showed that most teachers were not aware of writing assessment techniques, and years of experience did not reflect their marking methods. The majority preferred holistic scoring over analytic marking, but neither method provided consistent results.

As a learner and a teacher of the English language, and from my experience, it has been noticed that students are suffering in reading exams: understanding the gist of the text, answering simple questions after reading a text, and even some vocabulary problems within the text itself or the topic. Thus, the University of Tripoli's teachers may need to do additional research, study more, and be cognizant of incorporating creative and new strategies in the assessment of reading skills.

The use of different assessments triggers the students' motivation to practice and improve their reading comprehension and reading skills in general. From this perspective on this issue, it would be necessary to investigate the reading assessment strategies used at the University of Tripoli by EFL teachers. In addition to the challenges, they may encounter when they assess their students in reading classes.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

According to my experience as a teacher of the English language as well as a student in the English Department at Tripoli University, it has been observed that most students fail their reading comprehension tasks. The researcher believes that there are many reasons behind students' poor reading comprehension skills. It could be due to the use of inappropriate reading assessment strategies and techniques by their teachers. This problem is also confirmed by (Tamtam et al., 2011) when he said few studies have been conducted on the problems facing the higher education system in Libya in a wider aspect. However, in a narrow aspect, there is a lack of studies on reading comprehension and reading assessment. Thus, this issue is important and needs to be investigated. Investigating the reading assessment strategies used by EFL teachers in reading classes is necessary to address these challenges and promote students' overall learning experience.

1.3. Aims of the Study

This study aims to:

- identify the strategies of reading assessment that EFL teachers use to assess undergraduate students at Tripoli University.
- explore the challenges that EFL teachers encounter when assessing their students' reading skills.

1.4. Research Questions

The research questions to be answered are:

1. What reading assessment strategies do EFL teachers use with the undergraduate students at Tripoli University?
2. What are the challenges EFL teachers encounter when they assessing their students' ability in the skill of reading?

5

1.5. Significance of the Study

The significance of the study derives from the importance of assessment, testing, and evaluation in any educational system to assess the students' progress. Moreover, this study is designed to investigate the assessment strategies used by EFL teachers at Tripoli University in reading classes and to highlight the challenges that the teachers might face when they assessing reading classes. The findings of this research could help teachers to select the appropriate assessment strategies to be used in reading classes. Also, the results could widen the teachers' knowledge about different strategies for assessing reading and help them to overcome or even avoid the challenges that both teachers face during the assessment. It has the potential to remove any barriers and difficulties at their source. Most important is that reading is a complex and vital skill that needs more attention and value. This study might also illuminate other researchers' insights to conduct further related research.

1.6. Methodology of the Study

The methodology employed in this study is intended to provide answers to the research questions. A mixed method research is designed and utilized. In other words, both quantitative and qualitative methodologies are used. Triangulation is used because it is considered as a research strategy that can help researchers to improve the validity and credibility of their findings while also reducing the presence of research biases in their work (Cohen et al., 2007). It refers to the use of multiple datasets, methods, theories, and/or investigators to answer a research question (Bhandari, 2022). Therefore, the researcher in this study employed a structured questionnaire and semi-structured interviews to fulfill the goals of the study questions. The two instruments were designed to be more appropriate for the study in terms of reliability and validity. The data obtained from the questionnaire was analysed by SPSS software program, whereas the data gained from the semi-structured interviews were analysed by using thematic analysis method.

Additionally, regarding the sample, only 40 teachers are chosen by simple random sample technique to fill out the questionnaire. These participants were among EFL Libyan teachers who have been teaching or are currently teaching reading courses at different faculties at Tripoli University College of Education Tripoli, College of Education Janzour, College of Education Qasr Bin Ghashir. Moreover, the purposeful sampling employed to select participants matching the main

concerns of the research. Purposeful sampling is "based on the assumption that the investigator wants to discover, understand, and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned" (Merriam,1998, p. 61). Therefore, five Libyan EFL teachers were selected according to their experience of teaching reading.

1.7. Structure of the Study

This study consists of six chapters that aim to identify the key issues that are related to EFL teachers' reading assessment strategies and the challenges that they face during this process.

- Chapter One provides the background of the study and the statement of the problem. It also outlines the overall aim and highlights the research questions, the significance, and the methodology used in this study.
- Chapter Two critically reviews the relevant literature about the topic of the study. This comprises contextual factors, arguments, and concepts of EFL reading comprehension as well as associated issues, including reading ability, learning, and teaching methods. The evaluation techniques employed by EFL teachers to gauge students' reading abilities are crucial in determining the root reasons for their students' poor reading comprehension qualities. It presents a broad and detailed picture of previous studies and their results in relation to the subject under investigation and identifies gaps in the relevant studies.
- Chapter Three discusses the methodological approach and methods that are best suited to the study. It gives a detailed description and justification of the data collection tool used in the study. This chapter also discusses the sampling strategies employed by the data collection and the ethical issues of the study.
- Chapter Four shows the findings of the study and the results gained from both qualitative and quantitative approaches. It also contains the data analysis process.
- Chapter Five presents the analysis of the data that were gathered through the teachers' questionnaire and the semi-structured interview. This chapter is to analyze, interpret, and discuss the data obtained from the collected data compared with the literature review.
- Chapter Six provides the conclusions drawn from the whole study in connection to the research aims and questions. It also offers some Implications, recommendations and limitation of the study to inform further research in the study area.

<center>**Chapter Two**</center>

<center>**Literature Review**</center>

2.0. Introduction

The significance of reviewing the existing literature is "to get a sense of what we already know about a particular question or problem" (Norris & Ortega, 2006, p. 5). Therefore, this chapter reviews an in-depth analysis of the arguments and theories associated with EFL reading assessment as well as some of the literature that is relevant to the title of the study. The following literature review chapter displays the most important and different definitions of reading and reading comprehension in particular. The importance of reading comprehension and its types and approaches are discussed. It also reviews the literature on assessment, its definitions, types, and principles. Furthermore, it investigates the reasons behind implementing specific strategies when assessing reading skills as well as some reliable references to previous studies in reading assessment that are connected to the present study. The last section provides the summary of the chapter.

2.1. Definition of Reading and Reading Comprehension

A variety of definitions and intriguing concepts have been produced by the currently growing field of reading research, on which many researchers appear to agree. Researchers have defined reading throughout history and into the present based on their opinions about the reading process. According to Logan et al., (2011), reading is a complicated relationship between the reader and the text. It indicates that reading is a task that involves reading a text. In other words, reading is considered one of the most vital and crucial skills; it is an active mental process that enhances concentration and focus. It is significant in workplaces, schools, colleges, and universities. Oakhill et al., (2015) being able to read, process, and comprehend literature is known as reading comprehension. It depends on two interrelated skills: language comprehension and word reading, which both require the ability to decode the symbols on the page.

Furthermore, reading is considered as the process of decoding and comprehending written language. Yildirim & Ates (2012) define reading as a difficult process of analysing and making meaning of written language. Based on Farrall (2012, p. 30), during the testing phase, four (four) essential components need to be ready. Process, test, capacity, and domain are the four

<center>8</center>

parts. A set of necessary techniques, steps, or materials should be developed by the instructor. The teacher should use clear rules or instructions to evaluate the tester's success after making the necessary preparations. Test users need to be aware of who they are, and this is ensured by their talent, experience, or success (Cataldo & Oakhill, 2000). Despite the fact that the actual test results only call for a sampling of skills, general language competence is the domain in which all language skills fall. In essence, it is critical to comprehend the procedures, the processes, and the test-takers in order to obtain authentic and accurate knowledge through testing. Moreover, a skilled reader is someone who can accurately and successfully derive meaning from a text. Additionally, proficient readers should be able to comprehend the words that they read as well as just recognize them (ibid).

In addition, Ahmadi et al., (2013, p. 238) refer to reading comprehension as "the ability of readers to understand the surface and the hidden meanings of the text using meta-cognitive reading strategies". It is pointless to read without comprehension. Carrell, et al., (1988, p. 12) defines reading as "a receptive language process. It is a psycholinguistic process in that it starts with a linguistic surface representation encoded by a writer and ends with meaning, which the reader constructs". Reading is also a sociocultural process in that "reading takes place and is learned within a broader social context. Schools and teachers constitute an important component of this social context" (Pretorius & Machet, 2004, p. 47). Therefore, as reading comprises simultaneously psycholinguistic procedures and a sociocultural context, reading can be viewed as a socio-psycholinguistic process. According to Grabe (2009:14), "reading is fundamentally a comprehending process". Readers read to grasp what is being conveyed in writing. In the opinion of Russell (2013), it requires the reader to develop a productive approach for solving problems while reading. The reading process requires careful analysis and reflection. To put it another way, understanding a text efficiently necessitates the reader being critical and introspective. As a result, comprehension is defined as a learned talent that concentrates on input comprehension. According to the Oxford English Dictionary (2020, p. 149), comprehension is "the action of comprehending, comprising, or including; the fact or condition of being so comprehended or comprised in a treatise or classification".

Moreover, reading comprehension, according to Woolley (2011), is the process of extracting meaning from text. The goal is to build up a general comprehension of all that is stated in what is written, rather than derive meaning from individual words or sentences. Horowitz (2014) stated that reading comprehension is a complicated cognitive procedure in which the reader must be attentive and conscientious while reading, checking the words and what they mean as the reading continues. Students must apply a variety of cognitive procedures, tasks, and skills, which makes the process complicated. These abilities include effectively decoding words, comprehending linguistic syntax, drawing inferences, utilizing prior knowledge, and memory retention when needed (Fletcher-Janzen, Reynolds, & Vannest, 2013; Hollenbeck, 2011; Kendeou, McMaster, & Christ, 2016; Woolley, 2011). The ability to strategically determine when and how to use each of these skills is necessary for reading, even short passages of text. Based on the aforementioned definitions, the researcher contends that reading comprehension is the ability of individuals to read a piece of writing, comprehend its meaning, and use knowledge obtained through symbols in the text that requires a certain amount of focus.

2.2. The Importance of Reading Comprehension

English is acknowledged as the world's universal language. It is also important for students' academic progress (Azeroual, 2013). It is becoming increasingly important in institutions of higher learning (Najeeb, 2013). Reading is linked to academic performance (Logan et al., 2011; Dabarera et al., 2014), since a large part of formal education is based on the ability to read with comprehension (Hulme and Snowling, 2011). As a result, reading effectively in English has become an essential skill for many people, particularly EFL students (Lo et al., 2013). According to Attarzadeh (2011), reading in English encourages people to publish information. Since reading encourages children to think, integrate, and comprehend a variety of texts and to expand their knowledge, reading is an important aspect that has a significant impact on children's development as well as their success. Cain (2010) emphasizes the importance of reading. He argues that "reading is the single most important fundamental skill a person can acquire" (p. 73). Reading is an essential component for effective education (Cogmen and Saracaloglu, 2009; Moreillon, 2012), and literacy skills are vital in academic settings (Solak and Altay, 2014). Reading is the most crucial skill in foreign language learning for gathering information, investigating, and increasing academic knowledge (McDonough and Shaw, 2003; Talebi, 2013; Azeroual, 2013).

Similarly, Levine et al., (2000, p. 1) note that one of the most significant abilities that university students of English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) must acquire is the capacity to read academic writings. Furthermore, reading comprehension presents a technique to estimate the level of text comprehension (Ahmadi et al., 2013; Naidu et al., 2013). As a result, reading comprehension has begun to receive specific emphasis in foreign language teaching (Ahmadi and Ismail, 2012). Some scholars, such as Nassaji (2011), Chen (2012), and Sidek (2012), argue that reading is important not merely for comprehension and information collection but also for developing linguistic competence. Reading comprehension is descriptive in nature since it affects the entire academic learning process (Gayo et al., 2014). Reading comprehension, for instance, is a source for expanding vocabulary and increasing other language abilities, which include speaking and writing (Patesan et al., 2014). Therefore, reading comprehension will be emphasized throughout different phases of education.

Furthermore, reading comprehension is a critical component of success (Vorstius et al., 2013). Reading adequately is critical for an individual's educational and professional success (Karasakaloglu, 2012). Likewise, according to Hogan et al., (2011, p. 1), "skilled reading comprehension is critical for modern life, success in education, productivity in society, and almost all types of employment." This suggests that insufficient comprehension might contribute to educational failures (Lipka and Siegel, 2012) as well as negatively impact EFL students' probabilities of finding employment or a better career (Ahmadi et al., 2013). Reading difficulties, in simple terms, would almost surely lead to educational challenges, which are an important cause of social and economic disadvantage (Hulme and Snowling, 2011). According to Al Khrisheh (2008), it strengthens other language abilities and expands and builds vocabulary used to help readers communicate with others. Reading is always regarded as an important skill for EFL students since it provides a means of access for further knowledge, learning, and development. In addition, Al Khrisheh argues that through reading electronic journals and websites, students may use reading to go to various places and learn about current incidents. Therefore, to succeed in both their academic and personal lives, students need to possess reading comprehension skills. Reading comprehension is the foundation of a student's academic path and is required to fully comprehend all course material. As students' grades progress, the value of reading comprehension grows considerably across all academic disciplines. For instance, when researching topics for different

educational fields, students are expected to comprehend the material they are reading from a variety of sources.

Additionally, in order to comprehend and complete their academic assignments, students require comprehension abilities when reading. Students, however, are unable to carry out all of the assignments without reading comprehension skills (Clarke et al., 2013; Wong, 2011). A person is required to have reading comprehension as a vital skill in order to succeed in everyday activities (Blair et al., 2007). For instance, in order to succeed in life, people must comprehend the fundamental language used in documents like electric and water bills, rental agreements, hiring applications, and publications (Hoeh, 2015). Furthermore, obtaining and maintaining a job as well as successfully participating in a variety of daily activities require reading comprehension skills (Hoeh, 2015; Mahdavi & Tensfeldt, 2013). Considering the negative effects of being unable to read in critical circumstances, the necessity for reading comprehension greatly increases. As an example, failing to read and understand the dose instructions on a medicine bottle or the warning on a container of dangerous substances can put people in extremely risky situations that endanger their safety and lives (Marshall, 2017).

2.3. Purposes of Reading

Reading serves many purposes, and individuals choose to read for a number of reasons. People read for a variety of reasons, which causes us to frequently switch up our cognitive processes and knowledge sources (Wong, 2011). Therefore, it is difficult to define one reading aim as the only method to understand what we mean by "reading". Despite using the same cognitive processes and knowledge resources, the various objectives for reading combine and impose different emphasis on these processes and resources Ahmadi et al., (2013). For instance, when trying to learn something new, people read at a slower pace while considering how reading fits with the text's past knowledge and their own previous knowledge. People change how to use their mental processes as well as resources every time they read for all these different and varied reasons (Grabe, 2009). They might read for pleasure, to gain particular knowledge, or to comprehend the significance of an entire text as a whole. Many people read to obtain information from written materials. Students are instructed to read in order to strengthen their language skills and acquire a better knowledge of the meaning of texts. In addition, seeking pleasure from a text encourages

readers to read more, which leads to a greater grasp and enrichment of vocabulary, as well as subsequently allows them to strengthen their general reading skills. Harmer (2002:200) splits reading motivation into two major categories: "instrumental" and "pleasurable". Reading a given text efficiently and meaningfully and comprehending it are critical for a student to answer any type of question provided in the examinations in an academic context where students are required to read texts according to the syllabus and pass tests. However, in non-academic life, students and readers have the opportunity to pick from a diverse range of textual sources based on their interests and the time available for reading.

Reading for pleasure is the primary objective of nonacademic reading (Grellet, 2010). Nonetheless, Taylor (2011) emphasizes that reading for pleasure improves educational achievement and growth. According to McDonough and Shaw (2003, p. 99), "teachers should provide students with a purpose for reading by supplying materials that stimulate interest and do not have overfamiliar content". This is because the teachers' objectives, as well as their interpretations of their students' reading purposes, influence their text selections. Sometimes teachers' wants and views contradict students' reading purposes, and this might be one of the elements that has a direct impact on the quality of reading comprehension and academic achievement (Grellet, 2010). Furthermore, different students frequently read for different reasons; this particular issue can be even more crucial in Libyan institutions' crowded classes. Yet, teachers should inform their students about the objective of reading materials. However, Hedge (2003, p. 205) stated that there are some general reading goals: a. To be able to read texts in English. b. To build knowledge through information. c. To build the ability to interpret text meaningfully. d. To take a critical stance on the content of the text. Based on Nunan and Hedge's explanation above, one can conclude that there are some purposes to reading. Every person has a purpose when they read something. Through reading, learners can get new information, which can add to or enrich their knowledge.

2.4. Types of Reading
Reading is a performance that draws more from the diversity of texts than it does from a variety of explicit types of performance. Still, a number of reading performance types are frequently identified when considering assessment methods, and these were employed to structure different assessment assignments. According to Brown (2004, pp. 189–216), there are four types of

reading performance and various assessment tasks: perceptive reading, selective reading, interactive reading, and extensive reading.

2.4.1. Perceptive Reading

The perceptual level is concerned with bottom-up text processing. At the present time, comprehension is unimportant. Rather, to determine whether the learner is capable of finishing the mechanical process of reading. Perceptive reading tasks require paying careful consideration to the components of longer lengths of text: letters, words, punctuation, and other graphemic symbols (Brown, 2004). Assessment of basic reading skills may be carried out in a number of different ways. For example:

Multiple-Choice

In general, the test taker must choose one of three or four different possible answers in this assessment. The teacher may try out new formats, including true or false, circle the correct response, and match. Dell and Wantuch (2017) stated that multiple Choice Questions (MCQs) are a popular instrument used in summative assessments in education. Students are typically asked to choose the right response from a list of options. In the words of Baig et al., (2014,p.23) they are "the most widely used type of assessment worldwid". They are called "ubiquitous" by Bjork et al., (2015).

Written Response

Similar stimulation was shown; however, the test-taker's responsibility is to write down the probe. Due to the transfer of abilities here, the evaluation of the test-taker's response should be handled very carefully (Vacca, 2008). Most students' works do not just magically produce well-written responses. Students require assistance in learning how to write in an orderly, instructive and straightforward manner. It could be necessary for the teachers to model their own response in front of their students and assist them in identifying the words writers use to make a point if you want them to investigate the motivations and decisions of characters (Boyles, 2004, p. 17). However, students' written work is increasingly used to assess reading. The relationship between writing and reading has been emphasized within the past decade (Vacca, 2008). A rising number of research has shown that writing and reading are closely related skills that are best studied in tandem with one another as opposed to separately. The reading-writing link is really about making meaning

(Savage et al., 2015). Both call for the use of critical thinking abilities. As stated by Calkins, (2001 p. 41), "Today's readers are asked to integrate information from several texts and to explain relationships between the ideas and their skill". If an error occurs, make sure to identify its source; what appears to be a writing mistake could actually be a reading mistake, and the reverse may happen (Latini, et al., 2019.)

Reading Aloud

In the presence of an administrator, the test-taker sees individual letters, words, and/or brief sentences, then reads them aloud one by one. Considering this is a reading comprehension assessment, any recognized spoken approximation of the desired response will be deemed correct (Gunning, 2010). Read-aloud is a teaching strategy in which teachers, parents, and other guardians read aloud to kids from literature. To create a fluid and engaging delivery, the reader uses a variety of delivery techniques, including changes in pitch, tone, pace, volume, pauses, eye contact, questions, and remarks. In the opinion of McCormick (2007), reading books aloud is the most crucial activity for acquiring the knowledge needed for successful reading. As noted by Cunningham and Allington (2011) researchers and classroom teachers support the idea that including extension tasks for children during a read-aloud is a good idea since it gives them a useful framework in which to understand how language functions. Because engaging with text demands active thinking and reflection, which improves comprehension, understanding texts can be made possible by activating and utilizing cognitive resources.

Picture-Cued Items

The test taker is shown a picture paired with a written sentence and given one of several tasks to perform, and students are instructed to circle some parts of the image based on the instructions beside it. Brown (2010) said that pictures-cued tasks are activities that stimulate oral students' responses by using pictures and imagination to answer questions. It is a powerful technique for eliciting students' oral language responses. Moreover, these tasks can be simple or elaborate, focusing on vocabulary and grammar (Namaziandost et al., 2019). Also, it helps language teachers engage students and provide basic information before presenting tasks. It can be applied in various language functions, such as describing, giving information, and opinions (Asencion, 2004). Teachers must match the pictures to students' level, age, needs, and grammar. Pictures are

practical and applicable resources in communication, making work more appealing, stimulating questions, and proving creative language use (Harmer, 2001).

2.4.2. Selective Reading

The reading process in this sort of performance is a blend of bottom-up and top-down processing. The aforementioned type is primarily formed as a result of assessment formats (Nikmard, 2020). Certain standard activities are used to assess one's reading, recognizing vocabulary, grammar, or discourse components associated with language within a brief passage of language: picture-cued tasks, matching tasks, true/false, multiple-choice, gap-filling, and many more. Stimuli involve phrases, short paragraphs, and simple graphs and charts. Brief answers are also anticipated (Brown, 2004: pp. 189–216). In the following paragraphs, the general assessment tasks are briefly presented one by one:

Multiple-Choice

In this assessment, the test-taker has to pick one of three or four possible answers. Edward, (2001) said that the multiple-choice format has become probably the most common technique for testing reading knowledge of both grammar and vocabulary, mostly for practical reasons: it is convenient to operate and evaluate rapidly. The easiest to grasp. Multiple-choice items may lack context, but they can act as a grammar or vocabulary test. Moreover, Mccoubrie, (2004) stated that because MCQ-based tests save time and allow for a thorough exploration of any subject, they are also dependable. Rather than just testing for the recall of particular information, well-designed multiple-choice questions can also evaluate scientifically higher-order cognitive skills such as knowledge syndissertation , interpretation, and application. Case and Swanson, (2001) defined (MCQs) as they are accurate, arbitrary, reliable, cost-effective, and can assess a variety of skills in addition to factual memory. In summative exams, it is generally accepted that multiple-choice questions should be utilized in addition to other test formats. They are intended to increase the range of abilities that will be assessed at every stage of education: undergraduate, graduate, and postgraduate (Anderson, 2004.)

Matching Tasks

The test-taker's job at this selective level of reading is merely to reply accurately; therefore, matching is a suitable structure (Brown, 2004). The most common criterion in matching processes is vocabulary. The first numbered list is frequently a set of phrases with gaps in them, with a list of words from which to choose, which provides a conversational category for matching. Alderson (2000, p. 218) proposed matching techniques at an additionally comprehensive level, in which test-takers must distinguish pragmatic interpretations of "certain signs or labels".

Editing Tasks

Editing is the process of going over and over the manuscript again to make it more standardized, formal, error-free, and academically coherent in order to prepare it for publication. According to Brookes and Marshall (2004), editing is the process of refining something that is not ideal by spending excessive time on the initial draft. Ricci (2016) describes editing in the same context as the process of making corrections and making adjustments to a specific academic paper. Nordquist (2018) acknowledges that this stage of the writing process where an author or editor works to enhance a draft and gets it ready for publication by fixing all kinds of mistakes and improving words and sentences to make them more effective, precise, understandable to readers, and relevant to their contexts. However, Unedited documents can lead to confusion, conflict, and inaccurate information. Consequently, when dealing with the documents, an editor or writer "often thinks in terms of 'barriers' to communication" (Billingham, 2005, p. 9).

Picture-Cued Tasks

In the preceding reading type, teachers reviewed picture-cued tasks for perceptive comprehension of symbols and words. Pictures and photographs are also helpful to assess abilities at the selective level. Photos-cued tasks are a set of activities designed to get students to answer questions orally by asking them to use pictures and their imagination to answer different questions (Moreta & Alexandra, 2021). Several forms of picture-cued approaches are regularly implemented. The most important distinction between picture-cued tasks for the perceptive type and this type of "selective" is the complexity of the language.

Gap-Filling Tasks

Several of the multiple-choice activities can be turned into gap-filling, or "fill-in-the-blank". Items in which the test-taker's response is to type a single word or phrase. The gap-filling technique is used in classes to promote different types of interaction between students. It is generally performed in pairs where one student needs the information that the other has to complete the activity (Defriota, 2017). The action of asking and giving information in information-gap activities moreover improves students' readiness to communicate finding the need for information (Laelasari, 2018). In information gap activities, one person possesses specific information that has to be shared with others to solve an issue, acquire information, or make judgments (Defrioka, 2017). In other words, learners have to work together to complete the task by sharing the information they have. The information gap is like an "empty space" of speaking interaction that needs to be filled by the people in account to reconvene similar information in a spoken manner (Harmer, 2016). In addition, create sentence completion items where test-takers read a section of a paragraph and then proceed to fill it by writing a phrase as a follow-up to simple gap-filling tasks. In this assessment, test takers need to choose the incorrect letter of the underlined word. This type of task was designed to assess grammatical structure (ibid).

2.4.3. Interactive Reading

The reading process is mainly top-down in this kind of reading performance. In addition to a greater focus on meaning comprehension, this sort of reading examines both form and meaning (Moeales, 2010). However, long passages of text that extend from several paragraphs to an entire page or more are considered interactive reading types due to the fact that they require the reader to engage with the text in a psycholinguistic manner (Wixson, 2017). In other words, reading is a method of negotiating meaning; readers bring into the text a collection of schemata for interpreting it, and absorption represents the outcome of that interaction (Lopera, 2015). Anecdotes, brief stories and descriptions, quotes from longer texts, questionnaires, memos, declarations, instructions, and similar types of writing are typical genres that are particularly suitable for interactive reading (Brown, 2004). An interactive task's main objective is to recognize related lexical, symbolic, grammatical, and discourse components within texts of a partially short duration with the aim of retaining all the data that is received (Vellutino and Scanlon, 2002). There are different types of testing tasks for interactive reading, including information transfer, editing,

scanning, and impromptu reading alongside comprehension questions. In the following paragraphs, the general assessment tasks are explained one after another:

Cloze Tasks

The test-takers are instructed to write out an incomplete sentence for this assessment. Cloze tests normally have a minimum of two paragraphs in order to take discourse predictions into consideration. However, the cloze technique is one of the most common types of reading assessment activities (Brown, 2003). The term "cloze" was developed by academic psychologists to describe the "Gestalt psychology" concept of "closure", which refers to the capacity to fulfill a visual, aural, or cognitive picture that is incomplete in addition to adding the missing information (from background schemata). There are generally two different approaches to scoring cloze tests (Alderson, 2005). By the exact word technique, test takers are only given credit if they recover the identical word that was initially removed. The second framework, termed "appropriate word scoring", rewards test-takers for providing any term that is correctly spelled as well as making logic considering its context (Alderson, 2000. P. 208)

Impromptu Reading Plus Comprehension Questions

The test-takers are required to read the text and respond to a few questions related to the text. The test-takers select one out of three or four possible answers. This test is frequently used to assess reading comprehension. Achieving an understanding over the text's meaning is facilitated by asking students to read along with the text (Cazden, 2001). The questions generally cover the key idea, the supporting ideas, the terminology in context, the unstated information, and the grammatical aspects (Ozuru, et al., 2007). The classic way of assessment which is read a passage and answer some questions strategy is unquestionably the most traditional and most widely used method of assessing reading, although cloze testing is the method that has received the most research (Brown, 2004). This technique is used in approximately every proficiency test, and it is rare to assess reading without including a section that involves impromptu reading and answering questions (Abarca, et al., 2010). In order to help their students, understand and gain knowledge from a text, teachers frequently assign homework that involves answering questions from the text (Ness, 2011). Moreover, students' responses to questions that follow the reading of a text are dependent on their capacity and willingness for cognitive reading.

Short-Answer Tasks

The test-takers are required to read the passage and respond to several questions in one or two sentences that have relevance to the passage. Classroom teachers do not frequently find time in their full-time jobs to design a test using multiple-choice items since they are challenging to create and assess (Miller, 2009). Following reading passages, multiple-choice questions are common alternatives. Students may find it challenging to answer Short Answer questions. Although the question is shorter than an essay question, students still need to answer all the questions correctly to receive full marks (Brown, 2004). However, short answer questions, in contrast to multiple choice and true/false questions, require students to recall and describe concepts in their own words rather than having the answers predetermined.

Editing (longer texts)

In the aforementioned types, it was stated about editing tasks, including selecting only the correct words. Asih, (2017), as compared to selective types including modal auxiliaries, verb complements, noun clauses, adverb clauses, and adjective clauses, interactive types' contexts are more complex. The editing tasks are more difficult because there are more than just picking the incorrect letter for the word that is underlined (Eden and Eshet-Alkalai, 2013). There are several benefits to the longer format. Authenticity is raised first. It is more likely that English language learners will come across linked prose that spans a page or two than they will the artificial structure of disconnected phrases (Csernoch and Bujdosó, 2009). Secondly, the assignment replicates the process of editing one's own essay, where it is essential to identify and fix mistakes. Third, the test creator can create requirements for a variety of grammatical and rhetorical categories that correspond with the course material if the test is linked to a particular curriculum (like placement into one of several writing courses) (ibid). This supports both the content validity and the face validity of a task that pupils are willing to engage in.

Scanning

The test-takers are required to read a passage and quickly identify any important information for the purpose of this assessment. According to Diaz and Laguado, (2013), scanning is considered a desirable reading skill. Additionally, scanning is a method of rapidly searching for a specific piece of information within a text (Brown, 2003). Thus, from the definition given above, it may be inferred that scanning is a technique to locate specific information quickly, skipping over

unnecessary material to enable faster reading. Scanning involves readers concentrating on specific details rather than the text's overall meaning. Using this method, readers scan the text fast for particular details like names, dates, years, and paces, among other things (Yusuf et al., 2017). Instead of reading everything word for word, proofreading is done via scanning. It has just recently become more frequent due to technological developments, printing becoming computerized, and word processing becoming more widely used (Bell, 2007).

Sequencing Tasks

The test-takers are required to organize a disordered sentence from a short story. However, one of the various skills that helps students comprehend what they read is sequencing, which is related to reading (Ellis and Sintani, 2013). The capacity to recount events in a text in the exact sequence that they happened is known as sequencing. It involves identifying the beginning, middle, and end of a story or topic. One of the most important comprehension techniques, particularly for narrative texts, is the capacity to order the events in a text (Long, 2007). Variations on this might be used to assess both the reader's comprehension of a story as a whole and the coherent elements that indicate the sequence of ideas or incidents (Harmer, 2000).

Information Transfer: Reading Charts, Maps, Graphs, and Diagrams

The test-takers are required to be capable of comprehending charts, maps, graphs, diagrams, etc. for this type of assessment (Pinker, 2014). In order to understand data in this medium, students need to be prepared to understand the particular conventions of various kinds of graphics, recognize labels, headings, numbers, and symbols, understand the potential relationship between graphics, and draw inferences from information that is not explicitly provided (Brown, 2014). Still, it demands more than just knowledge of the graphic and verbal conventions of the mass media to translate such nonverbal input into understandable input (ibid).

2.4.4. Extensive Reading

Extensive reading involves slightly longer content. The objective of this reading type is to draw on a learner's overall grasp of the material being studied. The term "extensive reading", as used in Browns' book titled *"Language Assessment and Classroom Practice"* (2004), refers to reading passages longer than a page, including books, short stories, technical reports, essays, and professional articles. Reading of this kind of discourse consistently signifies an emphasis on

meaning and mainly top-down processing, with limited use of a focused bottom-up approach, which is exactly why this kind of reading is classified as a different category. Yamashita (2013, p. 248) also views extensive reading as "an approach to reading pedagogy that encourages students to engage in a large amount of reading". Additionally, due to the length of this reading, it is uncertain that formal assessments can be conducted within the time restrictions of a conventional formal testing system, leading to an additional issue for assessment (Ellis, 2003). Therefore, lengthy articles and books that usually require reading are beyond the scope of a classroom time. The general assessment tasks are listed in brief order in the paragraphs that follow:

Skimming Tasks

The test-takers skim a text and respond to questions about the main idea, the purpose of the writer. Skimming is the practice of reading rapidly over a text to figure out its gist or essential point of view. According to Nuttall (2005, p. 49), skimming is the act of "rapidly scanning a text to ascertain its main points". When seeking specific information, people can save time by skimming. A comprehensive approach to skimming necessitates a comprehensive understanding of the text and relies on a confident level of reading proficiency (Grellet, 2010). During systematic practice, students strengthen their skills of inference, which enable them to anticipate a text. According to Harmer (2001), skimming is a technique for rapidly acquiring an understanding of a text's content. It relates to a prediction technique used to help readers get a sense of a text's content and purpose, its structure, the writer's point of perspective, how simple or challenging it can be to comprehend, and whether or not it will bring value to them.

Summarizing and Responding

One of the most commonly used methods is requiring test takers to provide a summary text through writing to assess extensive reading (Brown,2004). The test-takers are required to summarize the text for the purpose of this assessment. The four steps of the summarizing strategy are to go through the passage, assess the paragraph, provide a paraphrase in response, and identify the summary of the passage. It is a reading comprehension strategy (Wormeli, 2005). For students who are unfamiliar with the method, summarization can be rather mysterious and confusing (ibid). The reading aspect of summarizing and responding to reading has been emphasized here; however, it is necessary to take into consideration the interaction relationship between both reading and writing that is stressed in these two tasks (Brown, 2003).

Note-Taking and Outlining

The test-takers are required to provide important information, such as the main concept and any supporting details, in this assessment (wong, 2006.) As a final point, note-taking and/or outlining techniques are often utilized to assess a reader's understanding of lengthy materials. Both of these procedures belong firmly within the scope of informal assessment (Brown, 2004). The most popular note-taking technique among college students is probably the outline method. It forms the basis of the textbook chapter or lecture topic and is a great study guide for test prep since it naturally arranges everything in a highly structured, logical manner (Wong & Lim, 2023).

2.5. Approaches to Reading Comprehension

In order to become effective readers, English language learners must first conquer two significant challenges (Klinger, 2004). They must first be able to master both top-down, conceptually oriented comprehension strategies and basic bottom-up strategies for decoding individual letters, words, and sentences. Second, in order for second language readers to successfully implement such interpretations, they must establish the proper content and formal schemata background knowledge and cultural experience as part of those top-down techniques (Lyster, 2010, p.39). There are three significant methods that make an effort to define the reading process. Top-down and bottom-up approaches are distinguished from one another (Block et al., 2009). In contrast to the top-down strategy, which is reader-driven and knowledge-driven, the bottom-up procedure is text-driven and word-driven. Johnson (2001) asserts the significance of both models. The interactive approach is a concoction of these two strategies; which method might be best depending on the kind and volume of the book, the level of the class, the needs of the students, the goal of the reading, and the time allocated.

2.5.1 Bottom-up Process

This framework is a decoding process that conveys meaning from smaller units at the "bottom," such as letters or words, to the bigger ones at the "top", such as phrases, sentences, and paragraphs (Carrell and Eistenhold, 1983). Readers begin by understanding the letters, words, and grammatical components of a text before formulating its meaning (Spiro, 2017). They primarily use the text, but they give barely any attention to the reader's prior or background information. Brown (2006, p. 2) defined bottom-up processing as the process of "using information we have

about sounds, word meanings, and discourse markers like first, then, and after that to assemble our understanding of what we read or hear one step at a time". This approach, known as bottom-up, was initially presented by Gough in 1972, as specified by Hudson (2007). It depends on the assumption that a reader infers meaning directly from letters, words, phrases, clauses, and sentences by separating the text into smaller phonemic units that convey lexical meaning. The reading assignment is meant to be comprehended by dividing down the material into a number of distinct phases that happen in a particular sequence, from sensory stimulation to cognition to the appropriate answer (Perfetti & Stafura, 2014). There is a notion that information gathering occurs quickly, effectively, and passively. The reading process is constrained to the understanding and decoding of letters, words, and finally sentences using the above technique. Additionally, it neglects how the reader's prior knowledge contributes to comprehension. As a result of the repetitive nature of this approach to reading, 36 students will miss the desire to engage in reading. According to Johnson (2001), the bottom-up strategy is insufficient for comprehension since it minimizes the value of the information the reader brings to the content. This theory states that processing is mostly not bound by the information that is stored in memory. Alderson (2000, p. 17) opposes the bottom-up method since it acknowledges that "readers are passive decoders of sequential graphic-phonemic-syntactic-semantic systems".

2.5.2 Top-Down Process

In opposition to the bottom-up approach, which neglects the students' previous knowledge, the top-down approach emphasizes the significance of the students' past knowledge and expectations in supporting them in creating meaning from a reading text (Alderson, 2000). The top-down approach enriches the learner's previous knowledge, which helps them receive the information more effectively. When learning another language, top-down processing is directly related to the idea of schemas. Top-down processing is described by Brown (2007) as "conceptually driven processing in which we draw on our own intelligence and experience to understand a text" (p. 358). In contrast to bottom-up processing, which includes decoding individual words and sentences to produce meaning, this is sometimes defined as reviewing and generating meaning from a text's overall structure. Reading is described as a top-down process by Hudson (2007), who also believes that it is a selective process. It entails the selective use of limited linguistic signals that are available based on the reader's expectations and perceptual data. According to Brown (2006, p. 2), top-down

processing is defined as the process of "using our prior knowledge and experiences; we know certain things about certain topics and situations and use that information to understand". This means that people allow their knowledge and expectations to drive them to become skilled language users; both top-down and bottom-up approaches are required (Verbeek, 2011).

The reader begins the text with an overall idea regarding what could be included (the schema). This is derived from the reader's prior knowledge, who employs this schema to identify and understand visual clues. According to Klingner et al., (2007), reading can be learned through flexible education that takes advantage of the reader's prior experience, their comprehension of what the text suggests, and the situational context. Ahmadi et al., (2013) theory believes that a reader approaches a text with concepts above the textual level already constructed and then decodes the text itself, leaving aside certain parts of it that appear to be unrelated to the reader's objectives. The top-down strategy emphasizes reading skills involving anticipating, summarizing, and making predictions from texts. Thus, language teachers should consider knowledge and comprehension as valuable instruments while teaching EFL students the skill of reading. Both top-down and bottom-up approaches are needed to support students in becoming skilled language learners (ibid).

2.5.3 Interactive Process

Many scholars, including Ahmadi et al., (2013), argue that none of the two methods specified above the "top-down" and "bottom-up" approaches stand independently for efficient reading. Harmer (2002) claims there should be a connection between bottom-up processing and top-down processing. With bottom-up processing, the reader concentrates on specific words and phrases and accomplishes comprehension by linking these minute elements to form a whole. Using top-down processing, the reader gets an overview of the reading passage by taking in the broad context and is prepared to form reasonable expectations. As a consequence, the interactive approach, an appropriate mix of both of these strategies, has arisen. This approach creates a balance among the different top-down and bottom-up methods. In simple terms, an interactive process demands taking advantage of previous knowledge, predictions, and context. It also incorporates the concepts of immediate and accurate feature identification for letters, words, and lexical structures, as well as the idea of analyzing them automatically. Nunan (2003), who based his claim on the three reading models mentioned above, believes that comprehension interaction models provide the most

comprehensive explanation of the reading process. Consequently, reading's objective is to comprehend the text. In addition to reading a text, the reader should comprehend its meaning. Reading without comprehension is meaningless; readers choose to engage in meaningless tasks when they simply skim a text. Therefore, it can be proven that comprehension is of the utmost importance in reading.

2.6. Reading Comprehension and Assessment

English has emerged as an extremely important language for all societies in the universe. English has four main skills, focusing on the reading skill, which is a crucial skill for any individual who intends to communicate successfully, in addition to speaking, writing, and listening. Reading is one of the most vital skills. Chawwang (2008) says that it functions as a beneficial instrument for knowledge acquisition. For many people, learning English is a continuous skill that they can use for both studying and everyday communication (Kucukoglu, 2013). Following this point, prospects for both personal and professional success might be lost without a strong reading foundation (Madani, 2016 & Anderson et al., 1985). Students should have a variety of methods or techniques if they are interested in fully understanding what they read. How much an individual might achieve in both their personal and professional lives is strongly associated with the extent to which they are able to read (Block & Israel, 2005). There are different uses for reading. First of all, it reduces tension for the reader. In their free time, the majority would rather spend time reading their favorite books. Secondly, reading is vital for academic success. Last but not least, readers might be just searching for general or specific information. As an example, throughout each of

their enrolled courses, students are usually asked to read academic papers or books. Some of the justifications for reading are presented in the previous set of reading purposes said by Arshad et al., (2020).

However, for students to achieve success in today's educational conditions, reading comprehension, which is described as "the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language" is essential (Snow, 2002, p. 10). As part of the process of teaching and learning reading, assessment is an important phase. Teachers need to understand how they should assess their students. An integrated process is used in order to assess the nature and scope of students' progress and development (Linn and Gronland,

2003). In addition, to assess students' progress, teachers might make use of different kinds of educational approaches. Börjesson (2012) considers that implementing different assignments for teaching and assessment might influence the opportunities for students to have their performance assessed. Along with other testing and measurement tasks, listening comprehension should be measured. If no measurement or assessment is conducted at the end of the teaching process, it would be nearly impossible to identify the effectiveness of classroom activities (Çelik, 2011).

Generally speaking, assessment is the process of gathering and questioning information gathered from various sources to create a comprehensive picture of what students have learned, understood, and are capable of doing with the information they have gained as a result of their educational experiences. The process is finished when the findings of the assessment are used to improve future learning (Huba and Freed, 2000). Any technique, plan, or instrument a teacher employs to gather evidence regarding a student's advancement toward predetermined objectives is referred to as an "assessment" (Chen, 2003). In another words, it is a procedure for collecting information regarding the knowledge that students have acquired. Formative and summative assessments are the two primary categories into which assessments can be divided, according to Chen (2007).

2.7. Types of Reading Assessment

Effective assessment is one of the many elements that positively raise EFL learners' reading comprehension. Assessment, which gives students feedback, is crucial to the teaching and learning process regardless of the instructional strategies employed (Alias et al., 2015). In accordance with a review of the literature, there are two different forms of assessment: formative and summative (Brown, 2004, p. 13). The type of assessment that teachers employ should align with the assessment's stated objectives. Using a formal assessment, for instance, allows teachers to evaluate students' achievement in school while comparing it with the work of other students. Teachers might use informal assessments to make instructional improvements or to track students' progress and support them in enhancing their own learning (Williams, 2015). In the profession of education review, each type can play a variety of roles. It may be either formal or informal. Consider the following:

2.7.1 Formative Assessment

Formative informal assessments, which assess students' achievement and growth, are those impromptu types of assessment that are simple to include in regular lessons. Informal assessments are driven by behavior and subject matter (Weaver, 2013). Because it is used to measure and monitor both students' progress and the teaching process, formative assessment is significant due to the fact that it is always carried out to serve a variety of purposes. As stated by Hedge (2000), formative assessment enables teachers to use any knowledge they have received regarding their students' progress as a tool for any future procedures intended to assist students' learning. In order to measure the efficacy of their instruction, teachers also employ formative assessments (Greenstein, 2010). Therefore, teachers should evaluate their students' performance informally without letting them recognize that they are doing so. Ongoing assessment of similar types is possible during the teaching and learning process.

A test referred to as formative assessment is administered at the completion of each unit of a course to ensure that students have mastered the objectives for that lesson (Shavelson, 2003). The goal of this sort of assessment is to enhance students' performance by offering helpful feedback and remedial education. Since students develop their knowledge by analyzing and internalizing teachers' feedback, many classroom assessments, such as reading aloud, group or pair work, and skimming, can be of the formative kind. In addition, teachers provide exercises like summarizing and paraphrasing texts, comprehension questions, and writing summaries according to the learning objectives (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2004).

Furthermore, Crooks (2002) suggested that rather than a formal assessment exercise that is scheduled in advance, assessment in learning is more typically focused on improving student growth and frequently involves somewhat unstructured exchanges between the learners, teacher, and student. It mainly depends on assessments and examinations that have been specially created for each unit of the course (Linn and Gronlund, 2003). After searching for the definition of the term "formative assessment", the researcher concluded that in-course evaluation is known as formative assessment. This type of assessment's main goal is to give students quick, insightful feedback on their growth, allowing them to consider any mistakes they may have made and make improvements. For them to have such opportunities, it is essential that teachers give students meaningful input throughout the course.

2.7.2 Summative Assessments

Summative assessment supports teacher decisions regarding classroom instruction (Musa and Islam, 2020). This indicates that the summative assessment is concerned with figuring out how to assess the students after they have fulfilled their goals. In the opinion of Cahyono and Widiati (2015), the purpose of summative assessment is to determine students' learning at the end of an entire course of teaching by comparing it to certain standards. It carries a high point value, just like the last assignment, documents, and the midterm exam (Harlen, 2006). Summative assessments assess students' reading proficiency at the end of a learning phase. Final assessments typically fail to offer feedback or any recommendations for how to make improvements (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2004). Furthermore, Hammond and Darling, (2006) said that summative assessments are mostly used to decide on grades or to judge a student's readiness for development. They often take place at the completion of a learning session and aim to assess a student's overall effectiveness. This form of assessment is utilized for presenting students' skills to external stakeholders, such as administrators and supervisors, in addition to providing a foundation for grading assignments. Thornbury (2005, p. 124) asserts that there are two approaches to assessing speaking: summative assessments (formally) and formative assessments (informally). However, the first point from a practical standpoint appears to be simpler to comprehend than the second in this aspect. Teachers should use assessments that are appropriate for the task at hand. For instance, teachers may employ formal assessments in order to assess students' performance in school while comparing it with the progress of other students. In addition, all assessment strategies, including quizzes, achievement tests, and proficiency tests, should be recognized by both teachers and students. Therefore, each of these categories are discussed. Face-to-face communication is necessary (Ghermaoui, 2018).

Hedge (2000) further supported the value of employing summative evaluation in reading classes. This form of assessment is mostly used to document or summarize the results and overall accomplishments of students at a specific point in time, such as the middle, end, or beginning of the year. Typically, this recording is carried out gradually. However, when teachers decide on direct assessment, they assess student performance while it is happening (Luoma, 2004). This is because direct assessment greatly increases teachers' ability to influence student performance. Teachers can make use of informal assessment if they desire to monitor the growth of students,

assist them in getting the most achievable from their education, or make use of assessments to enhance instruction (Williams, 2015). In the respect of the above-mentioned scholars who have defined the term "summative assessment", the researcher is defining it as an event that generally takes place at the end of a course or unit, such as a final exam or major essay. This kind of assessment is used to make judgments and formally measure student achievement against learning outcomes, as well as to judge program, course, or unit effectiveness (Shute, 2008). Providing timely and meaningful feedback to students is still important, however, as students will receive feedback on summative tasks at the end of the course, which will not necessarily help them improve. According to several studies (Boud & Falchikov, 2006; Davison, 2019; Katz, 2012; Leung, 2004), formative assessment emphasizes recording students' progress, while summative assessment appears to play a significant part in language assessment with the aim of reporting the final evaluation of learners.

2.8. Strategies for Reading Assessment

Researchers have been particularly interested in strategies for reading and their significance to second-language acquisition over the past couple of years (Carrell, 1989; Rahimi & Katal, 2012; Wenden, 1998). Every educational system places a high value on reading, so developing one's reading abilities is essential and may be accomplished with the use of efficient reading strategies. Various definitions are given to reading strategies. According to McNamara (2012), "A reading comprehension strategy is a cognitive or behavioral action that is enacted under particular contextual conditions, with the goal of improving some aspect of comprehension" (p.6). The definition of reading comprehension methods provided by Edge (2002) is that they let students decide how to actually apply what they have learned to all reading situations by encouraging them to use their experiences, prior knowledge, critical thinking, and evaluation (p. 4). The application of reading strategies has been proven to be mandatory, and this is particularly significant for English as another language (ESL/EFL) learners who seek to achieve a high level of English language fluency and success in US higher education (Sheory & Mokhtari, 2001).

Reading strategies are used as guidelines and aids to improve reading comprehension and prevent comprehension failures at both word and sentence levels (Aarnoutse & Schellings, 2003). Reading strategies used by readers of different levels have been studied in a different but related field of

research. According to Rajoo and Selvaraj (2010), who describe reading strategies as "how readers interact with the written texts and how these strategies help to enhance text comprehension, which includes mental plans". However, teachers need to be aware of reading strategies in order to facilitate students' reading, regardless of the approach they choose to use in the classroom. Current thinking on the teaching of second language reading strategies suggests (Afflerbach, 2012). The teaching of strategies should be contextualized. Strategies should be taught explicitly through direct explanation, modeling, and feedback. There should be a constant recycling of strategies over the next texts and tasks. Strategies should be taught over a long period of time (Bouchard, 2005). Some of the strategies of reading comprehension are presented and discussed in details in the following paragraphs:

Vocabulary

The technique for creating vocabulary questions while assessing student performance on the vocabulary exam is known as the vocabulary assessment approach (Webb & Chang, 2015). The receptive aspect of vocabulary has frequently been highlighted in assessments of vocabulary as it relates to reading comprehension (Pearson et al., 2007). The question format needs to include a set of objectives that students are expected to meet. To ensure that students can answer the questions, the teacher needs to develop a vocabulary assessment approach (Zhang & Zhang, 2022). The first decision teachers must make if they choose to test vocabulary directly depends on whether they want to evaluate production or recognition. Multiple-choice questions (MCQs) and matching are common forms used to assess vocabulary recognition (Coombe, 2011). According to Guo et al., (2011) and Nezami (2012), vocabulary knowledge and vocabulary competence are critical components for learners to successfully comprehend literary works. A significant component of reading ability, according to Hudson (2007, p. 227), is vocabulary. It suggests that having an extensive vocabulary may help with reading comprehension. Since word meaning directly affects understanding of the text, reading comprehension as well as vocabulary are profoundly connected (Gray & Yang, 2015). A student's ability to comprehend the material they are reading might be impaired if their vocabulary is limited because they may not be able to identify significant terms in texts.

Furthermore, Nassaji (2014) emphasizes how critical the recognition of words is for comprehending and obtaining the deeper significance of the text. In other words, a crucial reading skill is the capacity to deduce the meaning of unfamiliar words from texts (Alderson, 2000). Koda (2005) consistently advises against implementing higher-level strategies such as focusing on ideas across sentences too quickly with learners who are still having trouble extracting the meaning of words because this might negatively affect English language learners and create confusion and frustration. According to Kieffer and Lesaux (2012), there is a significant correlation between the quantity of vocabulary and the comprehension of text. Reading comprehension may be more challenging for students who struggle to recognize numerous words in a book than for other students. Even advanced students may find it difficult to understand texts with a large number of foreign words, especially if word meanings are crucial to comprehension (Kuzborska, 2012; Snowling & Hulme, 2005). As a result, when students read, their vocabulary deficits can be filled in by using the skill of identifying the text's key terms (Lehr & Osborn, 2001; Guo & Roehrig, 2011).

Additionally, vocabulary contextualization is a crucial component of reading comprehension. Students are required to be able to contextualize a text, according to Foley and Thompson (2003). Additionally, Ur (2005) encourages students to concentrate on the important sections of the text while attempting to deduce the literal meaning of the incoherent language from the context. At the student level, (Rashidi & Piran, 2011) said that both accurate and comprehensive reading might result in word development and vocabulary growth. Rivers (2000) asserts that by employing the following strategies, teachers may assist their students in deriving meaning from documents in an interactive manner: to encourage students to concentrate on meaning through morphological investigation and examine prefixes and suffixes; to paraphrase statements that contain unfamiliar words; to incorporate the context regarding the structure in addition to semantic components while encouraging students to generate inferences compared to them; and to illustrate parallelism with native language (Reutzle & cooter, 2007).

Although the strategies listed above might be useful and efficient, some of them might prove challenging to implement in practice because of the obvious differences between English and Arabic. Furthermore, these techniques must be used by experienced teachers who are fluent in English and possess linguistic proficiency (in syntax, semantics, phonology, and morphology).

While Chun (2001) contends that students of L2 who have inadequate competence in a second language rely more on familiarity with vocabulary than students with high proficiency, Cain (2010) claims that having an understanding of the meaning of words within a text represents an indicator of a reader's comprehension. The most significant challenge faced by foreign language learners during the process of learning a foreign language is vocabulary, according to research conducted in 2012 by Ahmadi who found that it was once thought that vocabulary acquisition was not as significant as language acquisition; hence, it is critical to have procedures in place for evaluating students' vocabulary (Hubley, 2012). Therefore, it might be questioned whether understanding the text is assured once a reader comprehends all of the important terms without having any prior knowledge of the subject matter as well as without comprehending how words are combined in sentences.

Pronunciation

A key aspect of students' linguistic skills for lexical identification is phonetic processing and awareness (Blythe et al., 2015). Reading comprehension is improved by pronunciation (Lipka and Siegel, 2012). Phonological processing is described as "identifying the individual sounds that make up words (phonemes) and then identifying the words that the sounds combine to make" (Willis, 2008, p. 162). Phonological awareness is the capacity to recognize phonemes in conversation and to be sensitive to the phonological structure of words. Intermediate readers participate in phonological decoding, which is the challenging and deliberate identification of words by matching the written letters of a particular word with its speech sounds, in accordance with Blythe et al., (2015), while proficient readers use the strategy of phonological recoding, which is an immediate and unconscious recognition of abstract phonological codes. According to the findings of Boer et al., (2014), phonological knowledge enhances both silent and spoken reading equally. Nevertheless, when reading silently, phonological activation is implicit, automatic, and faster than when reading aloud, which demands overt articulating of words, which is slow and requires intentional phonological coding (Alario et al., 2007). The processing of phonology becomes more significant as readers' skills advance and word recognition develops a more automatic process with increasing reading experience (Blythe et al., 2015). Based on Melby-Lervg et al., (2012), letter-sound recognition is a crucial skill that is intimately tied to understanding phonology as well as learning the skill of reading. In the identification of written words and the development of reading skills, orthographic images and phonological analysis go alongside one another (Blythe et al.,

2015). As a result, phonological processing plays a significant role in the creation of the orthographic lexicon, and there are mutually beneficial connections between them (Sprenger-Charolles et al., 2003).

In addition, terminology refers to vocal qualities, intonation, stress, and sounds. These components should be included when conducting a reading assessment because they are regarded as reading sub-skills. According to Sakale (2012), knowledge of the sound system is necessary for efficient communication. Schmitt (2002, p. 88) stated that pronunciation is "a term used to capture all aspects of how we employ speech sound for communication". The phonology of speech, however, presents a "thorny issue" for language assessment because native speaker standards of pronunciation are typically employed to assess pronunciation, which could lead to an inaccurate assessment on the part of the examiner (Luoma, 2004). As a result, defining and obtaining an accurate assessment requires the development of precise pronunciation criteria. As mentioned by Hudson et al., (2005, p. 713), "readers must be able to accurately identify the sounds represented by the letters or letter combinations and use both letter-sound and meaning cues to determine the exact meaning of the word in its context".

Fluency

One of the key elements of a reading program is the development of reading fluency, which affects students' reading comprehension by organizing significant ideas and enabling immediate and precise word recognition (Macalister, 2014; Ari, 2015). A high level of understanding is typically indicated by good reading fluency, according to Chang and Millett (2013) and Basaran (2013). Reading fluency is seen as a crucial link between comprehension and word identification skills. Instead of consuming a lot of time decoding words, fluent readers concentrate on comprehending what they read (Frye & Trathen, 2006). In simple terms, students who read fluently have a tendency to decode automatically, which makes the process of identifying, interpreting, and understanding in the context of reading much more practical. In terms of how it is defined as a concept and how this concept is measured, fluency is considered a contentious subject. Teachers of languages assess accuracy by determining whether their students can build language sentences that adhere to proper usage standards (Fulcher, 2003). The accuracy and speed of a reader's reading are related to their fluency. According to Samuels (2007, p. 564), comprehension and fluency are strongly related: "the reader must be able quickly and easily recognize words in order to achieve a

solid understanding". As a result, it is critical that teachers promote and encourage students' fluency in reading. In order to promote word recognition, accuracy, and speed while also improving reading fluency, this strategy encourages students to read a material aloud several times (ibid).

Alyousef (2006) identifies reading as an interaction between a reader and a text, which means that the reader engages with the text by extracting the meaning of words included within. As indicated by Yildirim and Ates (2012), reading is also described as a difficult process of understanding and decoding written language. A skilled reader is one who can accurately and successfully derive meaning from a piece of literature. Additionally, proficient readers are supposed to be capable of fully understanding the words that they read instead of simply recognizing them. Additionally, proficient readers are supposed to be capable of fully understanding the words that they read instead of simply recognizing them (ibid). According to McCormick and Zutell (2010), reading fluency is an important aspect of reading behavior that needs to be included in both the teaching and evaluation processes. However, fluency has not gotten the amount of attention it deserves in L2 reading research (Grabe, 2010). This could be mostly due to the fact that accuracy is valued more highly than automaticity and speed when it comes to word decoding (Chang, 2012). Reading requires higher-level cognitive processes like comprehension, which includes drawing conclusions and using techniques to interpret text meaning, and smaller-scale cognitive processes such as word recognition, (Grabe, 2009 and Chang, 2012).

Accuracy

Reading accuracy is an indicator of whether or not students are reading books at an appropriate level. According to Pallotti (2009), accuracy is defined as "the simplest and most internally coherent construct, referring to the degree of conformity to certain norms" (p. 592). This suggests that the concept of accuracy is well-defined, as it incorporates language elements like using vocabulary and grammatical structures appropriately across a range of oral competency levels. Speech syntax in English language instruction appears to be being reconceived at the same time as the growing acknowledgment of the need to take speech grammar into account when evaluating speaking. According to Goh (2009), one of the key concerns covered in the concept of accuracy as an element in oral language acquisition is the assessment of grammar in speech. As a result, several grammatical characteristics of spoken grammar are identified, including verbal concepts

and grammar in both planned and spontaneous speech (Luoma, 2004). Guided reading instruction uses books that are qualitatively leveled, meaning that they should support students when employing various sources of knowledge in order to recognize words (Mesmer, 2010). Throughout the course of the academic year, Mesmer collected data for her study and compared it to see whether or not each student's accuracy level was affected by decodable or qualitatively leveled texts, texts that are utilized in guided reading instruction. It was discovered that the accuracy study conducted throughout the first-grade year revealed consistent improvement independent of text and ambiguous results for texts (ibid).

Comprehension

One of the main components of reading is comprehension. Comprehension is an underlying part of learning and a complex process with many layers of understanding. According to Fountas and Pinnell (2017), comprehension is the essential, central component of reasoning, which is a more complicated and wide-ranging skill. Comprehending what they have read helps them significantly. When a student struggles to answer comprehension questions, it means the text is too hard for them to understand and they are not remembering the material. According to Baier's (2005) study on reading comprehension and reading strategies, sixth grade students scored higher on tests after applying the reading comprehension technique than they did before. According to Fisher (2008), the practices of reading are supported by the following principles: fluency, accuracy, and comprehension, which deal with the development of critical literacy and the teaching of comprehension methods (p. 20). Such comprehension techniques are taught to children through guided reading instruction, which also offers a welcoming environment for them to engage with and respond to comprehension questions.

In the comprehension process, Snowling and Hulme (2005, p. 102) distinguish three stages of understanding: word level, sentence level, and text level. Browne (2004) stated that grammatical knowledge is included in sentence-level abilities, contextual comprehension is included in text-level skills, and phonic and graphic knowledge and word identification are included in word-level skills. Fisher (2008, p. 20) said that reading skill group provides a nurturing environment to encourage such active engagement in meaning-making. Students can expect to be more likely to comprehend the texts they read if they do this. Iaquinta (2006) noted, taking into account the significance of reading instruction and its effect on students' understanding. Each component of the reading lesson structure. Fountas and Pinnell, (2001) serves a purpose connected to the

students' capacity for meaning construction. This allows for various forms of learning to occur in various ways. Together, these elements produce a coherent whole that serves as a strong foundation for understanding.

Using prior Knowledge or Previewing

During the previewing activity, teachers must provide hints to students, such as a picture or title that relates to the reading content, and encourage them to make predictions before reading. Students are supposed to use the information provided by the teachers to articulate their opinions in relation to the text after recalling their past knowledge through the picture or text title before reading; this is an activity in which they are permitted to make predictions. According to Heng-Tsung (2009), a preview is an introductory passage provided to students in advance of their actual confrontation with the reading selection to help promote comprehension. One reading technique that students frequently use is previewing. The text itself, its title, any subheadings (smaller titles within the reading), and any supporting artwork (photographs, drawings, etc.) are all described by Fellag (2006) as a preview or perspective in advance. Previewing, then, is the process of inferring the text's substance from its title or subheadings. Prior knowledge can be added before reading by looking at images or photos, understanding the definitions of some words used in the text, and providing answers to some text-related questions. Eye tracking technology was utilized by Prichard and Andrew (2016) to assess how Japanese L2 readers of English preview their content. The assignment for the participants was to read the text and provide a brief overview of it.

Prediction

Predicting anticipates "joining the reader's background knowledge, new information from the passage, and the passage's construction to make assumptions" that are connected to the writer's content, as defined by Ahmadi and Ismail (2012, p. 157). It is considered as a technique that enables students to express opinions on the primary topic that may come up in a reading text before they have read it by using information from the teachers' suggestions through the text, such as titles, headings, pictures, and diagrams (ibid). Previewing helps students remember what they already know and establishes a goal for their reading. Readers are permitted to scan a text before beginning to read it, looking for different elements and information that will be useful when they go back to read it in full. According to Bailey (2015: 12), "it allows students to use textual information, such

as titles, headings, pictures, and diagrams, to anticipate what will happen in the story". Johnson (2001) notes that the top-down approach includes prediction. A reader's prior knowledge or experience aids in their ability to anticipate the writer's next words. Grellet (2010) suggests that readers can anticipate what will happen next by using grammatical, lexical, and cultural cues. A proficient reader does not need to read every line in the book; instead, success mostly rests on anticipation.

Furthermore, a text's title serves as the first step in the prediction process, which lasts the entire reading process. Even though predictions are not always accurate, they still prompt readers to consider the subject since predictions can be helpful even when they do notcome true (Nuttall, 2005). The ability to anticipate what will happen next is constantly necessary for proficient readers. They make use of the fewest indications provided by the text to determine its proper meaning. Teachers should get their pupils to think about the subject, use the book's important terms, and pose questions to themselves about the several ways the text might evolve (Grellet, 2010 and Cuperman, 2014). One strategy to assist students in making predictions about what will happen next is to use graphics when appropriate (Harmer, 2002). On the other hand, Johnson (2001) contends that using cloze exercises, in which students are given texts with certain words missing, can aid in the development of predictive abilities. One of the abilities that teachers and students, especially those in elementary school, can easily develop is prediction. Instead of writing down or announcing the reading text's title at the beginning of a lesson, teachers should show their

pupils some photos or provide hints to spark their imaginations and get them started on making predictions (ibid).

Summarizing and paraphrasing

Summarizing information is a time-efficient method of obtaining and remembering it when needed in the fast-paced, information-producing, and information-consuming world of today. A summary is a text that has been condensed based on its primary and secondary concepts, and then the reader reconstructs it (Topçu, 2015). Summarization is the process of attempting to comprehend and rephrase the feelings, thoughts, and designs of another author, whereas the author applies his own feelings, thoughts, and designs to writing in text form. Bahap and Baylık, (2016) found the core idea, connecting supporting ideas to the major idea, eliminating superfluous details, and arranging the main and supporting ideas in accordance with the main text are only a few of the sophisticated

cognitive processes involved in summarizing. Thus, the foundational component of summarizing writing is reading comprehension. In addition to helping students comprehend material and commit it to long-term memory, summarizing ensures that mental skills are used effectively, which enhances memory and comprehension (Susar & Akkaya, 2009). Empirical research indicates that proficient readers are also excellent at summarizing, and the use of educational summary techniques improves comprehension (Belet, 2005). It makes the lessons acquired sustainable (Tok & Bayazıt, 2007). For academic performance, comprehension and memory are crucial. Summarizing is employed as a learning approach as a result of this.

In addition, upon obtaining a bachelor's degree, university students must complete multiple assignments, such as reports, scientific papers, articles, and dissertations. As references, they undoubtedly need to have a large library of books. Nonetheless, Escudero et al., (2019) since there are a ton of resources available online, university students should not be worried about this. Because there are so many free references available, some students may resort to participating in various academic misconduct, such as downloading and then claiming to have written something that was written by someone else. Plagiarism is the term for this recent trend (Kher & Rani, 2018). However, university students frequently employ paraphrasing in their writing, and it is the most crucial technique for them to apply in a genuine academic setting (Dung, 2010; Irmadamayanti, 2018; Masniyah, 2017). This approach is typically used to demonstrate students' comprehension and engagement with the subject at hand (Dung, 2010). According to Bailey (2011), plagiarism is the act of borrowing ideas or material from other writers without properly citing the source in your own writing. As a result, in order to prevent plagiarism, students need to be proficient writers who can convey their thoughts, emotions, and experiences to the reader (Masniyah, 2017). Writing is therefore regarded as the most crucial talent in teaching English, in addition to being a challenging skill. According to Anderson et al., (2013), this ability is one of the criteria used to evaluate a student's academic achievement.

Interview

A reading classroom teacher or any other assessing agent can utilize an interview as a method of evaluation to learn more about their students (Seda & Pearson, 2010). As you formulate specific questions targeted to the specific reading and writing tasks your students are completing, refer to the sample literacy process interview questions provided as a guide (Mackey and Gass, 2005).

Questions might concern, for instance, what the reader did when they came across an unfamiliar word, asks the reader to identify the part of the text they are reading, why they are reading it, their thoughts, and their enjoyment. It also asks for clarification on any parts they don't understand, their actions when encountering them, and if the text reminds them of any previous readings (Scott, 2008). By asking such questions, a reading teacher can gain important insight not only into the kinds of vocabulary that might pose difficulties for the students' readers in the course of study, but also into specific strategies that a particular reader may employ to handle unfamiliar or challenging words (ibid). Informal assessments known as literacy process interviews are used to find out how writers and readers process their own work (Wood, 1988). While participant comments are not assessed, teachers might use them as a guide when teaching various reading methods and abilities. An informal method for finding out about students' reading preferences, choice of content, and use of strategies before, during, or after reading is the Comprehension Interview (Johnston, 1983). Teachers may, for example, interview students to learn more about their thought processes, comprehension levels, communication skills, and conceptual application (Thornbury, 2005). Furthermore, interviews might reveal additional details about exceptional students, such as those who experience psychological issues that could impede their ability to study. According to Dakowska (2005, p. 245), interviews are challenging because they call for some preparation from the interviewer in the form of a study, the selection of questions that are relevant, and previous analysis of interviews in order to accurately assess either the questions or the information elicited. Teachers are under pressure to grade a large number of pupils in a short amount of time, which makes it difficult (ibid). These could be the causes of EFL teachers' continued lack of enthusiasm for having their students' reading skills tested (Luoma, 2004, p. 36).

Observation

Informal assessment can be more objective by using a consistent schedule, consistent notes, and consistent grading criteria. Teachers should record observations, notes, and comments on student performances to make informal assessment more effective and fairer Saunders et al. (2009). Portfolios and projects should be constructed with clear goals and assessed according to preestablished grading criteria. When using multiple student performances, decide on a grading or commenting plan before evaluating students Gray (2014). Reviews of student reading records, reading charts, and portfolios should include notes and comments on activities at multiple points in the school semester. Teachers can assess student learning using common techniques like end-

of-unit tests and quizzes. However, informal and alternative assessment options like student observations, self-reporting measures, progress charts, and interviews are crucial for effective learning assessment (Dawson, 2009). Additionally, "classroom observation is a crucial component of initial teacher training and feedback, offering trainee teachers a priceless chance to enhance their instruction, receive guidance from, and share ideas with, experienced teachers". In this context, "the observation should be arranged in an optimistic climate of professional trust ... and should be practitioner-led and not observer-led" (Harvey, 2006, p. 11). This practice should increase the trainee's confidence, excitement, and expertise.

When different approaches of assessment are ineffective, observation proves to be successful. It can be used, for instance, by a teacher to find out how his or her students perform when they are solving problems or how well they collaborate to finish a particular reading assignment. Assessment can be normative or criterion-based, leading to different tests and scoring. Classroom observation is a method of systematically observing a teacher's performance in their classroom or learning environment (Punch, 2006). It is a quantitative way of recording and measuring teacher behavior and mastery. There are two main types of observations: those performed by school administrators or peers, instructional specialists, or coaches, with the primary goal of providing feedback on classroom management and instructional techniques (Grbich, 2013). The primary purpose of classroom observation is to improve student outcomes by improving the teacher's instructional prowess, investigate possible inequities in instruction among different groups of students, and provide researchers with information on current educational practices and instructional problems (Bryman, 2012).

New general and special education teachers are typically the focus of classroom observations, while experienced teachers can benefit from the feedback and insights gained through observation (Oliver, 2010). Classroom observation can be brief or long, and methods can be homegrown or nationally recognized. Good classroom observation should include a stated purpose, specific focus, operational definitions, training procedures, observation schedule, setting, unit of time, method to record data, and method to process and analyze data Cohen et al., (2011). Technology has made classroom observations more accessible and effective, with smartphones and tablets providing high-quality recording devices and subscription-based online services offering additional

observational functionality and data analytics Lo et al., (2013). As a result, observation can also help teachers decide what has to be done next: whether to move forward or to go back and review particular areas since students remain unable to comprehend them.

Critical thinking abilities

One of the skills that is required and that needs to be improved in the twenty-first century is critical thinking (Trilling & Fadel, 2009). It is also regarded as a skill that may be developed in a person's lifetime (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004). Cognitive abilities can be categorized into two categories, higher-order thinking, which involves creating and assessing knowledge, and lower-order thinking, which entails recalling and processing information (Edwards & Briers, 2000). Paul and Elder (2008), on the other hand, discovered three levels of thinking, which comprise higher-order thinking in addition to the first two. Critical thinking, which is a component of higher-order thinking, is perhaps the primary focus of today's academic achievement. Critical thinking was first conceived as a western idea, but it is currently regarded as a global competency for education in the twenty-first century (Gbènakpon, 2017; Rear, 2017). In language education, the importance of critical thinking abilities has been acknowledged in a number of settings. Although critical thinking techniques were first applied in language acquisition in the United States, they are now acknowledged globally (Lai, 2011). Researchers and educators have focused more on how language learners' higher-order thinking skills are developing over the past few decades (ibid.). English foreign language classrooms are considered to be beneficial environments for developing 21st century skills, including critical thinking (CT), creativity, communication, teamwork, ICT literacy, leadership, and responsibility, in addition to social and cross-cultural competencies (Zhou et al., 2015). Teachers are being encouraged to incorporate these skills especially critical thinking into their lessons by EFL directors, professors, and writers.

Moreover, Alsaleh, (2020) states that CT is one of the most important and critical components of success in the twenty-first century and that EFL teachers need to understand it better in order to prepare autonomous learners who can critically assess their own method of learning while also focusing on the acquisition of L2 skills. Therefore, Gbenakpon, (2017) said that encouraging critical thinking in EFL classes proves crucial for a variety of reasons. Firstly, language learners will more effectively monitor and assess their own learning processes if they take responsibility for what they are thinking (Rafi, 2004). Second, critical thinking gives language greater meaning

42

and extends the learning experience for students. Thirdly, there is a significant connection between critical thinking and students' academic success. Mok (2010) concurred with Baez (2004) regarding the contribution of English language teachers to the enhancement of their students' critical thinking abilities. Teachers in Baez's study acknowledged the value of teaching critical thinking, but they felt that they needed more support and a specialized professional training program on applying critical thinking in EFL. This program also addressed Baezs's (2004) recommendation that teachers assess their own context and create their own learning objectives in order to improve students' communicative competence in English as a foreign language and to promote critical thinking in general.

2.9. Principles of Assessment

There are a few kinds of conditions that every test should adhere to in order to accurately determine what the teacher aims to assess. To create an adequate and successful assessment, two prerequisites, known as validity and reliability, must be met. Reliability and validity determine the accuracy of estimates of welfare change derived using valuation methods.

2.9.1. Validity

Teachers must take validity into consideration when creating tests. According to Hughes (2003, p. 50), "a valid test must provide consistently accurate measurements". Validity tests must accurately measure the things they are intended to measure. There are several levels to the test validity idea that need to be addressed in the assessment. The question of whether the exam contains a representative sample of the content is posed by the first layer of this structure, content validity. A research instrument's validity is evaluated based on how effectively it measures the intended variables (Robson, 2011). The aforementioned concept should not be ignored by test takers or curriculum designers, as students are likely to do badly on exams if the implications are not taken into account. However, reliable assessments yield information that can be utilized to guide decisions about education in a variety of aspects, including individual student progress and performance, teacher evaluation, and school effectiveness and improvement. But validity is not a feature of the test; rather, it's the extent to which inferences made from the test data can be regarded as "appropriate and meaningful" (Caffrey, 2009). The process of validation requires collecting evidence that supports the implementation and interpretation of test results according to the

constructs the concepts that the test is meant to measure in the process. The conclusions generated from test results may not fully reflect the knowledge of the student and hence present an opportunity for validity if the test fails to assess all the skills within a given concept. For an assessment to be declared valid, it must accurately reflect the information and skills it aims to evaluate. Additionally, it must be reliable and accurate across testing contexts and scorers in assessing students' ability to preserve validity for a diverse range of students (Darling-Hammond et al., 2013). In a similar direction, there have been cases where the teacher employs strategies in class that are different from those used on the exam. This can be helpful in ensuring that the test being administered measures exactly the same concepts as the reference exam, such as speaking, writing, and listening (Middleton, 2019). Concurrent validity is another crucial concept in validity testing. The teacher-created test and the reference test are given at the same time, but the same criterion-related validity technique applies (ibid).

2.9.2. Reliability

Reliability is the degree of consistency in which instances are classified as belonging to the same category by several observers or by the same observer on various occasions (Silverman, 2005). A test is considered dependable if its results do not vary from expected in a reasonable manner. In simpler terms, reliability is defined as receiving comparable results on the same test from the same student (Bazen et al., 2021). Test results' stability and consistency under various conditions are referred to as test reliability. Gray (2014) states that stability and equivalency measures might be included in the definition of reliability as a consistency measure. Furthermore, reliability is considered as one of the key elements that determines whether a measure is considered dependable or not (Bryman, 2012). A measurement is considered reliable if it consistently yields results with identical values (Blumberg et al., 2014). It shows whether or not the same participants will yield identical results whenever the data collection and analysis procedures are repeated. It is regarded as a crucial component in evaluating the metrics used in research that are both qualitative and quantitative (Bronson, 2015). Reliability is intended to improve validity and lessen researcher bias (Butler, 2021). Muñoz and Álvarez (2010) believe that using a variety of activities increases assessment process reliability and provides students with extra opportunities to demonstrate their extensive range of knowledge.

In addition, in the words of Downing (2003), exams with constructed responses are challenging to assess consistently and accurately. As stated by Brown (2006), utilizing thorough and precise rating criteria together with several training sessions to teach examiners how to apply the criteria as objectively and precisely as possible are two of the best strategies for solving the challenge. Based on Moana-Filho et al., (2017), assessing several sources of error at once rather than concentrating on one source at a time can improve the assessment of the reliability of sensory testing. Additionally, there are two crucial areas to look through in order to determine the reliability of the method for scoring. It includes reliability between and within raters. Both of these are required while testing reliability. Due to the fact that language tests, by their very nature, require the least amount of rater subjectivity possible while scoring (Weigle, 2001), inter-rater reliability is related to the agreement between two raters, while test-retest reliability is acquired by repeating the same measure twice (Graziano & Raulin, 2010). Devellis (2006) argues differently, it applies to the practice of several teachers assigning identical scores to identical examinations. The question of reliability examines how similar the items are on a scale or measure.

To conclude, it can be argued that reliability and validity are related to each other, but they have different foci. Reliability is a necessary condition for validity, but it is not sufficient on its own. In other words, reliability is much narrower, and validity is much more comprehensive. As a result, when designing an oral test, a balance between reliability and validity should be struck. When it comes to test content, such as test purpose or use, validity focuses on these domains.

2.10. Reading Assessment Tasks

The assessment tasks prepared for assessing the aforesaid reading skills of students only serve the pre-decided purposes of assessment. The selection of comprehension tasks is a critical component of an effective reading instruction program (Rivers, 2000). There are moments when it may seem that the reading assignments are meant to test students rather than contribute to their comprehension. It used to be believed that creating a valid and reliable comprehension skills test was simpler than creating one for speaking and writing (Hughes, 2001). There should be a balance between the difficulty and ease of reading assignments. To encourage reading, they have to be difficult but doable. The variety in the texts and tasks used adds to the validity of the assessment. These two language learning models have served as important frameworks for ideas and

viewpoints regarding language instruction in the classroom (Mullis & Martin, 2019). In summary, learners must be able to complete the exercises or tasks successfully in order to succeed in language learning not only to receive higher marks. Assessments have been used in language training to start real-world language practice (Little & Erickson, 2015). There is a new theory that suggests language learners should work on performance-based assignments (Brown, 2014), which clearly redirects the emphasis of language learning from the language itself to the performance of the language.

Furthermore, the assessment tasks are to a great extent reliable in the sense that there is little chance of obtaining different scores for the same answer irrespective of variables like scorer, time, and place. The answer key and clear instructions curtail such chances. Arias et al., (2020) mentioned that The Carless approach has provided an understanding of how learning tasks are designed for assessments and how students participate in them. Although this concept is unusual for language acquisition, it is not new to the world of education. In order to assist language teachers in using assessment in their classrooms, Purpura and Turner's (2014) framework for L2 learning has emerged. An alternative framework focuses on factors associated with various aspects and participants in language acquisition. It also emphasizes how different parties involved in language learning interact with one another. The summative and formative assessment data gathered in the classroom, along with the tasks assigned to students, are the primary focus of Jones and Saville's (2016) framework. Assessing reading in terms of the selection of task type Questions have been avoided to maintain both validity and reliability. There is no reason why these tasks cannot be used in a classroom like mine for assessing reading skills (Kam & Meyer, 2015). Though such tasks take a lot of time to design, they are easy to score and offer little scope for teacher bias.

In addition, according to Litz and Smith (2006), cloze assessments are useful for assessing language proficiency and reading comprehension in meaningful contexts. In addition, these tasks can be administered in a classroom without making any special arrangements for assessment. Moreover, students can be easily involved in assessing themselves through such tasks. Perhaps the best part of these tasks is their authenticity (Wray & Dahlia, 2013). However, it is impossible to include all types of authentic texts in this assessment. Too many authentic texts may hamper the practicality of the assessment. Understanding a reading text requires both a more active assimilation of the text's content and prior background knowledge, as well as the ability to deduce

words' meanings and relationships among them using past grammatical knowledge (Montgomery et al., 2007). Lastly, the assessment is expected to have a positive impact on teaching, learning, the teacher, and the learner. Such an assessment will help the teacher and student do away with memory-based tests. Teachers must also consider and be familiar with the past of their students while creating assessment tasks. Differences in development and the availability or lack of parental scaffolding can lead to inequality in assessment tasks and methodologies. Rose (2016) conducted research on native Australian children and found that parents who were highly educated supported their children's literacy development before school started. In contrast, children who did not receive this support were immediately at a disadvantage and were unable to cope with their reading development (Ashraf & Zaki, 2015). The teacher may find it easy to identify the problem areas (in relation to reading) of students. If used wisely, the tasks may promote learner autonomy. The teacher can also collect information about the assessment from students and make further improvements.

2.11. Types of Scoring and Rating Scales

Evaluating reading comprehension is a very complicated and demanding task. The two primary categories of rating scales: holistic and analytical, which they define the general methodology for evaluating a given assignment. Reading assessments use two techniques for evaluating reading skill performance: holistic and analytical scoring (Luoma, 2004). The field of language assessment has recently given particular emphasis to the need to develop and evaluate interactional competence (Galaczi & Taylor, 2018). Instead of depending on assessing particular abilities, these scorers provide a single score based on the overall caliber of students' performances (Brown, 2004). Hughes, (2003) stated differently, the score obtained using that technique is not a single number, but rather the total of multiple characteristics of the students' work. Thus, analytic rubrics help students improve reading comprehension by identifying areas of weakness and identifying skills for further improvement, rather than focusing solely on a single score. weaknesses and which skill of reading they need to work on for further improvement (Chan et al., 2015). Analytical scoring evaluates the readers' performance on a number of factors, including reading skill, vocabulary, topic, and comprehension, whereas holistic grading gives an overall assessment of the reading performance (Chuang, 2009). Both holistic and analytical rating scales have advantages and drawbacks, which are reflected in the ways they are used and intended to be used.

Moreover, Hughes (2003) states that the primary benefit of using a holistic grading scale is its rapidity. They also facilitate scoring because there is less to read and memorize than in a complex grid with several criteria (Kintsch & Vipond, 2014), making them practical for decision-making (Chuang, 2009) and more user-friendly for scoring. As it provides no information regarding a student's reading difficulties, this could have the unintended consequence of making the scores from this kind of scale less reliable. It also prevents children from being guided and assisted in improving their reading skills. A further disadvantage of the analytical scale is that raters could find it hard and confusing to focus on many elements of a linguistic sample that need to be tested and to analyze them simultaneously. Furthermore, the concentration on individual components of the performance might distract a rater from the performance's overall impact (Hughes, 2003; Davies et al., 1999; Kim, 2005). The relevance of the provided rating scale to the level of language samples actually evoked in each assessment situation must thus be examined by language instructors (Nakatsuhara, 2007).

2.12. Challenges Effecting Teachers Reading Assessment

EFL teachers typically encounter different variables, which lead to their challenges when assessing reading comprehension. Consequently, teachers must focus more on the components, situations, and elements that support effective reading (Mitasha, 2013). Assessments require dedication and time, and they cannot be sufficient because teachers are frequently faced with issues when teaching reading in reading classes. It is not attainable for students to practice reading in the exact same style that they may practice speaking. Even with lower-level processes, students with lower ability levels experienced higher difficulties (Namaziandost et al., 2019). In simple terms, reading proficiency allows students to apply their other proficiencies. As a result, teachers must exercise creativity when creating lesson plans that give students chances to practice reading comprehension. A few of the difficulties are discussed here.

2.12.1 Teachers' Insufficient Experience in Assessing Reading Proficiency

Research indicates that one of the primary variables influencing instructors' expertise is their prior experience, either as teachers or as learners (Arıoğul, 2007). Early experiences as learners have a significant impact on the job that teachers do in the classroom (Breen et al., 2001). If teachers believe that a particular form of learning would be effective for their students, they will probably use it. This could not always be the case, yet, since many students might have requirements that

differ. It also has been established by researchers including Freeman (2002), Meijer et al., (2001), Breen et al., (2001), and Borg (2003) that instructors' prior experience and knowledge of learning are crucial to their effectiveness as teachers and to their classroom practice. It is imperative that teachers address both the needs of their students during reading classes and their responsibilities with regard to evaluation. Sahinkarakas (2012) asserts that experienced teachers place an excessive amount of weight on themselves and do not require confirmation of their ability to teach. Sahinkarakas continued by noting that it is critical to maintain teachers' motivation and that it would be possible to plan some in-service teacher training programs in this regard. It takes excellent leadership, administrative, and communication abilities, as well as the capacity to plan lessons and administer unbiased, appropriate assessments, to be a good teacher. Allen's (2008) argument in which he pointed out that "The majority of teachers have an insufficient command and training of English to be able to teach it effectively and teachers with insufficient subject knowledge have very little if any confidence" (p. 2). According to Strong et al. (2004), an effective teacher is always learning owing to several factors such as changes in the curriculum, community, finances, and student characteristics. Furthermore, by employing various strategies that best meet students' learning needs, experience could be expanded. In summary, Arıoğul (2007) highlights the significant impact of teachers' prior experience and knowledge on their classroom practice in teaching grammar, emphasizing the importance of understanding how theoretical and practical knowledge are transferred. The reason for this is because teachers' practical knowledge is eventually influenced by their prior information, which in turn impacts their new learning.

2.12.2 Providing Constructive Feedback

Effective education and instruction depend on feedback, which also enables students to see their points of weakness. Giving feedback to students is a crucial part of teaching languages, and teachers can use explicit or implicit feedback. There is evidence, according to Ellis (2006), that providing specific feedback is more successful at encouraging learners to apply the structure correctly both right away and in the future. This could be because students receive clear feedback straight from the teacher, saving them from having to figure out what the teacher is trying to say. Even though some researchers, like Muranoi (2000), have determined that implicit feedback is more likely to be more helpful, using it won't always work because not all of the learners may understand. Formative assessment (Black and Wiliam, 2004; Shavelson, 2003) places a strong emphasis on the value of giving students feedback in order to support their development. More

significantly, students can overcome whatever mental block they may be experiencing with the help of their teachers' feedback. Students who experience repeated failure may develop severe psychological barriers that hinder their capacity to acquire listening skills. The greatest factor influencing student achievement is the feedback they receive. Whether on purpose or accidentally, teachers provide their pupils with rapid feedback every time they meet (Gibbs and Simpson, 2004). While some researchers contend that providing positive feedback has a greater positive impact on learning, others have entirely different findings. Additionally, when teachers provide their students with constructive criticism, they encourage them to keep learning and alert them to their mistakes so they may make the necessary corrections. One crucial component of corrective feedback is its immediacy; it can be delivered vocally or through nonverbal cues in the classroom as soon as a job is finished (Binu, 2020). Feedback should be given frequently and positively in order to increase students' motivation and self-esteem. In addition, pupils ought to receive recognition for any advancements they achieve and the accurate answers they give in class. By using body language, facial expressions, and echo correction to encourage struggling students to continue with the work with greater interest, positive feedback can aid weak students (ibid).

2.12.3 Insufficient Training Sessions

The effective teaching of reading depends on the professional growth of teachers. Brief training sessions would not provide EFL teachers with the essential abilities and information. Also, short instruction programs would not result in significant changes in practice, as noted by Adey and Hewitt (2004), particularly when those programs are held in a location other than the teacher's own classroom. To effectively manage their activities, EFL teachers must be aware of the most recent methods and strategies. This is confirmed by Carless (2004), who said that teachers may not make the required adjustment if they are insufficiently prepared to handle the implications of a new approach. Instead, they may return to the safety of their previous approaches. Allen's (2008) argument in which he pointed out that "The majority of teachers have an insufficient command and training of English to be able to teach it effectively and teachers with insufficient subject knowledge have very little if any confidence" (p. 2). Without sufficient training, teachers who are initially supportive of a development may later grow frustrated with it due to its flaws. In the framework of the research, frequent teacher training sessions are therefore necessary since teachers gain confidence when their expertise is continuously updated. Kennedy (2005) discovered that knowledge transmission model-based teacher training programs might not be successful in

implementing the necessary change. Teachers may not think about the circumstances in which they work as a result of these approaches. According to Sailors and Price (2015), teachers require support for their own professional growth. Teachers will have more helpful and successful teaching methods if they maintain informed on the most recent developments and courses connected to their field. Karavas-Doukas (1998) stated that innovation can result in improvements to teacher beliefs and behavior as well as curriculum. Therefore, it may be claimed that in order to support teacher growth, training sessions need to be well-planned and targeted. The Libyan universities do not provide such workshops based on the belief that academics and university teachers are already qualified enough to teach any subject (Elabbar, 2011). Furthermore, worldwide training programs have become more and more common in recent years, especially for instructors and students of foreign languages. A teacher "should be in a constant training-learning process and have the capacity to reflect upon their own practice" (Allen, 2008, p. 20). According to Alrawashdeh and Al-Zayed (2017), who were on the same page, teacher development training programs are critical for raising awareness of their instructional skills, enhancing time management, advancing technical knowledge, and teaching educators how to better inspire their students. Teachers get fresh ideas from training programs on how to make their lessons and courses more engaging and intriguing.

2.12.4 Classroom Size

The correct classroom size is crucial to educating and evaluating English-reading students. According to Adeyemi (2008), it is a teaching tool that may be used to characterize the typical number of students in a class at a school. Additionally, scholars like Achilles (2003) and Bennett (1996) focus on the interactions between teachers and students in the classroom. They think longer periods will result from larger classes because teachers will have more time for instruction and one-on-one time with each student. One may argue that even though instructors may not be performing up to par, class size does have an impact on Libyan universities. Evertson et al., (2011) discovered that when the average class size in their schools reaches 32 students, the significant impacts of class size are substantially larger. This is accurate since teachers can apply their teaching and assessment expertise more effectively in small-sized courses than they can in large ones. Borland et al., (2005) Despite extensive educational literature on class size's impact on student achievement, empirical studies are often hindered by four factors: using a student/teacher ratio, estimating a mis specified model, not considering family effects, endogeneity of class size,

and using an incorrect functional form when specifying the relationship between class size and achievement. Moreover, Obiakor and Oguejioffor, (2020) conducted a study that investigates the impact of classroom size on the academic performance of secondary school students in Nigeria. The findings suggest that large class sizes lead to poor teaching methods and inadequate use of instructional materials. The study recommends increased funding for secondary school education and focusing on class size to avoid overcrowding and improve academic performance. Later, Finn et al., (2003) created a conceptual argument supporting the idea that student participate in the classroom is the primary mechanism explaining why fewer classes result in higher achievement. It is concluded that student engagement is more impacted by class size than by instruction.

2.13. Previous Studies

The literature revealed that numerous research projects on reading instruction and evaluation have been carried out. Recently, reading assessment has come to be seen as a significant topic in language testing studies. Numerous scholars from various backgrounds, including Mitasha (2013), Al-Shareef (2022), Omar (2022), Al-Ghazo (2017), Zaet (2022), Vidhiasi (2022), and Mohamed (2016), have investigated how teachers assess English reading comprehension in the classroom and their perspectives on the direction and goal of assessment procedures. Few studies have been conducted on the problems facing the higher education system in Libya (Tamtam et al., 2011).

Mitasha's (2013) study is part of a research project aimed at promoting a reading culture among adults and children in IsiZulu and English. It focuses on the assessment of English reading among Grade 4 learners at a rural primary school in Kwazulu-Natal. The study aims to understand the assessment methods and their impact on learners' development and growth in reading. It emphasizes the importance of using appropriate assessment tools to monitor reading skills and design strategies for learners. The study aims to identify methods for improving the reading culture at the school.

However, Al-Shareef (2022) studied the listening assessment strategies used by EFL teachers at Zawia University and the challenges they face in assessing students' listening skills. The study used both quantitative and qualitative methods, with a structured questionnaire and semi-structured interviews with six teachers. The quantitative findings revealed that teachers use meta-cognitive,

52

cognitive, and socio-affective strategies but often neglect cognitive and socio-affective strategies. The qualitative findings revealed challenges such as limited background knowledge, choosing appropriate texts, setting tasks, scoring tests, teachers' experience, a lack of teaching resources, and a lack of training sessions. The study provides implications and recommendations for improving listening skills in English as a foreign language.

Furthermore, Omar (2022) investigated the strategies and challenges faced by English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers when assessing their students' oral skills. The research used both quantitative and qualitative methods, including a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. The findings revealed that most teachers consider accuracy, fluency, communicative skills, time, reliability, validity, vocabulary, pronunciation, and students' transitions as categories of speaking assessment. However, they do not apply this theoretical knowledge in their real-life speaking classes. The majority of teachers do not employ formative assessment, set speaker assessment tasks at appropriate difficulty, use oral presentation tasks, discussion and decision tasks, or use analytical scores. Instead, they use summative assessment, role-play tasks, and holistic scores. The study also identified internal and external challenges faced by teachers, such as choosing appropriate assessment categories, assessing different types of speaking, and ensuring valid scoring.

Another study conducted by, Al-Ghazo (2017) who explores the reading comprehension strategies used by Jordanian and English language teachers in their classrooms. The study involved 20 female teachers from the Ajloun Directorate of Education, who used various strategies such as word recognition lists, sentence completion tests, oral reading, text comprehension tests, and reading self-assessment. The results showed the importance of reading assessment in effective teaching of reading.

Moreover, Zaet (2022) examined the attitudes of Libyan EFL university teachers and students towards using audio books for reading fluency development. A mixed-methods approach was used, including a closed-ended questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. Eight EFL Libyan university teachers were interviewed in addition to the 70 EFL university students and 60 EFL university teachers who completed the questionnaire. SPSS was used to analyze the quantitative data from the questionnaire. Additionally, a thematic analysis approach was employed to examine

the interviewees' qualitative material. Results showed high attitudes towards audio books, with teachers believing they can aid teaching and students recognizing them as effective teaching tools for both in-class and out-of-class assignments.

Another study conducted by Mohamed (2016) explores the challenges faced by Libyan students in reading comprehension within the English language program at Zawiya University, Libya. It evaluates current teaching practices and identifies key factors contributing to inadequate performance. The research, based on a positivist philosophical paradigm, found that students lack reading skills and the culture of reading, leading to difficulties in English reading comprehension. Many lecturers are unaware of reading skills and focus on decoding and accuracy, while the insufficient learning environment negatively impacts learning and teaching. The study contributes to the literature and offers academic benefits for future researchers in education in the Arab world, particularly in Libya.

In addition, Vidhiasi (2022) carried out a study that aimed to understand the methods used by English language lecturers to assess the reading ability of Academy Maritime Nusantara (AMN) Cilacap students. The research involved surveying two lecturers from two different study programs, Marine Engineering and Port Management, distributing questionnaires, and conducting interviews. The results showed that the perceptive task method was the most commonly used method. However, the choice of assessment method should consider the students' understanding and conditions.

In conclusion, teachers' strategies for assessment are usually reviewed when paired with the teaching of languages as a whole. The aforementioned studies above clearly shed light on the significance of taking into account teacher proficiency with reading assessment and their implementation of it in the classroom. Nonetheless, there has not been much focus on Libyan teachers' assessment practices, especially in universities. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to fill in this gap. The goal of the present investigation is to provide further understanding of the reading assessment strategies employed by Tripoli University's EFL Libyan undergraduate teachers, as well as any challenges they could encounter when assessing their students in reading classes.

2.14. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter reviewed the definition of reading, reading, and assessment, types of reading assessments, strategies of reading assessment, principles of assessment, reading assessment tasks, rating scales, types of scoring, reading comprehension approaches, challenges in reading assessment, and previous studies in reading assessment. It was found that there are gaps in the research still encountered, while certain areas have been well researched and documented, namely the reading assessment strategies used by Libyan EFL University teachers. In the next chapter, the methodology and processes of data analysis employed in the current study are presented.

Chapter Three
Methodology

3.0. Introduction

The previous chapter presented the literature review and showed the need for further investigation in the area of reading assessment. This study is designed to identify the reading assessment strategies used by EFL teachers to assess undergraduate students at Tripoli University. This chapter of the study illustrates the research design and details the data collection techniques. Additionally, the pilot study, sampling and data collection procedures are provided. Moreover, the ethical concerns and data analysis procedures are provided. The summary of the chapter is also highlighted. It also arises from the aim of finding out the challenges that EFL teachers encounter when assessing their students' reading skills. In order to achieve these objectives, this study provides a description of how the research is designed to address the following research questions:

1- What reading assessment strategies do EFL instructors use with the undergraduate students at Tripoli University?
2- What are the challenges EFL instructors encounter when assessing their students' abilities in the skill of reading?

3.1. Research Design

The research design structures the data gathering and analysis processes (Bryman, 2012). It is defined by Cohen et al., (2007) as the general strategy that the researcher employs to integrate the various elements of the study in a coherent and logical manner. The nature of this study requires the use of both quantitative and qualitative data because of the overall scope of the study. It is conducted to investigate reading assessment strategies used by Tripoli University teachers at the undergraduate level and to identify the challenges EFL teachers might encounter in their reading classes. Therefore, mixed-methods design is the methodology used in this study, and it is known as methodological triangulation. Turner et al., (2017) defines triangulation as an effective research methodology that allows researchers to gather data from several sources and compare findings in

order to acquire a greater comprehension of a subject of study. Using triangulation in research has several advantages, such as higher validity and reliability, deeper and richer sets of data (ibid). The major justification for this is that neither quantitative nor qualitative methods are adequate, by themselves, for documenting the overall patterns and specifications of a situation (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003).

Furthermore, Leedy and Ormod, (2016, p. 329) argue that there are "some research problems practically scream for both quantitative and qualitative data". In the words of Streefkerk (2019), the quantitative research technique is centered on testing ideas and hypotheses that have been subjected to statistical and mathematical analysis. The quantitative data were represented through the design of a questionnaire to generally investigate teachers' background knowledge about reading assessment and to what extent they use the reading assessment strategies in their classes. The participants are forty teachers from different faculties at Tripoli University. They were chosen randomly. The data obtained from the questionnaire were analysed by SPSS software. On the other hand, the qualitative research approach "focuses on exploring ideas and formulating a theory or hypothesis analysed by summarising, categorising, and interpreting" (Streefkerk, 2019, p. 2). A semi-structured interview with six teachers was conducted as a qualitative data instrument. They were chosen in purpose, according to their experience. The qualitative data were analysed using the Thematic Analysis Method. More importantly, the motivation for employing this framework in this study is found in the idea that by investigating the research focus from many perspectives, a greater comprehension of its significance is likely to be gained (Cohen et al., 2007).

3.2. Data Collection Instruments

The significance of employing two data collection technologies as a triangulation derives from the fact that using more than one data source helps in as (Paradise et al., 2016, p. 262) stated "enriching and cross-validating the research findings". Mason (2006) recommended mixed-methods research that is "qualitatively driven" (p. 9). Mason's assertion that mixing techniques may strengthen and improve "the logic of qualitative explanations about social life" was corroborated by Creswell et al., (2006, p. 2). Therefore, two methods are used for data collection, which include questionnaires and interviews. The structured questionnaire is used to identify how frequently teachers apply the reading assessment strategies at the undergraduate level at Tripoli University. However, the semi-

structured interview method is used to discover and maintain the challenges EFL teachers might encounter in their reading classes. The two instruments are explained below in detail.

3.2.1. The Structured Questionnaire

Questionnaires are widely utilized as primary data collection method for gathering quantitative data (Bell & Bryman, 2022; Gray, 2014). Online surveys, according to Regmi et al., (2016), have the benefit of efficiently gathering vast amounts of data while also saving the researcher money and time. Many elements work together to make online data collecting appropriate, legitimate, and reliable when planned and carried out properly. In this study, a closed-ended questionnaire was employed to identify reading assessment strategies used by EFL teachers in their reading classes. There are different types of questionnaires, yet this is the most appropriate type for this research since it is a highly efficient quantitative technique because it makes it possible to quickly collect large- scale statistical information (Kothari, 2004). They are also more straightforward to answer and therefore require a shorter amount of time to complete (Kumar, 2014). The questionnaire consists of questions and items. Twenty-seven items were created to examine the teachers' prior knowledge of reading assessment strategies. Also, the questionnaire was designed by the researcher and revised by the supervisor to measure how frequently teachers use the reading assessment strategies. A 5-point Likert scale with five possible responses (always, usually, sometimes, rarely, and never) was positioned following each statement.

Moreover, in order to guarantee clarity and prevent ambiguity and misunderstanding, the questionnaire items were carefully written and revised many times. According to Denscombe (2007), even minor data entry errors can significantly bias the general direction in which survey responses tend to point. As a result, it was decided that a high level of consistency among the data's constituent elements would be a helpful indicator for validation. Three skilled teachers who have taught language skills at Tripoli University also reviewed the questionnaire's items. The questionnaire was additionally piloted in order to verify its validity and reliability. SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) software was used to analyze the data obtained from the questionnaire.

3.2.2. Semi-structured Interviews

A standard interview involves both parties having a purposeful and meaningful conversation with one another. But in this particular interaction, the interviewer is asking the interviewee questions in order to gain answers for certain reasons (Cohen et al., 2007). Interviews are one of the primary methods used in qualitative research and are appropriate when it concerns collecting information on people's perspectives, opinions, feelings, and experiences, which is one of the goals of this study (Punch, 2005; Denscombe, 2010). This type of method is used since the researcher is interested in teachers' challenges, which they may encounter while assessing reading. Thus, semi- structured interviews were employed since the design of this type is open-ended to encourage the interviewee to elaborate on the issue in an exploratory manner (Dorney, 2007). The interview question consists of eight questions (see appendix B) carefully prepared, taking into account the theoretical framework of the challenges teachers experiences while using reading assessment strategies. Moreover, only five EFL teachers were interviewed because the researcher reached to the saturation point, and no new data is needed.

To guarantee the accuracy of the data written, all interviews were recorded. Data recording according to Bell (2005, p. 164), "is useful to check the wording of any statement you might wish to quote and to allow you to keep eye contact with your interviewee". As previously stated, the flexibility of a semi-structured interview is a feature that makes the method distinctive and unique. Whenever other study-related difficulties arise, the researcher is free to ask questions that are not covered by the written material (Grada, 2014). However, to enhance the validity and reliability of the study interview, three experienced teachers who have taught English at Tripoli University piloted the interview questions. In addition, reliability could be addressed through honesty, authenticity, and fairness in the method structure (Magaldi & Berler, 2020). The data collected from interviews was analysed by using the thematic analysis method.

3.3. Pilot Study

A pilot study is the initial phase of the overall research process and is frequently a smaller-scale study that helps in designing and modifying the main investigation (Lowe, 2019). Pilot studies are defined by Simkus (2022, p. 85) as "a fundamental stage of the research process. They can help identify design issues and evaluate a study's feasibility, practicality, resources, time, and cost before the main research is conducted". Enhancing the quality of research is one of the objectives

of a pilot study, and this can be done in practically every area of the research process (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). A pilot study should aim to identify the need to modify questions or additional steps that do not elicit suitable responses or prevent researchers from obtaining rich data from the questionnaire, not just to declare that it was completed or to justify the approaches employed without offering any details (Pearson et al., 2020). Based on the replies from the participants, Quintão et al., (2020) emphasize how important it is to enhance the validity and reliability of the study. A good research study with relevant experimental design and accurate performance is essential for high-quality outcomes. A pilot study is the first step in the research protocol, often assisting in planning and modification of the main study (Gudmundsdottir & Brock-Utne, 2010). Also, it helps researchers understand the purpose, experimental methods, and schedule of the study, aiding in selecting the most suitable research method for the main trial. Therefore, a pilot study ought to be regarded as a crucial part of any research strategy (Kim, 2010).

In addition to gathering data, the pilot study aims to teach participants how to collect data correctly and reliably (Burns, 2000). Research instrument piloting is important for boosting validity and reliability (Bryman, 2008). The researcher gave three EFL teachers from Tripoli University and Libyan Academy with prior expertise in teaching language skills a preview of the final text of the questionnaire before distributing it to the participants. It was necessary for the researcher to ascertain whether the information requested would be represented by the questionnaire items. Finding out whether or not the questionnaire items had any weak points proved to be helpful. However, questions regarding the questionnaire's clarity, layout, structure, and time spent on it were posed to the participants. The questionnaire's layout is clear and well-organised, based on the responses from the participants. The participants also noted that the questions have a clear structure and meaning. The questionnaire took five to fifteen minutes to answer completely. There were no difficult questions because all of the participants provided answers to every inquiry. In order to prevent duplicate data, the researcher reduced the number of the questions because several of the items had similar meanings based on the replies from nine participants.

The following is a discussion of these changes:

- Section One of the survey the yes-no questions related to instructors' general assessment backgrounds were eliminated since they were deemed unnecessary, and some of the elements were combined with the other Likert questions.

- Two questions that were already implemented were considered unclear based on feedback provided by research participants. Thus, "I give students feedback" has been modified to "*I use students' performance to provide feedback on their reading tasks*."

- The other item was changed to read, "I use assessment to identify students' skills, needs, and level," instead of, *"I use assessment to identify students' level."*

- The initial section of the questionnaire now includes the following new question: "*I clearly explain the instructions for reading tasks*".

- Reduce the number of questions and reorder the question numbers.

Additionally, due to the guidance of the pilot study, the researcher was able to modify a few questions and arrange the interviews. A few interview questions were changed in order to prepare for the data collection in the real study. The pilot study gave the researcher the opportunity to refine the timing of interviews and the questions addressed. For instance, reasonable changes were made to the interview questions' order based on how difficult they were. To determine whether there would be any issues when the researcher worked with the actual data, the data from the pilot study was analysed. More than one question was modified; for example, number seven *"What does 'valid and reliable scoring' mean to you as a teacher?"* apprised to, *"How do you choose tasks for reading assessment, and is it a challenge for you?". "What do you know about the term "assessment" in general and the reading strategies of assessment in particular?"* changed to *"What do you know about the term "assessment" in general and how do you assess your students' ability in the skill of reading in particular?"* In conclusion, the researcher gained valuable expertise in organizing and conducting interview questions, which helped to complete the real data collection process consistently and productively.

3.4. Sampling and Population

The sample of participants is the group of people that the researcher truthfully examines in a case study as explained by Dörnyei (2007). It implies that "participants in a study may select answers to questions that require basic personal or social data, and they can answer and complete the researcher's questions" (Creswell, 2012, p. 382). The present study primarily concentrated on the strategies that teachers use to assess students' reading skills and the possible challenges they might encounter. Based on the research instruments of questionnaires and semi-structured interviews, this study intended to use both probability and purposive samples to achieve the research goals. The researcher used a variety of sample strategies since doing so within one study may help minimize some of the disadvantages associated with using different methodologies (Dawson, 2002). The participants were among the teachers who teach in different faculties at Tripoli University. These teachers have an equal probability of being selected only by random simple sampling (Dawson, 2002, p. 50). A random sample ensures that every single case in the population has an equal chance of being included (Taherdoost, 2016). Random simple sample was used as a technique to identify the participants. However, forty- five teachers who were teaching reading courses at three separate faculties at Tripoli University— the Faculty of Education Janzour, the Faculty of Education, and the Faculty of Education Tripoli— were given the questionnaire. Despite the fact that the teachers were both male and female, 40 of them completed the questionnaire and sent it back to the researcher. In addition, semi-structured interviews with five teachers were conducted in order to discover more about the challenges they experienced when teaching reading lessons. In order to choose the sample for the qualitative data, a purposive sampling technique was applied. More importantly, interview participants were selected based on their prior teaching experience. Snowball technique was used to choose the participants. According to Patton (2002, p. 230), "The logic and power of purposive sampling lie in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth".

3.5. Procedures for Data Collection

Following the pilot study, the data was gathered in two stages using structured questionnaire and a semi-structured interview. The questionnaire was distributed as the initial stage of data gathering. Forty- five teachers at Tripoli University received the questionnaire via Google Forms. However, 40 returned the full form of the questionnaire. Participants were informed that their identities would be kept private. The experiment in question was conducted in the middle of August and early

September of 2023. Three English departments at Tripoli University were visited by the researcher after gaining permission from the place of study. Within a month, the questionnaire was completed and returned. Software called SPSS was used to analyse the quantitative data.

The purpose of the second phase's interviews with the participants was to discover some of the challenges they might have encountered when assessing their reading class. Semi-structured interviews were employed as a method of gathering data because of the type of questions. Seidman (2013) uses this method to clarify, develop, and discover through open-ended responses how the participants perceive the study's facts. The interviews took place in September of the academic year 2023–2024 at different faculties at Tripoli University (the Faculty of Education Janzour, the Faculty of Education, and the Faculty of Education Tripoli) and were all carried out in English. However, to reduce the participants' anxiety and gain their trust, the researcher identified herself, offered an explanation of the questionnaire and interview process, and asked a series of questions. In order to encourage your interviewers to start up, Flick (2006: 169) suggested that you try "to create a good atmosphere in the interview". The interview questions were organized into a precise sequence and used straightforward, understandable language. The questions were thoughtfully designed to address a number of the challenges of teaching and assessing reading skills. To obtain valuable information and simplify the process, the investigator conducted one-on-one interviews with each teacher within their own department. Each interview was expected to last roughly thirty-five minutes. The interviews were held in modest offices within Tripoli University's English departments. In answering the researcher's questions, the participants were cooperative and eager to contribute meaningfully. It took one and a half weeks to complete the interview procedure. The interviews were recorded with the permission of the participants. Thematic analysis method was employed to analyse the qualitative data.

3.6. Generalisability of Research

Research generalisability is the degree to which conclusions derived from study may be applied to different contexts and to a wider population (Saunders et al., 2009). The validity and reliability of the instruments employed in a study determine how the research findings are generalized. Although this study concentrated at one Libyan university and three different faculties, there are limits to how broadly the findings can be applied. Still, given the similarities, complications, and

environments in which universities operate in Libya, the conclusions may apply to other Libyan universities, and the recommendations will likely be helpful to all Libyan students.

3.6.1 Validity and reliability

Validity as indicated by Hallebone and Priest (2009, p. 201), validity is the degree to which the procedures used to generate data and the conclusions drawn from them reflect and measure the objectives they were intended to describe and/or measure. Hair et al. (2007), stated that the term validity is synonymous with accuracy, meaning that a hypo dissertation examines what it is intended to measure. As suggested by Cohen et al. (2002), an effective study must have validity. If a study is invalid, it is worthless. Validity is therefore necessary for both quantitative and qualitative investigation. Nunan (2006) identified the two categories of validity: external validity and internal validity. The ability to comprehend the results of research is known as internal validity, while the degree of generalizability of the findings is known as external validity. Furthermore, validity refers to how well a measuring tool assesses the things it is intended to test (Thatcher, 2010).

Reliability is "the consistency and replicability of research"(Nunan, 2006:14). Reliability is also defined by Saunders and Lewis (2012) as the degree to which techniques for gathering data and conducting analyses will yield results that are consistent. Reliability, according to Hallebone and Priest (2009), is the capacity of the method and results to be repeated and replicated by the same researcher or by other researchers working within the same theoretical framework and in a comparable setting. Nunan (2006) says reliability can be divided into two categories: external and internal. External reliability refers to getting comparable results when the study is replicated by other researchers, while internal reliability is concerned with the consistency of data collection, analysis, and interpretation.

3.6.1.1. Questionnaire Reliability and Validity

Here, validity refers to how accurately the questionnaire reflects reality in terms of measuring the variables the researcher has selected. Controllability, replicability, predictability, generalizability and atomization of research, selection of sample, being objective, and observation are some of the standards for the validity of quantitative research (Cohen et al., 2011). In the view of Gray (2014), there are certain elements of the questionnaire's content that might affect its validity, including the

questions' syntax, relevance, and order, as well as the questionnaire's unclear structure and design. However, Kumar (2014) issues a warning against the use of leading questions, double-barreled questions, unclear questions, questions using complicated or technical terms, and questions that are predicated. In accordance with Dawson (2009), it is critical to reduce the length of the questionnaire while using a variety of question types, beginning with simple questions, and avoiding terms with strong emotional implications that could offend, depress, or frustrate respondents.

As a result, several factors should be taken into account when assessing the questionnaire's validity:

- Content validity, which has a connection with how well the questionnaire represents the answers to the research questions (Saunders et al., 2009). The supervisor and a committee of MA and PhD professors from several universities reviewed the study's questionnaire.

- Linguistic validity, the language of the questionnaire's questions, known as linguistic validity, must be carefully considered to prevent respondents from misinterpreting the questions (Saunders et al., 2009). Thus, the same academic group that assessed the content validity also carried out a linguistic check-up of the questionnaire phrasing to make sure that every word had the appropriate experiential meaning.

- Face validity, this phrase characterizes the degree to which an exam appears to measure the things it claims to measure (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004). Considering it simply takes into consideration the assessor's expertise and familiarity with the issue, it is the most straightforward and precise method of establishing validity (Nwana, 2007).

- A pilot study, which was conducted to ensure the validity of questionnaire.

In quantitative research, a study is considered trustworthy if it is replicated with identical participants under different conditions, using the same data collection and analysis procedures, and producing the same outcomes (Leung, 2015). Similar outcomes should be expected when working with a stable measure. Dependability is a key component of validity, as it lessens researcher bias and indicates the repeatability of results. A substantial level of stability indicates an increased level of dependability. Conversely, in qualitative studies, it is known when a researcher uses the same methodology for many projects and researchers (Twyeross & Shields, 2004). Reliability in quantitative analysis, according to Cohen et al. (2002), relates to consistency, accuracy, and repeatability across time, instruments, and responder groups. A study must demonstrate that similar results would be obtained if it were conducted in a comparable circumstance in order to be

considered credible.

3.6.1.2. Interview Validity and Reliability

There are several principles of validity in qualitative research. According to Cohen et al., (2011), these include the following: data are descriptive and context-bounded; the focus is on procedures rather than results; data have been analysed inductively and expressed in terms of the respondents rather than the researchers; the primary source of data is the natural setting; and it is crucial to capture the meaning and intention. According to Gray (2014), reliability can be achieved in structured and semi-structured interviews by making sure that the interviewer influence is minimized and the question's content is focused on the main goals of the study. Reliability in Qualitative investigations, also known as dependability, confirmability, or consistency, is challenging due to the lack of statistical tests (Erlingsson & Brsiewicz, 2013). Triangulation can provide a compelling argument for reliability, as consistent findings from different data sources or collection methods demonstrating research integrity (Sutton & Austin, 2015) Qualitative research can enhance understanding of care organization and practices, improving services and user experiences (Hesse-Biber, 2010). However, it is crucial for studies to be designed and implemented with confidence, a s qualitative data has historically been considered inferior. Researchers must use appropriate tools to ensure validity and reliability (Edgley et al., 2016).

3.7. Ethical Consideration

One of the most crucial things that researchers should think about right from the start of a project is ethical considerations in educational research. The emphasis on ethical behavior has increased and broadened in response to society's demand for greater responsibility (Zegwaard, Campbell, & Pretti, 2017). Therefore, participants must be protected against dishonesty and informed about the purpose of the study by researchers (Graziano & Raulin, 2010). The current analysis thoroughly examines the ethical aspects of data collection. Additionally, the researcher included comprehensive information regarding the planned data collection procedures and the specific group of participants. Since it was necessary to guarantee the privacy of the participants, the researcher was the only one with access to all personal information, including names, recordings, and transcripts. Because participants could be concerned about how they were treated, they were told that neither their identities nor their answers would be taken into account in any way when it came to their higher education or anything else degree-related. The researcher provided all relevant

details about the study, including its objective and purpose, to the chosen participants in order to win their approval (Dörnyei, 2003). The participants were also made aware of their freedom to discontinue participation in the study at any moment by the researcher. It was additionally made clear to the participants that they would have access to the dissertation upon its completion.

3.8. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter covered the study's methodological framework in depth. A questionnaire and semi-structured interviews, which are the instruments used to collect data. in addition, the research design. The procedure of sampling used to choose the participants and the pilot research were also documented. Moreover, it included processes for gathering data and ethical considerations besides academic concerns like validity and reliability.

Chapter Four
Data Analysis

4.0. Introduction

In accordance with the methodology and the study objectives, this chapter attempts to analyze the results derived from the data gathered through questionnaires and interviews. The reader might comprehend how the research questions and the data relate to one another when mixed method research is used (Jang et al., 2008). Finding the relationships between the variables and providing answers to the research questions are the two main goals of data analysis. Cohen et al., (2007) declared that every approach is suitable for analyzing particular types of data. For the purpose of giving precise responses to the research questions in this study, the two categories of data analysis, qualitative and quantitative are described in the two main sections below.

4.1. Phase One: Quantitative Data Analysis

The quantitative data analysis is provided along with background information about the participating teachers and the application of reading assessment strategies in classes. The participants' replies were analysed by using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program. As stated by Frey (2017), it is a software suite for statistical analysis and data management that can be obtained commercially. Descriptive statistics have been utilized to analyse the data in order to answer research questions, and each one represented statistical analysis frequencies for assessing participant answers. SPSS, or Statistical Packages for Social Sciences, was employed. However, 40 EFL teachers who teach reading classes received the structured questionnaire. The findings drawn from the twenty-seven items that were given to the survey respondents. The questionnaire responses show the reading assessment strategies employed at Tripoli University's undergraduate level. In order to enable comparison, the answers have been recorded and translated into percentages to provide a quantitative representation of the results. Additionally, it showed the importance level as a ranking of the statement's responses, with the highest to lowest mean values (Cohen et al., 2007).

4.1.1. Part one: Teachers Background Information

The main findings of the questionnaire related to section one is presented separately for each question, by means of a graph. A brief and comprehensive description is provided for each below.
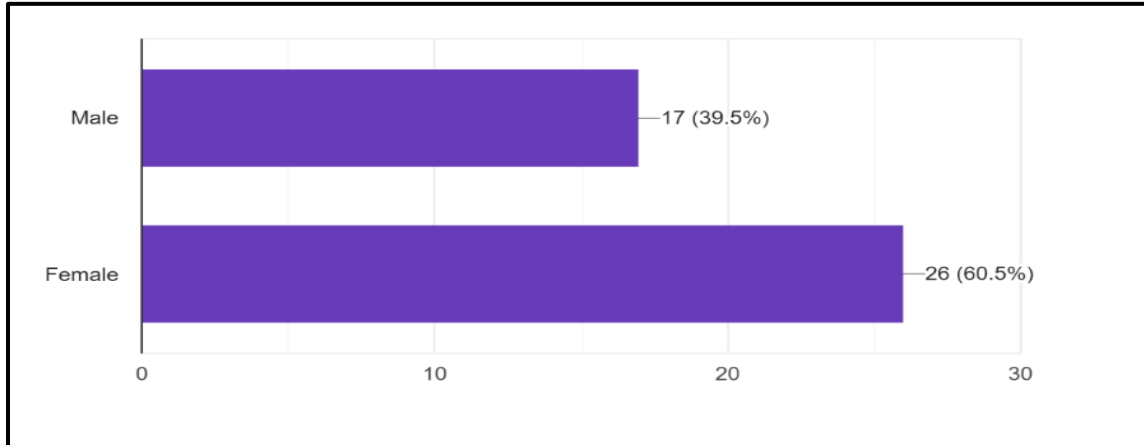
1. Participants Gender

Figure 1. Gender of the Study Participants

The above scale shows that (n=17, 39.5%) are male participants, while (n=26, 60,5%), which is most of the participants are female.
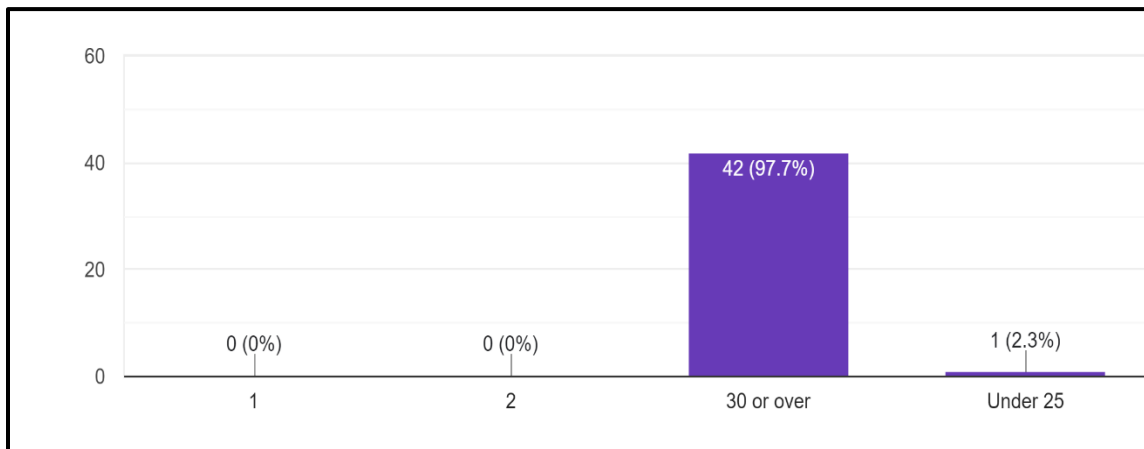
2. Participants Age

Figure 2. Age of the Study Participants

Table (2) shows that almost all of the study participants are in their thirties and older (n=43, 97.7%). Only one participant is under the age of 25 (n=1, 2.3%)

4.1.2 Part Two: Teachers' Usage of Reading Assessment Strategies

The questionnaire items (27 statements) aimed to investigate the assessment strategies of reading skills. The data gained from the questionnaire subjected to a descriptive statistical analysis. Refer to Appendix (A) for further information.

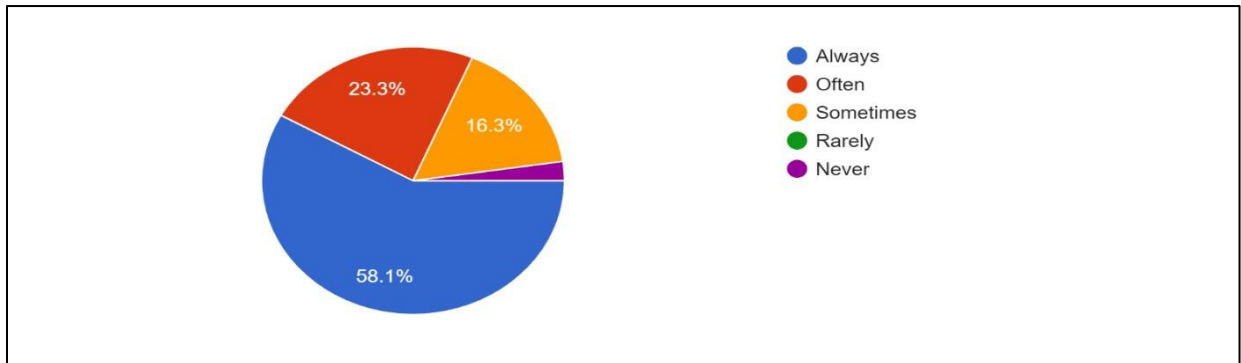## 1. Setting Goals for Reading Tasks Initially

Figure 4.1. I start with setting goals for reading tasks

The above figure represents whether teachers start their reading tasks with setting goals when teachers assess their students in reading class or not. It is found that 58.1% of the participants "always" start their tasks by setting the goals of the reading tasks of the assessment while 23% of them "often" do in reading classes. However, 16% of the teachers do "sometimes" set the goals before starting the reading tasks. Only 2.3% of the teachers stated "rarely". None of the teachers choose "never".

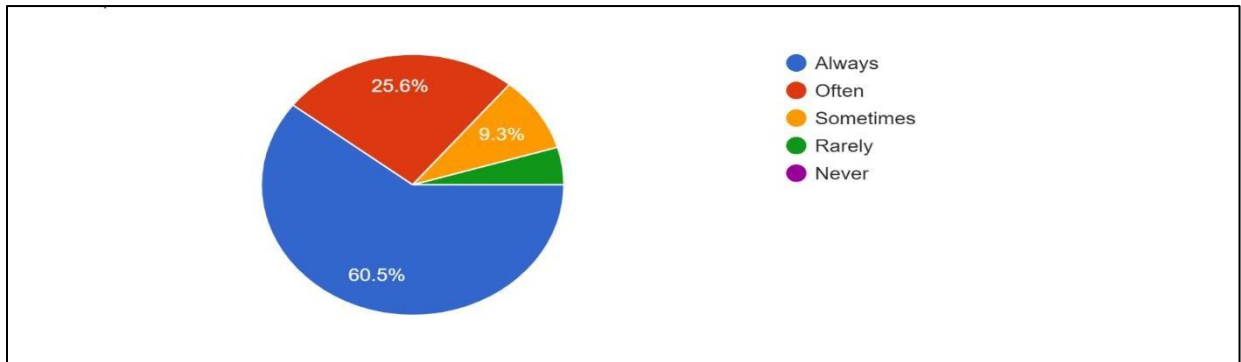**2. The Purpose of Assessment Tasks for the Students**

Figure 4.2. I identify the purpose of assessment tasks for the students

The aforementioned figure illustrates that teachers were questioned about whether or not they recognize the assessment's goal before assessing students' reading language skills. The findings revealed that, of the teachers surveyed, the majority of them 60.5% answered "always" to this item, while 25% answered "often". However, 9.3% of the teachers chose "sometimes" and 4.7% only of them answered "rarely". None of the them said "never".

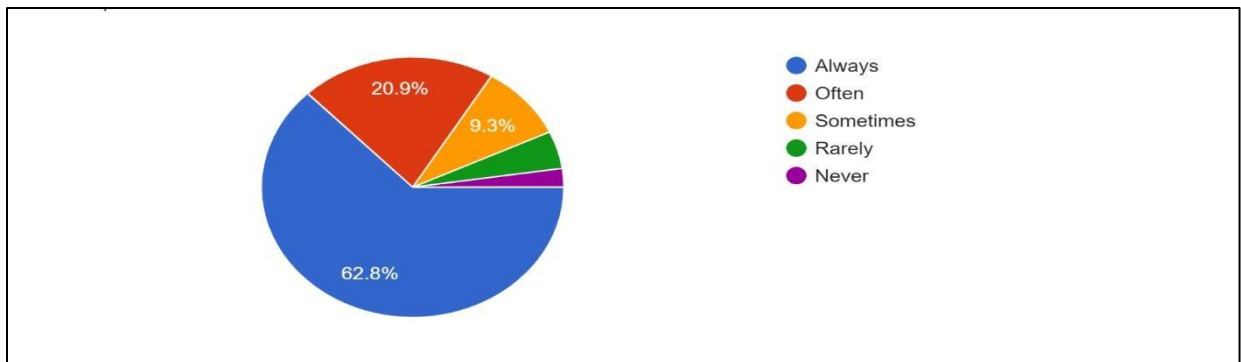**3. The Explanation of Reading Tasks Instructions**

Figure 4.3. I clearly explain the instructions of reading tasks

Upon closer inspection of figure (3) above, it can be seen that the majority of teachers 62.8% "always" were very explicit in explaining to the students how to complete reading assessment activities, while the remaining teachers were divided 20.9% chose "often", while the other 9.3% teachers selected "sometimes". Only 4.7% of them answered "rarely". Only 2.3% of the teachers chose "never".

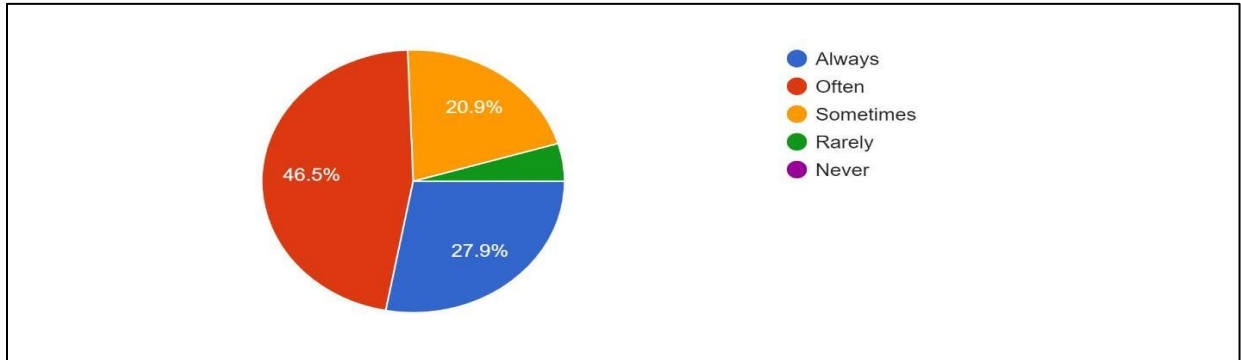## 4. Teachers' Own Criteria Development of Reading Tasks

Figure 4.4. I develop my own assessment criteria as I design reading tasks

Item (4) posed to the teachers the question if they employ their own assessment criteria while assessing students. According to the analysis, 46.5% of the teachers stated they "always" used their own assessment criteria in their assessments, while 27.9% claimed they "sometimes" used it. In addition, 20.9% of respondents claimed using it, while only 4.7% stated they "rarely" use it. Only 2.3% of the teachers said "never".

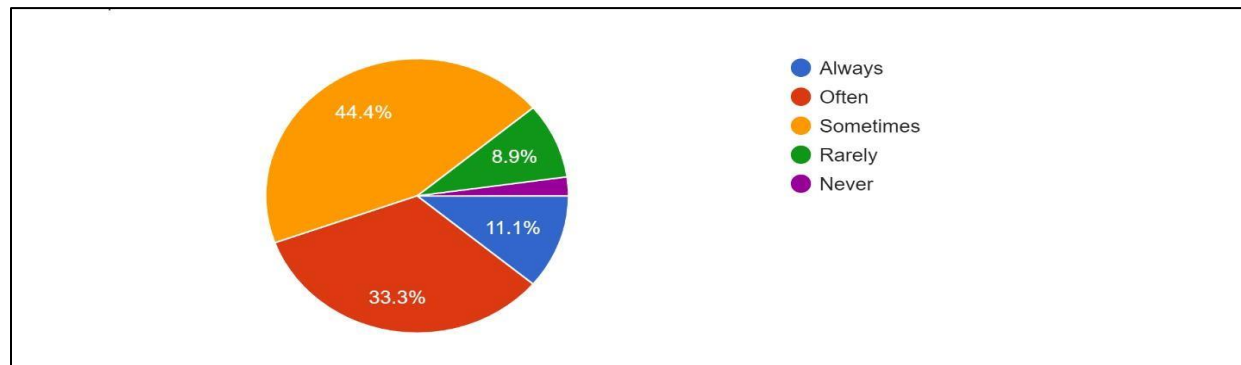## 5. Implantation of Outside Assessment Resources to Assess Reading Skill

Figure 4.5. I implement any assessment criteria from outside resources to assess reading

According to figure (5), the teachers were asked on the frequency of implementing any assessment criteria from outside resources to the aim of reading assessment. The results show that 11.1% of the teachers said they "always" implement different types assessment criteria from outside resources to their reading assessment, whereas 44.4% said they "sometimes" use it. Moreover,

33.3% of teachers said that they "often" use it in their reading classes. The data also shows that 8.9% of the teachers stated that they "rarely" use it. Only 2.3% of the teachers said "never" used it.

6. Using Different Assessment Types in Reading Class
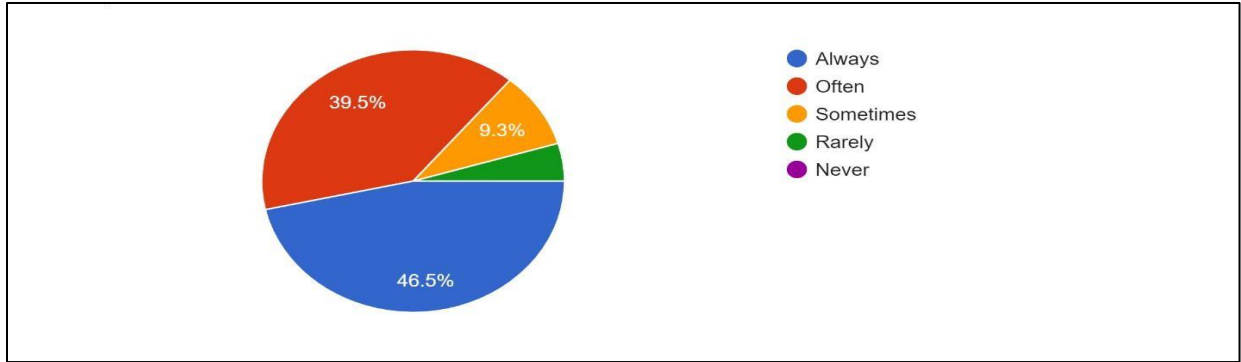

Figure 4.6. I use different types of assessment to assess students in reading class

As Figure (6), shows the teachers were questioned about whether they use various types of assessment to assess reading skill. The findings indicate that whereas 46.5% of the teachers claimed to "always" do so, and 39.5% of the teachers claimed to "often" apply different types of assessment. Additionally, 14% of teachers stated that they utilize it "sometimes" and "rarely" used it. Furthermore, according to the data, not a single teacher said they "never" used it.

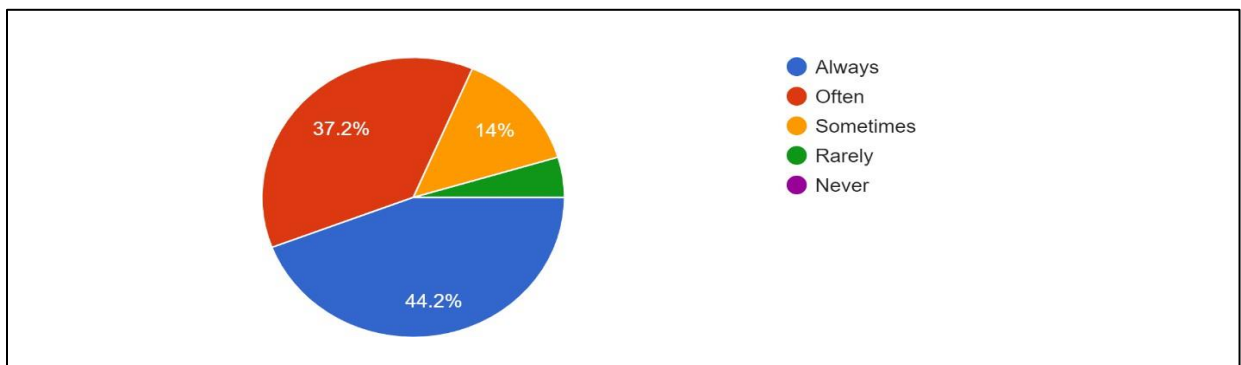## 7. Usage of Assessment Results to Different Purposes

Figure 4.7. I use assessment to identify students' skills, needs and their level

As stated in Figure (7), teachers were asked if they use assessment for the purpose of discovering students' skills, needs and their level. According to the results, 44% of the teachers claimed to "always" use assessment for those reasons, compared to 37% who claimed that they "often" do so.

Furthermore, 18.6% of teachers reported using it "sometimes" and "rarely" in their reading classes. Moreover, the data indicates that not a single teacher claimed that they "never" apply it.

8. Using Assessment to Develop Reading Lessons and Instructions
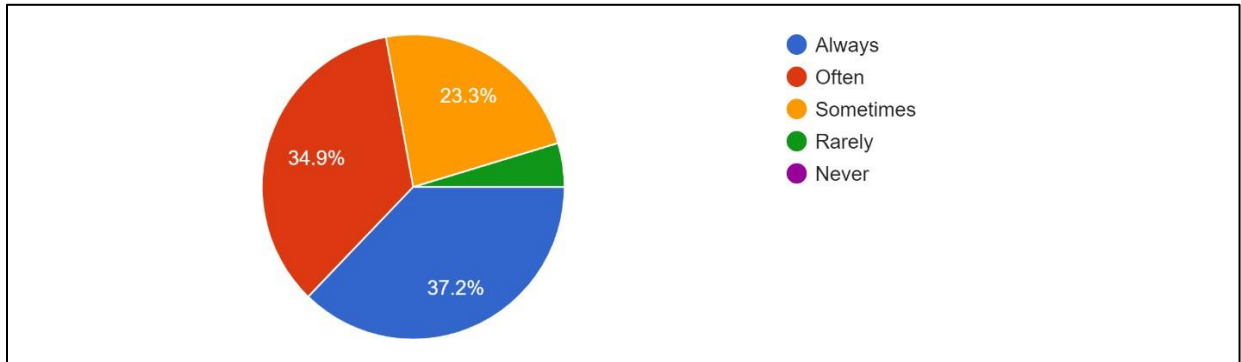

Figure 4.8. I use assessment to develop appropriate lessons and instruction for all students

Item (8) asked the teachers if they use assessment to improve appropriate lessons and to develop instruction for students, as indicated in Figure (8) above. Based on the findings, 37% of the teachers stated that they "always" use assessment to develop lessons and improve instructions for the majority of the students, while 34.9% said they "often" do so. Moreover, 27.9% of the teachers stated that they "rarely" use it and "sometimes" in their reading lessons. Additionally, the data shows that not a single teacher indicated that they had "never" used it.

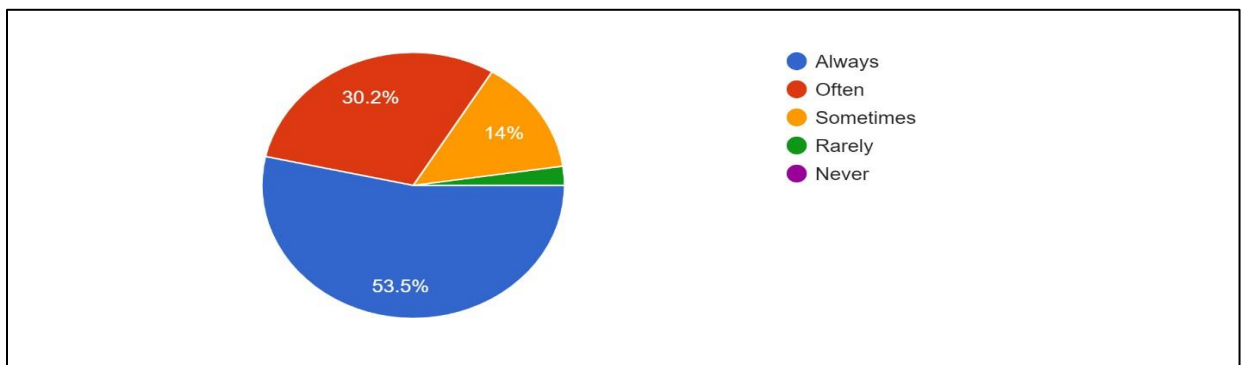**9. Careful Selection of Reading Strategies to Assess Different Levels**

Figure 4.9. I carefully select an appropriate strategy be be able to assess different levels in reading class.

According to figure 4.9, more than half of the participants 53.5% responded that they "always" thoughtfully establish an appropriate strategy to assess students at various reading levels. More to

the point, 30.2% of them reported that they 'often' do that, whereas, 14% of the respondents stated that they sometime" do so and only 2.3% responded that they 'rarely' do that. None of them reported "never".
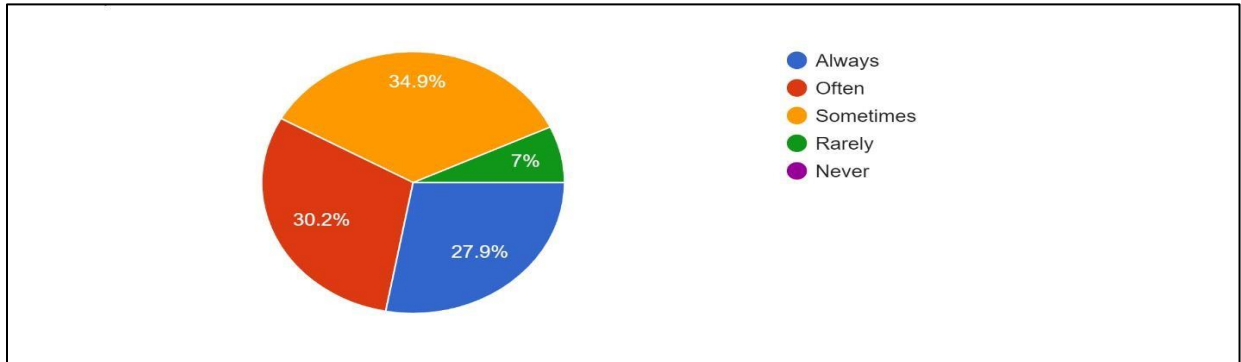
10. Reading Assessment Fluency

Figure 4.10. I consider fluency as a category of reading assessment

As figure 4.10 shows 27.9% of them stated that they "always" consider the category fluency of reading assessment. Moreover, 30.2% reported they "often" do that while 34.9% said that they chose "sometimes" they do so. A small number of the participants 7% stated that they "rarely" consider fluency while assessing students in their reading class. However, none of them reported that they "never" do that.
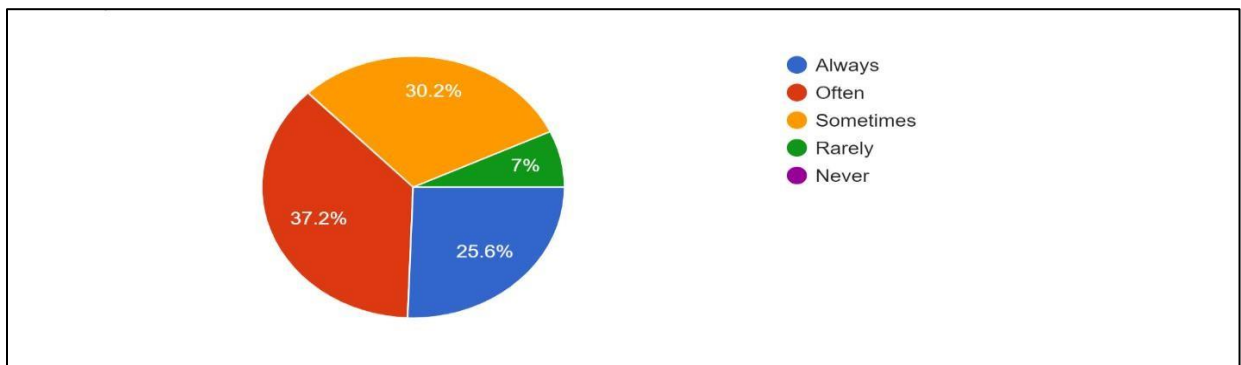
11. Reading Assessment Accuracy

Figure 4.11. I consider accuracy as a category in reading assessment.

According to figure 4.11, only 37.2% of the teachers responded that they "often" consider accuracy as a category in reading assessment. Moreover, 30.2% of them stated that they "sometimes" do

that. While, 25.6% of the respondents reported that they "always" do so and only 7% responded that they "rarely" do think of the category 'accuracy' in the reading assessment. Finally, none of them said " never".

12. Text Factual Questions to Understand A reading Passage
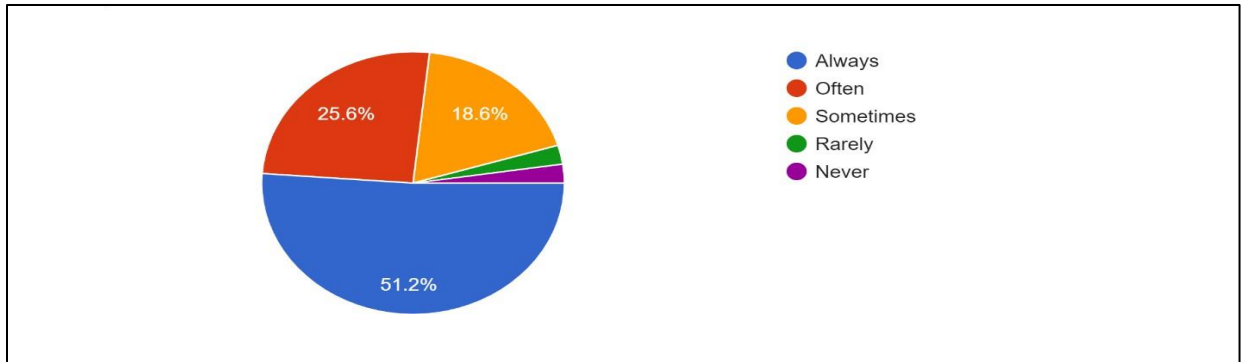
Figure 4.12. I ask factual question about the text to help students understand a passage clearly

Looking carefully at figure 4.12 shows that 51.2% of the teachers reported that they "always" ask their students some factual questions about the text to fully understand the text passage. Besides, 25.6% of them stated that they "often" ask their students some text factual questions, while 18.6% of the teachers reported that they "rarely" use this strategy, whereas 2.3% said they "rarely" do that, and 2.3% sated that they "never" follow that during their assessment.

13. Reading Assessment Comprehension

Figure 4.13. I consider comprehension as a first category when assessing reading

Figure 4.13 shows that 48.8% of the teachers said that they "always" consider comprehension as a first category when assessing reading. Moreover, 37.2% of them reported that they "often" use

this strategy. While 11.6% of them stated that they "sometimes" practice this strategy with their students. Furthermore, only 2.3% of the respondents confirmed that they "rarely" use it. None of the them chose "never".
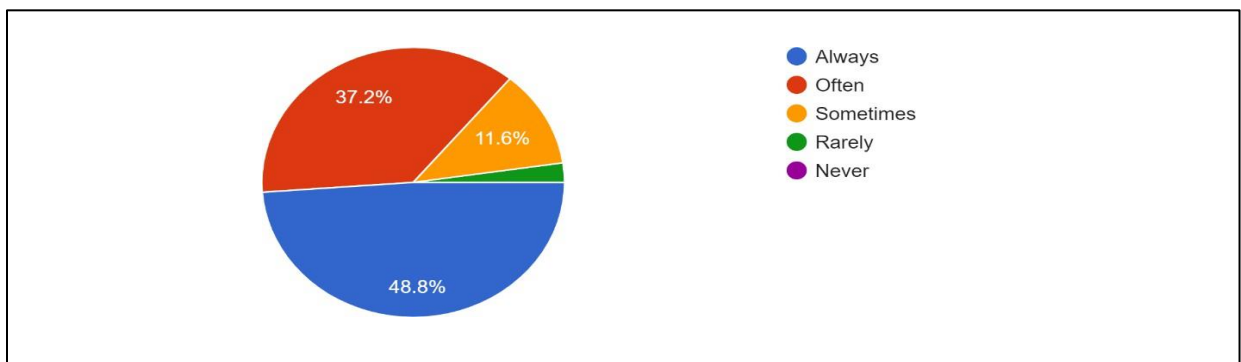
14. Connect Comprehension Strategy
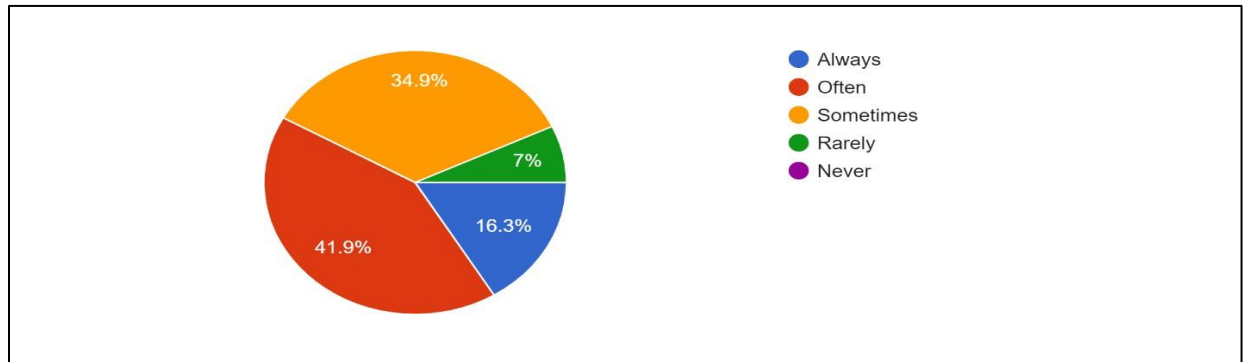
Figure 4.14. I use "connect" as a strategy to indicate students' comprehension of the text

The above figure shows that 41.9% of the teachers said they "often" use the connect strategy to indicate students' comprehension of the written text. Besides 34.9% reported that they "sometimes" do so. It also presents 16.3% who chose "always" while 7% selected "rarely". None of the teachers chose "never".

15. Prediction Comprehension Strategy
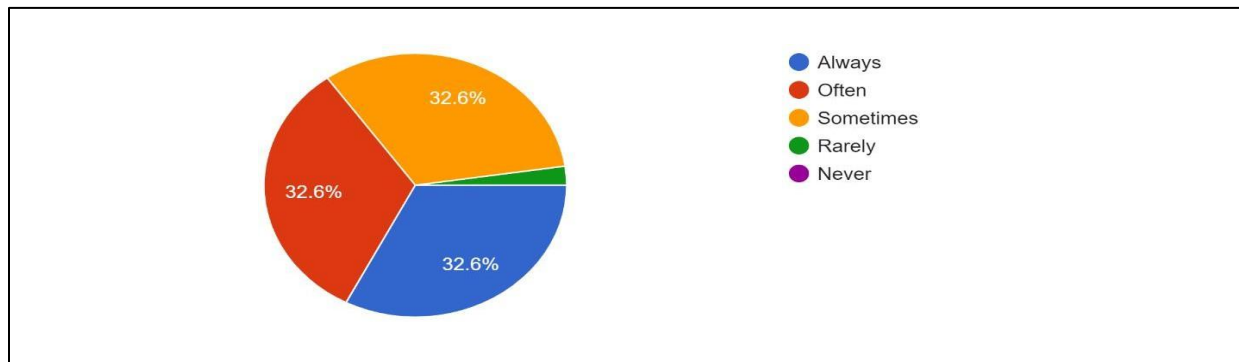
Figure 4.15. I encourage students to use prediction as a strategy to figure out text events and anticipate what will happen next

Examining figure 4.15 in detail reveals teachers' answers regarding whether or not they encourage students to use prediction as a strategy to figure out text events and anticipate what will happen next. The results revealed that most of the options were the same percent 23.6 of them selected

"always", "often", and "sometimes" while 2.3% of them selected "rarely". And none of them chose "never".

16. Observing Students Doing Literacy Tasks
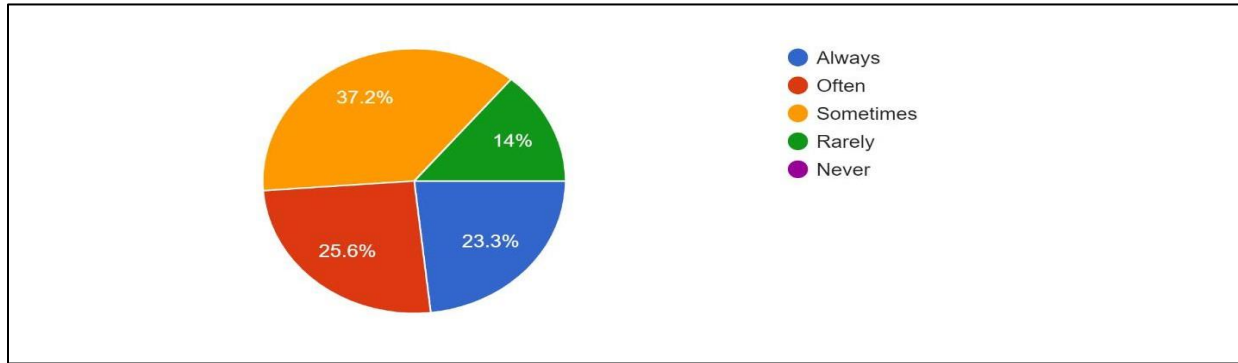
Figure 4.16. I test my students by observing them performing literacy tasks

Figure 4.16 shows that most of the teachers test their students by observing them performing literacy tasks. Statistically, 37.2% of teachers chose "sometimes" use this strategy. It also shows that 25.6% of the teachers reported that they "often" do that while 23.3% stated they "always" use it, and only 14% reported that they "rarely" employ this strategy in their reading classes. None of the teachers chose "never".

17. Critical Thinking Abilities in Reading Comprehension
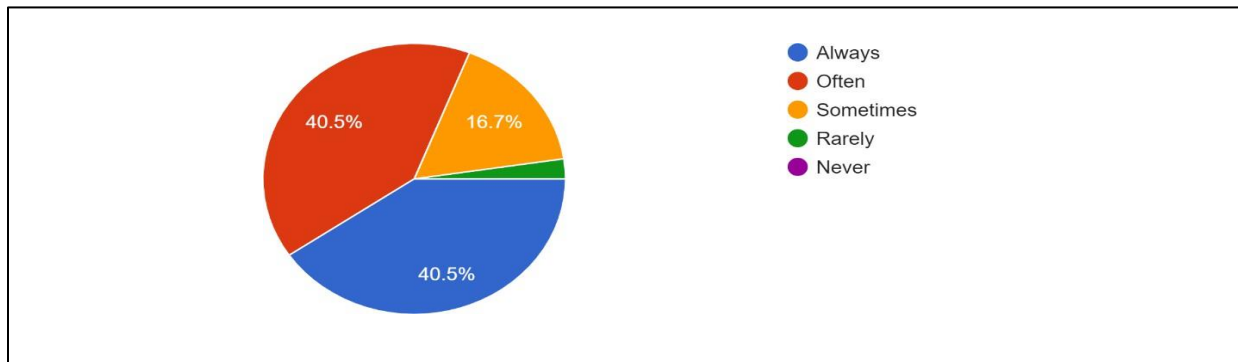
Figure 4.17. I encourage students to be "critical thinkers" while reading a text in a reading test

Based on Figure 4.17, two options of the figure have the same percentage. It also shows that 40.5% of the teachers selected "always" and "often" encourage their students to be critical thinkers while reading a text in a reading test. Additionally, the data reveals that 16.7% of the teachers said they "often" use it and 2.3% said they "rarely" utilize this method in their reading lessons. None of them chose "never".

18. Summarizing and Paraphrasing Strategies
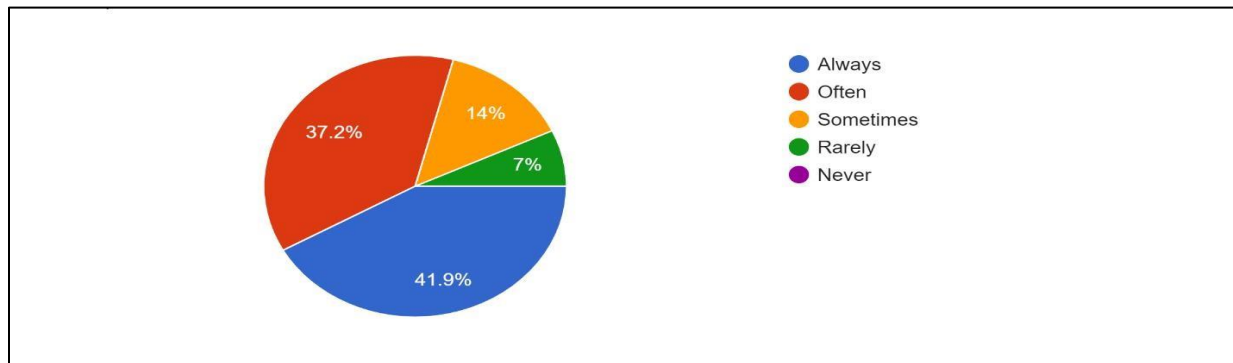
Figure 4.18. I consider "summarizing and Paraphrasing" as an important strategy to assess reading comprehension

As seen in Figure 4.18, only 41.9% of teachers chose that they "always" integrate the two strategies of reading comprehension which are summarizing and paraphrasing. While 37.2% preferred that they "often" consider these two strategies. Additionally, 14 % of them reported that they "sometimes" use this method with their students. Conversely, a small number of them 7% who said "rarely" use this strategy. None of them chose "never".

19. Reading Text Vocabulary
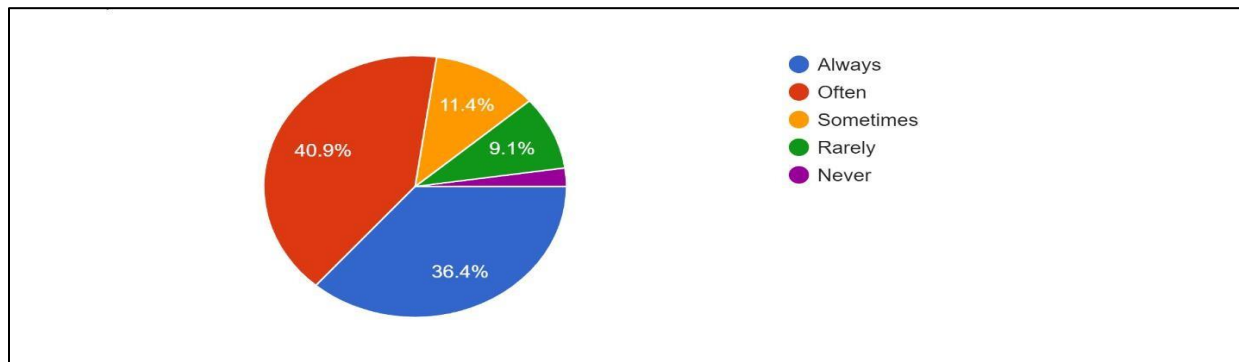
Figure 4.19. I consider a range of new vocabulary within the text as a reading assessment

A further examination of figure 4.19 reveals that most of the teachers 40.9% said they "often" consider a range of new vocabulary within the text as a reading assessment. In contrast, 36.4% of them reported that they "always" do so. In addition, only 11.4% of them selected the "sometimes" option. And 9.1% of them said that hey "rarely" used this strategy. 2.3% of the teachers "never" used it.

20. Interview Assessment Strategy
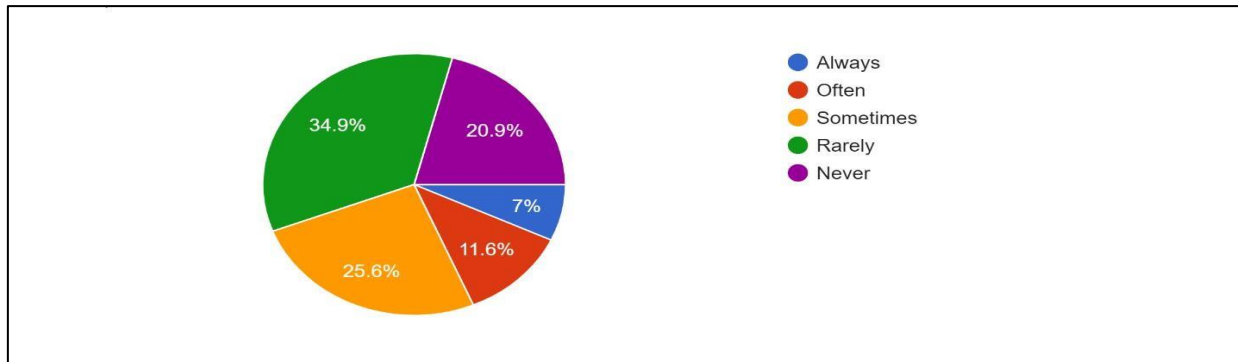
Figure 4.20. I use interview as a strategy with students on their reading in reading assessment

A significant portion of teachers 34.9%, as shown in Figure 4.20, said they "rarely" focus on interviewing students about their reading tasks as a reflection. In addition, 25.6%, stated they "sometimes" do that, and 20.9% of them stated they "never" used this strategy with students. Conversely, 11.6% of them said they "often" used it. Only 7% of them stated they "always" use interviews to reflect on students' work in reading tasks.

21. Formative Screen Assessment in Reading Class
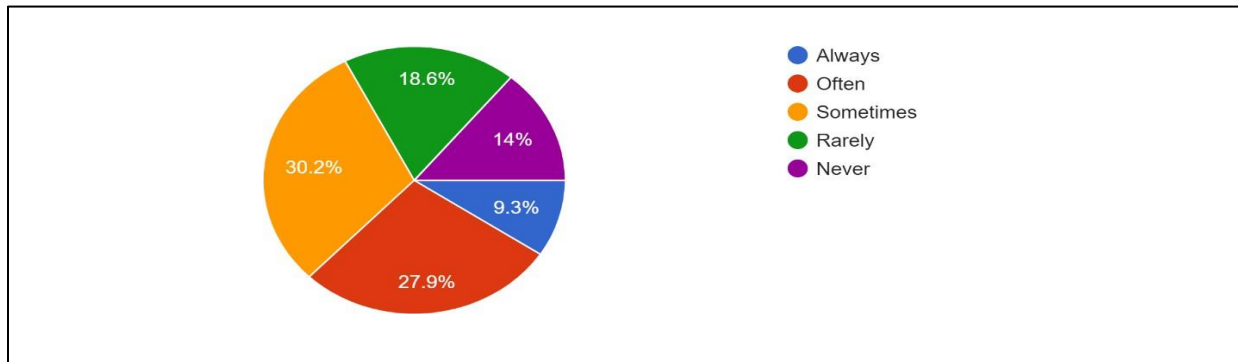
Figure 4.21. I use screening assessment within the formative category in reading class to identify which student is struggling

The Figure 4.21 above shows how frequently teachers use screening assessment within the formative category in reading classes to identify which student is struggling. Statistically, 30.2% of the respondents reported "sometimes" they use the screening assessment type to point to students' struggles. However, 27.9% of the participants selected "often" do that, whereas 18.6% of them stated they "rarely" use this technique, and 14% of the teachers said that "never" do so.

Only 9.3% of them chose the option "always".

22. Diagnostic Reading Assessment Strategy
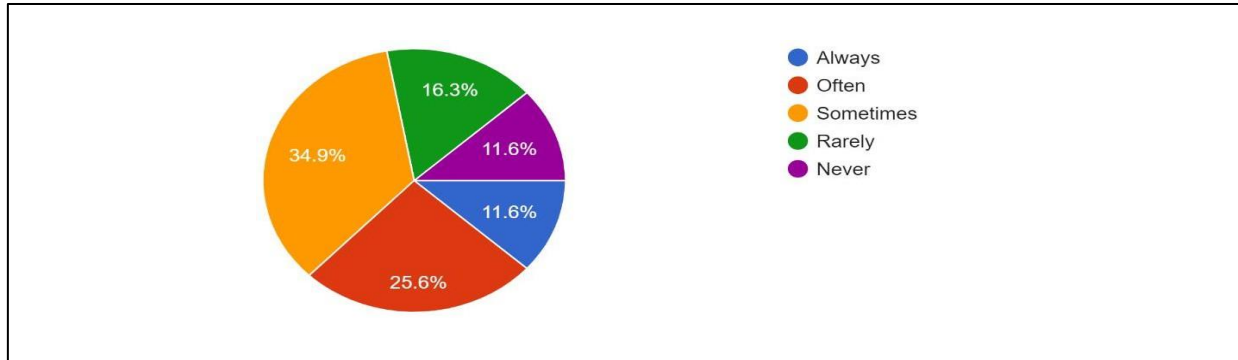
Figure 4.22. I use diagnostic reading assessment as a strategy to pinpoint students'
weaknesses

Figure 4.22, illustrates the frequency with which teachers employ diagnostic reading assessment as a tactic to identify students' areas of difficulty. According to statistics, 34.9% of the teachers said they "sometimes" use the diagnostic assessment type to identify areas where students are struggling. 25.6% of the teachers chose "often" to do it. However, 16.3% of them said they "rarely" used this strategy, while 11.6% of them chose "always" and "never" options.

23. Progress Reading Assessment
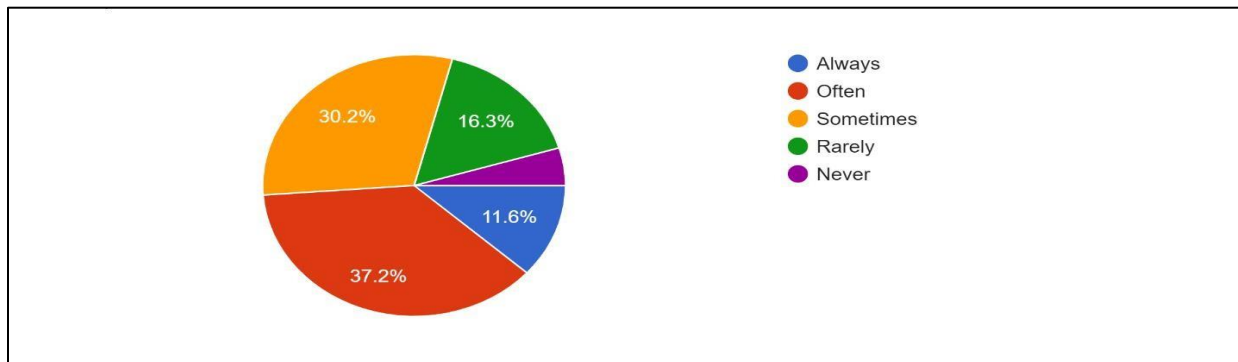
Figure 4.23. I use progress assessment as a reading strategy to assess and monitor students'
progress

Figure 4.21 shows the frequency with which teachers employ progress reading assessment as a reading strategy to assess and monitor students' progress. According to statistics, 37.2% of respondents said they "often" use the progress assessment type to assess and trace students' progress. 30.2% of the teachers chose that they "sometimes" do it. However, 16.3% of them said they "rarely" use this type of assessment, while 11.6% said they used it "always". Only 4.7% of

them stated they "never" used progress assessment in reading classes.

24. Reliability and Validity of Assessment
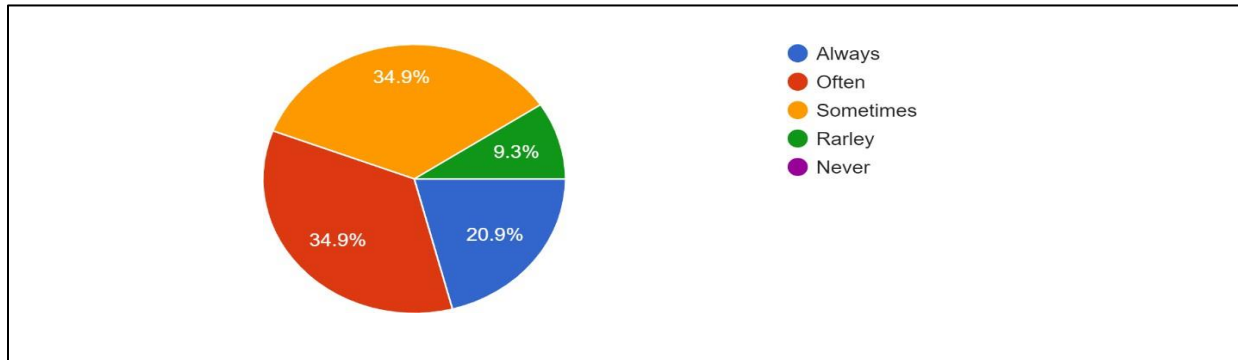
Figure 4.24. I deliberate over the assessment reliability and validity

Figure 4.24 shows whether or not participants take validity and reliability into account when assessing reading skills. The results showed that two of the options share the same percentage. 34.9% of the teachers chose "often" and "sometimes" take reliability and validity into consideration when assessing reading skills, 20.9% of teachers verified "always" doing so. However, only 9.3% of them stated they "rarely" consider the two principles of assessment. None of them chose "never".

25. Holistic Scoring in Reading Assessment
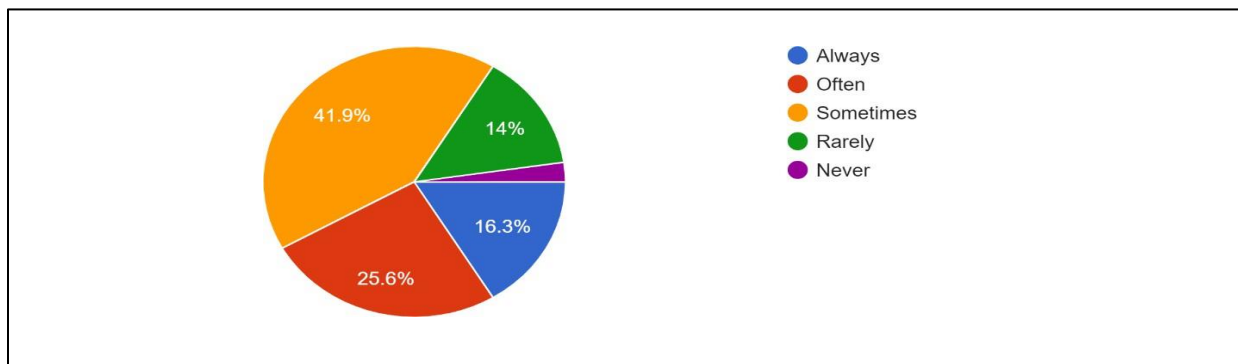
Figure 4.25. I use a holistic scoring for each category in reading assessment

A comprehensive review of the above figure reveals that most teachers 41.9% stated they "sometimes" use a holistic score for each category in the reading test. 25.6% of the teachers said they "often" did that. Nevertheless, the information also reveals that 16.3% of them choose "always" and, less percentage 14% of them stated they "rarely" use it and only 2.3% of the 40 participants stated they "never" use it.

82

26. Analytic Scoring in Reading Assessment
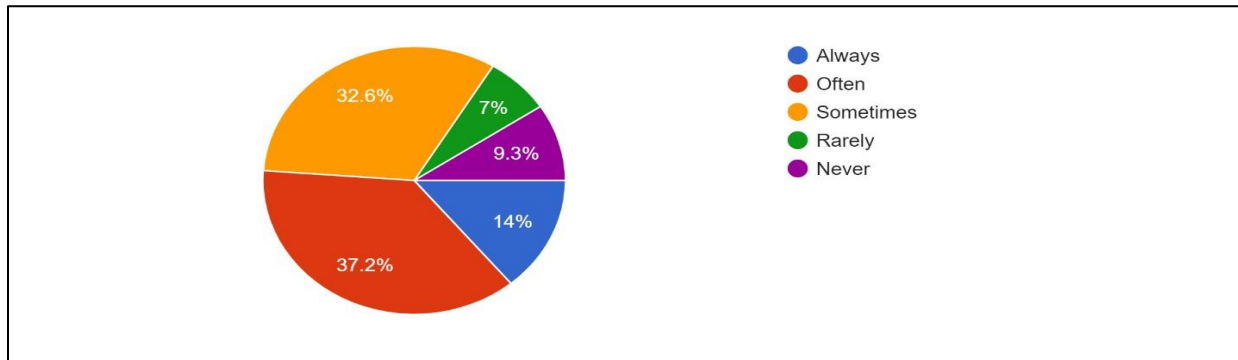
Figure 4.26. I use analytic scoring for category of reading assessment tests

As figure 4.26 shows, the participants were asked whether they use an analytic scoring for each category of reading assessment test. The results show that teachers with a percentage of 14% said they "always" use analytic scoring in their test, whereas 37.2% of them said they "often" use it. Moreover, 32.6% of the teachers "sometimes" did this type of scoring. Besides 7% of them "rarely" use this kind of scoring, and only 9.3% of them chose "never" option.

27. Feedback Strategy on Students' Reading Tasks.
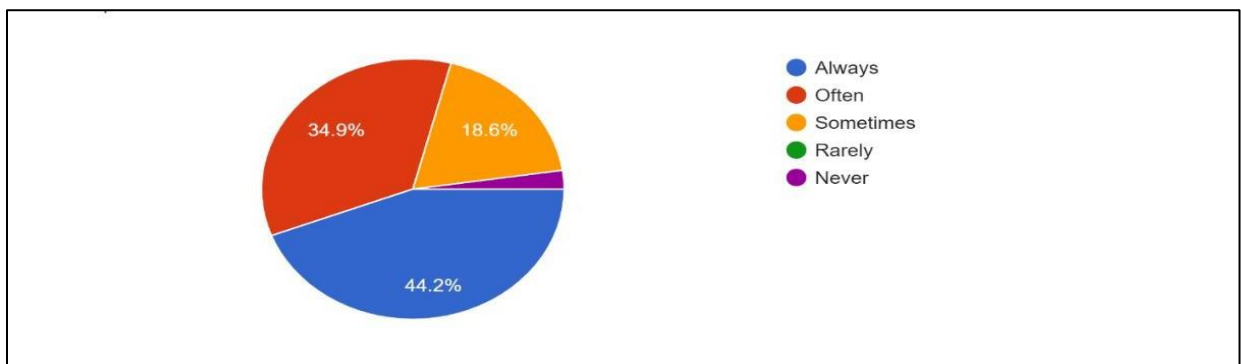
Figure 4.27. I use students' results to provide feedback on their work in reading tasks

Upon closer review, the figure 4.27 shows that 44.2% of the teachers said they "always" use feedback as a strategy to reflect on students' work. However, 34.9% of them stated that they "often" did that. Nevertheless, the data additionally demonstrates that 18.6% of them choose the rating scale marked "sometimes". Only 2.3% said that they have "never" used students' results to provide feedback on their work as a strategy in reading tasks. none of them said that they "rarely" use this strategy.

4.2. Phase Two: Qualitative Data Analysis

Numerous theories and strategies, including grounded theory, thematic analysis, content analysis, and discourse analysis, are available in the literature and can be used to analyse qualitative data (Cohen et al., 2007). It is important to remember that every data analysis method has advantages and disadvantages. Therefore, the researcher should choose the one that most closely supports the goals and scope of the study. To answer the second research question, the qualitative data that was obtained through the semi- structured interview instrument and thematic analysis was used to examine the gained data. Thematic analysis, as described by Maguire and Delahunt (2017) as a method for identifying themes or patterns in qualitative data. It is also considered as "the main purpose of qualitative research is to provide an in-depth description and understanding of human experiences" (Litchman, 2006, p. 8). The main purpose of thematic analysis is to categorize significant and captivating data into recognizable patterns and themes. This analysis method is appropriate to utilize, when understanding experiences, thoughts, and beliefs across a set of data is the goal (Kiger & Varpio, 2020).

4.2.1. Thematic Analysis Method

The thematic analysis method was chosen to be employed in this study following extensive and in-depth reading and research in the literature. Based on the idea that the analysis of the qualitative data should be considerably more automated and withheld until after the data was gathered, this decision was determined. The information that was gathered, including the responses provided by the participants to each question, was transcribed and coded by the researcher. Coding, in the words of Dornyi (2007), is the process of grouping data into specific categories. The interviewees' comments were labeled and classified throughout the process (See Appendix B). The researcher followed Braun and Clark's (2006, p. 63) six-step coding framework to analyze interviews data. Researchers read transcripts multiple times, created analytic notes, organized data into meaningful chunks, compared codes, identified preliminary themes, reviewed each theme, and created analytic notes. Researchers used a coding system to compare responses and identify themes. The final step was producing a report, transforming the analysis into an interpretable piece of writing using vivid examples related to the themes, research question, and literature. All of the interviews were recorded, transcribed and coded by the researcher. Making decisions on how to classify or categorize specific parts of the data is what Mackey and Gass (2021) define as coding. In this

instance, the interviewers' responses were grouped into these topics based on the data's labeling, which revealed multiple themes. The main themes that emerged from the participants' responses to the interview questions are shown below.

The Definition of the Term "assessment" and the assessment of reading skill

The conclusions drawn from the interviews showed that each teacher "A", "B", "C", "D" and "E" agreed that the assessment is the tool that measures students' knowledge and development. Assessment can be formative that happens during the educational process or it can be summative which happens at the end of any educational period. Also, all teachers except teacher "A" stressed the importance of *"defining the purpose to choose the right test and focus on specific objectives"*. Teacher "D" said *"therefore, it might be a reading from which I want them to pick up new vocabulary, or it might be for grammar improvement"*. However, teachers "A", "B", "C", "D" and "E" define assessment as a key component of education since it helps create value judgments and provides useful information on students' development. For example, teacher "A" said *"assessment is the action or instance of making a judgment about something using formative assessments and summative assessments."* Teacher "B" stated that *"assessment is a crucial aspect of teaching and learning, providing valuable information about student progress and forming value judgments"*. Teacher "C" added that the term assessment is the process of gathering and analyzing data about an individual's performance, knowledge, skills, or abilities, crucial in education for teachers to evaluate students' understanding and progress. Moreover, teacher's "C" highlights an important reason of assessment which is *"assessment is used to track student progress, drive instructional decisions, and give teachers and students feedback"*. This indicates that these teachers do have sufficient background knowledge about testing students reading skills and all other skills in general.

The data also revealed that only two teachers who have answered the second part of the interview question which is the way of assessing reading skill. For example, teacher "E" said that each test has its unique role, proficiency and achievement tests are distinct. Final achievement tests, administered at the end of a course, have two types: syllabus-content approach and objective approach. Progress achievement tests measure students' progress and contribute to formative assessment. Teacher "B" there are two types to assess reading, *"formative and summative*

assessments are used for assessing reading skills, with formative used for improving learning during reading activities and summative for evaluating learning at the end of the course, aiding in instructional decisions". Also, the data also showed that teacher "B" and "C" were different when they mentioned, *"They are used to track student progress, drive instructional decisions, and give teachers and students feedback".* This implies that both teachers have more experience about teaching and assessing reading skills.

The usage of different reading strategies may affect the teaching-learning outcome

The findings gained from the interviews revealed that most of the teachers "A", "B", "C", and "E" agreed that the teaching-learning outcome may positively influenced by the use of various strategies to assess skills in reading. However, teachers "A", "B, "C", and "E" mention some of the reasons that affects teaching outcomes. For example, teacher "A" said *"by assessing students throughout the school year, teachers develop a better understanding of their students, including their strengths and weak areas for improvement".* In order to improve teaching efficacy and determine what students require extra support, Teacher "B" employs a variety of strategies to assess reading skills, highlight learning challenges, and differentiate between advanced and gifted students." Teacher "C" stated that *"continuous and varied assessments provide ongoing feedback, ensuring a dynamic and responsive learning process".* In addition, the data also showed that teacher "E" was different when she advised other teachers, *"to create effective tests, create a list of desired items and decide on their importance. Reflect this by dividing the test time or weighting marks based on the importance of each element."* Teacher "B" stated that, *"in general, using different strategies for assessing reading skills can have a positive effect on the teaching-learning outcome. In particular, it helps me to know how realistic my teaching plans for the group I teach are".* This implies that this teacher has more experience about teaching and assessing reading skills. However, only teacher, teacher "D" disagreed with the all above teachers' opinions saying that: *"it is not always important to have a teaching experience in order to have a good teaching-learning result but it may be a help with some teachers".* This teacher might seem to be suffering from a lack of teaching reading experience. The problem is that if the teachers do not have enough teaching experience and reading strategies, then one could assume that the teachers could not benefit or assess the students with their experiences.

The extent of your teaching experience to help in assessing reading skill properly

The qualitative findings gained from the interviews revealed that teacher "A" stated that he does not think that the teaching-experience can help in assessing reading skills. For example, Teacher "A" stated that: *"I do not have a good experience about teaching and assessing reading but I think I am doing pretty good in it"*. The above extract confirms that teacher "A" does not have enough experience of assessing reading skills. This implies that this teacher encounters significant difficulties whenever he teaches and evaluates his students in reading classes. Moreover, teacher "D" said: *"reading skill was not given its deserved significance during both my secondary and high school education years. This situation effects negatively on my teaching and assessing reading skills when I become a teacher"*. Therefore, students do not have the opportunity to practice reading skill through reading books or using different strategies in the reading classrooms and lessons. This reflects the teacher's limited experience does not help in assessing reading skills properly.

In contrast, the data also showed that teachers "B", "C", and "E" confirmed that teaching experience offered an invaluable resource for assessing students' reading skills. For instance, teacher "B" stated that when teaching reading or other language skills, assessments can be a helpful instrument. In assessing my reading abilities, *"my experience as a teacher was really helpful"*. Teacher "C" strongly agreed that:

> *Teaching experience is crucial for effective assessment of reading skills. I have knowledge of developmental stages, adapted to pedagogical approaches, classroom management, observational skills, responsiveness to students' needs, building strong relationships, and continuously maintaining development to stay informed with the latest research and pedagogical advancements.*

Furthermore, teacher "E" supports the above claim and said, *"as a teacher, I learned about test construction procedures, including clear problem statements, specifications, and moderate items, aiming for accurate results and backwashing"*. However, teacher "B" and "E" mentioned that "assessments", while crucial for teaching reading and language skills, only examine an aspect of a student's educational achievement, influenced by constraints like expertise, facilities, and time. This indicates that these teachers do think that sufficient experience about testing students' reading skills may affect the teaching- learning outcome.

87

The importance and usage of a particular assessment reading strategies

The results showed that each participant "A", "B", "C", "D", and "E" understood the value of utilizing various reading assessment strategies when instructing reading classes. For instance, Teacher "A" and "D" argued that it is important for educational institutions and teachers should use effective reading assessment strategies to determine students' reading skills and needs, ensuring effective reading education. Teacher "B" added, *"reading strategies are techniques or activities that enhance comprehension of reading skill input. English teachers must be aware of their strategies to achieve targets, as recognizing appropriate strategies requires specific feedback".* Teacher "C" also said, *"I chose assessment methods that align with the specific learning objectives, include formal and informal methods, and reflect the unique characteristics of each student".* Moreover, teacher "B" finds a challenge lies in determining which procedures are most effective in different situations, such as using tests for assessing learners' attitudes or utilizing observation as a strategy. Teacher "E" mentioned that *"teachers may design tests that encourage cheating due to inadequate assessment strategies. To counter this, consider having multiple versions with different options presentation order".* This means that all teachers reaffirmed that teachers of reading skills should have sufficient knowledge about how to teach this skill. They should also have a good background about how to assess students using different reading strategies. These results indicate that all the teachers engaged in this study were aware of the importance of using various assessment strategies in their reading classes.

The difficulties teachers may encounter when linking the choice of reading assessment strategies with the aim of assessment

The qualitative data show that all of the teachers agreed that linking the assessment strategies with the assessment aim is important; however, that is always challenging. For example, Teacher "A" and "D" stated that it is a very challenging procedure for myself and the other teachers to connect the appropriate selection of reading assessment methodologies with the assessment goal. Without stating any further comments about what are these challenges or difficulties, which may indicate a lack of experience or background about this certain topic. On the other hand, Teachers "B", "C" and "E" elaborate in depth, for example, teacher "B" said:

> *I think some of these difficulties are first: limited resources can impact the diversity*
> *and richness of assessment tools available for evaluating reading skills. Second:*
> *time constraints may limit the ability to implement comprehensive assessment*

strategies, while large class sizes may make it difficult to administer individualized assessments.

Furthermore, teacher "C" presented the most challenges that teachers face when linking the assessment strategy with the assessment aim for reading assessment by saying:

Teachers face several challenges when choosing reading assessment strategies. These include limited resources, time constraints, large class sizes, diverse student abilities, standardized testing pressures, and balancing formative and summative assessments. Balancing advanced readers with struggling readers is a delicate task. As we teachers may struggle to align their assessment strategies with standardized tests. Balancing these challenges is essential for effective reading assessment in education.

Moreover, teacher "E" assured that *"language testers must set tasks that exercise reading and listening skills, demonstrating successful behavior. For myself as a teacher, I have problems related particularly in managing subjective scoring procedures, as many of us not know the appropriate rating scale"*. This indicate that all teachers agree that linking reading assessment strategies with assessment aim is challenging. Teacher "E" added that it may due to different text types and forms, each requiring specific strategies, which can be confusing.

The selection of reading assessment tasks and its challenges

Analysing the data revealed a consensus among the interviewees that choosing reading assessment tasks is a challenge for them. It also showed that these participants expressed different views related to this particular issue. First of all, teacher "C" defines and explains the process of selecting assessment reading tasks, *"Reading assessment tasks are a complex process that requires careful consideration of learning objectives, diverse reading skills, learning styles, formative and summative tasks, authenticity, flexibility, and different assessment formats"*. While choosing a reading task, you may encounter some challenges. For example, teachers "A" and "D" acknowledge the challenges of selecting appropriate assessments for students, stating that they can be challenging due to the difficulty in finding suitable material for reading tasks. Teacher "B" presented a more detailed answer about this topic stated that:

As a teacher, I face challenges in choosing suitable reading tasks to evaluate students' reading performance, considering their backgrounds and interests. I often fail to link the

choice of reading assessment strategies with the aim of assessment, especially when my students lack English vocabulary. To address this, we as teachers must create an organized classroom environment, make complex decisions, and engage students. These difficulties may arise during the design or administration of tests, and we must decide their goals and align tasks with their needs and beliefs.

The above extract reveals that this teacher understands that the selection of reading assessment tasks aligns with some of the challenges that could be mended. It needs specific arrangements and strategies to be successfully presented to students. It also implies that selecting appropriate reading tasks can be a challenge for any teacher. In this respect, teacher "E" said that the passages and tasks should be suitable for the students' level and language ability, and the cloze technique may limit the features of language tested. Also, teacher "E" said *"To ensure coverage, select small passages and avoid culturally complex texts. Thus, the test tasks should define the level, ensuring all items are within the capabilities of the pass-through audience"*. Teacher "C", added that challenges include limited time, technology integration, objectivity, and meeting individual needs. Addressing these challenges proactively can create a comprehensive and effective assessment process. This means that some of the five teachers are aware of the process of selecting a reading assessment tasks, still, they face some of the challenges that may be hard and it needs to be located and fixed.

Ensure a 'valid and reliable scoring' and their challenges if there is any
The data gathered from the interviews showed that one of the biggest difficulties teachers faces is ensuring the validity and reliability of their assessment. Each teacher surveyed admitted to experiencing similar issues in this regard. For example, teacher "A" and "E" defines "valid and reliable" as crucial elements in determining the accuracy of a test. Validity measures the consistency of results, ensuring they can be reproduced under the same conditions, and reliability ensures the results accurately represent the intended purpose.

Furthermore, teacher "B" elaborates:

Reliability and validity are crucial in testing, enhancing the assessment. Holistic and analytic scoring methods are used for testing reading, offering practicality and ease of decision-making. However, they lack reliability as they don't provide details about students' weaknesses. Analytic scoring requires separate evaluation of individual criteria,

making it challenging for us teachers to apply and make valid and reliable scores for reading skills.

Teacher "C" presents some of the solutions for the previous challenges clarifying:

The assessment process requires clear scoring criteria, addressing subjective criteria, consistently applying rubrics, balancing objectivity and flexibility, providing constructive feedback, Consistency is achieved through upfront criteria definition, detailed rubric, review and revision, and a reflective approach to continuous improvement.

Moreover, the research findings revealed that teachers "D" and "E" agreed that it is not easy to design ratings. Thus, teachers should have a clearer idea of how this scale works. Teacher "D" said *"Designing a valid and reliable test is a big issue that would be a challenge for me and other teachers. Also, I am facing some struggles with following scoring procedure".* Teacher "E" adds that *"unfamiliarity with tests can negatively affect performance, so sample tests or past papers can be given to ensure familiarity. A good test should have high reliability, ensuring consistent results".* This indicates that in order to assess students' reading abilities accurately, more than one of the study's teachers need to pay closer attention to creating valid and reliable scoring mechanisms. As a result, extreme caution must be applied when ignoring a student's personal characteristics that have no effect on an assessment of their language proficiency.

Extra challenges teachers face during assessing reading skill

The research findings confirmed that there are many extra challenges in the present study reported by the interviewees. Each of the teachers share and differ in some of their answers. The researcher discussed them all. One of the obstacles in the current study, according to the research findings, is class size. The feedback that they received indicated that managing all of their different tasks and using various reading assessment methods in classrooms with more than 25 students was a challenge for reading teachers. The replies from the interviewees indicate that these concerns require immediate attention. As an illustration, teacher "A" said: *"Yes, such as the large number of students in the class; moreover, the atmosphere in the noisy learning setting made it difficult to incorporate reading assessments".* In this instance, the gap between their goals and their actual performance in the classroom might be blamed for the size of the class. Because of this, teachers might be under pressure to decide the most effective way to conduct reading classes and handle situations that might negatively impact students' ability to gain knowledge. Another issue

presented by teacher "B" saying:

EFL teachers face numerous difficulties in reading assessment due to various factors. These include reading comprehension issues, text-related issues, task-related issues, and reader-teacher methodology issues. Moreover, assessments require time and effort, and lower-ability students often face more difficulties. Lack of reading resources, unknown vocabulary, limited grammatical knowledge, and passage lengths can also pose challenges.

In addition, teacher "C" said that assessing reading skills can be challenging "*due to subjectivity in interpretation, and varied reading levels. To ensure consistency, us teachers should establish clear criteria and consider diverse perspectives*". Teacher "E" stated that *"scoring difficulties can arise due to students taking longer to complete the required responses".* According to Teacher "D" claims that *"I acknowledge that I did not receive any training sessions for improving their English skills, but I am aware of the importance of teacher development for successful language teaching".* Also, teacher "A" agreed with the above claim saying *"there a need of additional training courses on teaching reading comprehension, as the current lack of new and adapted courses may lead to a reliance on outdated methods".* Moreover, Teacher "C" reaffirmed that there is an apparent issue in the modern education that relates to technology "*Technology-related challenges, such as connectivity problems or unfamiliarity with digital platforms, can hinder the assessment process."* Teacher "E" explained about the test design and quote *"designing Yes/No and True/False multiple-choice items with two options presents a challenge due to the 50% chance of correct response selection by chance alone".* Teacher "C" and "E" participated in four-week training program five years ago for teaching English language curriculum, but not how to assess English language skills. This suggests that committees do not prioritize English language assessment for professional development. Thus, to tackle these issues, it's crucial to have a thorough plan, maintain open communication, and continuously improve assessment methods. The research findings also demonstrated that the participants recognized the significance and value of regular training sessions that support students in refining their skills in reading comprehension This means that all teachers have a positive attitude towards taking training sessions. As a result, repeated training sessions are essential to make sure teachers are using the most recent techniques for teaching reading comprehension.

4.3. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presents, the quantitative and qualitative data analysis produced the conclusions. A systematic questionnaire was utilized to gather a significant quantity of quantitative data, which was then analysed by using SPSS software in order to produce reliable findings regarding the research questions. On the other hand, thematic analysis was used to analyse the qualitative data gathered from the semi-structured interviews after they were transcribed. Several intriguing findings from the data analysis process are covered extensively in the chapter that follows.

5.0. Introduction

The goal of this study was to investigate the reading assessment strategies that Tripoli University's EFL teachers currently use. The investigation of the challenges that teachers experience while assessing their students' reading ability was a further objective. The most interesting findings from the teacher questionnaires and interviews are covered in detail in this chapter. Interpreting the results mostly involves linking them to the initial research questions and the body of existing literature. As a result, the findings of the two major sections of the study based on the objectives of the research are merged together to be discussed below.

5.1. Research Questions

In this study, there are two research questions to be answered which are:

1. What reading assessment strategies do EFL teachers use with the undergraduate students at Tripoli University?

2. What are the challenges EFL teachers encounter when they assessing their students' ability in the skill of reading?

As previously mentioned, the data were analysed and interpreted independently for each frequency, or point, under which they were obtained. More importantly, these issues were justified by addressing the challenges faced by the teachers and the possible recommendation of them.

5.2. Teachers` Assessment Reading Strategies use and their Challenges

The results from the teachers' questionnaire and interviews are covered in this section. It discusses of how the participants responded to the difficulties they encountered when implementing reading assessment strategies in the classroom. The findings of the questionnaire regarding teachers' prior knowledge of reading assessment revealed that most of the teachers responded that when they assess a student's reading ability, they first, set the goals for the reading tasks and clarify to the student the purpose of the assessment task. They added that they incorporate reading assessment

criteria from other resources and frequently develop their own assessment criteria, and they claimed they provide students clear instructions on how to complete reading assessment tasks.

Most of the teachers recorded lower percentages of using appropriate assessment reading strategies although they were aware of the fundamentals of assessment. In this case, there is an issue that needed attention to discover the gap between what strategies teachers knew and what was the reason the disallowed teachers to actually use these strategies in their real reading classes. This indicates that these teachers are suffering from certain challenges considering reading assessment strategies. As an example, teacher "C" said, *"reading assessment tasks are a complex process that requires careful consideration"*. Being on the same track, teacher "B" argued *"As a teacher, I face challenges in choosing suitable reading tasks to evaluate students' reading performance, considering their backgrounds and interests"*. He also added *"These difficulties may arise during the design or administration of tests, and we must decide their goals and align tasks with their needs and beliefs"*. These challenges negatively affect students' achievements. Moreover, EFL teachers typically encounter different variables, which lead to their challenges when assessing reading comprehension. Consequently, teachers must focus more on the components, situations, and elements that support effective reading (Mitasha, 2013). The literature supported and agreed that skilled teachers are required to be prepared to critically review the appropriateness of the resources and methodologies used for language assessment. Since it has its impact on the students' future, it is an essential component of the overall language teaching and learning process (Mellati, 2018). Thus, the education authority and universities should provide support to EFL teachers to effectively teach and assess students' reading skills.

Moreover, the qualitative results showed that all of the teacher provided interesting definition of the term "assessment". As an example, teacher "A" said, "*assessment is the action or instance of making a judgment about something using formative assessments and summative assessments*". Being on the same track, teacher "B" stated that *"assessment is a crucial aspect of teaching and*

learning, providing valuable information about student progress and forming value judgments". Teacher "C" highlights an important reason of assessment which is *"assessment is used to track student progress, drive instructional decisions, and give teachers and students feedback".* From a wider insight from (Chen, 2003) which he considers that any technique, plan, or instrument a teacher employs to gather evidence regarding a student's advancement toward predetermined objectives is referred to as an "assessment". This finding disagrees with Huba and Freed, (2000) who defines the term assessment from a different perspective. He argued that it is considers the right assessment as the process is finished when the findings of the assessment are used to improve future learning. Effective assessment is one of the many elements that positively raise EFL learners' reading comprehension. Assessment, which gives students feedback, is crucial to the teaching and learning process regardless of the instructional strategies employed (Alias et al., 2015). Thus, there is no fixed definition for the term assessment, but that's what makes it difficult and challenging for some teachers. As a teacher and a researcher, in general, it is the act of evaluating or assessing the information, quality, and quantity of something to determine its value or make a decision through a consideration process. The term "assessment" in education particularly refers to various of techniques, strategies, tools or instruments that teachers employ to assess, measure, and document students' academic readiness, progress in learning, development of skills, or academic needs.

The quantitative findings represent as Figure (6), the teachers were questioned about whether they use various types of assessment to assess reading skills. The findings indicate that whereas 46.5% of the teachers claimed to "always" do so, 39.5% of the teachers claimed to "often" apply different types of assessment (formative and summative) when they assess their students in reading classes. As an example, teacher "E" said that each test has its role, proficiency and achievement tests are distinct. Final achievement tests, administered at the end of a course, have two types: syllabus-content approach and objective approach. Progress achievement tests measure students' progress and contribute to formative assessment. Teacher "B" highlights the main two types of assessment, *"formative and summative are used for assessing reading skills, with formative used for improving learning during reading activities and summative for evaluating learning at the end of the course, aiding in instructional decisions".* In accordance with a review of the literature, there are two different forms of assessment: formative and summative (Brown, 2004. p, 13). In the profession of education review, each type can play a variety of roles. It may be either formal or informal.

According to Williams (2015), the type of assessment that teachers employ should align with the assessment's stated objectives. Using a formal assessment, for instance, allows teachers to evaluate students' achievement in school while comparing it with the work of other students. Teachers might use informal assessments to make instructional improvements or to track students' progress and support them in enhancing their own learning. This indicates that to determine how much a student has learned, teachers have to use combination of these forms of assessment. That said, administering exams and quizzes routinely can encourage participation and better grades. Teachers can also arrange final tests at the end of the course to decide whether or not students met their learning objectives and subject requirements.

Furthermore, it is interesting to find that half of the participants who carefully select various strategies in their test to assess their students' levels. According to figure 9, (53.5%) only half of the participants responded that they 'always' thoughtfully establish an appropriate strategy to assess students at various reading levels. More to the point, (30.2%) of them reported that they 'often' do that. Whereas, (14%) of the respondents stated that they "sometime" use so and only (2.3%) responded that they 'rarely' do that. This goes completely against the findings gained from the interviews which revealed that most of the teachers agreed that the teaching-learning outcome may positively influenced by the use of various strategies to assess skills in reading. For example, Teacher "B" stated that, *"in general, using different strategies for assessing reading skills can have a positive effect on the teaching-learning outcome. In particular, it helps me to know how realistic my teaching plans for the group I teach are"*. This contradiction indicates that these teachers have problems with their thoughts and opinions about using different strategies of assessment, what are the reasons or the purposes of doing so and the most terrifying problem is if teachers really consider the students' level while adopting any assessment strategy. This conclusion falls in disagreement with Rajoo and Selvaraj (2010), who describe reading strategies as "how readers interact with the written texts and how these strategies help to enhance text comprehension, which includes mental plans". It is also against Reading strategies are used as guidelines and aids to improve reading comprehension and prevent comprehension failures at both word and sentence levels (Aarnoutse & Schellings, 2003). Therefore, teachers need to be aware of reading strategies in order to facilitate students' reading, regardless of the approach they choose to use in the classroom.

Item (8) questioned the teachers if they use assessment to improve appropriate lessons and to develop instruction for students. Based on the findings, 37% of the teachers stated that they "always" use assessment to develop lessons and improve instructions for the majority of the students, while 34.9% said they "often" do so. This result gives an undesirable indication about the teachers' consideration of the purpose of the term assessment because it shows the majority of them do not use assessment to develop their lessons or improve instruction whenever they assess their students in reading classes. Teacher "A" said *"by assessing students throughout the school year, teachers develop a better understanding of their students, including their strengths and weak areas for improvement"*. This corresponds to Williams, (2015), assessments are utilized by teachers to monitor student growth, assist in maximizing education potential, enhance instruction, and develop suitable lessons. Formative assessment is significant in this case due to the fact that it is always carried out to serve a variety of purposes, (Weaver, 2013) because it is used for measuring and monitoring students' progress and the teaching process. Teachers examine the effectiveness of their teaching methods by using formative assessment likewise. This particular type of assessment is a continuous process that could be done, as Sutton and Austin, (2015, p. 68) put it, "every few minutes". They added "Teachers could not function effectively without formative assessment". Thus, using the formative type of assessment could help both students to enhance their performance by offering helpful feedback and remedial education. Teachers can improve their teaching lessons and to develop better instructions for students.

The quantitative findings as figure 4.10 shows, the respondents were close to percent, (27.9%) stated that they 'always' consider the category fluency of reading assessment. Moreover, (30.2%) reported 'often' do that while (34.9%) chose 'sometimes' they do so. A number of the participants (7%) stated that they 'rarely' think of fluency while assessing students in their reading class. The results are unwanted in this level of education because fluency as Macalister, 2014 stated that one of the key elements of a reading program is the development of reading fluency, which affects students' reading comprehension by organizing significant ideas and enabling immediate and precise word recognition (Ari, 2015). According to McCormick and Zutell (2010), reading fluency is an important aspect of reading behavior that needs to be included in both the teaching and evaluation processes. However, fluency has not gotten the amount of attention it deserves in L2 reading research (Grabe, 2010). According to Samuels (2002), comprehension and fluency are strongly related: the reader must be able quickly and easily recognize words in order to achieve a

solid understanding. Therefore, it is critical and essential for teachers to promote and encourage students' fluency in reading.

The findings show only 37.2% of the participants responded that they 'often' consider accuracy as a category in reading assessment. Moreover, 30.2% of them stated that they 'sometimes' do that. While, 25.6% of the respondents reported that they 'always' use so and 7% responded that they 'rarely' do think of the category 'accuracy' in the reading assessment. This means, these results are undesirable. These numbers fall in disagreement with Pallotto, (2009) in which he defined reading accuracy as an indicator of whether or not students are reading books at an appropriate level. Also, he added that "accuracy is the simplest and most internally coherent construct, referring to the degree of conformity to certain norms" (p. 592). However, Mesmer's study on guided reading instruction utilized qualitatively leveled books to support students in recognizing words. Despite varying text levels, the first-grade year accuracy study showed consistent improvement, regardless of the text, indicating a positive impact on students' reading comprehension (Mesmar, 2010, p. 22). Thus, it is important for teachers to enhance the students' accuracy in reading skill.

Furthermore, 48.8% of teachers said that they 'always' consider comprehension as a first category when assessing reading. Moreover, 37.2% of them reported 'often' use this strategy, while 11.6% stated that they 'sometimes' practice this strategy with their students. 2.3% of the them confirmed that they 'rarely'. For example, Teacher "B", *"reading strategies are techniques or activities that enhance comprehension of reading skill input"*. Some of the challenges presented by teacher "B" including comprehension issues, saying: *"EFL teachers face many difficulties in reading assessment due to various factors. These include reading comprehension issues, text-related issues, task-related issues, and reader-teacher methodology issues"*. The findings implies that teachers do not consider "comprehension" as a first category when they assess student in reading classes. This conclusion in not in line with Pinnell and Fountas that emphasize comprehension as a crucial aspect of learning, highlighting its role in reasoning and a complex skill. However, this agrees with Baier's (2005) study on reading comprehension and reading strategies, sixth grade students scored higher on tests after applying the reading comprehension technique than they did before (p. 38). Students can expect to be more likely to comprehend the texts they read if they do this. Iaquinta (2006) noted, taking into account the significance of reading instruction and its effect on students' understanding. Fisher (2008) emphasizes reading practices based on fluency, accuracy, and comprehension, promoting critical literacy development through guided instruction

and a welcoming environment for children to engage and respond to comprehension questions. Thus, these elements produce a coherent whole that serves as a strong foundation for understanding. Due to its importance, teachers should draw a good attention to comprehension as a first category in reading skill.

The results show that 11.1% of the teachers said they 'always' implement different types assessment criteria from outside resources to their reading assessment aim, whereas 44.4% said they 'sometimes' did it. Moreover, 33.3% of teachers said that they 'often' use it in their reading classes. The data also shows that 8.9% of the teachers stated that they 'never' use it. This means that these teachers did not understand how to draw their tests design appropriately; moreover, they stated during the interviews sessions that they face different challenges in this regard. For instance, teacher "C" said that *"I chose assessment methods that align with the specific learning objectives, include formal and informal methods, and reflect the unique characteristics of each student"*. This is also confirmed by teacher "B" who said "*As a teacher, I face challenges in choosing suitable reading tasks to evaluate students' reading performance, considering their backgrounds and interests. I often fail to link the choice of reading assessment strategies with the aim of assessment, especially when my students lack English vocabulary"*. Teacher "A" and "D" stated that it is a very challenging procedure for myself and the other teachers to connect the appropriate selection of reading assessment methodologies with the assessment goal. Jones and Saville's (2016) framework focuses on classroom assessment data and student tasks. Task type questions are avoided for validity and reliability, but can still be used for reading skills assessment, despite time-consuming design. However, Grabe, (2009) disagrees by saying that we change how we use our mental processes as well as resources every time we read for all these different and varied reasons. Therefore, the Universities should support teachers to be ready to select appropriate assessment criteria which invest in improving reading assessment.

The research findings also showed that 41.9% of the teachers said they 'often' use the connect strategy to indicate students' comprehension of the text. Besides 34.9% reported 'sometimes' they do so. It also presents 16.3% chose 'always' while 7% selected 'rarely'. According to the frequency of using this assessment reading strategy by teachers above, it can be concluded that less than half of these teachers did not use 'connect' assessment tasks at an appropriate level of difficulty for their students regularly. However, there are certain teachers confirmed during the interview sessions that they consider the assessment tasks level of difficulty for their students. For example,

teacher "C" said, *"I chose assessment methods that align with the specific learning objectives, include formal and informal methods, and reflect the unique characteristics of each student"*. The discrepancy between the quantitative and the qualitative findings regarding this issue implies that not all teachers were aware of this strategy. In details, as part of a reading comprehension approach called "making connections," readers must relate the content they are reading to prior knowledge or schema. This strategy encourages reader engagement, which leads to a thorough comprehension of the content. Interestingly, this conclusion does not go in line to Tsung (2009), a preview is an introductory passage provided to students in advance of their actual confrontation with the reading selection to help promote comprehension. Moreover, all described by Fellag (2006), one reading technique that students frequently use is previewing: the text itself, its title, any subheadings (smaller titles within the reading), and any supporting artwork (photographs, drawings) are as a preview or perspective in advance. However, Muñoz and Álvarez (2010) said, it is believed that using a variety of activities increases assessment process reliability and provides students with extra opportunities to demonstrate their extensive range of knowledge. Thus, teachers should use various types of tasks to have multiple preferences; among these advantages in their potential contribution to the reliability and validity of reading assessment. Also, teachers should give students indications throughout the previewing process, like an image or title that relates to the reading material, and additionally encourage them to formulate predictions before reading.

The qualitative data showed that teacher "B" finds a challenge lies in determining which procedures are most effective in different situations, such as using tests for assessing learners' attitudes or utilizing observation as a strategy. These findings fall in disagreement with Harvey (2006, p. 11) who defines classroom observation as a crucial component of initial teacher training and feedback, offering trainee teachers a priceless chance to enhance their instruction, receive guidance from, and share ideas with, experienced teachers. In addition, Grbich (2013, p. 80) mentioned that there are two main types of observations: those performed by school administrators or peers, instructional specialists, or coaches, with the primary goal of providing feedback on classroom management and instructional techniques. However, new general and special education teachers are typically the focus of classroom observations, while experienced teachers can benefit from the feedback and insights gained through observation (Oliver, 2010). Classroom observation can be brief or long, and methods can be homegrown or nationally recognized. Also, good classroom observation should include a stated purpose, specific focus, operational definitions, training procedures, observation schedule, setting, unit of time, method to record data, and method

to process and analyze data. Cohen et al., (2011). Thus, observation can help teachers decide what has to be done next: whether to move forward or to go back and review particular areas since students remain unable to comprehend them.

As Figure 4.22 illustrates the frequency with which teachers employ diagnostic reading assessment as a tactic to identify students' areas of difficulty. According to statistics, 34.9% of respondents said they "sometimes" use the diagnostic assessment type to identify areas where students are struggling. it being said, 25.6% of the participants chose to do it. However, 16.3% of them said they "rarely" used this approach, while 11.6% said they used it 'always' and 'never.' This finding is in line with Finn et al. (2003) and Bennett, (1996) who believe 52 that bigger classes will decrease the amount of time because teachers usually spend more time on general instruction and on dealing with students individually. It can be argued that although the teachers might suffer from their limited experience but the effect of class size in Libyan Universities is notably exist. one of the interesting issues which was raised by the teachers during their interview sessions was classroom size. The data obtained showed that it is difficult for teachers of reading to manage all their various different activities and apply different reading assessment strategies in classes with more than 25 students. For example, as an illustration, teacher "A" said: "Yes, such as the large number of students in the class; moreover, the atmosphere in the noisy learning setting made it difficult to incorporate reading assessments". In this regard, teacher's "B", "C" and "E" added that some external challenges hinder reading teachers to assess their students' achievements.

In this instance, the gap between their goals and their actual performance in the classroom might be blamed for the size of the class. Because of this, teachers might be under pressure to decide the most effective way to conduct reading classes and handle situations that might negatively impact students' ability to gain knowledge. This means that classroom size assumed has a great significance effect on teachers' performance and students' achievements. Therefore, classroom size should be considered by universities in order to manage the teachers' reading lessons.

Another interesting finding from the teachers' answers to item 15 regarding whether or not they encourage students to use prediction as a strategy to figure out texts events and anticipate what will happen next. The results revealed that most of the options were the same percent 23.6 of the teachers selected 'always', 'often', and 'sometimes' while 2.3% of them selected 'rarely'. These numbers do contradict with Montgomery et al., (2007) who stated that reading comprehension demands the ability to determine words' meanings and links among them using prior grammatical

102

knowledge in addition to a more active comprehension of the text's content and background knowledge. In addition, predicting as defined by Ahmadi and Ismail (2012, p. 157) involves using background knowledge, new information, and passage construction to make assumptions related to the writer's content. It allows students to express opinions on primary topics using teacher suggestions, such as titles, headings, pictures, and diagrams. One strategy to assist students in making predictions about what will happen next is to use graphics when appropriate (Harmer, 2002). On the other hand, Johnson (2001) contends that using cloze exercises, in which students are given texts with certain words missing, can aid in the development of predictive

abilities. Thus, prediction is a technique that allows students to express opinions on a reading text before reading it, using teacher suggestions like titles, headings, pictures, and diagrams. It helps students remember existing knowledge and sets reading goals.

In addition, summarization is the act of interpreting and rephrasing another author's thoughts and ideas. Topçu (2015) highlights the importance of summarizing information for efficient retrieval and retention in today's fast-paced, information-driven world. Paraphrasing is a crucial technique for academic writing, as it allows students to effectively convey their ideas and thoughts in a genuine academic setting. However, as seen in Figure 4.18, 41.9% of teachers chose 'always' as integrating the two strategies of reading comprehension which are summarizing and paraphrasing as assessment strategies. While 37.2% of the teachers preferred to 'often' consider these two strategies. Additionally, 14% of them reported using these strategies with their students 'sometimes' Conversely, a some of them 7% said they 'rarely' using them. This means less than 50% of EFL teachers who participated in the study whose selected from different faculties at Tripoli University do use these two important strategies in assessing reading comprehension skill. This is falls in disagreement with Bahap et al., (2016) who said that finding the core idea, connecting supporting ideas to the major idea, eliminating superfluous details, and arranging the main and supporting ideas in accordance with the main text are only a few of the sophisticated cognitive processes involved in summarizing and paraphrasing. In addition, it helps students comprehend text material and commit it to long-term memory, summarizing and paraphrasing ensure that mental skills are used effectively, which enhances memory and comprehension (Susar & Akkaya, 2009). Also, in order to prevent plagiarism, students need to be proficient writers who can convey their thoughts, emotions, and experiences to the reader in their own way (Masniyah, 2017). Thus, the foundational component of summarizing and paraphrasing writing is reading

comprehension. Teachers should give more attention to help students practice these two valuable strategies in assessing reading skill, since these strategies enhance students' comprehension, widen their vocabulary and encourage them to write the same sentence or paragraph in different ways and order. In addition, teachers provide exercises like summarizing and paraphrasing texts, comprehension questions, and writing summaries according to the learning objectives (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2004). Also, it helps students to avoid plagiarism while expressing comprehension and interpretation of the key ideas and concepts in their field. Writing and analytical abilities are necessary for paraphrasing and summarizing, and these are crucial to success in the university level.

According to the findings gained from the questionnaire, a significant portion of participants 34.9%, as shown in Figure 4.20, said they "rarely" focus on interviewing students about their reading tasks as a reflection. In addition, 25.6%, stated they "sometimes" do that, and 20.9%, stated they "never" used this strategy with students. Conversely, 11.6% of the participants said they "often" used it. Only 7% of them stated they 'always' use interviews to reflect on students' work in reading tasks. This means that these teachers do not possess sufficient background knowledge about the assessment strategies. This finding disagrees with Thornbury's (2005) argument in which he encourages teachers to use this particular assessment strategy. Seda and Pearson, (2010) also confirmed that reading classroom teacher or any other assessing agent can utilize an interview as a method of evaluation to learn more about their students. Teachers can interview students in order to discover more about the way they think, comprehension levels, interpersonal abilities, and the practical use of concepts. Mackey and Gass, (2005) and Scott, (2008) have all contributed to the development of literacy process interview questions, questions might concern, for instance, what the reader did when they came across an unfamiliar word, asks the reader to identify the part of the text they are reading, why they are reading it, their thoughts, and their enjoyment. It also asks for clarification on any parts they don't understand, their actions when encountering them, and if the text reminds them of any previous readings which can be used to understand students' reading and writing tasks. These questions focus on unfamiliar words, text identification, and understanding strategies. By asking these questions, teachers can gain valuable insights into students' vocabulary and strategies for handling challenging words. However, Dakowska (2005) claimed that conducting interviews as assessment strategy is a challenging task since it takes some preparation work, the selection of appropriate questions, and previous interview analysis in order

to accurately assess the questions and the information gathered from the students. Being that the teacher is under pressure makes it more challenging to assess a large number of students in a short amount of time. Moreover, informal assessments known as literacy process interviews are used to find out how writers and readers process their own work (Wood, 1988). While participant comments are not assessed, teachers might use them as a guide when teaching various reading methods and abilities. These could be the causes of EFL teachers' continued lack of enthusiasm for having their students' reading skills tested by using interviews (Luoma, 2004, p. 36). This implies that the suitability of the task preparation and application are a significant part in achieving valuable and beneficial reading assessment. Still, it is important to use this strategy as assessment strategy to gauge readers and writers' thoughts on their work, guiding teachers in teaching literacy skills and strategies. It helps identify which strategies need to be taught during limited instructional time.

Furthermore, one of the skills that is required and that needs to be improved in the twenty-first century is critical thinking (Trilling & Fadel, 2009, p. 7). It is also regarded as a skill that may be developed in a person's lifetime (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004, pp. 119–20). The questionnaire data showed that two options of the figure 17 have the same percent. Based on statistics, 40.5% of the teachers selected 'always' and 'often' for encouraging their students to be critical thinkers while reading a text in a reading test. Additionally, the data reveals that 16.7% of the teachers said they 'often' use it, 2.3% said they 'rarely' utilize this method in their reading lessons. This indicates that these teachers aimed to develop students' reading skills by integrating critical thinking skill in order to be able to read, write and make their own logic interpretation. However, the data gained from the interviews confirmed that these teachers face challenges that obstacle them to assess students in appropriate ways. For example, teacher *'C'* agreed on the importance but stated that "*Balancing advanced readers with struggling readers is a delicate task. As we teachers may struggle to align their assessment strategies with standardized tests. Balancing these challenges is essential for effective reading assessment in education".* This result is in line with Edwards and Briers (2000), which they mentioned that higher-order thinking involves creating and assessing knowledge, and lower- order thinking, which entails recalling and processing information. Paul and Elder (2008, p. 49), on the other hand, discovered three levels of thinking, which comprise higher-order thinking in addition to the first two. Critical thinking, which is a component of higher-order thinking, is perhaps the primary focus of today's academic achievement. Reading texts

critically can be challenging for some students due to their diverse perceptions, thinking processes, interpretation, creativity, communication, teamwork, leadership, responsibility, and social and cross-cultural competencies. (Zhou et al., 2015). Thus, it is significant for teachers to encourage critical thinking in EFL classes prepares autonomous students to critically read, think and assess their learning methods, acquire L2 skills, and enhances the learning experience. It also has a significant connection to students' academic success.

A further examination of figure 19 reveals that 40.9% of the participants said they 'often' consider a range of new vocabulary within the text as a reading assessment. 36.4% of them reported 'always'. In addition, 11.4% of them selected 'sometimes. While 9.1% of them said they 'rarely' used this strategy. However, the qualitative findings of teachers show the importance of focusing in the vocabulary category. For example, teacher "D" said *"therefore, it might be a reading from which I want them to pick up new vocabulary, or it might be for grammar improvement"*. Pearson et al., (2007) who described vocabulary assessment approach as a receptive aspect of vocabulary in assessing student performance on vocabulary exams, focusing on reading comprehension. This is confirmed by Ur (2005) who encourages students to concentrate on the important sections of the text while attempting to deduce the literal meaning of the incoherent language from the context. At the student level, both accurate and comprehensive reading might result in word development and vocabulary growth (Rashidi and Piran, 2011). Also, there are some challenges faced by teachers. Teacher "B" stated that *"assessments require time and effort, and lower-ability students often face more difficulties. Lack of reading resources, unknown vocabulary, limited grammatical knowledge, and passage lengths can also pose challenges"*. This falls in agreement with conducted research in (2012) by Mohammad Reza Ahmadi under the title of *"improving vocabulary learning in foreign language learning through reciprocal teaching strategies"*. The results showed that the most significant challenge faced by foreign language learners during the process of learning a foreign language is vocabulary. According to Kieffer and Lesaux (2012), there is a significant correlation between the quantity of vocabulary and the comprehension of text. However, reading comprehension may be more challenging for students who struggle to recognize numerous words in a book than for other students. Even advanced students may find it difficult to understand texts with a large number of foreign words, especially if word meanings are crucial to comprehension (Kuzborska, 2012; Snowling & Hulme, 2005). As a result, when students read, their vocabulary deficits can be filled in by using the skill of identifying the text's key terms (Lehr & Osborn, 2001;

Roehrig & Guo, 2011). Thus, Piran and Rashidi's (2011) research suggests that accurate and comprehensive reading can significantly enhance word development and vocabulary growth in students. Vocabulary acquisition is crucial, as it enhances understanding of text without prior knowledge of the subject matter and sentence structure, despite previous belief that language acquisition is less significant.

Analysing the quantitative data showed that the participants were asked whether they use an analytic score for each category of reading assessment test. The results show that teachers with a percentage of 14% said they "always" use analytic score in their test, whereas 37.2% said they "often" use it. Moreover, 32.6% of the teachers "sometimes" did this type of scoring. Besides 7% of the participants "rarely" use this kind of score, and only 9.3% of them chose "never" use it. Unexpectedly, during the interview's sessions, these teachers confirmed that they use this scoring strategy in reading classes. For example, Teacher 'E' said that *"language testers must set tasks that exercise reading and listening skills, demonstrating successful behavior. For myself as a teacher, I have problems related particularly in managing subjective scoring procedures, as many of us not know the appropriate rating scale"*. Teacher "D" also confirmed that *"I often encounter some problems with designing scoring techniques"*. However, teacher "D" prefers an analytic scoring technique, assessing each category separately and focusing on students' comprehension and interpretation of the text before determining the overall mark. This implies that these teachers face significant challenges that hinder them to use this strategy whenever they assess their students in reading classes. Chuang, (2009) argued that the analytical scoring evaluates the readers' performance on a number of factors, including reading skill, vocabulary, topic, and comprehension. Hughes, (2003) stated differently, the score obtained using that technique is not a single number, but rather the total of multiple characteristics of the students' work. Thus, analytic rubrics help students improve reading comprehension by identifying areas of weakness and identifying skills for further improvement, rather than focusing solely on a single score (ibid). Thus, language teachers should evaluate the effectiveness of a rating scale in relation to the quality of language samples used in each testing scenario (situation).

In addition, an interesting and a comprehensive review of figure 4.25 reveals that most teachers 41.9% of them stated they "sometimes" use a holistic score for each category in the reading test. 25% of the participants said they "often" did that. Nevertheless, the information also reveals that 16.3% of them choose "always", less percent 14% of teachers stated "rarely", and only one of the

43 participants stated "never". This different range of percent implies that these teachers does not understand and know what to do with this strategy in order to assess students in reading classes. Although the teachers apply this strategy but they reported that they have similar problems in this regard. For example, teacher "D" stated that *"making suitable scoring scales is difficult since reading ability tests might be scored holistically, analytically, or both. This might happen when teachers seek to aid students comprehend key ideas from various texts, which requires analyzing them on a level that takes a holistic approach".* This finding agrees with Chuang's (2009) conclusions in which he confirmed that holistic grading gives an overall assessment of the reading performance. Being the same track, Hughes (2003) presented some advantages of applying holistic scoring that the primary benefit of using a holistic grading scale is its rapidity. They also facilitate scoring because there is less to read and memorize than in a complex grid with several criteria (Luoma, 2004), making them practical for decision-making (Chuang, 2009) and more user-friendly for scoring. Thus, the task's suitability is crucial for good reading assessment scores. Holistic rating scales may lack reliability as they don't guide students in improving their reading abilities, as they don't provide details about weaknesses. This results in less reliable scores and hinders student progress.

It is also interesting to find in figure 4.24 shows whether or not participants take validity and reliability into account when assessing reading skills. The results showed that two of the options share the same percent, 34.9% of teachers do take reliability and validity into consideration when assessing reading skills, 20.9% of participants verified 'always' doing so. However, 9.3% of them stated 'rarely' consider the two principles of assessment. To create an adequate and successful assessment, two prerequisites, known as validity and reliability, must be met. For example, teacher "A" and "E" defines "valid and reliable" as crucial elements in determining the accuracy of a test. Validity measures the consistency of results, ensuring they can be reproduced under the same conditions, and reliability ensures the results accurately represent the intended purpose. The percentage of applying a very important two elements in ensuring an accurate result is disappointedly very low. The qualitative data showed that teachers face some challenges in achieving valid and reliable reading assessment, for example, teacher "teacher "B" elaborates:

> Reliability and validity are crucial in testing, enhancing the assessment. Holistic and
> analytic scoring methods are used for testing reading, offering practicality and ease of
> decision-making. However, they lack reliability as they don't provide details about

students' weaknesses. Analytic scoring requires separate evaluation of individual criteria, making it challenging for us teachers to apply and make valid and reliable scores for reading skills.

The research findings also revealed that teachers ("D" and "E") agreed that it is not easy to design ratings. Thus, teachers should have a clearer idea of how this scale works. Teacher "D" said *"Designing a valid and reliable test is a big issue that would be a challenge for me and other teachers. Also, I am facing some struggles with following scoring procedure".* Teacher "E" adds that *"unfamiliarity with tests can negatively affect performance, so sample tests or past papers can be given to ensure familiarity. A good test should have high reliability, ensuring consistent results".* Furthermore, Teacher "C" presents some of the solutions for the previous challenges clarifying: The assessment process requires clear scoring criteria, addressing subjective criteria, consistently applying rubrics, balancing objectivity and flexibility, providing constructive feedback, Consistency is achieved through upfront criteria definition, detailed rubric, review and revision, and a reflective approach to continuous improvement. Most of the findings disagrees with Hughes (2003, p. 50) who said "a valid test must provide consistently accurate measurements". Validity tests must accurately measure the things they are intended to measure. There are several levels to the test validity idea that need to be addressed in the assessment. The question of whether the exam contains a representative sample of the content is posed by the first layer of this structure, content validity. Additionally, it must be reliable and accurate across testing contexts and scorers in assessing students' ability to preserve validity for a diverse range of students (Darling-Hammond et al., 2013). In a similar direction, there have been cases where the teacher employs strategies in class that are different from those used on the exam. This can be helpful in ensuring that the test being administered measures exactly the same concepts as the reference exam, such as speaking, writing, and listening (Middleton, 2019). In addition, in the words of Downing (2003), exams with constructed responses are challenging to assess consistently and accurately. As stated by Brown (2006), utilizing thorough and precise rating criteria together with several training sessions to teach examiners how to apply the criteria as objectively and precisely as possible are two of the best strategies for solving the challenge.

Based on Moana-Filho et al., (2017), assessing several sources of error at once rather than concentrating on one source at a time can improve the assessment of the reliability of sensory testing. Additionally, there are two crucial areas to look through in order to determine the reliability

of the method for scoring. It includes reliability between and within raters. Both of these are required while testing reliability. Due to the fact that language tests, by their very nature, require the least amount of rater subjectivity possible while scoring (Weigle, 2001), inter-rater reliability is related to the agreement between two raters, while test-retest reliability is acquired by repeating the same measure twice (Graziano & Raulin, 2010). Thus, reliability and validity are related but have different focus. Reliability is a necessary condition for validity, but not sufficient alone. Balancing reliability and validity are crucial when designing tests, with validity focusing on test content. In order for assessments to be considered valid, the conclusions teachers make about students' learning must be valid. Additionally, they need to be dependable, providing consistent outcomes after each administration. In simple terms, the assessments should be consistent and accurate indicators of student achievements.

The quantitative data showed upon closer review, that 44.2% of the teachers said they "always" use feedback as a strategy to reflect on students' work. while 34.9% of the them stated that they "often" use it. Moreover, only 2.3% said that they have 'never' used students' results to provide feedback on their work as a strategy in reading tasks. Furthermore, the qualitative findings revealed a notable agreement among the participants that providing feedback is important aspect of assessment. For example, teacher's "C" highlights an important reason of assessment which is *"assessment is used to track student progress, drive instructional decisions, and give teachers and students feedback".* Also, teacher "B" mentioned, *"assessments are used to track student progress, drive instructional decisions, and give teachers and students feedback".* This result is in line with Shavelson (2003), who emphasized the significance of giving students feedback as it helps them become more proficient learners. There is evidence, according to Ellis (2006: 99), that providing specific feedback is more successful at encouraging learners to apply the structure correctly both right away and in the future. This could be because students receive clear feedback straight from the teacher, saving them from having to figure out what the teacher is trying to say. Furthermore, the study's conclusions revealed that the participants struggle to manage the time required to provide feedback to students. This finding disagrees with Gibbs and Simpson (2004, p. 45) that whether on purpose or accidentally, teachers provide their students with rapid feedback every time they meet. One crucial component of corrective feedback is its immediacy; it can be delivered vocally or through nonverbal cues in the classroom as soon as a job is finished (Binu, 2020). Thus, providing immediate feedback helps students identify weaknesses and improves language

competence. However, teachers must carefully consider all options before providing positive feedback.

Finally, the qualitative findings revealed that that only two of the teachers were involved in training sessions but not related to assessing language skills in general and reading skill in particular. For example, Teacher "C" and "E" participated in a four-week training program five years ago for teaching and assessing English language curriculum, but not how to assess English language skills. This suggests that committees do not prioritize English language assessment for professional development. Thus, to tackle these issues, it's crucial to have a thorough plan, maintain open communication, and continuously improve assessment methods. This means that all teachers have a positive attitude towards taking training sessions. As a result, training sessions are essential to make sure teachers are using the most recent techniques for teaching reading comprehension. However, according to Teacher "D" claims that *"I acknowledge that I did not receive any training sessions for improving their English skills, but I am aware of the importance of teacher development for successful language teaching"*. Also, teacher "A" agreed with the above claim saying *"there a need of additional training courses on teaching reading comprehension, as the current lack of new and adapted courses may lead to a reliance on outdated methods"*. This means these teachers suffer lack of teaching and assessing reading skills. This finding agrees with Allen's (2008) argument in which he pointed out that "The majority of teachers have an insufficient command and training of English to be able to teach it effectively and teachers with insufficient subject knowledge have very little if any confidence" (p. 2). In contrast, this conclusion contradicts the findings of Alrawashdeh and Al-zayed (2017), who found that teaching reading skills to teachers can be just as successful and helpful as teaching any other English language skill, despite possible challenges. According to Sailors and Price (2015), teachers require support for their own professional growth. Teachers will have more helpful and successful teaching methods if they maintain informed on the most recent developments and courses connected to their field (ibid). The research findings also demonstrated that the participants recognized the significance and value of regular training sessions that support students in refining their skills in reading comprehension. Surprisingly, the Libyan universities do not provide such workshops based on the belief that academics and university teachers are already qualified enough to teach any subject (Elabbar, 2011). Thus, because this kind of knowledge is crucial for teacher growth, training sessions should be arranged and concentrated to provide beneficial results by the educational authorities and universities.

5.3. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter discussed the findings obtained from the teachers' questionnaire and interviews. The results have also been triangulated and considered in relation to relevant previous studies. It emphasized on the strategies that that EFL teachers presently employ for reading assessments at the undergraduate level at Tripoli University and the challenges that they encounter when assessing their students in reading classes. The results are analysed, presented and discussed to provide a comprehensive picture of each topic under discussion. In the following chapter, the most intriguing conclusions are concisely summarized.

Chapter Six

Conclusion

6.0. Introduction

This chapter brings together all the findings and the summary of the whole study. It suggests some pedagogical implications and recommendations that could be beneficial for teachers, institutions and new researchers in Libyan context. The limitations of the study are acknowledged and the suggestions for further research are given. Finally, the summary of the chapter is also provided.

6.1. Conclusion of the Whole Study

The study investigated the reading assessment strategies employed by EFL teachers at Tripoli University's faculties. It also highlighted the challenges encountered by these teachers when assessing their students in reading classes. A structured questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were both used as research instruments in this study, which combined quantitative and qualitative data collection. SPSS software was used to analyse the quantitative data, while the thematic analysis method was used to analyse the qualitative data after they were transcribed. The quantitative findings highlighted how insufficient and inadequately the teachers employed effective reading strategies. The teachers' views in the value of implementing reading assessment strategies in their classes is an interesting finding. It apparent the teachers encounter a number of challenges regards assessing their students in reading classes. The study offers a number of important and interesting conclusions, which are summarised as follows:

The study reveals that most teachers have sufficient knowledge about assessing English reading skills such as, accuracy, fluency, time, validity and reliability, pronunciation and vocabulary but struggle with implementing appropriate assessment strategies in their classrooms. They set goals for reading tasks, clarify the purpose of the task, incorporate criteria from other resources, and provide clear instructions. However, most teachers recorded lower percentages of using appropriate assessment strategies, indicating a gap between their knowledge and the reasons for not using them. These challenges can negatively affect students' achievements and require careful consideration of students' backgrounds, interests, and needs. The literature supports the need for skilled teachers to critically review the appropriateness of language assessment resources and

113

methodologies, as it is an essential component of the overall language teaching and learning process.

The qualitative results revealed that teachers define assessment as the action of making judgments using formative and summative assessments. It is a crucial aspect of teaching and learning, providing valuable information about student progress and forming value judgments. Assessment is used to track student progress, drive instructional decisions, and give feedback. However, there is no fixed definition for assessment, making it challenging for some teachers. Effective assessment positively impacts EFL learners' reading comprehension and is crucial to the teaching and learning process. Assessment in education refers to various techniques, strategies, tools, and instruments used to measure and document students' academic readiness.

The quantitative findings shows that 46.5% of teachers use various types of assessment to assess reading skills. Formative assessments are used for improving learning during reading activities, while summative assessments evaluate learning at the end of the course. Teachers should use a combination of formal and informal assessments to align with the assessment's objectives. Regular exams and quizzes can encourage participation and better grades, while final tests at the end of the course determine if students meet learning objectives and subject requirements. Moreover, the study reveals that only half of participants use various strategies to assess students' reading levels. This contradicts the majority of teachers who believe that using various strategies can positively influence teaching-learning outcomes. The application of reading strategies is mandatory, especially for learners who learn English as foreign and second language (ESL/EFL). Therefore, teachers should adopt different and useful strategies in their teaching and assessment strategies, but with a clear reason for choosing them and aligning with students' individual differences and levels.

The study also found that 37% of teachers use assessment to improve lessons and instruction. This indicates that these teachers often do not use assessment to develop lessons or improve instruction. Formative assessment can help students improve their performance, provide feedback, and improve teaching lessons, ultimately leading to better instruction for students. It is a continuous process that helps teachers evaluate teachers teaching methods and evaluate students' progress.

Furthermore, the study also showed that 48.8% of teachers consider comprehension as a first category when assessing reading. Reading strategies are techniques that enhance comprehension

of reading skill input. Teachers face challenges in reading assessment due to comprehension issues, text-related issues, task-related issues, and reader-teacher methodology issues. This contradicts Fountas and Pinnell, (2007) emphasis on comprehension as a crucial aspect of learning. Reading practices should focus on fluency, accuracy, and comprehension to promote critical literacy development.

It is interesting to conclude that the study reveals that only 11.1% of teachers who use external assessment criteria for reading assessment, but struggle to select appropriate methods and align them with the goal, requiring university support. Moreover, it reveals that 41.9% of teachers use the connect strategy to assess students' comprehension of text, but less than half use appropriate assessment tasks. The discrepancy suggests teachers need to consider different tasks for improved reliability and validity. In addition, the study reveals that 37.2% of teachers use classroom observation for literacy tasks, but finding effective procedures can be challenging. Classroom observation is essential for initial teacher training and feedback, but should include clear purpose, focus, training procedures, and data recording methods. Moreover, Libyan university teachers struggle with managing over 25 students and applying reading assessment strategies due to noise, classroom size, and external challenges. Diagnostic reading assessment is used, but only 16.3% is used. Universities should consider classroom size for effective reading lesson management.

Furthermore, the data shows that 23.6% teachers suggest students use prediction as a reading comprehension strategy. Prediction involves background knowledge, new information, passage construction, graphics, and cloze exercises, aiding in recalling existing knowledge and setting reading goals. The study also shows that 40.9% of participants consider new vocabulary in text as a reading assessment. Teachers emphasize vocabulary for vocabulary exams, but face challenges like time, lower-ability students, and limited vocabulary. Moreover, the study reveals that 44.2% of teachers use feedback as a strategy for reflecting on students' work, while 34.9% use it frequently. However, participants struggle with managing time for feedback, contrasting with Gibbs and Simpson (2004) belief of providing rapid feedback. Immediate feedback helps students identify weaknesses and improves language competence. Additionally, the qualitative results demonstrated that one of the major difficulties

teachers face is the classroom size. They claimed that in classes with more than twenty-five students, it is challenging for reading teachers to supervise all of their different assignments and implement various reading assessment strategies. This is due to the fact that reading assessments in large classes take a long time, especially when each student is tested individually.

The interesting findings to conclude that 34.9% of teachers consider validity and reliability when assessing reading skills. Challenges include designing tests that accurately represent content and are reliable across contexts and scorers. The research emphasizes the importance of clear scoring criteria, subjective criteria, and balancing objectivity and flexibility. Improving reliability in sensory testing can help. Additionally, the study reveals that a significant percentage of teachers rarely use interviews to assess students' reading tasks, indicating a lack of knowledge about assessment strategies. Despite the challenges of conducting interviews, they are crucial for understanding students' thinking, comprehension levels, and understanding strategies, especially during limited instructional time.

Critical thinking is a vital skill in the 21st century, with 40.5% of teachers using it in reading tests. Balancing advanced and struggling readers is challenging. Encouraging critical thinking in EFL classes prepares students for critical reading, L2 skills, and academic success. In addition, less than 50% of EFL teachers at Tripoli University use summarization and paraphrasing as assessment strategies for reading comprehension. These strategies aid in understanding text, preventing plagiarism, and enhancing vocabulary. Teachers should encourage writing styles, provide exercises, and provide summaries to help students avoid plagiarism.

Based on the study results, nearly all of the participants said that their classes used a holistic score for every category on the reading exam. In order to assess students in reading classes, this indicates that the teachers are aware of and proficient in the use of this approach. Moreover, the results gathered verified that a good number of teachers do not use analytical scores into their assessments. This suggests that these teachers face difficulties that keep them from routinely assessing their reading class students using this strategy. During their interviews, the teachers revealed that they frequently get into issues while coming up with grading procedures.

Finally, the findings also indicated that there are some factors cause teachers' challenges while assessing their students' reading skills in English. These factors included that lack background

knowledge information, lack theoretical background and lack the practical knowledge on how they can apply this theoretical knowledge. For example, it was found that EFL teachers, except two who completed a four-week training program, lack the ability to apply reading assessment strategies due to lack of university training. To improve proficiency, teachers should create strategies and establish a policy for regular workshops and training sessions in order to help teachers to know how to support students in enhancing their reading abilities.

6.2. Research Implications and Recommendations

The primary objective of this study was to investigate the strategies EFL teachers at Tripoli University adopt for reading assessment. The investigation also aimed to discover the challenges that teachers endure while assessing their reading class students. The present study has found some significant and helpful modifications, which are listed as follows:

6.2.1. For Teachers

- Research suggests EFL teachers should implement diverse reading assessment strategies with students, emphasizing the importance of providing various techniques, strategies, and activities in every reading classroom.
- Teachers should provide previewing activities with hints and predictions, encouraging students to recall past knowledge through pictures or titles, and use this information to articulate their opinions about the text.
- Teachers should assess students by the two important strategies which are, summarizing and paraphrasing that involve sophisticated cognitive processes such as connecting supporting ideas, eliminating unnecessary details, and arranging main and supporting ideas in accordance with the main text.
- Teachers should encourage students to re-read assessment passages to enhance their reading speed and fluency, enabling them to extract more knowledge from their reading.
- Cooperative learning activities involve assigning reading tasks to group members, allowing students to paraphrase and commit information to memory.
- Teachers should provide students with a clear understanding of the assessment criteria to enhance their awareness of reading activities.

- This study highlights the importance of teachers selecting appropriate reading methods, such as books and story texts, to enhance the quality of assessing reading skills.

- Teachers' assessment strategies can enhance students' performance by promoting spontaneous interactions, allowing them to create and explore without fear of making mistakes.

- Teachers should determine the course's purpose, choose suitable assessment strategies, and prepare for the chosen reading activities in advance before starting the course.

- Teachers should employ texts that provides clear instructions on the importance of conducting reading activities.

- Formative assessment can enhance student performance by providing feedback and remedial education, while teachers can improve their teaching methods and develop better instructions.

- Teachers should balance between reliability and validity which is crucial in test design, ensuring consistent and accurate indicators of student achievements.

- Teachers are advised to regularly use their recent reading assessment resources to enhance students' learning experiences and facilitate their learning process.

- Using authentic teaching materials and providing relevant class tasks are crucial strategies for teaching and assessing reading skills.

- Language teachers should assess the efficacy of a rating scale in relation to the quality of language samples used in each testing situation.

- Teachers should use summative assessment since is crucial for teachers to evaluate and assess students at the end of any level or semester.

- Teachers should conduct regular assessment for students' work to prevent feelings of judgment and ensure a smooth teaching and learning process.

- Teachers should provide immediate feedback to students to identify their weaknesses and enhancing language competence, but teachers must carefully evaluate all options before providing positive feedback.

- Teachers should promote critical thinking in EFL classes to prepare students for autonomous reading, assessment, and L2 skills acquisition, enhancing learning

experiences and boosting academic success.

- Teachers should carefully do task preparation and application because it is crucial for effective reading assessment, gauging reader and writer opinions, guiding teachers in teaching literacy skills, and identifying strategies for limited instructional time.

- Teachers should apply prediction as a teaching technique that enables students to express their opinions on a reading text using visual aids, aiding in retention of existing knowledge and setting reading objectives.

- Comprehension is a crucial aspect of reading skill, as it provides a strong foundation for understanding and should be prioritized by teachers.

- Observation aids teachers in determining the next course of action, whether to proceed or repeat specific points where students are struggling to understand.

- Teachers should utilize diverse tasks to cater to different preferences, which can potentially enhance the reliability and validity of reading assessments.

- Analytic assessment rubrics aid students in enhancing their work and reading skills by identifying areas of weakness and areas requiring more focus.

- Teachers should promote critical thinking and balanced assessment in their students to ensure a more logical and effective learning experience.

6.2.2. For Institutions

- Universities should consider classroom size and materials for effective management of teachers' reading lessons and ensure classrooms are equipped with the necessary resources.

- Libyan universities should conduct regular in-service training sessions on teaching and assessing reading skills, as this knowledge is crucial for EFL teacher development.

- The university is required to offer all internet accessibility facilities to its English departments.

- Collaborative efforts between Libyan education authorities, EFL researchers, assessment professionals, curriculum developers, teacher educators, and professional learning

providers are needed to enhance teachers' reading teaching abilities and classroom assessment strategies.

6.3. Limitations of the Study

This study has a number of constraints that could have explained why there were no remarkable findings. The researcher intended to conduct classroom observations while reading lectures, but she was prevented from doing so by university closures and college and university teachers protests against giving lectures. Additionally, the study's sample size was limited; however, the questionnaire was initially given to 55 participants, of whom only 40 copies were retrieved, and only five teacher interviews were conducted. Furthermore, the study's scope is restricted in terms of location, population, and time. This research was limited to (College of Education Tripoli, College of Education Janzour, College of Education Qasr Bin Ghashir)).

6.4. Suggestion for Further Researches

The study highlights the importance of reading assessment strategies in language assessment and the challenges teachers face in teaching reading. It suggests further research on EFL teachers' knowledge of reading assessment, institutional contexts, and their role in designing large-scale tests. It also suggests exploring the relationship between teachers and students and the problems faced by university students during listening assessment. Moreover, it would be more beneficial research to study the motivation of reading and to get a deeper understanding of the students' strategies of both learning and assessing themselves. Also, a study is needed to investigate teachers' strategies and techniques to teach and assess reading comprehension through using authentic reading materials.

6.5. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter included a variety of interesting and valuable conclusions. In other words, comprehensive responses and answers were given to the research questions. The challenges and the main factors causing these challenges encountered by Libyan EFL teachers while assessing their students in reading classes were also taken into consideration. Moreover, implications and recommendations of the study were also presented. Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research were also given.

References

Aarnoutse, C. & Schellings, G. (2003). *Learning reading strategies by triggering reading motivation*. Educational Studies, 29(4), 387-409. Acquisition research. London: Routledge.

Adey, P. & Hewitt, G. (2004). *The Professional Development of Teachers: Practice and Theory*. London: Kluwer Academic.

Adeyemi, D. (2008). *Bilingual education: meeting the challenges of diversity in Botswana*. Nordic Journal of African Studies, 17(1), 20–33.

Afflerbach, P. (2012). *Understanding and using reading assessment*, K–12 (2nd ed.). Newark, DE: International Reading Association agreements? Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 204, 309–317.

Ahmadi, M. R. & Ismail, H. N. (2012). *Reciprocal teaching strategy as an important factor of improving reading comprehension*. Journal of Studies in Education, 2(4), 153-173.

Ahmadi, M. R., Ismail, H. N., & Abdullah, M. K. K. (2013*). The importance of metacognitive reading strategy awareness in reading comprehension*. English Language Teaching, 6(10), 235-244.

Al khrisheh, T. (2008). *The effect of instructional strategy and cognitive learning style on Jordanian EFL University students' reading achievement and motivation for reading*. Unpublished PhD Dissertation. Amman Arab University. Amman, Jordan.

Alario, F. X., De Cara, B., & Ziegler, J. C. (2007). *Automatic activation of phonology in silent reading is parallel: Evidence from beginning and skilled readers*. Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 97(3), 205-219.

Alderson, J. C. (2000). *Assessing reading*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511732935

Alderson, J. C. (2005). *Diagnosing foreign language proficiency: The interface between learning and assessment*. London: Continuum.

Alexandra, M. & Moreta, A. (2021). *Pictured-cued tasks and Spe*. Available at: https://repositorio.uta.edu.ec/bitstream/123456789/33349

Al-Ghazo, A. (2017). *The assessment of reading comprehension strategies: Practices of Jordanian public teachers at secondary level*. Volume III, Issue V, July 2015 – ISSN 2321-7065 Ajloun National University Ajloun- Jordan

Alias, M., Masek, A., & Salleh, H. H. M. (2015). *Self, peer, and teacher assessments in problem-based learning: Are they in agreements?*. Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 204, 309-317.

Al-khawaldeh, A. (2011). *EFL reading comprehension interest among Jordanian high school students and their relationship with gender, achievement level and academic stream*. European Journal of Social Sciences, 3, 454-465.

Allen, S. (2008). *Eradicating the achievement gap: History, education, and reformation*. Black History Bulletin, 71(1), 13.

Alrawashdeh, A. I., & Al-zayed, N. N. (2017). *Difficulties That English Teachers Encounter While Teaching Reading Comprehension and Their Attitudes towards Them*. English Language Teaching, 10(5), 167-178.

Al-Regeb, K. (2009). *The Effect of Explicit Instruction of Meta Cognitive Learning Strategies on Promoting Jordanian Language Learners' reading competence*. Journal of Education and Practice, 7(10).

Alsaleh, N. J. (2020). *Teaching Critical Thinking Skills: Literature Review*. Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology-TOJET, 19(1), 21-39.

Al-shareef, H. A. (2022). *Listening Assessment Strategies Employed by Libyan EFL University Teachers*. A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirement for the Degree of Master of Art in Applied Linguistics. جامعة الزاوية.

Alyousef, H. S. (2006). *Teaching reading comprehension to ESL/EFL learners*. Journal of Language and Learning, 5(1), 63-73.

Anderson, E. C., Vanderhoff, A. M., & Donovick, P. J. (2013). *A manifestation of the bilingual disadvantage in college-level writing*. International Journal of Language Studies, 7(1), 135-150.

Anderson, R. C. (1985). *Becoming a nation of readers: The report of the Commission on Reading*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Education.

Ari, O. (2015b). *Building Reading Fluency in Developmental Readers*. Community College Journal of Research and Practice, 39(7), 685-689.

Arias, V. B., Garrido, L. E., Jenaro, C., Martínez-Molina, A., & Arias, B. (2020). A little garbage in, lots of garbage out: assessing the impact of careless responding in personality survey data. Behavior Research Methods, 52, 2489–2505. doi: 10.3758/s13428-020-01401-8

Arıoğul, S. (2007). *Understanding foreign language teachers' practical knowledge: what's the role of prior language learning experience?*. Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 3(1), 1-14.

Arshad, A., Shakir, A., & Ahmad, M. (2020). *A Review on the Principles of a Reading Comprehension Test Construction to assess the Test Takers at different levels*. Psychology and Education, 57(8), 1290-1302.

Asencion, Y. (2004). *Validation of reading-to-write assessment tasks performed by second language learners*. Northern Arizona University.

Ashraf, A., & Zaki, S. (2016). *Analyzing characteristics of reading test tasks designed for undergraduate language assessment*. JISR Management and Social Sciences & Economics, 14(1), 89-104.

Asih, M. (2017). *Assessing reading*. Available at: https://www.academia.edu/33478534/Assessing_Reading (Accessed: 09 March 2024).

Attarzadeh, M. (2011). *The effect of scaffolding on reading comprehension of various text modes on Iranian EFL learners with different proficiency levels*. Social Sciences and Humanities, 2(4), 1-28.

Azeroual, D. (2013*). Investigating the reading difficulties of Algerians EST students with regard to their general English knowledge*. Arab World English Journal, 4(1), 203-212.

Báez, C. P. (2004). *Critical thinking in the EFL classroom: The search for a pedagogical alternative to improve English learning*. Íkala, revista de lenguaje y cultura, 9(15), 45-80.

Bahap Kudret, Z., & Baylık, B. (2016). *Reading comprehension and summarizing skills of successful and unsuccessful fourth-grade readers*. Ankara University Faculty of Educational Sciences Journal of Special Education, 17(3), 317-346.

Baier, R. (2005). *Reading comprehension and reading strategies*. Available at: https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/5066651.pdf.

Baig, M., Ali, S. K., Ali, S., & Huda, N. (2014). *Evaluation of multiple-choice and short essay question items in basic medical sciences.* Pakistan Journal of Medical Sciences, 30 (1), 3.

Bailey, E. (2015). *Reading comprehension skills: making predictions.* Predictions.html

Bailey, P. H. J., et al. (2012). *Implications of multiple-choice testing in nursing education.* Nurse Education Today, 32, 40–44.

Basaran, M. (2013). *Reading fluency as an indicator of reading comprehension*. Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice, 13(4), 2287-2290.

Bazen, A., Barg, F. K., & Takeshita, J. (2021). Research techniques made simple: an introduction to qualitative research. Journal of Investigative Dermatology, 141(2), 241- 247.

Belet, Ş. D. (2005). *Effectiveness of learning strategies over reading comprehension, writing skills and learners' attitudes towards Turkish course*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Anadolu University, Eskisehir, Turkey.

Bell, E., Bryman, A., & Harley, B. (2022). *Business research methods*. Oxford University Press.

Bell, J. (2005). *Doing Your Research Project: A Guide for First-Time Researchers in Education, Health, and Social Science* (4th ed.). Berkshire: Open University Press.

Bell, S. (2007). *The Artful Edit on the Practice of Editing yourself* (1st ed.). New York, London.

Bennett, N. (1996*). Class size in primary schools: perceptions of head teachers, chairs of governors, teachers and parents*. British Educational Research Journal, 22(1), 33-55.

Bhandari, P. (2022, January 3). *Triangulation in Research | Guide, Types, Examples. Scriba*. Retrieved February 3, 2023, from https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/triangulation

Billingham, B. (2005). *Latest software and equipment*. PSA Journal, 71(12), 5-20.

Binu, P. M. (2020). *The role of feedback in classroom instruction*. Faculty, English Language Centre Al-Musanna College of Technology, Sultanate of Oman.

Bjork, E. L., Soderstrom, N. C., & Little, J. L. (2015). *Can Multiple-Choice Testing Induce Desirable Difficulties*? Evidence from the Laboratory and the Classroom. The American Journal of Psychology, 128(2), 229. doi:https://doi.org/10.5406/amerjpsyc.128.2.0229.

Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (2004). *The formative purpose: Assessment must first promote learning*. Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, 103(2), 20-50.

Block, C. C., Parris, S. R., Reed, K. L., Whiteley, C. S., & Cleveland, M. D. (2009). *Instructional approaches that significantly increase reading comprehension*. Journal of Educational Psychology, 101(2), 262.

Blumberg, B., Cooper, D., & Schindler, P. (2014). EBOOK: *Business Research Methods* McGraw Hill.

Blythe, H. I., Pagán, A., & Dodd, M. (2015). *Beyond decoding: phonological processing during silent reading in beginning readers*. Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Condition, 41(4), 1244-1252.

Boer, M., van Bergen, E., & de Jong, P. F. (2014*). Underlying skills of oral and silent reading*. Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 128, 138-151.

Borg, S. (2006). Teacher cognition and language education: Research and practice. Continuum.

Börjesson, L. (2012). *Om strategier engelska och moderna språk. Institutionen för pedagogik och specialpedagogik*, Göteborgs universitet.

Borland, M. V., Howsen, R. M., & Trawick, M. W. (2005). *An investigation of the effect of class size on student academic achievement*. Education Economics, 13(1), 73-83.

Bouchard, M. (2005). *Comprehension strategies for English language learners*. Scholastic.

Boud, D., & Falchikov, N. (2006). *Aligning assessment with long-term learning*. Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 31(4), 399–413. doi:https://doi.org/10.1080/02602930600679050.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). *Using thematic analysis in psychology*. Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3, 77-101.

Breen, M. P., Hird, B., Milton, M., Oliver, R., & Thwaitte, A. (2001). *Making sense of language teaching: Teachers' principles and classroom practices*. Applied Linguistics, 22(4), 470-501.

Bronson, C. (2015). *Understanding Quantitative Design: A Resource for Qualitative Researchers*. The Qualitative Report. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2013.1436.

Brown, D. (2006). *The elements of language curriculum: a systematic approach to program development*. Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. Longman.

Brown, H. D. (2004). *Language Assessment Principles and Classroom Practices*. Pearson Education.

Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching (5th ed.)*. Pearson Education.

Brown, H. D. (2007). *Teaching by principles: An Interactive approach to language pedagogy (3rd ed.)*. Pearson Education.

Brown, H. D. (2010). *Language Assessment: Principles and Classroom Practices (2nd ed.)*. Pearson Education.

Brown, H.D. & Abeywickrama, P. (2004). *Language assessment. Principles and ClassroomPractices*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education, San Francisco State University Press.

Brown, S. (2006). *Teaching listening*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Browne, A. (2004). *A Practical Guide to Teaching Reading in the Early Years*. Great Britain: Athenaeum Press Limited.

Bryman, A. (2012). *Social Research Methods (4th ed.)*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

Bryman, A. (2008). *Social research methods (3rd ed.)*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Burns, R. (2000). *Introduction to Research Methods*. London: Sage Publications.

Burton, N., Brundrett, M., & Jones, M. (2014). *Doing Your Education Research Project (2nd ed.)*. SAGE Publication Ltd.

Butler, C.R., O'Hare, A.M., Kestenbaum, B.R., Sayre, G.G., & Wong, S.P. (2021). *An introduction to qualitative inquiry*. Journal of the American Society of Nephrology, 32(6), 1275-1278.

Caffrey, E.D. (2009). *Assessment in elementary and secondary education: A Primer*. Congressional Research Service.

Cahyono, B.Y., & Widiati, U. (2015). *THE TEACHING OF EFL VOCABULARY IN THE INDONESIAN CONTEXT: THE STATE OF THE ART*. TEFLIN Journal – A publication on the teaching and learning of English, 19(1), 1.

Cain, K. (2010). *Reading development and Difficulties*. United Kingdom: BPS Blackwell.

Calkins, L.M. (2001). *The Art of Teaching Reading*. New York: Longman.

Carless, D. (2004). *Issues in teachers' reinterpretation of task-based innovation in primary schools*. TESOL Quarterly, 38(4), 639-662.

Carrel, P.L. (1988). *Interactive Text Processing: Implications for ESL Second Language Reading Classrooms*. In Carrel, P.L., Devine J., & Eskey D.E. (Eds.), Interactive approaches to second language reading. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Carrell, P.L. (1989). *Metacognitive Awareness and Second Language Reading*. Modern Language Journal, 73, 121-134.

Carrell, P.L., & Eisterhold, J.C. (1983). *Schema theory and ESL reading pedagogy*. TESOL Quarterly, 17(4), 553-573.

Case, S.M., and Swanson, D.B. (2001). *Constructing Written Test Questions for the Basic and Clinical Sciences (3rd ed.)*. Philadelphia: National Board of Medical Examiners.

Cataldo, M.G., & Oakhill, J. (2000). *Why are poor comprehends inefficient searchers? An investigation into the effects of text representation and spatial memory on the ability to locate information in text*. Journal of Educational Psychology, 92(4), 791-799.

Cazden, C.B. (2001*). Classroom Discourse: The Language of Teaching and Learning (2nd ed.)*. Portsmouth: Heinemann.

Celik, S. (2011) *'Characteristics and competencies for teacher educators: Addressing the need for improved professional standards in Turkey'*, Research Online. Available at: https://ro.ecu.edu.au/ajte/vol36/iss4/2/ (Accessed: [insert date accessed]).

Chan, S., Inoue, C. and Taylor, L. (2015) *'Developing rubrics to assess the reading-into-writing skills: A case study*', *Assessing Writing*, 26, pp. 20-37.

Chang, A. C. S. (2012) *'Improving reading rates activities for EFL students: timed reading and repeated oral reading'*, Reading in a Foreign Language, 24(1), pp. 56-83.

Chang, A. C-S., and Millett, S. (2013) *'Improving reading rates and comprehension through timed repeated reading'*, Reading in a Foreign Language, 25(2), pp. 126-148.

Chawwang, N. (2008) *'An investigation of English reading problems of Thai 12th-grade students in Nakhonratchasima educational regions 1, 2, 3, and 7'*, Unpublished master's thesis, Graduate School, Srinakharinwirot University.

Chen, M. (2012) *'Effects of the order of reading text or viewing a film and L1/L2 captions on reading comprehension'*, Perceptual and Motor Skills: Learning and Memory, 115(1), pp. 18-26.

Chen, S. (2003) *'Assessment on language learning', Reflections on English Language Teaching,* 7(1), pp. 37-62.

Chuang, Y. (2009) *'Foreign Language Speaking Assessment: Taiwanese College English Teachers' Scoring Performance in the Holistic and Analytic Rating Methods'*, The Asian EFL Journal, 11(1), pp. 150-173.

Chun, D. M. (2001) *'L2 reading on the web: Strategies for accessing information in hypermedia'*, Computer Assisted Language Learning, 14(5), pp. 367-403.

Cogmen, S. and Saracaloglu, A. S. (2009) *'Students' usage of reading strategies in the faculty of education'*, Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 1, pp. 248-251.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2007) *Research Methods in Education*, (6th ed)., London: Routledge.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2002) *Research methods in education*, Routledge.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011) *Research Methods in Education*, London and New York: Routledge.

Cohen, L.A., Harris, S.L., Bonito, A.J., Manski, R.J., Macek, M.D., Edwards, R.R. and Cornelius, L.J. (2007) *'Coping with toothache pain: a qualitative study of low-income persons and minorities'*, Journal of Public Health Dentistry, 67(1), pp. 28-35.

Coombe, C. (2011) *'Assessing vocabulary in the language classroom'*, in Anderson, D. & Sheehan, R. (eds.) Focus on Vocabulary: Emerging Theory and Practice for Adult Arab Learners, United Arab Emirates: HCT Press, pp. 111-124.

Coyne, M. D., McCoach, D. B., Loftus, S., Zipoli Jr, R., & Kapp, S. (2009) *'Direct vocabulary instruction in kindergarten: Teaching for breadth versus depth'*, The Elementary School Journal, 110(1), pp. 1-18. http://doi.org/10.1086/598840

Creswell, J. W. (2012) Educational Research: *Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research*, 4th edn., Boston: Pearson.

Creswell, J.W., Shope, R., Plano Clark, V.L. and Green, D.O. (2006) *'How interpretive qualitative research extends mixed methods research'*, Research in the Schools, 13(1), pp. 1-11.

Creswell, R. (2014) *Research design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*, USA: SAGE Publications.

Crooks, T.J. (2002) *'Educational assessment in New Zealand schools'*, Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice, 9(2), pp. 237-253.

Csernoch, M. and Bujdosó, G. (2009) *'Quality text editing'*, Journal of Computer Science & Control Systems, 2(2).

Cunningham, P. M. & Allington, R. L. (2007) *Classrooms that work: They can all read and write*. Boston: Pearson, Allyn & Bacon.

Cuperman, R. C. (2014) *'Anticipation and prediction: something happened inside the reader'*, Library Media Connection.

Dabarera, C., Renandya, W. A. & Zhang, L. J. (2014) *'The impact of metacognitive scaffolding and monitoring on reading comprehension'*, System, 42, pp. 462-473.

Dakowska, M. (2005) *Teaching English as a Foreign Language: A Guide for Professionals*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2006) *Powerful Teacher Education: Lessons from Exemplary Programs*. San Francisco: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Darling-Hammond, L., Herman, J., Pellegrino, J. W. & Steele, C. M. (2013) *'Criteria for High-Quality Assessment'*, ResearchGate, [Online]. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/336987586_Criteria_for_High- Quality_Assessment (Accessed: May 8, 2023).

Darrin, D. et al. (2021) *'Types of reading in ESL, educational research techniques'*, Available at: https://educationalresearchtechniques.com/2017/08/11/types-of-reading-in-esl/ (Accessed: May 8, 2023).

Davies, A. et al. (1999) *Dictionary of Language Testing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Davison, C. (2019) *'Using assessment to enhance learning in English language education', in Gao,* X. (ed.) Second Handbook of English Language Teaching, Springer International Handbooks of Education, pp. 433-454. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-02899-2_21.

Dawson, C. (2002) *Practical Research Methods: A User-friendly Guide to Mastering Research*. Oxford: How to books Ltd.

Dawson, C. (2009) *Introduction to Research Methods: A practical Guide for Anyone Undertaking a Research Project* (4th ed.). United Kingdom: How to Book Ltd.

Day, R. R. & Bamford, J. (2010) *'The benefits of extensive reading (ER)', Reading in a Foreign Language*, 22(1), pp. 1-4.

Defrioka, A. (2017) *'The use of information gap activities in teaching speaking* (Classroom Action Research at SMK)', Lingua Didaktika: Jurnal Bahasa dan Pembelajaran Bahasa, 10(2), pp. 116-126. doi:10.24036/ld.v10i2.6418

Defriota, A. (2017) *'The use of Information gap activities in teaching speaking'*, Lingua Didaktika: Jurnal Bahasa dan Pembelajaran Bahasa, 10(2), pp. 116-126. doi:10.24036/ld.v10i2.6418

Dell, K. A. & Wantuch, G. A. (2017) '*How to guide for writing multiple choice questions for the pharmacy instructor*', Currents in Pharmacy Teaching and Learning, 9(1), pp. 137-144.

Denscombe, M. (2007) *The good research guide: For small-scale social research projects* (3rd ed.). England, UK: Oxford University Press.

Denscombe, M. (2010) *The Good Research Guide for Small Scale Research Projects* (4th ed.). Buckingham: Open University Press.

DeVellis, R. F. (2006) *'Classical Test Theory'*, Medical Care, 44(Suppl 3), S50-S59. https://doi.org/10.1097/01.mlr.0000245426.10853.30

Dornyei, Z. (2003) *Questionnaires in Second Language Research*: Construction, Administration, and Processing. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dornyei, Z. (2007) *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Downing, S. M. (2003) *'Validity: on the meaningful interpretation of assessment data'*, Medical Education, 37(9), pp. 830-837.

Dung, T. (2010). *An investigation in paraphrasing experienced by Vietnamese students of Englishin academic writing*. Thesis, University of Da Nang, Ministry of Education and Training.

Eden, S. & Eshet-Alkalai, Y. (2013). *The effect of format on performance: Editing text in print versus digital formats*. British Journal of Educational Technology, 44(5), pp. 846-856.

Edge, J. (2002). *Teacher Welcome and Teaching Tips*. In E. (Ed.), Reading Comprehension Skills and Strategies (pp. 4-6). Irvine: Saddleback Educational Publications.

Edgley, A., Stickley, T., Timmons, S., & Meal, A. (2016). *Critical realist review: exploring the real, beyond the empirical. Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 40(3), pp. 316-330.

Edward, M. (2001). *Multiple choice questions: their value as an assessment tool*. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, Inc. Volume 14(6), pp. 661-666.

Edwards, M.C. and Briers, G.E. (2000). *Higher-Order and Lower-Order Thinking Skills Achievement in Secondary-Level Animal Science: Does Block Scheduling Pattern Influence End-Of-Course Learner Performance*? Journal of Agricultural Education, 41(4), pp. 2–14.

Elabbar, A.A. (2011). *An investigation of influences affecting Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs), teaching approaches in the language classrooms* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Glasgow).

Ellis, R. & Shintani, N. (2013). *Exploring language pedagogy through second language acquisition research*. Language Teaching, 46(2), pp. 143-179.

Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2009). *The differential effects of three types of task planning on the fluency, complexity, and accuracy in L2 oral production*. Applied Linguistics, 30(4), pp. 474-509.

Elmadwi, H. M. and Shepherd, R. (2014). *A critical study of the problems faced by Libyan students in reading and comprehension of English as a foreign language*. IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSRJHSS), 19(1), pp. 29-33.

Enerson, D., Plank, M., & Johnson, N. (1994). *An Introduction to Classroom Techniques.* Available at: http://www.Psu.edu/celt/CATs.html/.

Erlingsson, C. and Brysiewicz, P. (2013). *Orientation among multiple truths: An introduction to qualitative research*. African Journal of Emergency Medicine, 3(2), pp. 92–99. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.afjem.2012.04.005.

Escudero, I., Fuertes, N., and López, L. (2019). *Paraphrasing Strategy in EFL Ecuadorian B1 Students and Implications on Reading Comprehension*. English Language Teaching, 12(1), pp. 56-66.

Evertson, Carolyn M. and Carol S. Weinstein (Eds.). (2011*). Handbook of Classroom Management: Research, Practice, and Contemporary Issues*. New York: Routledge.

Farrall, M. (2012). *Reading assessment: Linking language, literacy, and cognition*. John Wiley & Sons: Hoboken, NJ.

Fellag, L. R. (2006). *College Reading 2*. Boston, New York: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Finn, Jeremy D., Gina M. Pannozzo, and Charles M. Achilles. (2003). *'The "Why's" of Class Size: Student Behavior in Small Classes*', Review of Educational Research, 73(3), pp. 321–368. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543073003321.

Fisher, A. (2008). *Teaching comprehension and critical literacy: investigating guided reading in three primary classrooms*. Literacy, 42(1), pp. 19–28. doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9345.2008.00477.

Fletcher-Janzen, E., Reynolds, C. R., & Vannest, K. J. (2013). *Reading Comprehension. In Encyclopedia of Special Education*: A Reference for the Education of the Handicapped and Other Exceptional Children and Adults. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Flick, U. (2006). *Qualitative research designs*. Designing qualitative research, pp. 109-169.

Foley, J., & Thompson, L. (2003). *Language Learning: A Life Process*. Great Britain: Arnold.

Fountas, I. C., & Pinnell, G. S. (2017). *Guided reading: Responsive teaching across the grades*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Freeman, D. (2002). *The hidden side of the work: teacher knowledge and learning to teach*. Language Teaching, 35(1), 1-13.

Frey, F. (2017). SPSS (Software): J. P. Matthes, R. Potter, and C. S. Davis (Eds.). (in prep.). *International Encyclopedia of Communication Research Methods*. Wiley Blackwell.

Frye, E., and Trathen, W. (2006). Fluency: *Implications for classroom instruction*. B. Schlagal & W. Trathen.

Fulcher, G. (2003a). *Interface design in computer-based language testing*. Language Testing, 20(4), pp. 384-408.

Gayo, E., Deano, M., Conde, A., Ribeiro, I., Cadime, I., and Alfonso, S. (2014). *Effect of an intervention program on the reading comprehension processes and strategies in 5th and 6th-grade students.* Psicothema, 26(4), pp. 464-470.

Gbenakpon, S. (2017). "*The concept and practice of critical thinking in EFL classes in Benin Prospects and Challenges*". Studies in English Language Teaching. http://dx.doi.org./10 22158/selt.v5n4p749.

Ghermaoui, I. (2018). *Assessing the Speaking Skill Among EFL Learners the Case of Third-Year Licence Students at the University of Tlemcen*. University of Tlemcen.

Gibbs, G. and Simpson, C. (2004). *Does your assessment support your students' learning? Journal of Teaching and learning in Higher Education*, 1(1), pp.1-30.

Goh, C. (2009). *Perspectives on spoken grammar*. ELT Journal, 63(4), 303-312.

Gough, P. B. (1972). *One second of reading. In J. F. Kavanagh and I. G. Mattingley* (eds) Language by Ear and by Eyes. Cambridge: MIT press.

Grabe, W. (2009). *Reading in a Foreign Language: Moving from theory to practice*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Grabe, W. (2010). *Fluency in reading: Thirty-five years later*. Reading in a Foreign Language. v. 22(1), pp. 71-83.

Grada, T.K.A. (2014). *An Investigation into Libyan EFL Novice Secondary School Teachers' Current Knowledge and Practice of Speaking Assessment: A Socio-cultural Perspective*. ore.exeter.ac.uk. [online] Available at: https://ore.exeter.ac.uk/repository/handle/10871/17559.

Gray, D. E. (2014). *Doing Research in the Real world.* (3rd ed.). SAGE Publication Ltd.

Gray, S., & Yang, H.-C. (2015*). Selecting vocabulary words to teach. SIG 1 Perspectives on Language Learning and Education*, 22(4), 123-130. http://doi.org/10.1044/lle22.4.123

Graziano, A.M. & Raulin, M. (2010). *Research Methods: A Process of Inquiry*, Seventh Edition, Boston: Pearson

Grbich, C. (2013). *Foreword: Depth psychological research methods*. International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches. v. 7 (3), pp. 286-286.

Greenstein, L. (2010). *What teachers really need to know about formative assessment*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

Grellet, F. (2010). *Developing Reading Skills: A Practical Guide to Reading Comprehension Exercises*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

Gudmundsdottir, G. B., & Brock-Utne, B. (2010). *An exploration of the importance of piloting and access as action research*. Educational Action Research, 18(3), 359-372.

Gunning, T. (2010). *Creating literacy instruction for all students*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.

Guo, Y., & Roehring, A. D. (2011). *Roles of general versus second language (L2) knowledge in L2 reading comprehension*. Reading in a Foreign Language, 23(1), 42–64.

Guo, Y., Roehrig, A. D., and Williams, R. S. (2011). *The Relation of Morphological Awareness and Syntactic Awareness* to Adults' Reading Comprehension: Is Vocabulary Knowledge a Mediating Variable?. Journal of Literacy Research. v. XX (X), pp. 1-25.

Hair, J. F., Money, A. H., Samouel, P. and Page, M. (2007). *Research Methods for Business.* England: John Wiley and Sons Ltd.

Hallebone, E. and Priest, J. (2009). *Business and management research: paradigms and practices*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Harlen, W. (2006). *On the Relationship Between Assessment for Formative and Summative Purposes.* In H. Gardner (Ed.), Assessment and Learning (pp. 103–117). London: SAGE Publications.

Harmer, J (2010). *How to teach English*. Pearson Longman

Harmer, J. (2000) *How to Teach English*. Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, Beijing.

Harmer, J. (2001). *The Practice of English Language Teaching* (3rd ed.). Harlow: Longman.

Harmer, J. (2002). *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. (3rd Ed). England: Longman.

Harmer, J. (2016). *The Practice of English Language Teaching* (5 ed.). The United Kingdom: Pearson Longman.

Harvey, P. (2006*). Improving Teaching Observation Practice in the Learning and Skills Sector*. The Research Centre, City College Norwich, Ipswich Road, Norwich.

Hattie, J. (2003). *Formative and Summative Interpretations of Assessment Information*. A research paper submitted to school of Education at the University of Auckland; New Zealand.

Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom* ,1st.ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Heng-Tsung Danny Huang (2009). "*Previewing and EFL Reading Comprehension*."

Hesse-Biber, S. (2010). "*Emerging methodologies and methods practices in the field of mixed methods research.*" Qualitative inquiry, 16(6), 415-418.

Hoeh, E. (2015). "*Mapping a path to understanding: Supporting the comprehension of narrative text for students with learning disabilities and typically developing peers*." (Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from http://www.proquest.com

Hogan, T. P., Bridges, M. S., Justice, L. M., & Cain, K. (2011). "*Increasing higher reading skills to improve reading comprehension*." Focus on Exceptional Children, 44(3), 1-20.

Hollenbeck, A. (2011). *"Instructional makeover: Supporting the reading comprehension of students with learning disabilities in a discussion-based format*." Intervention in School and Clinic, 46(4), 211-220. doi: 10.1177/1053451210389035

Horowitz, M. (2014). "*Reading Comprehension Assisting Children with Learning Difficulties*." London: Springer Science.

Huba, M., & Freed, S. (2000). "*Learner-centred assessment on college campuses: Shifting the focus from teaching to learning*."

Hubley, N. N. (2012). *"Assessing reading.*" In The Cambridge guide to second language assessment (pp. 211-217).

Hudson, R. F., Lane, H. B., & Pullen, P. C. (2005). "*Reading fluency assessment and instruction: What, why, and how."* The Reading Teacher, 58(8), 702-714.

Hudson, T. (2007). "*Teaching Second Language Reading*." United Kingdom: Oxford University Press.

Hughes, A. (2001). "*Testing for language teachers*." New York: Cambridge University Press.

Hughes, A. (2003). "*Testing for language teachers*" (2nd ed.), Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hulme, C., & Snowling, M. J. (2011). "*Children's reading comprehension difficulties: Nature, causes, and treatments."* Current Directions in Psychological Science, 20(3), 139-142.

Iaquinta, A. (2006). "*Guided reading: A research-based response to the challenges of early reading instruction."* Early Childhood Education Journal, 33(6), 413-418. doi:10.1007/s10643-006-0074-2.

Jang, E., McDougall, D., Pollon., Herbert, M., & Russell, P. (2008). *"Integrative Mixed Methods Data Analytic Strategies in Research on School Success in Challenging Circumstances."* Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 2, 221-247. doi:10.1177/1558689808315323.

Johnson, K. (2001). *"An introduction to Foreign Language Learning and Teaching."* England: Pearson Education Limited.

Johnston, P. H. (1983). "*Reading Comprehension Assessment: A Cognitive Basis."* Newark, NJ: International Reading Association.

Jones, N., Saville, N., & University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (2016). *"Learning oriented assessment: A systemic approach."* Cambridge; New York: Cambridge English.

Kam, C. C. S., & Meyer, J. P. (2015*). "How careless responding and acquiescence response bias can influence construct dimensionality: The case of job satisfaction."* Organizational research methods, 18(3), 512-541.

Karasakaloglu, N. (2012). *"The relationship between reading comprehension and learning and study strategies of prospective elementary school teachers."* Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice, 12(3), 1939-1950.

Karavas-Doukas, K. (1998). *Evaluating the implementation of educational innovations: lessons from the past*. In P. Rea-Dickins & K. P. Germaine (Eds.), Managing evaluation and innovation in language teaching (pp. 23-35). London: Longman.

Katz, A. (2012). *Linking assessment with instructional aims and learning*. In C. Coombe, P. Davidson, B. O'Sullivan, & S. Stoynoff (Eds.), The Cambridge guide to second language assessment (pp. 66-73). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Kendeou, P., McMaster, K. L., & Christ, T. J. (2016*). Reading comprehension: Core components and processes*. Policy Insights from the Behavioral and Brain Sciences, 3(1), 62-69. doi: 10.1177/2372732215624707

Kennedy, A. (2005). *Models of continuing professional development: a framework for analysis.* Journal of Inservice Education, 31(2), 235-250.

Kher, D. F., & Rani, Y. A. (2018). *The quality of students' paraphrases of an expository text. Advance in Social Science*, Education and Humanities Research; International Conference on English Language Teaching (ICOELT), 276, 1-7. Padang, Indonesia: Atlantis Press.

Kieffer, M. J., & Lesaux, N. K. (2012). *Direct and indirect roles of morphological awareness in the English reading comprehension of native English, Spanish, Filipino, and Vietnamese speakers.* Language Learning, 62(4), 1170-1204.

Kiger, M. E., & Varpio, L. (2020). *Thematic analysis of qualitative data: AMEE Guide No. 131*. Medical Teacher, 42(8), 846-854.

Kim, H. J. (2005). *World Englishes and language testing: The influence of rater variability in the assessment of process of English language oral proficiency* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Iowa).

Kim, H. J. (2010). *Investigating the construct validity of a speaking performance test*. Span Fellow Working Papers in Second or Foreign Language Assessment, 8, 1-30.

King, D. K. (2008). *Reading suggestions - academic success center*. Retrieved from https://success.oregonstate.edu/sites/success.oregonstate.edu/files/LearningCorner/Tools/reading_suggestions.pdf

Kintsch, W., & Vipond, D. (2014). *Reading comprehension and readability in educational practice and psychological theory*. In Perspectives on memory research (pp. 329-365). Psychology Press.

Klingner, J. K., Vaughn, S., & Boardman, A. (2007). *Teaching Reading Comprehension to Students with Learning Difficulties.* New York: The Guilford Press.

Klingner, J. K. (2004). *Assessing reading comprehension. Assessment for Effective Intervention*, 29(4), 59-70.

Koda, K. (2005). *Insights into second language reading: A cross-linguistic approach*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Kothari, C. R. (2004*). Research methodology: Methods and techniques*. New Age International.

Küçükoğlu, H. (2013). *Improving reading skills through effective reading strategies*.

Kumar, R. (2014). *Research Methodology: A Step-by-Step Guide for Beginners* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications Ltd.

Kuzborska, I. (2012). *Should L2 reading instruction be comprehension-based or language-based: Response to Taylor's comments*. Reading in a Foreign Language, 24(1), 133-135.

Lai, E. R. (2011). *Critical thinking: A literature review*. Pearson's Research Reports, 6(1), 40-41.

Latini, N., Bråten, I., Anmarkrud, Ø., & Salmerón, L. (2019). *Investigating effects of reading medium and reading purpose on behavioral engagement and textual integration in a multiple text context.* Contemporary Educational Psychology, 59, 101797. doi:10.1016/j.cedpsych.2019.10179.

Leedy, P. D., & Ormrod, J. E. (2016*). Practical Research: Planning and Design* (11th ed.). Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.

Lehr, F., & Osborn, J. (2001). *A Focus on Vocabulary*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Leung, C. (2004). *Developing Formative Teacher Assessment: Knowledge, Practice, and Change*. Language Assessment Quarterly, 1(1), 19–41. doi:10.1207/s15434311laq0101_3

Leung, L. (2015). *Validity, reliability, and generalizability in qualitative research*. Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care, 4(3), 324-327.

Levine, A., Ferenz, O., & Reves, T. (2000). *EFL academic reading and modern technology: How can we turn our students into independent critical readers*. TESL-EJ, 4(4), 1-9.

Lichtman, M. (2006). *Qualitative research in education: A user's guide*. London: Sage Publications.

Linn, R. L., & Gronlund, N. E. (2003). *Measurement and Assessment in Teaching*. Singapore: Pearson Education.

Lipka, O., & Siegel, L. S. (2012). *The development of reading comprehension skills in children learning English as a second language*. Reading and Writing, 25, 1873-1898.

Little, D., & Erickson, G. (2015). *Learner identity, learner agency, and the assessment of language proficiency: Some reflections prompted by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*. Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 35, 120-139.

Litz, D. R., & Smith, A. K. (2006). *English Language Teaching and Research Articles*. Asian EFL Journal of Reading, 20, 141-143.

Lo, J., Yeh, S., & Sung, C. (2013*). Learning paragraph structure with online annotations: An interactive approach to enhancing EFL reading comprehension*. System, 41, 413-427.

Logan, S., Medford, E., & Hughes, N. (2011). *The importance of intrinsic motivation for high and low ability readers' reading comprehension performance*. Learning and Individual Differences, 21(1), 124-128.

Long, M. H. (2007). *Problems in SLA*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Lopera, S. (2015). *The design process of a reading comprehension manual*. Colombian Applied Linguistic Journal, 17(1), 130-141.

Lowe, N. K. (2019). *What is a pilot study*. Journal of Obstetric, Gynecologic & Neonatal Nursing, 48(2), 117-118.

Lowman, J. (1995). *Mastering the techniques of teaching* (2nd ed.). Jossey-Bass, Inc.

Lowman-Sikes, F. J. (2020). *Authentic Assessments and Their Impact on Engagement of Gifted Learners in Washington County Public Schools: An Action Research Study* (Doctoral dissertation, University of South Carolina).

Luoma, S. (2004). *Developing reading tasks. Assessing reading*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lyster, S. A. H. (2010). *Reading comprehension: Unanswered questions and reading instruction challenges. In Literacy and Learning* (Vol. 23, pp. 115-153). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Macalister, J. (2014). *Teaching reading: Research into practice.* Language Teaching, 47(3), 387-397. DOI: 10.1017/s026144481400007X

Machado, J. M. (2010). *Early Childhood Experiences in Language Arts – Early Literacy*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Mackey, A., & Gass, S. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Routledge.

Mackey, A., & Gass, S. (2021). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Routledge.

Madani, H. A. B. I. B. (2016). *Assessment of reading comprehension*. Revista Românească pentru Educaţie Multidimensională, 8(1), 125-147.

Magaldi, D., & Berler, M. (2020). *Semi-structured interviews. Encyclopedia of personality and individual differences*, 4825-4830.

Maguire, M., & Delahunt, B. (2017). *Doing a thematic analysis: Step by step guide for learning and teaching scholars*. AISHE, 8(3), 3350-33514.

Marshall, D. W. (2017, October). *Rethinking the role of work in higher education*. Urbana, IL: University of Illinois and Indiana University, National Institute for Learning Outcomes Assessment (NILOA).

Marshall, E. (2004). *Stripping for the wolf: Rethinking representations of gender in children's literature*. Reading Research Quarterly, 39(3), 256-270.

Masniyah. (2017). *The Use of Paraphrasing Strategy to Improve the Students' Writing Ability at the 2nd Year Students of SMAN 1 Tinambung*. Thesis, Alauddin State Islamic University Makassar, English Education Department, Makassar.

Mason, J. (2006). *Mixing methods in a qualitatively driven way*. Qualitative Research, 6(1), 9-25.

McCormick, S. (2007). *Instructing students who have literacy problems* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.

McCormick, S., & Zutell, J. (2010). *Instructing students who have literacy problems* (6th ed.). Pearson: Boston.

McDonough, J., & Shaw, C. (2003). *Materials and Methods in ELT: A Teacher's Guide*. UK: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

McNamara, D. S. (2012). *Reading Comprehension Strategies: Theories, Inventions, and Technologies*. New Jersey: Psychology Press.

Meijer, P. C., Verloop, N., & Beijaard, D. (2001). *Similarities and differences in teachers' practical knowledge about teaching reading comprehension*. The Journal of Educational Research, 49(3), 171-184.

Melby-Lervåg, M., Lyster, S. A. H., & Hulme, C. (2012). *Phonological skills and their role in learning to read: A meta-analytic review*. Psychological Bulletin, 138(2), 322-352.

Mellati, M. (2018). *Exploring teachers' assessment literacy: Impact on learners' writing achievements and implications for teacher development*. Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 43(6), 1–18.

Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mesmer, H. A. E. (2010). *Textual scaffolds for developing fluency in beginning readers: Accuracy and reading rate in qualitatively and levelled decodable text*. Literacy Research and Instruction, 49(1), 20–39.

Middleton, F. (2019). *Reliability vs validity: what's the difference*. Scribbr. https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/reliability-vs-validity/

Miller, M. D., Linn, R. L., & Gronlund, N. E. (2009). *Measurement and assessment in teaching* (10th ed.).

Mitasha, N. (2013). *A study of reading assessment in the Grade 4 classrooms*. [online] Semantic Scholar. Available at: https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/A-study-of-reading-assessment-in-the-Grade-4-Nehal [Accessed 2 Apr. 2024].

Moana-Filho, E.J., Alonso, A.A., Kapos, F.P., Leon-Salazar, V., Durand, S.H., Hodges, J.S. & Nixdorf, D.R. (2017). *Multifactorial assessment of measurement errors affecting intraoral quantitative sensory testing reliability*. Scandinavian Journal of Pain, 16(1), 44-98.

Mohamed, S. (2016). *Evaluating EFL students' reading comprehension skills with reference to.* [online] Available at: https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/74237162.pdf.

Mok, J. (2010). *The new role of English language teachers: developing students' critical thinking in Hong Kong secondary school classrooms*. The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly, 12(2), 262-287.

Montgomery, M., Durant, A., Fabb, N., Furniss, T., & Mills, S. (2007). *Ways of reading: Advanced reading skills for students*. NY: Routledge.

Morales, K. N. S. (2010). *Promoting the reading comprehension of freshmen engineering students through an interactive approach to content-based materials*. Philippines ESL Journal, 5, July 2010.

Moreillon, J. (2012). *Reading comprehension at the core of the library program*. School Library Monthly, 29(2), 5-8.

Muranoi, H. (2000). *Focus on form through interaction enhancement: Integrating formal instruction into a communicative task in ESL classrooms*. Language Learning, 50(4), 617–673.

Musa, M. A., & Islam, M. R. (2020). *The problems that teachers face in applying formative assessment in the classroom*. International Journal of Scientific & Technology Research, 9, 2277-8616.

Naidu, B., Briewin, M., & Embi, M. A. (2013). *Reading strategy: tackling reading through topic and main ideas.* English Language Teaching, 6(11), 60-64.

Najeeb, S. S. (2013). *The business of teaching English as a second language: A Libyan case study*. Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 70, 1243-1253.

Nakatasuhara, F. (2007). *Developing a rating scale to assess English speaking skills of Japanese upper-secondary students*. Essex Graduate Student Papers in Language and Linguistics, 9, 83-103.

Namaziandost, E., Nasri, M., Rahimi Esfahani, F., & Keshmirshekan, M. H. (2019). *The impacts of spaced and massed distribution instruction on EFL learners' vocabulary learning*. Cogent Education, 6(1), 1661131.

Nassaji, H. (2011). *Issues in second-language reading: Implications for acquisition and instruction*. Reading Research Quarterly, 46(2), 173-184.

Nassaji, H. (2014). *The role and importance of lower-level processes in second language reading*. Language Teaching: Surveys and Studies, 47(4), 1-37.

National Reading Panel. (2000). *Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction.*

Ness, M. (2011). *Explicit reading comprehension instruction in elementary classrooms: Teacher use of reading comprehension strategies*. Journal of Research in Childhood Education, 25(1), 98-117. DOI: 10.1080/02568543.2010.531076

Nezami, S. (2012). *A critical study of comprehension strategies and general problems in reading skills faced by Arab EFL learners with special reference to Najran University in Saudi Arabia*. International J. Sci. and Education, 2(3), 306-316.

Nikmard, F., & Tavassoli, K. (2020). *The effect of diagnostic assessment on EFL learners' performance on selective and productive reading tasks*. Journal of Modern Research in English Language Studies, 7(1), 79-104.

Nordquist, D. (2018). *Look up about. Functionalist and Usage-based Approaches to the Study of Language*: In honor of Joan L. Bybee, 192, 225.

Norris, J., & Ortega, L. (2006). *Synthesizing research on language learning and teaching*. John Benjamins Publishing.

Nunan, D. (2003). *Practical English language teaching*. Boston: McGraw Hill.

Nunan, D. (2006). *Research Methods in Language Learning* (6th ed.). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Nuttall, C. (2005). *Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language*. UK: Macmillan Publishers Limited.

Nwana, O. (2007). *Textbook on educational measurement and evaluation*. Owerri: Bomaway Publisher.

Oakhill, J., Cain, K., & Elbro, C. (2015). *Understanding and Teaching Reading Comprehension: A Handbook*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Obiakor, M.I. and Oguejioffor, C.N. (2020). *Impact of classroom size on academic performance of secondary school students in Enugu North local government area of Enugu State, Nigeria.*

Oliver, P. (2010). *Understanding the Research Process*. SAGE Publication Ltd.

Omar, A.B. (2022). *Speaking Assessment Strategies used by Libyan EFL University Teachers*. Dissertation. University of Zawia.

Omnstein, A.C., & Hunkins, F.P. (2004). *Curriculum: Foundations, Principles, and Issues*. Toronto: Pearson.

Oxford English Dictionary. (2020). Oxford (2nd ed.). UK: Oxford UP.

Ozuru, Y., Best, R., Bell, C., Witherspoon, A., & McNamara, D.S. (2007). *Influence of question format and text availability on the assessment of expository text comprehension*. Cognition and Instruction, 25(4), 399-438.

Pallotti, G. (2009). *Defining, redefining and differentiating constructs*. Applied Linguistics, 30(4), 590-601.

Pani, S. (2004). *Reading strategy instruction through mental modelling*. ELT Journal, 58(4), 355–362. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/58.4.355.

Paradis, E., O'Brien, B., Nimmon, L., Bandiera, G., & Martimianakis, M.A. (2016). *Design: Selection of data collection methods*. Journal of graduate medical education, 8(2), 263-264.

Patesan, M., Balagiu, A., Zechia, D., & Alibec, C. (2014). *Critical reading*. Revista Academiei Fortelor Terestre, 1(37), 62-67.

Patton, M.Q. (2002). *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods* (3rd ed.). California: Thousand Oaks; London: SAGE.

Paul, R., & Elder, L. (2008). *Critical thinking: The nuts and bolts of education*. Optometric Education, 33, 88-91.

Pearson, N., Naylor, P.J., Ashe, M.C., Fernandez, M., Yoong, S.L., & Wolfenden, L. (2020). *Guidance for conducting feasibility and pilot studies for implementation trials*. Pilot and feasibility studies, 6, pp.1-12.

Pearson, P.D., Hiebert, E.H., & Kamil, M.L. (2007). *Vocabulary assessment: What we know and what we need to learn*. Reading Research Quarterly, 42(2), 282-296.

Perfetti, C., & Stafura, J. (2014). *Word knowledge in a theory of reading comprehension*. Scientific studies of Reading, 18(1), 22-37.

Pinker, S. (2014). *A theory of graph comprehension. In Artificial intelligence and the future of testing* (pp. 73-126). Psychology Press.

Pretorius, E.J., & Machet, M.P. (2004). *The socio-educational context of literacy accomplishment in disadvantaged schools: Lessons for reading in the early primary school years*. Journal for Language Teaching, 38(1), 45-62.

Prichard, C., & Andrew, A. (2016). *Readers Previewing Strategies Using Eye Tracking*. An International Online Journal: The Reading Matrix, 16(2).

Punch, K. (2005). *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches* (2nd Edition). London: Sage.

Punch, K.F. (2006). *Developing Effective Research Proposals* (2nd ed.). London: SAGE Publication Ltd.

Purpura, J.E., & Turner, C.E. (2014, October). *A learning-oriented assessment approach to understanding the complexities of classroom-based language assessment*. Presentation at the Roundtable on Learning-Oriented Assessment in Language Classrooms and Large-Scale Contexts, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

Rafi, M.S. (2009). *Promoting critical pedagogy in language education*. International Research Journal of Arts and Humanities.

Rahimi, M. and Katal, M. (2012) *'Metacognitive strategies awareness and success in learning English as a foreign language: an overview'*, Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 31, pp. 73-81.

Rajoo, F. X. A. and Selvaraj, B. (2010) *'Metacognitive awareness of reading strategies'*, in Proceedings from the 2010 International Conference on Science and Social Research,pp. 1301-1304. [Online]. Available at: http://xplorebcpaz.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5773739 (Accessed: 7April 2024).

Rashidi, N. & Piran, M. (2011) *'The effect of extensive and intensive reading on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary size and depth'*, Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 2(2), pp. 471-482.

Rear, D. (2017) *'Critical thinking, language and problem-solving: scaffolding thinking skills through debate'*, in Essential competencies for English-medium university teaching, pp. 51-63.

Regmi, P. R., Waithaka, E., Paudyal, A., Simkhada, P. and Van Teijlingen, E. (2016) *'Guide to the design and application of online questionnaire surveys'*, Nepal journal of epidemiology, 6(4), p. 640.

Reutzel, D. and Cooter Jr, R. B. (2007) *'Strategies for reading assessment and instruction: Helping every child succeed'*, International Reading Association, 800 Barksdale Road, PO Box 8139, Newark, DE 19714-8139.

Ricci, R. (2016) *'Reading between the lines: a world of interlinear translation'*, Journal of World Literature, 1(1), pp. 68-80.

Richards, J. and Farell, T. (2005) *'Professional Development for Language Teachers: Strategies for Teacher Learning'*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rivers, W. M. (2000) *'Interactive Language Teaching'*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Robson, C. (2011) *'Real World Research'*, 3rd edn., United Kingdom: WILEY.

Roohani, A. (2013) *'A comparative study of intuitive-imitative and analytic-linguistic approaches to teaching pronunciation: Does age play a role?'*, The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly, 15(1), pp. 87-127.

Rose, D. (2016) *'Engaging children in the pleasures of literature and verbal art'*, English in Australia, 51(2), pp. 52–62.

Rose, J. (2007) *'The history of education as the history of reading'*, History of Education, 36(4), pp. 595-605. doi: 10.1080/00467600701496922.

Russell, C. (2013) *'Four decades of informal reading inventories'*, Review of Higher Education and Self-learning, 6(22), pp. 1-21.

Sahinkarakas, S. (2012) *'The role of teaching experience on teachers‟ perceptions of language assessment'*, Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 47, pp. 1787-1792.

Sailors, M. and Price, L. (2015) '*Support for the Improvement of Practices through Intensive Coaching (SIPIC)*: A model of coaching for improving reading instruction and reading achievement', Teaching and teacher education, 45, pp. 115-127.

Sakale, S. (2012) *'Rethinking speaking skills in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) settings'*, Sino US English Teaching, 9(4), pp. 1100-1111.

Salmerón, L., Vargas, C., Delgado, P. and Baron, N. (2023) *'Relation between digital tool practices in the language arts classroom and reading comprehension scores'*, Reading and Writing, 36(1), pp. 175-194.

Samuels, S. J. (2007) *'The DIBELS tests: Is speed of barking at print what we mean by fluency?'*, Reading Research Quarterly, 42, pp. 563–566.

Saunders, M. and Lewis, P. (2012) *'Doing Research in Business and Management: as Essential Guide to Planning Your Project'*, England: Pearson Education Limited.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2009) *'Research Methods for Business Students'*. (4th ed.). Harlow: Perentice Hall.

Savage, R., Burgos, G., Wood, E., & Piquette, N. (2015). *The Simple View of Reading as a framework for national literacy initiatives: a hierarchical model of pupil-level and classroom-level factors*. British Educational Research Journal, 41(5), 820–844. doi.org/10.1002/berj.3177.

Schmitt, N. (2002). *An introduction to applied linguistics*. London: Oxford University Press.

Scott, D. B. (2008). *Assessing text processing: A comparison of four methods*. Journal of Literacy Research, 40(3), 290–316. doi:10.1080/10862960802502162.

Seda, I., & Pearson, P. D. (2010). *Interviews to assess learners' outcomes.* Reading Research and Instruction, 31(1), 22–32. doi:10.1080/19388079109558068.

Seidman, I. (2013). *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Shavelson, R. J. (2003). *On the integration of formative assessment in teaching and learning with implications for teacher education*. In Paper presented at Biannual Meeting of the European Association for Research on Learning and Instruction. Padova, Italy.

Sheory, R., & Mokhtari, K. (2001). *Differences in the metacognitive awareness of reading strategies among native and non-native readers*. System, 29(4), 431–449.

Shute, V. J. (2008). *Focus on formative feedback*. Review of Educational Research, 78(1), 153-189.

Sidek, H. M. (2012). *EFL reading instruction: communicative task-based approach*. International Journal of Instruction, 5(2), 109–128.

Silverman, D. (2005, September). *Instances or sequences? Improving the state of the art of qualitative research*. Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung/Forum: Qualitative Social Research, 6(3).

Simkus, J. (2022). *What is a pilot study*? Simple psychology, 2.

Smith, R., Snow, P., Serry, T., & Hammond, L. (2021). *The role of background knowledge in reading comprehension: A critical review*. Reading Psychology, 42(3), 214–240.

Snow, C. (2002). *Reading for understanding: Towards an R&D program in reading*. In M. J. Snowling & C. Hulme (Eds.), The Science of Reading: A Handbook (pp. 1–17). Oxford, England: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Solak, E., & Altay, F. (2014). *The reading strategies used by prospective English teachers in the Turkish ELT context*. International Online Journal of Education and Teaching, 1(3), 78–89.

Spiro, R. J. (2017). *Constructive processes in prose comprehension and recall. In Theoretical issues in reading comprehension* (pp. 245–278). Routledge.

Sprenger-Charolles, L., Siegel, L. S., Béchennec, D., & Serniclaes, W. (2003). *Development of phonological and orthographic processing in reading aloud, in silent reading, and in spelling: A four-year longitudinal study*. Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 84(3), 194–217.

Streefkerk, R. (2019). *Qualitative vs. quantitative research.* Scribbr. Retrieved March 16, 2022, from https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/qualitative-vs-quantitative-research/

Stronge, J. H., Tucker, P. D., & Hindman, J. L. (2004*). Handbook for qualities of effective teachers*. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Alexandria, VA, USA.

Susar, F., & Akkaya, N. (2009). *University students for using the summarizing strategies*. Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 1(1), 2496–2499. doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2009.01.440.

Sutton, J., & Austin, Z. (2015). *Qualitative Research: Data Collection, Analysis, and Management.* The Canadian Journal of Hospital Pharmacy, 68, 226–231. doi.org/10.4212/cjhp.v68i3.1456.

Taherdoost, H. (2016). *Sampling methods in research methodology; how to choose a sampling technique for research*. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/301650466_Sampling_Methods

Talebi, S. H. (2013*). Cross-linguistic transfer (from L1 to L2, L2 to L1, and L2 to L3) of reading strategies in a multi-competent mind*. Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 4(2), 432–436.

Tamtam, A., Gallagher, F., Olabi, A. G., & Naher, S. (2011). *Higher education in Libya, system under stress*. Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 29, 742–751.

Taylor, M. (2011). *Life course outcomes of cultural practices - instrumental benefits?* Paper presented at British Sociological Association annual conference, London School of Economics, London, England.

Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2003). *Major issues and controversies in the use of mixed methods in the social and behavioral sciences*. In Tashakkori, A. & Teddlie, C. (Eds.). Handbook of mixed methods in social behavioral research. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 3-50.

Thatcher, R. (2010). *Validity and Reliability of quantitative electroencephalography*. Journal of Neurotherapy, 14, 122-152.

Thornbury, S. (2005). *How to Teach Speaking*. England: Pearson Educational Limited.

Tok, Ş., & Bayazıt, N. (2007). *The effects of summarizing and note-taking strategies on the comprehension and retention of third-grade primary school students*. Eurasian Journal of Educational Research, 28, 113-122.

Topçu, N. (2015). *3N learning model with paired reading summarization and individual reading summarization implementation's impact on learning levels and remembering*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Gaziosmanpaşa University, Tokat, Turkey.

Trilling, B., & Fadel, C. (2009*). 21st Century Skills: Learning for Life in Our Times*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.

Twycross, A., & Shields, L. (2004). *Validity and reliability – What's it all about?* Paediatric Nursing, 16(10), 36–36. doi:https://doi.org/10.7748/paed.16.10.36.s22.

Ur, P. (2005). *A Course in Language Teaching: Practice and Theory*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

Van Teijlingen, E. R., & Hundley, V. (2001). *The importance of pilot studies*. Social Research Update, Winter, ISSN: 1360–7898.

Vellutino, F.R., & Scanlon, D.M. (2002). *The interactive strategies approach to reading intervention*. Contemporary educational psychology, 27(4), 573-635.

Verbeek, C.D. (2011). *Teaching reading for meaning? A case study of the initial teaching of reading in a mainstream South African school*. PhD. Pietermaritzburg: University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Vidal-Abarca, E., Mañá, A., & Gil, L. (2010). *Individual differences for self-regulating task-oriented reading activities*. Journal of Educational Psychology, 102, 17–826.

Vidhiasi, D.M. (2022). *The Implementation of Reading Assessment Method*. International Journal of English and Applied Linguistics (IJEAL), 2(1), 54–61. doi:https://doi.org/10.47709/ijeal.v2i1.1426.

Vorstius, C., Radach, R., Mayer, M. B., & Lonigan, C. J. (2013). *Monitoring local comprehension monitoring in sentence reading*. School Psychology Review, 42(2), 191-206.

Wang, M. (2009). *Effects of metacognitive reading strategy instruction on EFL high school students' reading comprehension, reading strategies awareness, and reading motivation*. (Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from http://www.ufl.edu

Weaver, B. (2013). *Formal vs. Informal Assessments. Scholastic, Inc*. Available at: https://beta.scholastic.com/teachers/articles/teaching-content/formal-vs-informal-assessments/

Webb, S., & Chang, A. C.-S. (2015). *How does prior word knowledge affect vocabulary learning progress in an extensive reading program?* Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 37(4), 651-675. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263114000606

Weigle, S.C. (2001). *Assessing writing, Cambridge*: Cambridge University Press.

Wenden, A.L., (1998). *Metacognitive knowledge and language learning*. Applied linguistics, 19(4), 515-537.

Williams, D. (2015). *Speakout. Intermediate teacher"s book* (2nd Ed.). Pearson Education Limited.

Willis, J. (2008). *Teaching the Brain to Read: Strategies for Improving Fluency, Vocabulary, and Comprehension*. Australia: Hawker Brownlow Education.

Wishon, S. (1998). *Methods of assessment in the language classroom*. English Language Teaching, 1(2), 45-55.

Wixson, K.K. (2017). *An interactive view of reading comprehension: Implications for assessment. Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 48(2), 77-83.

Wong, L. (2006). *Essential study skills* (5th ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Wong, S. S. H., & Lim, S. W. H. (2023). *Take notes, not photos: Mind-wandering mediates the impact of note-taking strategies on video-recorded lecture learning performance*. Journal of Experimental Psychology: Applied, 29(1), 124–135.

Wood, K. D. (1988). *Techniques for assessing students' potential for learning*. The Reading Teacher, 41(4), 440-447.

Woolley, G. (2008). *The assessment of reading comprehension difficulties for reading intervention*. Australian Journal of Learning Difficulties, 13(1), 51-62. doi: 10.1080/19404150802093729

Woolley, G. (2011). *Reading comprehension: Assisting children with learning difficulties*. London: Springer.

Wormeli, R. (2005). S*ummarization in any subject: 50 techniques to improve student learning*. Retrieved May 4, 2008, from http://www.eduref.org/VirtualLesson/Language_Arts/WCP0203.htm.

Wray, D., & Dahlia, J. (2013). *Exploring the readability of assessment tasks: The influence of text and reader factors*. REMIE: Multidisciplinary Journal of Educational Research, 3(1), 69-95.

Yamashita, J. (2013). *Effect of extensive reading on reading attitudes in a foreign language*. Reading in a Foreign Language, 25(2), 248-263.

Yildirim, K., & Ates, S. (2012). *Silent and oral reading fluency: Which one is the best predictor of reading comprehension of Turkish elementary students*. International Journal on New Trends in Education and Their Implications, 3(4), 79-91.

Yurko, N., & Protsenko, U. (2020). *Reading comprehension: The significance, features and strategies.* Publishing house "European Scientific Platform", 106-114.

Yusuf, Q., Yusuf, Y. Q., Yusuf, B., & Nadya, A. (2017). *Skimming and scanning techniques to assist EFL students in understanding English reading texts*. Indonesian Research Journal in Education| IRJE|, 43-57.

Zeat, T. R. (2022). *Investigating Libyan EFL University Teachers' and Students' Attitudes towards Using Audio Books for Developing Reading Fluency*. Dissertation. University of Zawia.

Zegwaard, K. E., Campbell, M., & Pretti, T. J. (2017). *Professional Identities and Ethics: The Role of Work-Integrated Learning in Developing Agentic Professionals*. In Work-Integrated Learning in the 21st Century (pp. 145–160). doi:https://doi.org/10.1108/s1479- 367920170000032009.

Zhang, S., & Zhang, X. (2022). *The relationship between vocabulary knowledge and L2 reading/listening comprehension*: A meta-analysis. Language Teaching Research, 26(4), 696-725.

Zhou, J., Jiang, Y., & Yao, Y. (2015). *The Investigation on Critical Thinking Ability in EFL Reading Class*. English Language Teaching, 8(1), 83-94.

Zoghi, M., Mustapha, R., & Maasum, T. N. (2011). *Getting to know L2 poor comprehends*. English Language Teaching, 4(1), 98-104.

Appendix A

An Investigation into Reading Assessment Strategies used by Tripoli EFL University Teachers

Dear participants,

The following questionnaire is a part of MA research, which is conducted in English language faculties at Libyan universities. The purpose of this questionnaire is to identify the reading assessment strategies employed in classrooms by teachers. You are kindly invited to answer the following questions. Your answers are confidential and will be used purely for research purposes and will not be shared to any third party. Answering this questionnaire would be extremely helpful. The questionnaire will take roughly 15 minutes to answer.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Background Information

Please Tick on the appropriate box

- Gender

- Male

- Female

- Age

- 25-30

- 30 - over

- Years of Teaching Experience

- Your answer

- Email Address

- Your answer

Part one: Teachers' Usage of Reading Assessment Strategies.

❖ Select your answer according to your experience of using strategies of reading assessment.

❖ Please tick each statement in the box that represents your frequency of employing and practicing the below strategies of reading assessment.

Key: A= Always - O= Often - S= Sometimes - R= Rarely - N= Never.

As a teacher, when I assess my students' reading skills,

1. I start with setting goals for reading tasks.

- o Always

- o Often

- o Sometimes

- o Rarely

- o Never

2. I Identify the purpose of assessment tasks for the students.

- o Always

- o Often

- o Sometimes

- o Rarely

- o Never

3. I clearly explain the instructions of reading tasks.

- o Always

- o Often

- o Sometimes

- o Rarely

- o Never

4. I develop my own assessment criteria as I design reading tasks.

- o Always

- o Often

- o Sometimes

- o Rarely

- o Never

5. I implement any assessment criteria from outside resources to assess reading.

o Always

o Often

o Sometimes

o Rarely

o Never

6. I use different types of assessment to assess students in reading class.

o Always

o Often

o Sometimes

o Rarely

o Never

7. I use assessment to identify students' skills, needs and their level.

o Always

o Often

o Sometimes

o Rarely

o Never

8. I use assessment to develop appropriate lessons and to improve instructions for all students.

o Always

o Often

o Sometimes

o Rarely

o Never

9. I carefully select an appropriate strategy to be able to assess different levels in reading class.

Always

o Often

o Sometimes

o Rarely

o Never

10. I consider fluency as a category of reading assessment.

o Always

o Often

o Sometimes

o Rarely

o Never

11. I consider accuracy as a category in reading assessment.

o Always

o Often

o Sometimes

o Rarely

o Never

12. I ask factual questions about the text to help students understand a passage clearly.

o Always

o Often

o Sometimes

o Rarely

o Never

13. I consider comprehension as a first category when assessing reading.

o Always

o Often

o Sometimes

o Rarely

o   Never

14. I use "connect" as a strategy to indicate students' comprehension of the text.

o   Always

o   Often

o   Sometimes

o   Rarely

o   Never

15. I encourage students to use prediction as a strategy to figure out text events and anticipate what
      will happen next.

o   Always

o   Often

o   Sometimes

o   Rarely

o   Never

16. I test my students by observing them performing literacy tasks.

o   Always

o   Often

o   Sometimes

o   Rarely

o   Never

17. I encourage students to be "critical thinkers" while reading a text in a reading test.

o   Always

o   Often

o   Sometimes

o   Rarely

o   Never

18. I consider "summarizing and paraphrasing" as an important strategy to assess reading comprehension.

o   Always

o   Often

o   Sometimes

o   Rarely

Never

19. I consider a range of new vocabulary within the text as a reading assessment.

o   Always

o   Often

o   Sometimes

o   Rarely

o   Never

20. I use interviews as a strategy with students on their reading skills in reading assessment.

o   Always

o   Often

o   Sometimes

o   Rarely

o   Never

21. I use screening assessment within the formative category in reading class to identify which student is struggling.

o   Always

o   Often

o   Sometimes

o   Rarely

o   Never

22. I use diagnostic reading assessment as a strategy to pinpoint students' weaknesses.

- o Always

- o Often

- o Sometimes

- o Rarely

- o Never

23. I use progress assessment as a reading strategy to assess and monitor students' progress.

- o Always

- o Often

- o Sometimes

- o Rarely

- o Never

24. I ... deliberate over the assessment reliability and validity.

- o Always

- o Often

- o Sometimes

- o Rarely

- o Never

25. I use a holistic scoring for each category in reading assessment.

- o Always

- o Often

- o Sometimes

- o Rarely

- o Never

26. I use analytic scoring for category of reading assessment test.

- o Always

- o Often

- o Sometimes

- o Rarely

- o Never

27. I use students' results to provide feedback on their work in reading tasks.

- o Always

- o Often

- o Sometimes

- o Rarely

- o Never

Appendix B

An Investigation into Reading Assessment
Strategies used by Tripoli EFL University Teachers

University……………………………........

Interviewee…………………………….

Date ....

The Interview Questions:

1. What do you know about the term "assessment" in general and how do you assess your students' ability in the skill of reading in particular?

2. In what aspects do you think using different strategies in assessing reading skill can affect the teaching-learning outcome?

3. To what extent does your teaching experience help you in assessing reading skill properly?

4. Why do you use particular assessment strategies and not others during teaching reading?

5. What are the difficulties teachers may encounter when they link the choice of reading assessment strategies with the aim of assessment?

6. How do you choose tasks for reading assessment and is it challenge for you?

7. Do you consider using 'valid and reliable scoring' challenge for you? If yes how?

8. Are there any other challenges you might face during assessing reading? If yes, what are they?