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DIPLOMARBEIT / DIPLOMA THESIS

Titel der Diplomarbeit / Title of the Diploma Thesis

**“Sicher und kompetent zur neuen Matura?” –
An analysis of three Austrian coursebooks with regards to
reading skills in English as a foreign language**

verfasst von / submitted by

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angestrebter akademischer Grad / in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Magistra der Philosophie (Mag. phil.)

Wien, 2018 / Vienna, 2018

Studienkennzahl lt. Studienblatt /
degree programme code as it appears on
the student record sheet:

A 190 353 344

Studienrichtung lt. Studienblatt /
degree programme as it appears on
the student record sheet:

**Lehramtsstudium
UF Spanisch UF Englisch**

Betreut von / Supervisor:

Ao. Univ.-Prof. Mag. Dr. Ute Smit

Acknowledgements

I am grateful for having been able to share the experience of writing this thesis with important persons, whom I want to thank.

First of all, I would like to thank my supervisor, Ao. Univ.-Prof. Mag. Dr. Ute Smit, for her valuable advice, feedback and encouragement.

In addition, I would like to express my thanks to my loved ones for their support and patience and for believing in me.

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List of abbreviations

EiC 7/8	English in Context 7/8
PT 7	Prime Time 7
PT 8	Prime Time 8
MYW 7	Make Your Way 7
MYW 8	Make Your Way 8
L1	First language
L2	Second language
AHS	Allgemeinbildende Höhere Schule (Higher School of General Education)

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1. Introduction

The interest for the topic of this thesis resulted from the observation of statements such as “Sicher und kompetent zur Matura” or “Fit für die neue Matura” on the covers of English schoolbooks approved for the use in Austrian classrooms. They are reflected in the title of this thesis and translate as claims assuring a thorough preparation for the Austrian final exam. This exam was centralised and has been used nationwide since the school year 2015/16, although in certain school types it was introduced one year before. This development involved the adaptations of schoolbooks in order to meet the specifications of the new standardised exam. In this context, the objective of this thesis lies in examining to what extent and in which ways the coursebooks *English in Context 7/8*, *Prime Time 7*, *Prime Time 8*, *Make Your Way 7* and *Make Your Way 8* prepare the students for the section of their written English Matura exam which tests their reading skills.

The theoretical part of this paper aims at outlining what is involved in the ability to read as well as in teaching and testing it in the context of the foreign language classroom. Subsequently, the method of coursebook analysis and evaluation according to McGrath (2002), on which this thesis is based, is examined. The following section provides information on the design of the analysis, which consists of four different components. The first step lies in investigating the context and the learners’ needs in relation to the curriculum and the Matura exam before the impressionistic approach is applied in order to gather general information about the coursebooks. Subsequently, a checklist is compiled in accordance with the implications of the theory about reading skills, how to teach and test them and the test specifications of the Matura. After conducting the checklist method and based on it, the in-depth analysis is undertaken, which aims at going into more detail.

The results of all four components of the analysis are presented in the section “Findings”. In order to illustrate them, informative tables and figures are given and similarities as well as differences between the coursebooks are identified. Lastly, the findings of the impressionistic analysis, the checklist approach and the in-depth method are evaluated against the results of the context and needs analysis. Thereby, the research question of how and to what extent the coursebooks prepare the learners for the reading part of the written Matura exam in English is answered.

2. Theoretical background

The theoretical part of this thesis is initiated by an overview of the relevance of reading for language learning ability before the question of what reading is will be answered by referring to different models, skills and strategies of reading. Subsequently, the focus will be placed on teaching and testing reading in the foreign language classroom.

2.1. The importance of being able to read

Reading is a crucial skill in today's world and has been related to success. In our literate societies, it is an important prerequisite for participating in everyday life. Almost all children learn how to read, which is why the skill is taken for granted (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 224; Wallace 1992: 5). Moreover, according to Grabe (2009: 5), "[c]itizens of modern societies must be good readers to be successful. Reading skills do not guarantee success for anyone, but success is much harder to come by without being a skilled reader." Furthermore, reading has been described as "arguably the most essential skill for success in all educational contexts" (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 224).

In addition, the ability to read in a second or foreign language has gained importance. Due to reasons related to internationalisation and immigration, interest in learning other languages has been increasing (Koda 2005: 3). In this context, the emergence of English as a global language has influenced educational systems worldwide. Growing numbers of students are required to study English, which also includes learning to read in this language (Grabe 2009: 6).

While many people are able to read in more than one language, reading in the mother tongue differs from reading in another language. In the majority of cases, readers of a second or foreign language have learnt to read in their mother tongue beforehand (Grabe 2009: 4). Thus, they can rely on their former literacy experience, which might make it easier to acquire reading skills in another language (Koda 2005: 7). Another difference becomes evident in the early stages of literacy instruction. Since people who learn to read in their L1 have already been exposed to oral communication in this language, they have been able to develop a linguistic basis. In contrast, teaching literacy in the L2 often starts before the learners have had the possibility of gaining sufficient linguistic knowledge. Hence, L1 reading training focuses on decoding in order to teach learners how to relate oral language to print while L2 instruction prioritises the formation of linguistic

foundation (Koda 2005: 7). In the presence of these differences, the question arises of what reading is.

2.2. What is reading?

Nuttall (1982: 1) asks her readers to formulate a brief definition of the term reading, assuming that words such as understand, interpret, meaning, sense, decode, decipher, identify, articulate, speak or pronounce might form part of it. Undertaking this exercise demonstrates that defining reading represents a difficult task. It has been defined as “the process of receiving and interpreting information encoded in language form via the medium of print” (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 22). Furthermore, it has been stated that “successful comprehension emerges from the integrative interaction of derived text information and pre-existing reader knowledge” (Koda 2005: 4). In addition, reading has been characterised as a complex activity which involves different purposes and processes. At the same time, the context in which it occurs is crucial (Wallace 1992: 3).

Reading has also been described as a rapid and efficient, comprehending, interactive, strategic, purposeful, evaluative, learning and linguistic process (Grabe 2009: 14-16). First of all, reading is a “rapid and efficient” (Grabe 2009: 14) activity as far as the overall reading rate and the different processing skills are concerned. Secondly, it is a comprehending process since the reader wants to grasp what the writer tries to convey (Grabe 2009: 14). Thirdly, it is interactive in that it includes various processes, involves the readers in interacting with the writer and using their background knowledge (Grabe 2009: 15). Fourthly, due to the fact that readers have to use certain skills and strategies, such as predicting information and monitoring comprehension, reading can be described as strategic. Moreover, it is a flexible and purposeful activity since it involves the reader in adapting to different purposes and processes or strategies. Furthermore, monitoring one’s understanding of and reaction to a text is evaluative in its nature (Grabe 2009: 15). In addition, reading is a learning process in that the reader’s evaluation transforms every reading activity into a learning opportunity. Lastly, it is also a linguistic process since the lack of the ability to recognise words or link graphemes to phonemes makes reading impossible (Grabe 2009: 16).

All of the processes mentioned above can be viewed as illustrating what “fluent readers” (Grabe 2009: 16), “good readers” (Alderson 2005: 347) or “older and more proficient

readers” (Alderson 2005: 347) do. Hence, what reading means or includes is often formulated in relation to processes employed by this type of readers (Grabe 2009: 16). They rely on cues on the level of meaning in order to monitor whether they understand the text as opposed to poor readers who focus on the level of the sentence and cues related to words (Alderson 2005: 347). Thus, fluent readers engage more in predicting and monitoring as well as in planning how to proceed (Alderson 2005: 18). Moreover, they focus on groups of words rather than on individual words, which is why they are able to process phrases and acquire the skill of chunking (Hedge 2000: 212).

2.3. Different models of reading

Many different models of or approaches to reading exist. A useful first distinction can be made between process and component models. As their name suggests, process models focus on the process of reading and include bottom-up, top-down and interactive models. While the readers proceed from word to word in bottom-up approaches, their knowledge and expectations are crucial in top-down models. Interactive approaches are characterised by the interaction of all components in the reading activity. Componential models, on the other hand, explain the components which are involved in reading. The number and type of components are dependent on the specific model.

2.3.1. Process models

The bottom-up model represents a serial model in which the readers proceed from the word to the meaning of a sentence (Alderson 2005: 16). As the name bottom-up suggests, the readers begin with the stimulus in the form of letters or words and decode them to sound before they perceive them as words and identify their meanings (Alderson 2005: 16). Subsequently, they move on to the following word and repeat these processes until all the words in a sentence have been comprehended and meaning can be attached to the whole sentence (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 40). This model was associated with behaviourism and structural approaches, which regarded language as consisting of individual linguistic parts that could be defined and learnt in isolation (Hood, Solomon & Burns 1996: 16-17). Thus, the different components are analysed independently of each other. This means that processes which come later in the sequence have no impact on those before them, which is why, for example, the recognition of meaning does not

influence the identification of letters (Alderson 2005: 16-17). Due to this, an approach to teaching reading was favoured in which letter recognition represented the prerequisite for reading words. Moreover, readers were considered as “passive decoders of sequential graphic-phonemic-syntactic-semantic systems, in that order” (Alderson 2005: 17).

Top-down approaches are based on the importance of the readers’ knowledge and expectations in reading texts and influenced by psycholinguistic theories of reading (Hood, Solomon & Burns 1996: 20). The knowledge that readers bring with them can be referred to as schemata, which are activated when texts are construed. Schemata can be described as “networks of information stored in the brain which act as filters for incoming information” (Alderson 2005: 17). Thus, schemata which seem to be relevant are activated and the information the readers extract from the text are related to them. The reading process is successful in relation to the degree to which these schemata are significant (Alderson 2005: 17). Moreover, according to this model, readers are assumed to hypothesise about the texts and employ the text data to verify or reject their hypotheses. These hypotheses might take the form of single words or the whole text. Since the readers shift from hypothesising to the text and back to hypothesising again and so on, the activity of reading can be regarded as having a circular structure (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 42). The name top-down refers to the fact that readers bring their expectations with them in order to understand the text (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 43). However, this designation has also been criticised since it might be misleading. Therefore, Urquhart and Weir (1998: 42) propose the terms reader-driven or text/data-driven which, in their view, might be more effective to emphasise the contrast between bottom-up and top-down approaches.

Due to the fact that the two models described above have been considered as insufficient when accounting for the reading process, a third type of approach, the interactive model, was suggested. While Grabe (2009: 89) refers to it as “the typical compromise solution”, Alderson (2005: 18) describes it as more adequate than both bottom-up and top-down approaches, which, according to him, represent inadequate accounts of the reading process. Birch (2007: 4) denominates this model as a “balanced and integrated approach” and explains its validity by characterising the reading process as consisting of three levels of interaction. First of all, both bottom-up and top-down processes are considered as elements which interact with each other during the reading process. Secondly, in order to enable comprehension, the readers’ minds have to interact with the text (Birch 2007: 4).

Thirdly, readers also have to interact with writers in order to comprehend the information they try to convey (Birch 2007: 5). Thus, interactive models are defined by the view that all components which are involved in the activity of reading interact with each other, independently from the order in which they are processed (Alderson 2005: 18). As a consequence, a regular sequence, as in the bottom-up model in which certain processes have to be completed before others are initiated, is rejected (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 44-45). In this context, interactive-compensatory approaches have been developed. The idea behind including compensatory models lies in the notion that weaknesses in certain skills or knowledge components, for instance orthographic knowledge, can be counterbalanced by strengths in other areas, such as syntactical knowledge (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 45). Another example would be the fact that deficits in word recognition abilities can be compensated by top-down knowledge (Alderson 2005: 19).

2.3.2. Component models

Component approaches describe components of skills and knowledge which are relevant to the reading process (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 47). Different models include different components. The following description mainly follows Koda's (2005: 29-154) extensive and detailed classification of essential components, which comprises word recognition, vocabulary knowledge, intraword awareness and word-knowledge, information integration in sentence processing, discourse processing and text structure and comprehension. In addition, implications for L2 reading will be mentioned.

Word recognition has been defined as "the processes of extracting lexical information from graphic displays of words" (Koda 2005: 29). Since words are important elements for constructing the meaning of texts, the ability to transform graphic symbols into sound or meaning is essential (Koda 2005: 29). A lack of it might represent a great difficulty for readers (Grabe 2009: 23). Moreover, word recognition can be described as an interactive activity in which the readers gather phonological, orthographic, and semantic information. Possibly it also includes syntactic and morphological information (Grabe 2009: 101). While the second description includes phonological information, others assign it to the process of decoding. However, sometimes the two terms word recognition and decoding are used as synonyms (Koda 2005: 29). As regards L2 word recognition, research has been based on the three aspects of knowledge in the L2, reading skills in the L1 and the distance between both languages (Koda 2005: 38). A general assumption has

been that the learners' reading ability, and in particular word recognition, improves automatically and simultaneously with the development of L2 linguistic knowledge. However, Koda (2005: 38) argues that this hypothesis cannot be based on a theoretical foundation. An important factor that distinguishes L2 from L1 word recognition is that L2 readers are already literate in one language (Bernhardt 1993: 76). Thus, they are experienced in processing printed words (Grabe 2009: 38). In addition, the distance between the learners' L1 and the L2 is crucial, since a certain degree of similarity might facilitate word recognition in the L2 due to experience in the L1 (Koda 2005: 38).

Another important component on the word level is vocabulary knowledge. In order to comprehend a text, it is vital for the readers to understand the meanings of the words of which it is composed. While words are stored with various meanings, the specific ones are mainly defined by the context in which they occur. At the same time, the meanings are determined by the readers' experiences in their lives, since words create an image in their mind based on what the readers have encountered. Thus, the identification of the meaning which is most appropriate in the context of interpreting the text is crucial for understanding it (Koda 2005: 48). However, vocabulary knowledge in the L2 might differ in its nature from that in the L1. While the meaning of a word in the mother tongue is related to real-life experiences, the equivalent of it in the L2 might only evoke "abstract generalizations of the word's allusion" (Koda 2005: 61). Moreover, the cross-linguistic variations in the meanings of words between the L1 and the L2 and the way in which they are encoded graphically in both languages make vocabulary knowledge in the L2 a complex matter (Koda 2005: 69).

The third skill which is required on the word level and closely related to that above is intraword awareness and word-knowledge development. Intraword awareness means that readers understand the internal structure of a word and how the units of a spoken word correspond to those of its graphic symbols (Koda 2005: 74). In addition, word knowledge refers to having information about its meaning, its syntactic and semantic restrictions, its form and derivations, how frequently it occurs in spoken and written contexts and other words with which it can be associated etc. (Koda 2005: 77). As far as L2 intraword awareness and word-knowledge are concerned, they are influenced by the readers' knowledge of them in their L1, since they represent a scaffold for developing them in the L2 (Koda 2005: 93).

In addition to processing individual words, readers have to understand how they are related to each other (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 58). This process of integrating information in sentence processing can also be called syntactic parsing (Koda 2005: 99; Grabe 2009: 29). In order to process the syntax of a phrase or sentence, the readers have to incorporate lexical information in a way in which the incorporated item expresses the overall meaning of a certain part of the sentence (Koda 2005: 99). As concerns the comprehension of L2 syntax, cross-linguistic variations between forms and functions influence the understanding of sentences in the L2 (Koda 2005: 120). Thus, readers rely considerably on morphosyntactic knowledge when they try to comprehend clauses (Koda 2005: 110). Moreover, a difficulty might occur if devices in the L2 do not exist in the L1 (Koda 2005: 111).

The next component, discourse processing, includes building text representations, establishing text coherence and functions of knowledge. First of all, apart from processing the language, readers have to build representations or visions of real-life situations based on the text in order to understand it. Secondly, the text has to be processed as a coherent whole, which is why explicit and implicit coherence relations between text elements have to be comprehended (Koda 2005: 127). In addition, background knowledge has a great impact on how the information of a text is processed (Koda 2005: 135). Due to the fact that coherence relations might work differently in languages, discourse processing in the L2 is more complex. Moreover, conceptual gaps might originate since the reader might lack cultural-specific knowledge in the L2 (Koda 2005: 141).

The last component according to Koda (2005: 154) is text structure and comprehension. The structure and the way in which ideas are organised in texts are meaningful. Thus, knowledge about structural characteristics should be acquired in order to facilitate the construction of meaning. Since text types differ in their structures, different ones should be analysed (Koda 2005: 154). In terms of L2 text structure and comprehension, the role of knowledge about it in the L2 and the effectiveness of instruction are decisive factors (Koda 2005: 174).

2.3.3. Combining models

Having presented this overview of process and component models, it can be said that the examination of both types is crucial in order to gain a deeper understanding of what

reading is. In this context, the need for a type of model which integrates both components and processes might be suggested, since it might offer an even more comprehensive and detailed description of the reading process. In addition, the fact that underlying models of reading influence the way in which reading is taught cannot be forgotten. Activating background knowledge and hypothesising about the content of texts is, for instance, of high importance in top-down process models while training different skills is essential in component approaches. Therefore, models of reading might have an impact on how strategies and skills are taught and developed and, subsequently, which ones are needed for different reading objectives. Reading skills and strategies will be thematised in the following section.

2.4. Reading skills and strategies

Before reading skills and strategies will be discussed, it shall be noted that it is extremely difficult to encounter a clear demarcation between the two terms and to examine the one without referring to the other. Thus, the following paragraphs aim at presenting reading skills and strategies one after the other before differences between the two categories will be examined.

2.4.1. Reading skills

Reading skills have been defined as cognitive abilities which are employed during the process of interacting with texts (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 88). Thus, according to skill-based or component approaches, learning to read can be considered as developing certain skills (Wallace 1992: 54; see also section 2.3.2.).

Reading itself is a skill which can be subdivided into different component skills (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 91). Brown and Abeywickrama (2010: 227) compiled a list of micro- and macroskills for reading comprehension. The microskills include “[d]iscriminat[ing] among the distinctive graphemes [...] and orthographic patterns of English”, “[r]etain[ing] chunks of language of different lengths in short-term memory”, “[p]rocess[ing] writing at an efficient rate of speed to suit the purpose”, “[r]ecogniz[ing] a core of words and interpret[ing] word order patterns and their significance”, “[r]ecogniz[ing] grammatical word classes [...], systems [...], patterns, rules, and elliptical forms”, “[r]ecogniz[ing] that a particular meaning may be expressed in different grammatical forms” and

“[r]ecogniz[ing] cohesive devices in written discourse and their role in signalling the relationship between and among clauses” (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 227). As far as macroskills are concerned, the following are listed: “[r]ecogniz[ing] the rhetorical conventions of written discourse and their significance for interpretation”, “[r]ecogniz[ing] the communicative functions of written texts, according to form and purpose”, “[i]nfer[ring] context that is not explicit by activating schemata”, “[f]rom described events, ideas, etc., infer[ring] links and connections between events, deduc[ing] causes and effects, and detect[ing] such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification”, “[d]istinguish[ing] between literal and implied meanings”, “[d]etect[ing] culturally specific references and interpret[ing] them in a context of the appropriate cultural schemata” and “[d]evelop[ing] and us[ing] a battery of reading strategies, such as scanning and skimming, detecting discourse markers, guessing the meaning of words from context, and activating schemata for the interpretation of texts” (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 227).

2.4.2. Reading strategies

Strategies include ways of processing texts and their use is determined by what is being read, in which situation, and for which purpose (Wallace 1992: 57). They can be defined as processes which are employed in order to solve problems that occur while reading (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 95; Grabe 2009: 221). Moreover, they are employed in a conscious way (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 95; Nuttall 1996: 40; Grabe 2009: 221). Other defining characteristics of strategies are that they are goal-oriented, purposeful, efficient and selective, fast and directly teachable (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 188-189).

The reading process includes several strategies used by the reader. First of all, they can be divided into cognitive and metacognitive strategies. The former make reading possible since they are concerned with mental processes ranging from extracting the main idea from a text to decoding the meaning of individual words in context. However, the distinction from skills does not seem clear. Metacognitive strategies, on the other hand, involve processes in which the learners reflect on the experience of reading (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 179). They are important since they enable the readers to overcome their comprehension difficulties. Paraphrasing, for example, helps the readers to check whether what they understand relates to the meaning of the text. Moreover, examining the structure of the whole text or parts of it in a deductive way might help them to

understand the author's intention (Alderson 2005: 309). In addition, in discussions about their reading experiences learners have the opportunity to develop metacognitive strategies. These involve them in becoming aware of their reading and their use of strategies since they reflect on the reading process (Wallace 1992: 60). Metacognitive strategies can be classified into pre-reading or planning strategies, while-reading or monitoring strategies and post-reading or evaluation strategies (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 183).

Pre-reading strategies facilitate the activation of background knowledge (Koda 2005: 207) and comprise previewing and prediction strategies. Previewing engages the readers for example in thinking about the title and thus enables them to decide whether to read a text or not (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 184). The process of prediction encourages them to hypothesise about the content of a text and to activate their prior knowledge (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 185).

The aim of while-reading strategies is to actively engage readers in reading and understanding texts (Pearson & Fielding 1991: 836). In addition, these strategies help the readers in understanding the main idea (Koda 2005: 207). Possible activities involve them in paraphrasing (Alderson 2005: 309) or self-questioning (Pearson & Fielding 1991: 836; Nuttall 1996: 37) in order to check their comprehension. A study investigating the influence of self-questioning on the comprehension of 20 L2 learners of English revealed the positive effect of this strategy, since it accounted for 56 % of the variance in the scores (McNeil 2011: 897).

Post-reading strategies are concerned with the readers' personal response to and evaluation of a text (Nuttall 1982: 164). They can be realised as activities for reviewing the content of the text and going into detail (Koda 2005: 207). The elicitation of the readers' personal response aims at receiving their reaction to the text. Thus, questions might be asked which involve them in giving their opinion of the text or uttering how they feel about it. Moreover, creative writing represents a natural way to obtain personal reactions (Nuttall 1996: 189). Evaluation activities, in contrast, ask the readers to assess the writer's techniques. Examples require their judgement about how arguments are presented or how far the writer's aims are achieved (Nuttall 1996: 188). The use of these strategies enables the readers to integrate the content of the text into their already existing knowledge and experience and to evaluate it. In doing so, they interact more with

the text, which is why the reading process is likely to be more successful (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 187).

The positive effects of strategic reading instruction were confirmed by a study investigating the influence of reading strategies in English as a second language on reading ability. The students of the experimental group, who were exposed to this type of strategies in a conscious and deliberate way over the course of 16 weeks, displayed significantly higher levels of reading proficiency than their colleagues of the control group (Akkakoson 2013: 430-431).

2.4.3. Difference between reading skills and strategies

Having discussed reading skills and strategies, an attempt to differentiate them from each other will be undertaken. On the one hand, the two categories tend to be outlined by making reference to their differences. As already mentioned, it has been suggested that strategies are employed consciously whereas skills do not represent conscious, but rather automatic decisions on the part of the reader (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 97). Another possible difference between the two categories might be that strategies are reader-oriented while skills are text-oriented (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 96). Lastly, strategies, as opposed to skills, are assumed to be used in order to solve a problem (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 98). On the other hand, the terms of reading skills and strategies can be found as outlined together or even used interchangeably. Nuttall (1996: 40), for example, considers both side by side without referring to differences and uses the terms “strategy training” and “skills teaching” as synonyms. In addition, also the CEFR (Council of Europe 2011: 57), although talking about skills and strategies in general, concedes the ambiguity of the term strategy and seems to lack a clear demarcation from skills:

The word ‘strategies’ has been used in different ways. Here what is meant is the adoption of a particular line of action in order to maximise effectiveness. Skills that are an inevitable part of the process of understanding or articulating the spoken and written word (e.g. chunking a stream of sound in order to decode it into a string of words carrying propositional meaning) are treated as lower-level skills, in relation to the appropriate communicative process (see section 4.5.).

It even goes a step further and integrates skills into the concept of strategies since it claims that strategies are employed in order to activate skills (Council of Europe 2011: 57):

Strategies are a means the language user exploits to mobilise and balance his or her resources, to activate skills and procedures, in order to fulfil the demands of communication in context and successfully complete the task in question in the most comprehensive or most economical way feasible depending on his or her precise purpose.

Lastly, a preference for one of the two categories might be identified. Wallace (1992: 57), for instance, distinguishes between skills-based models on the one hand, which regard reading as the result of adding different skills, and strategy-based approaches on the other, which consider the reading process as a unitary one. According to Wallace (1992: 57), teaching reading strategies should be preferred as opposed to training skills. Nevertheless, some activities which have been proposed to enhance reading ability can be assigned to both skills and strategies (Alderson 2005: 311). Similarly, Koda (2005: 211) concludes by defining reading actions which are performed in an intentional way as strategies while skills “refer to what readers actually do to achieve their intended actions”. In this context, the use of skills might be deliberate or not (Koda 2005: 211). This view corresponds to Alderson’s (2005: 311), who states that some activities which have been proposed to enhance reading ability can be assigned to both skills and strategies.

As the last paragraphs show, much of the research into reading strategies and skills might require further investigation. The distinction between strategies and skills is often blurred (Alderson 2005: 309; Grabe 2009: 221), which is why more clarity is required (Alderson 2005: 311). This thesis favours the strategy-based approach, which is why the importance of teaching reading strategies is reflected in the analysis.

2.5. Teaching reading in the foreign language classroom

Activities used for teaching reading are often designed in a three-part structure, consisting of a pre-, while- and post-reading stage (Wallace 1992: 86, Williams 1984: 36).

The aim of the pre-reading stage lies in arousing interest and motivating the learners (Williams 1984: 37). It allows them to find a reason for reading, to adapt themselves to the context and content of the text and to activate their prior knowledge. Furthermore, the readers are encouraged to reflect on their own attitude to and experience with the topic and to become familiar with the language used in the text (Hedge 2000: 210). Language preparation is considered as essential in order to avoid that the students are frustrated by language difficulties and might not be able to do the activities (Williams

1984: 37). In addition, the learners tend to be prepared in terms of conceptual or cultural difficulties which might arise from reading texts (Wallace 1992: 86). As far as the activity formats are concerned, they include for instance questions which have to be answered by scanning the text (Wallace 1992: 86) or brainstorming activities in which the students are presented with key words or key concepts and have to state what they associate with them (Wallace 1992: 91). Thus, this stage enables the activation of the learners' schematic and language knowledge and accounts for purposeful reading. In order to achieve this, the students are engaged in thinking about the topic and content of the text as well as about their opinion and attitude towards it, which might also raise interest in it. Exercise types that can be used in the pre-reading procedure range from gathering the students' knowledge about the topic to involving them in making predictions about the text from the title or pictures. Other possibilities include discussions about the topic, agreeing or disagreeing with statements, answering questions or doing a quiz (Hedge 2000: 210).

The while-reading stage has become important since reading is considered as an interactive process. The general purpose of procedures used at this stage is related to the readers' function as being active while reading, which is why they involve activity, reflection and response. This might adopt the form of note taking, concerning oneself with the opinions stated in the text as well as understanding the content and ideas. Furthermore, readers might be encouraged to ask themselves questions about the text, compare their prior knowledge to the content, monitor their expectations and make predictions about the following parts of the text (Hedge 2000: 210). Specific exercises that can be used include encouraging the learners to compare a list of expectations to the content, to engage with the writer's opinion and, at the same time, to answer their own questions. In addition, it might be useful to provide exercises in which they stop reading and reflect on questions or others in which they have to complete a form or table with information from the text. While many teachers and textbook writers seem to share the opinion that readers might benefit from interventions in the reading process, also many students were found to regard them as helpful (Hedge 2000: 210).

The post-reading stage is ideally connected to the reading purpose in a way that allows the readers to check and talk about the activities of the while-reading phase. In doing so, they are enabled to utilise what they have read before in a meaningful way. The possibilities range from discussions about the author's and their own view to writing activities based on the students' notes. Moreover, activities can be used that are either

concerned with the content of the text or the language used in it (Hedge 2000: 211). Exercises belonging to the first type include for example role-plays, debates and relating the specific text to other examples that are similar to or different from it. Tasks dealing with language use might illustrate language features and raise language awareness. Hence, they might focus on certain linguistic features, such as for example vocabulary use or the functions of different forms. In addition to these types of exercises, students can be encouraged to work together in the classroom. While collaborative tasks increase motivation, they also help students to become aware of and reflect on their thinking process while reading and working on texts (Hedge 2000: 211).

The benefits of the three phase approach are related to the activation of learners' prior knowledge and the integration of the skills (Williams 1984: 40). First of all, the students' world and language knowledge is incorporated and forms the basis for involving and motivating them. Secondly, working with texts by making use of the three phases allows practising reading in an integrated way. According to Harmer (1991: 52), an approach which focuses on one skill at a time is "clearly ridiculous" since one skill can often not be treated without the use of another. In order to illustrate this point, he refers to speaking and listening in discussions. In addition, when dealing with a certain subject people might use a variety of skills. Someone who listens to a presentation might take notes or discuss the contents subsequently (Harmer 1991: 52). Thus, an integrated approach imitates real-life language use (Brown 2007: 285). Besides pointing out the advantages of the three phase approach, Williams (1984: 40) states that this approach does not always have to be applied in a mechanical way. While the pre-reading stage might be omitted in order to enable the learners to directly engage with the text, the post-reading stage might often be inappropriate.

2.6. Testing and assessing reading in a foreign language

Reading is unobservable in its nature. Since it belongs to the receptive skills, neither the process nor the product of reading can be observed (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 225). As Hughes (2003: 136) describes it by saying more generally, "[t]he basic problem is that the exercise of receptive skills does not necessarily, or usually, manifest itself directly in overt behaviour." While the process is concerned with internalising meaning and remains invisible, the product is also in the brain and unobservable (Brown & Abeywickrama

2010: 160). Hence, reading must be assessed by making inferences (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 225). In testing reading, inferences about the students' abilities can be based on the information which is gathered by tests. Thus, the aim of tests lies in providing tasks which elicit behaviour indicating that the test takers are able to use the skill successfully (Hughes 2003: 136).

When talking about reading tests or tests in general, the two questions of what is tested and how it is tested arise immediately. The answers to them can be found in the test specifications of every test. Thus, in the following sections test specifications will be discussed before their contents will be regarded in greater detail.

2.6.1. Test specifications

Tests can be realised in different ways. What is tested in each case and how it is tested is illustrated by the specifications of the test (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 9). Thus, what is involved in a test can be explained by referring to the test specifications. They are defined as “[a] detailed accounting of the test format and general test design which serves as a basis for providing information for candidates and test users, and for writing new versions of a test” (McNamara 2000: 138). Thus, besides test takers and test constructors test specifications are also needed by other people who use the test, such as for instance teachers or persons who are responsible for the test's validity (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 10). In addition, admissions officers who make decisions based on test scores as well as publishers and textbook writers who aim at developing materials in relation to tests should have access to the test specifications (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 11). The following list, which is based on Alderson, Clapham and Wall 1995: 11-13; Brown and Abeywickrama 2010: 59; Hughes 2003: 59-62 and McNamara 2000: 31-32, summarises the content of test specifications.

- 1) the purpose of the test (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 11)
- 2) the test takers (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 12)
- 3) the content (Hughes 2003: 59-60; Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 59; Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 13)
 - task types/item types/test methods (multiple choice, gap filling, matching, etc.)
 - text types, length of texts, topics of texts, sources of texts etc.

- 4) the structure of the test and the different parts of it (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 13; Hughes 2003: 61; McNamara 2000: 31)
- 5) the timing (Hughes 2003: 61, Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 13)
- 6) the assessment criteria (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 13) and the scoring procedure (Hughes 2003: 62; Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 59; McNamara 2000: 32)

As there seems to be no need for detailed explanations on points 4 and 5 of the abovementioned list, they will be addressed at this point. As far as the structure and timing of a test are concerned, test specifications offer information on the number and types of sections as well as the timing for each one and the entire test. The other parts of test specifications will be explained in the following.

2.6.2. Test types

Purposes of tests

First of all, the test specifications have to include information about the test type. According to the kind of information that is offered, tests in general as well as reading tests or the reading parts of tests can be grouped into different types (Hughes 2003: 11), namely according to their purpose into achievement, proficiency, placement and diagnostic tests (Hughes 2003: 11-17; Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 11; Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 9-11). While Brown and Abeywickrama (2010: 11) also add aptitude tests, which will not be included here due to the fact that they are no longer widely used, Alderson, Clapham and Wall (1995: 11) additionally list progress tests which correspond to what the other authors classify as a subtype of achievement test. Since McNamara (2000: 6) describes the distinction between achievement and proficiency tests as the most common one as far as the test purpose is concerned, these two will be characterised subsequently before information on placement and diagnostic tests will be given.

Achievement tests gather information about the test takers' progress with regards to the respective syllabus (Harmer 2001: 321). Thus, their aim is to determine to what extent certain objectives have been achieved by the students (Hughes 2003: 13), which is why they are based on language courses (Hughes 2003: 13), specific lessons or units or a curriculum (Brown & Abeywickrama 2004: 47). As examples of this test type McNamara (2000: 6) lists the observation of classroom work and participation in order to record the

students' progress, assessments of portfolios and tests at the end of courses. Harmer (2001: 321) emphasises the importance of students being familiar with the item types that occur in the test. Otherwise, the test might not reflect what they have already learnt. According to the point of time at which achievement tests are administered, they can be classified into progressive and final ones (Hughes 2003: 13). While the purpose of the first type is to measure the students' progress during a course, tests of the second type occur at the end of courses. Moreover, the latter tend to be constructed and organised by examining boards, ministries of education or teaching institutions and their content is directly related to the respective courses. Final achievement tests can be further distinguished according to the nature of their content. On the one hand, they can be based on the course syllabus as well as on materials such as books. On the other hand, their content can be specified in relation to the course objectives (Hughes 2013: 13). While syllabus-based achievement tests might be fairer since they only include what was covered in the course, their results might not correctly reflect the students' achievements in case the syllabus or teaching materials were badly selected. The second type entails various benefits, the first of which is the fact that course designers necessarily have to formulate the course objectives in a more explicit way. The second advantage lies in that the learners' test performances are likely to better indicate the extent to which they have achieved the objectives of the course. Moreover, as opposed to tests based on the content of courses, this type might prevent poor teaching practice (Hughes 2013: 13). These benefits suggest that basing the content of achievement tests on the objectives of the respective course as opposed to the syllabus is to be preferred (Hughes 2013: 14).

The aim of proficiency tests lies in providing a general picture of the learners' ability and knowledge (Harmer 2001: 321), which is why they measure global competence (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 11). They distinguish themselves from achievement tests mainly through the factor of previous instruction since the training that the test takers might have had beforehand is not taken into consideration during the process of designing proficiency tests (Hughes 2003: 11). McNamara (2000: 7) illustrates the difference between the two test types by stating that "achievement tests relate to the past in that they measure what language the students have learned as a result of teaching, [while] proficiency tests look to the future situation of language use without necessarily any reference to the previous process of teaching". Thus, as opposed to basing the content of the test on language courses, it is determined by test specifications which define what test

takers have to demonstrate by using the language in order to be regarded as proficient. In this context, the concept of proficiency always depends on the specific test purpose, since it involves having sufficient command of the language for a certain purpose (Hughes 2003: 11). In general, proficiency tests are employed in language testing to ascertain whether a certain stage has been reached. This might include for instance exams that determine whether students are accepted at a foreign university, receive employment or a specific certificate (Harmer 2001: 321).

Some achievement and proficiency tests can have the function of placement tests (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 10), which aim at assigning students to a certain stage of a teaching programme according to their abilities (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 10; Hughes 2003: 16; Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 11). They are usually used to place learners into classes at varying levels (Hughes 2003: 16), which is why they often contain samplings of the material which will be covered at the respective stages. In doing so, the level can be ascertained at which the students find the material appropriately challenging, but neither too difficult nor too easy (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 10). Since the content and methods of placement tests depend on the respective programme or course, they can be realised in different ways (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 11). Harmer (2001: 321) also mentions the possibility of students assessing themselves in the course of the placement process.

Tests of the last type, diagnostic ones, aim at providing information on features of the target language that still need to be mastered by students and, thus, be included in a course (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 10). Moreover, their purpose lies in identifying the learners' strengths and weaknesses and, thereby, in ascertaining in which areas further instruction or training might be needed (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 12; Hughes 2003: 15). As formulated by Harmer (2001: 321), if the problems are detected, something can be done about them. Tests of this type can be realised in different ways. They can either be designed in a general way, aiming at determining whether the learners need help with a particular language skill, or in a more specific way, diagnosing the weaknesses in a learner's use of grammatical structures (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 12). Brown and Abeywickrama (2010: 10) list tests of pronunciation or writing as examples. Although general achievement and diagnostic tests might seem similar, an important difference can be noticed. While the first test type analyses the extent to which the learners have already

developed aspects of the language, the latter diagnoses those parts of the language that should be developed by them in the future (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 10).

Standardised tests

Apart from the abovementioned types differentiated by purposes, tests can also be conducted as standardised ones. Brown and Abeywickrama (2010: 103) describe standardised tests as norm-referenced products of research and development which are based on standards and allow systematic scoring and administration. Numerous tests at universities and in schools worldwide are designed in a standardised way in order to measure the test takers' language ability in relation to certain standards (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 103-104). Standardised tests are characterised by different advantages and disadvantages. On the one hand, the most prominent benefits of standardised tests which are administered by institutions lie in the fact that they are created and scored in a centralised way. If standardised test formats such as multiple choice are used, the scoring procedure is less time-consuming and can, for instance, be undertaken with the help of computers. At the same time, standardised testing allows for a rapid administration of a considerable amount of test takers (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 104). On the other hand, this type of test has been characterised by drawbacks. Brown and Abeywickrama (2010: 105) mention the risk of misusing standardised tests under the assumption of their convenience. In this context, overall proficiency tests might be administered as achievement tests. Moreover, standardised tests might appear valid and reliable tools to test takers although this might not be the case. Furthermore, due to standardised task types, students might be required to undertake related tasks instead of performing the actual task in a direct way. Therefore, standardised tests might not actually test what they are supposed to test. In the case of a standardised reading exam, the construct of reading skills should be reflected (Grabe 2009: 356). In addition, the reading experience in the context of standardised assessment is different from that in the "real world". Students are aware of the fact that they are reading for the purpose of being assessed in a standardised way (Grabe 2009: 357).

2.6.3. Test takers

Test specifications also tend to offer information on the test takers. In the following, six points that are relevant for their characterisation are presented. First of all, test specifications might reveal the test takers' personal characteristics by providing information about their age, sex, interests, cultural and educational background, country of origin, first language as well as the reason for taking the test (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 12-13). Secondly, the topical knowledge test takers possess at the time of the language test is an important variable (Bachmann & Palmer 1996: 64). This type of knowledge, which is also referred to as background or world knowledge (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 13), can be described as knowledge structures located in long-term memory. A study with L2 learners of Spanish, investigating factors that facilitate L2 reading, concluded that background knowledge aids the readers in grasping the meaning of texts (Brantmeier, Hammadou Sullivan & Strube: 2014). Moreover, Lahuerta Martínez (2013) investigated the effect of interest and prior knowledge on L2 reading comprehension by means of different tasks. The results demonstrate that topic knowledge positively affects the readers' performance measured by written recall activities, multiple choice questions and open-ended questions (Lahuerta Martínez 2013: 299-301). Thus, in the context of language testing, it can be said that test takers who are equipped with background knowledge relevant for the test tasks will obtain better results (Bachmann & Palmer 1996: 65).

Thirdly, test takers can be characterised by referring to affective schemata, which are defined as "the affective or emotional correlates of topical knowledge" (Bachmann & Palmer 1996: 65). They represent the foundation on which learners view language tasks in the light of prior emotional experiences in comparable contexts (Bachmann & Palmer 1996: 65). Thus, taking the example of reading ability, the learners' approach to new texts is always determined by experiences with similar ones in the past. As far as language tests are concerned, affective schemata might have an impact on how test takers conduct tasks. Eliciting affective answers in the context of delicate topics might, for instance, result in the test takers' inability to make use of their entire language skills and strategies in order to undertake the task. In contrast, some test takers might have a strong opinion on controversial topics and might feel the need to express it, which is why affective schemata might also facilitate their language use. Moreover, certain learners might be comfortable in test situations in which they are interviewed orally while others prefer written tests.

Thus, the performance of test takers can be influenced in a positive or a negative way in terms of the topics and the types of test tasks (Bachmann & Palmer 1996: 66).

The last aspect which affects the test takers' language use in tests is their level of proficiency in the target language (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 12; Bachmann & Palmer 1996: 64). Language ability has to be defined in detail in order to allow making inferences about it from the test takers' performance. Moreover, identifying this ability in relation to a specific testing situation is essential since the purposes for tests and the characteristics of test takers might vary considerably. According to Bachmann and Palmer (1996: 66-67), if language ability is defined in order to form the basis for inferences or measurement it corresponds to a construct. Constructs are examined in the following under the heading "Content". To conclude, all of the abovementioned characteristics might influence the test takers' test performances, which is why they have to be taken into consideration.

2.6.4. Content

Another specification that is relevant to a test is the content. According to Hughes (2003: 60) and Alderson, Clapham and Wall (1995: 13), this includes the types of operations or tasks, the types and the length of texts, the topics of the test (Hughes 2003: 60) or the topics of the texts (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 13). Test specifications might also include more detailed descriptions, which will not be further addressed at this point.

First of all, the texts the test takers have to read, write or listen to during the test should be specified. This might include giving information about the text types, the length, topics, sources, intended audience, level of difficulty and degree of authenticity and whether they are presented in spoken or written form (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 13).

Secondly, test specifications tend to contain the types of operations that have to be performed by the test takers, also denominated as constructs. Thus, the following paragraphs aim at undertaking the difficult task of defining constructs of reading ability; a task which has been described as being characterised by shortcomings (MacMillan 2016: 116). In trying to present a definition of constructs, they will be distinguished from as well as associated with the concepts and terms of skills, ability and types of reading in the following. According to Alderson (2005: 1), a construct can be referred to as the ability that is tested. More specifically, Bachmann and Palmer (1996: 66-67) state that language

ability corresponds to a construct if it is defined in relation to a specific testing situation with the purpose of making inferences on the basis of the test takers' performances. In general, the construct of a test is closely linked to its purpose (Alderson 2005: 123). Linguistic knowledge at both linguistic and metalinguistic levels, skills, strategies, synthesis and evaluation skills, metacognitive knowledge and monitoring are relevant to the constructs (Alderson 2005: 121-22).

The following paragraph aims at presenting different constructs of reading. First of all, the example proposed by Hughes' (2003: 60) shall be quoted, according to which "[f]or a reading test, these [operations or tasks] might include: scan text to locate specific information; guess meaning of unknown words from context." To continue the example of testing reading, according to the CEFR, in reading activities "[t]he language user may read [...] for gist; for specific information; for detailed understanding; [and] for implications, etc." (Council of Europe 2011: 68). Similarly, but in a more detailed way, Hughes lists "[s]kimming text to obtain the gist", "[s]canning text to locate specific information", "[i]dentifying stages of an argument" and "[i]dentifying examples presented in support of an argument" (Hughes 1989: 116) as macro-skills. These are based on various micro-skills, such as "[i]dentifying referents of pronouns, etc.", "[u]sing context to guess meaning of unfamiliar words" and "[u]nderstanding relations between parts of text by recognising indicators in discourse, especially for the introduction, development, transition, and conclusion of ideas" (Hughes 1989: 117). Hughes (1989: 117) argues that these two levels of skills represent operations that can be included in a reading test. According to Urquhart and Weir (1998: 100), operations of reading correspond to types of reading. They distinguish between the six types of careful reading at the local level, skimming, search reading, scanning, careful reading at the global level and browsing (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 101). Before these six types or operations of reading will be described in more detail, a brief reference to the fact that skimming and scanning can also be classified as reading strategies shall be made (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 227; Hedge 2000: 205).

Urquhart and Weir (1998: 100) criticise the predominant focus on careful reading at the local level at the cost of other types. They mention syntactic parsing and word recognition as examples of this type of reading. However, they argue that students' reading needs and, thus, also the teaching and testing of reading have to be based on a wider variety of kinds of reading (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 101).

The purpose of skimming, which can also be called reading for gist, is to ascertain what the text is about in general without focusing on details (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 102). The aim is to extract the main ideas and the structure of the text as well as to determine whether the text or parts of it are relevant to the readers (Hughes 2003: 138). Hence, the reading behaviour is selective since readers concentrate on certain parts of the text more than on others and completely omit some of them (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 103).

Search reading is characterised by the readers' purpose of locating information in order to answer questions or provide data. It is different from skimming in that the information which has to be found is determined by topics or assignments that have been selected beforehand (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 103; Hughes 2003: 138). Scanning involves the readers in finding specific data in the text, such as words, phrases, names, dates, figures etc. In doing so, they are supposed to dismiss those sections of the text in which the required information does not appear. Thus, the reading process is determined by certain goals and selective in its nature (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 103). Although the difference between search reading and scanning might not seem clear at first sight, it lies in the type of information readers are supposed to find in texts. While search reading aims at finding information on a topic which was defined beforehand, the purpose of scanning is to find specific words, phrases or dates. Williams (1984: 100) lists dictionaries, indexes, advertisements, maps etc. as suitable text types for scanning.

Careful reading at the global level is the reading behaviour that is related to reading to learn and can be observed when reading textbooks. It is not selective since the readers focus on the majority of information in the text. Furthermore, the author's way of organising the information and selecting the most important sections of the text is accepted by the readers (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 103). The last way of reading, which can easily be contrasted with careful reading, is browsing. The reading process is not characterised by clearly defined goals, which is why sections of the text might be omitted in a random way (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 103). Readers can browse through any kind of text, as long as it contains more than two words (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 104).

To conclude, the terminology related to operations undertaken by readers proves to be extremely complex. They are denominated as reading skills (Hughes 2003: 138) while they also correspond to the concept of reading constructs in the context of testing (Alderson 2005: 1). At the same time, a construct has been described as corresponding to the ability that is tested if it is defined in relation to a specific testing situation (Bachmann

& Palmer 1996: 66-67). In addition, operations of reading have been equated with types of reading (Urquhart & Weir 1998: 100), some of which can be considered as reading strategies as well (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 227).

Task formats

In addition to constructs, task formats are essential to the content of tests. The main objective of assessment tasks is to provide information which forms the basis for inferences about the learners' reading abilities. Thus, employing a variety of reading tasks allows gathering information about different components of reading skills and reading comprehension in general (Grabe 2009: 358). Practices for testing reading are called test tasks, test items (Brown 2004: 74), test techniques (Hughes 2003: 75; Alderson 2000: 202), test methods or test formats (Alderson 2000: 202). Thus, these terms will be used synonymously. The test tasks that can be used to assess reading in a standardised setting are determined and confined by factors such as validity, reliability, usability, time and costs (Grabe 2009: 357).

The test formats which are employed in the reading part of the written Matura¹ consist of multiple choice, multiple matching, true/false with justification and short answers. In the following paragraphs, these four test techniques will be examined in greater detail first. Others, such as questions, sequencing and gap filling will then be discussed briefly since their occurrence in the coursebooks can be expected.

Multiple choice tasks are often used in order to test learners' text comprehension (Alderson 2005: 211). The test takers are presented with a stimulus in the form of a question or (incomplete) statement (Burgess & Head 2005: 27), which is called the stem, and a set of possible answers, the options or alternatives. Students have to identify the correct response, which is called the key, without being lured by the other options, which function as distractors. Thus, since the test takers select the right answer from a set of alternative responses, this test format belongs to the selective response techniques (Brown 2004: 56). Although the items usually refer to different parts of the text, some might also require the students to understand the text as a whole (Burgess & Head 2005: 27).

¹ Detailed information on the Matura will be given in section 4.1.1.

While multiple choice items require little effort for scoring, high expenditure of time for preparation is necessary. Since the correct responses are determined beforehand, the scoring procedure is easy and time-saving (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 67). Moreover, the possibility of using computers in the marking process can reduce scorer errors (Harmer 2001: 323). However, designing multiple choice items is considered extremely difficult and time-consuming, in particular with regards to the incorrect answers. These are called distractors and are considered as efficient if they are selected by many test takers, especially by those with a lower ability. They have the potential of “putting ideas into students’ heads that they did not have before they read them” (Harmer 2001: 323) and can, therefore, be regarded as tricking them. Thus, the readers’ understanding of the text might not be reflected correctly. Moreover, it is unclear whether the ability to answer multiple choice items corresponds to the reading ability or other skills (Nuttall 1996: 223; Alderson 2000: 211). Test takers might develop strategies to identify the correct response, such as excluding distractors or analysing how the question is constructed. Therefore, preparation for this test type often tends to focus on training students to become test-wise (Alderson 2005: 211). However, while the learners’ multiple choice abilities can be practised, their reading ability might not be improved at the same time (Harmer 2001: 323). In addition, the fact that the test takers might solve the items by making use of strategies such as guessing or activating background knowledge relates to validity. According to Hughes (2003: 27) “a test is said to be valid if it measures accurately what it is intended to measure”, which is why reading tests have to measure reading ability. However, since learners might identify the correct option without demonstrating the reading ability which is tested (Alderson 2000: 212), validity might not be given. To conclude, since a multiple choice format involves time-consuming preparation, its advantages when it comes to scoring are not always worth it. However, in the case of large-scale standardised tests this testing format is viable and practical (Brown & Abeywickrama: 67).

An alternative to multiple choice techniques is represented by multiple matching. While criticism of it resembles that of the multiple choice format, the test items require the students to use different comprehension skills and their design is sometimes easier (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 238). This task type requires the test takers to match two sets of options. Common examples include assigning headings to paragraphs or book titles to the corresponding books (Alderson 2005: 215). It is crucial that the choices of the

second set outnumber those of the first one in order to avoid that in the end only one possible alternative remains. All the options that are not correct for a certain stimulus represent distractors for it. Hence, designing multiple matching formats is complex, since the possible answers should ideally be selected in a way in which none can be chosen unintentionally (Alderson 2005: 218). However, as with the multiple choice technique, test takers might be attracted by alternatives they might not have thought of (Alderson 2005: 219). In addition, identifying the matching parts might have more in common with a puzzle-solving activity or a guessing game than with a test of reading comprehension. However, the benefits of this format are that it involves the students in employing different comprehension skills. They are encouraged to refer to their knowledge of discourse signals and discourse structuring in order to identify the matching items (Grabe 2009: 360).

The third task type which will be discussed in detail is the short answer format. While the benefits of this technique include face validity and the possibility of demonstrating whether students understand a text or not, it is neither easy to construct nor to score. Usually, test takers are presented with questions about the text, which have to be answered with a short response, corresponding to the length of a word or phrase or one or two sentences (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 57). Due to the fact that there are no answer options from which to select, guessing or eliminating improbable answers is not possible. Moreover, the students' wordings can be interpreted. In doing so, it might be possible to determine whether they understood the text or not (Alderson 2005: 227). This test format is also characterised by face validity in that it allows the students to formulate their own responses (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 247). However, the questions tend to be difficult to design since all possible interpretations of them and possible answers that might be given by the test takers have to be anticipated. Thus, it is important that the formulations do not present any ambiguities since they might result in a large number of responses that have to be judged as evidence of the readers' understanding or not (Alderson 2005: 227). However, since it is possible to communicate the same thing in a variety of ways, certain answers might not be anticipated by the item designers. Therefore, in order to predict many possibilities and to avoid ambiguities, it might be helpful to include some kind of pre-testing stage. Teachers and other students can, for example, be asked to complete the test items (Alderson 2005: 227). In addition, an answer

key is needed for the scoring procedure which includes all responses that are accepted (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 247).

Lastly, a description of the true/false format with justifications follows due to its relevance for this paper. It can be classified as a technique that features dichotomous items. While its construction is easy, there is the risk of guessing. After reading a text, the students have to agree or disagree with statements about it or have to mark them as true or false. The fact that only two possible answers are available has two implications. First of all, formulating the statements is not that difficult or time-consuming. Secondly, the students' chance to get the answers right by guessing is 50 %. In order to hinder guessing, different modifications are possible. The number of items can, for example, be increased. Moreover, a third category stating that something is not given in the text can be added. However, this might make the items more difficult in the case of testing inferring skills (Alderson 2005: 222; Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 51).

In addition to the accounts of these four formats, brief ones about questioning, ordering tasks and gap filling will be given.

Although questions might be included in all of the abovementioned formats, they can also be used on their own. According to Nuttall (1996: 223), the drawback of the aforementioned task formats lies in the fact that they are not or almost not related to the texts or to the way in which texts are read in normal life. The purpose for reading is to be able to answer the test questions. Thus, reading is undertaken in a different way, which is why tests do not tend to reflect understanding in real world contexts. In order to approximate the testing of reading comprehension to real-life comprehension, Nuttall (1996: 224) suggests imagining how readers would approach a text in a real-life situation and which questions they might ask themselves. Thus, the difference between this approach and other test methods "is that there is an attempt to match *test task* to *text type* in an attempt to measure 'normal' comprehension." (Nuttall 1996: 224).

In ordering tasks, learners are presented a set of words, sentences or paragraphs, which they have to put into the correct order (Alderson 2005: 219). While this type of task allows assessing the students' overall global understanding of a text (Brown and Abeywickrama 2010: 249), it is also characterised by disadvantages. First of all, it is difficult to design tasks in which only one correct order is possible. Secondly, if a learner makes a mistake

at the beginning, but orders the other options in the correct way the question arises if and how this will be considered in the assessment (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 53).

Lastly, in gap-filling tasks learners are supposed to fill in a word or phrase into gaps in a text. The gaps have been chosen in a deliberate way in order to test specific aspects of comprehension (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 54). In case words which are relevant to the main ideas are missing, for example, overall understanding can be tested (Alderson 2005: 210). One disadvantage of this format lies in the fact that learners also have to write, which is why validity can be described as low (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 241). Another difficulty is to design tasks in which ideally only one answer for each gap is correct, which tends to be impossible (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 54). Therefore, procedures of pre-testing are inevitable. The two drawbacks which have been mentioned might be avoided if options for the missing words or phrases are provided (Alderson 2005: 210).

2.6.5. Assessment criteria and scoring

The goal of the following section is to discuss aspects related to assessing and scoring test takers' performances. First of all, in terms of the function of assessment, the two types of formative and summative assessment can be distinguished. Formative assessment consists in the evaluation of the learners' development of certain skills and competencies. Its main goal lies in measuring the ongoing process of language learning. Therefore, the feedback it offers plays a crucial role for both teachers and learners. On the one hand, the former might use it to adjust future teaching plans (Hughes 2003: 5; Bachmann & Palmer 1996: 98) and on the other hand, students might be encouraged to improve their language skills (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 7). Moreover, procedures of self-assessment might also result in making learners aware of their progress and learning objectives (Hughes 2003: 5). Summative assessment, in contrast, aims at measuring what learners have acquired during a period of time, which is why it is conducted for instance at the end of a course, semester or year (Hughes 2003: 5; Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 7). Thus, proficiency tests and final exams in courses can be mentioned as examples (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 7). The evaluation of performances of this type typically involves scores and grades (Bachmann & Palmer 1996: 98). Unlike formative assessment, summative assessment is not necessarily future-oriented (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 7).

As far as assessment criteria are concerned, an essential distinction can be made between norm-referenced and criterion-referenced testing. The first one is characterised by defining the performances of the test takers in relation to those of others (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 156; Hughes 2003: 20) or statistical values such as the average or middle score (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 8). Since the test takers are ranked according to their scores and a certain percentage of them is selected to have passed the test (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 156), their scores cannot be interpreted independently. Therefore, this type of testing does not allow inferring the test takers' abilities from their performances (Hughes 2003: 20).

In contrast, making these inferences is possible in the case of criterion-referenced tests. They can be described as tests which aim at determining if the test takers are able to successfully perform certain tasks (Hughes 2003: 21). Specific criteria or standards are formulated beforehand and those test takers who attain these pass the test (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 157). Therefore, according to Hughes (2003: 21), the positive characteristics of this test type are that they set consistent standards about what test takers are able to do and, in doing so, motivate them to meet these standards. Moreover, criterion-referenced testing offers the possibility of receiving feedback, mostly in terms of grades (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 8). This factor is related to a positive backwash effect, defined as the beneficial "effect of testing on teaching and learning" (Hughes 2003: 1), which represents one of the reasons for which Hughes (2003: 22) states his preference for criterion-referenced tests.

Based on criterion levels of ability and constructs, rating scales can be defined. They can be formulated in relation to the content of a specific syllabus or a certain theoretical model of language ability. However, in both cases they aim at including aspects of language ability without focusing on specific testing contexts (Bachmann & Palmer 1996: 212). While one end of the scale represents the lowest level with a lack of proficiency, the other one constitutes the highest stage with complete mastery (Bachmann & Palmer 1996: 212). Usually, three to nine stages tend to be found between them (McNamara 2000: 41) and the different levels provide clear and comprehensive accounts of proficiency (Alderson 2005: 132). Thus, these accounts which are denominated as descriptors, "are the statements which define the levels of performance at every point or nearly every point on a rating scale (Alderson, Clapham & Wall: 287-288).

Although MacMillan (2016: 116) describes reading assessments as imperfect, she states that their use is crucial in order to make inferences about the learners' development and to decide in how far they are prepared for certain possibilities in terms of education or profession. Having outlined the general characteristics of rating scales, a distinction between holistic and analytic ones can be made. Analytic scales are based on the idea that different aspects of the test takers' performance are assessed separately by means of descriptors for each category (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 108). Possible categories for a speaking performance might include fluency, lexicon, grammar, pronunciation, etc. (McNamara 2000: 43-44). Although different aspects are rated independently from each other, the goal is usually to arrive at an overall assessment of the performance and, thus, an overall score (McNamara 2000: 44). Hughes (2003: 102) lists three advantages of this type of rating scale. First of all, it prevents the uneven development of subskills as far as learners are concerned. Secondly, in working with analytic scales parts of the performance might be included which might otherwise be considered as unimportant. In addition, reliability is increased due to the fact that different parts are assessed independently from each other (Hughes 2003: 102). This last benefit represents a disadvantage at the same time since more time is required. Moreover, the focus on various aspects of the performance might distract from the overall performance (Hughes 2003: 103).

The aim of the second type of rating scales, holistic scales, lies in judging the test takers' overall performance (McNamara 2000: 43; Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 107). Since it is concerned with receiving a more general impression about the performance, it can also be referred to as an impression scale (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 108) or global scale (Bachmann & Palmer 1996: 208). The main advantage of this method lies in its rapidity (Hughes 2003: 95).

A document which contains both types of scales and is particularly relevant for language teaching and learning is the Common European Framework (CEFR 2011), published by the Council of Europe. This framework constitutes the basis for many language curricula, syllabuses, coursebooks and exams all over Europe. It illustrates the skills and knowledge that learners have to acquire in order to be able to communicate effectively in a language. The cultural context in which languages are used is also included. Moreover, the CEFR focuses on competences, which are required by the learners in order to perform certain tasks and activities. These can be divided into general competences and communicative

language competences on the first level (Council of Europe 2011: 101). General competences include declarative knowledge (knowledge of the world, sociocultural knowledge and intercultural awareness), skills and know-how (practical skills and know-how, intercultural skills and know-how), existential competence and the ability to learn (language and communication awareness, general phonetic awareness and skills), study skills and heuristic skills (Council of Europe 2011: 101-108). The communicative language competences, which are mentioned in the CEFR, comprise linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences. Linguistic competences which can be regarded as important in the context of reading skills consist of grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic and orthoepic competences (Council of Europe 2011: 108-117). While sociolinguistic competences comprise linguistic markers of social relations, politeness conventions, expressions of folk wisdom, register differences and dialect and accent (Council of Europe 2011: 119-121), pragmatic competences can be divided into discourse competence and functional competence (Council of Europe 2011: 121-125).

Furthermore, the CEFR specifies levels of proficiency which permit the measurement of students' progress at certain stages and of the learning process as a life-long task (Council of Europe 2011: 1). These common reference levels of language proficiency take the form of descriptive categories (Council of Europe 2011: 16) which are presented in different scales. Although the CEFR contains scales for all skills and on all levels, those for reading on the level of B2 will be presented in the following paragraphs due to their relevance to this thesis.

Apart from the learners' overall reading comprehension at the level B2, more specific B2 descriptors for different types of reading are available. They include reading correspondence, reading for orientation, reading for information and argument as well as reading instructions, as can be seen in the table below. Although the CEFR also lists reading for pleasure as an example of reading activities (Council of Europe 2011: 68), no descriptor of this type can be found. However, Alderson (2005: 133) states that scales for this category could be found in earlier versions of the CEFR along with others for "reading and processing", which were dropped.

Overall reading comprehension
“Can read with a large degree of independence, adapting style and speed of reading to different texts and purposes, and using appropriate reference sources selectively. Has a broad active reading vocabulary, but may experience some difficulty with low frequency idioms.” (Council of Europe 2011: 69).
Reading correspondence
“Can read correspondence relating to his/her field of interest and readily grasp the essential meaning.” (Council of Europe 2011: 69).
Reading for orientation
“Can scan quickly through long and complex texts, locating relevant details. Can quickly identify the content and relevance of news items, articles and reports on a wide range of professional topics, deciding whether closer study is worthwhile.” (Council of Europe 2011: 70).
Reading for information and argument
“Can obtain information, ideas and opinions from highly specialised sources within his/her field. Can understand specialised articles outside his/her field, provided he/she can use a dictionary occasionally to confirm his/her interpretation of terminology.” (Council of Europe 2011: 70).
“Can understand articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular stances or viewpoints.” (Council of Europe 2011: 70).
Reading instructions
“Can understand lengthy, complex instructions in his/her field, including details on conditions and warnings, provided he/she can reread difficult sections.” (Council of Europe 2011: 71).
Reading literary prose
“[...] [C]an understand contemporary literary prose.” (Council of Europe 2011: 27).

Table 1: CEFR-descriptors B2

Bachmann and Palmer (1996: 209) identify three types of problems associated with scoring on the basis of global scales. First of all, challenges related to making inferences are mentioned since global scales reflect many different areas of language knowledge. Therefore, it is difficult to know what can be inferred from the students’ performance if it is assigned to a certain stage. An examination of the descriptor for overall reading comprehension on the level of B2, the first one in the table above, indicates its broad formulation. The phrase “adapting style and speed of reading to different texts and purposes” (Council of Europe 2011: 69), for example, allows for much space for

interpretation. Secondly, classifying performances as corresponding to certain levels might pose a problem in cases in which not all criteria of a descriptor are met. According to Bachmann and Palmer (1996: 210), this can often be observed, and raters have to decide which aspect is prioritised. One of the B2 descriptors for reading for argument and information, namely “Can understand articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular stances or viewpoints.” (Council of Europe 2011: 70), illustrates this problem. Contexts in which learners understand articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems, but lacking a clear stance of the author might challenge raters. The last problem lies in the possibility of weighting the components of which descriptors are composed in various ways. Different raters or the same ones at different times might prioritise certain aspects over others, doing so either consciously or unconsciously (Bachmann & Palmer 1996: 210). Referring once more to the B2 descriptor for overall reading comprehension, some raters might focus more on the vocabulary component (“Has a broad active reading vocabulary” (Council of Europe 2011: 69)), while others might consider aspects of independence and adaptation as more important (“Can read with a large degree of independence, adapting style and speed of reading to different texts and purposes [...]” (Council of Europe 2011: 69)). In conclusion, these problems demonstrate that, although global scales aim at providing one single score, it has to be taken into consideration that they consist of different components.

The last two aspects that will be discussed in relation to scoring are weighting and setting pass marks. The first one is necessary if test constructors consider certain parts of the test as more important than others. On the one hand, certain items can carry more weight than others while, on the other hand, various components might be weighted differently. Thus, weighting is defined as “[g]iving extra value” and the reasons for it are diverse (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 149). As far as item weighting is concerned, some items might be weighted due to the fact that they are perceived as more difficult, time-consuming or central to the concept of proficiency or curriculum (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 149). Similarly, specific components might be allocated extra value since they might be more important in terms of the test purpose or curriculum. Lastly, extra weighting might also indicate that test takers might need more time with certain parts (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 150). Equal weighting, in contrast, consists in valuing all items and all components equally, which is why it represents the easiest method. However, assigning equal weight to individual parts which are different in length might result in unequal

weighting (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 149). Thus, it seems recommendable to specify weighting in the test design stage by means of including more or fewer items in the individual components (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 150).

In addition, test constructors have to decide which performances are considered as adequate and which not. Pass marks can either be determined for each task or for the whole test. Moreover, the way in which they are specified is related to the distinction between norm-referencing and criterion-referencing (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 155). Pass marks of tests of the first type tend to be set by ranking the test takers according to their results and selecting a certain number of them to have passed (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 156). In the case of criterion-referencing, criteria or standards are formulated beforehand and those test takers who meet them are regarded to have passed (Alderson, Clapham & Wall 1995: 157).

To conclude the theoretical part of this thesis, the major points will be summarised briefly. First of all, the relevance of reading ability was addressed and the question of what reading is was answered by examining what fluent readers do. Moreover, different models of reading were introduced before reading strategies and reading skills were described and differentiated. Subsequently, the focus was placed on teaching reading in the foreign language classroom. In doing so, the three phase approach and its advantages were outlined. Lastly, a detailed account of testing and assessing L2 reading was given, which covered test specifications, test types, test takers, test content and assessment criteria and scoring. All of these theoretical concepts form the basis on which the analysis is conducted. Thus, especially the importance of reading strategies and the three phase approach will be reflected in the study. Moreover, the test specifications of the reading part of the written English Matura will be compiled by characterising the test situation, the test content and the test takers.

3. Coursebook analysis

3.1. Approach of coursebook analysis and evaluation

Coursebook analysis and evaluation represent a branch of materials analysis and evaluation. As far as materials are concerned, McGrath (2002: 7) focuses on those which have been created for language teaching and learning, such as coursebooks or worksheets as well as on authentic ones which have been chosen for teaching and learning by the

teacher, such as recordings or newspaper articles. Moreover, he includes materials designed by teachers and learners.

Having presented relevant types of materials, the difference between materials analysis and materials evaluation will be addressed. While the aim of the first is to gather information in order to obtain a description, the latter always comprises judgement (McGrath 2002: 22; Cunningsworth 1995: 9) and “attempts to measure the value of materials” (Tomlinson 1998: 3). Thus, analysis can be described as aiming for neutrality or objectivity while evaluation is characterised by a certain degree of subjectivity on part of the evaluator (McGrath 2002: 22; Cunningsworth 1995: 9).

As far as evaluation is concerned, different types of it can be listed. In terms of the purpose, a distinction can be made between evaluating for potential on the one hand and for suitability on the other. The objective of the first one is to arrive at a general evaluation without thinking about aspects of a specific learning situation, such as the learners. In contrast, evaluation for suitability aims at relating materials to certain requirements, such as the learners’ background or objectives (Cunningsworth 1995: 15). Apart from that, three types of evaluation according to when and for which purpose it is undertaken can be mentioned. Pre-use evaluation represents the process of evaluating materials in advance and aims at ascertaining their potential performance. In the case of in-use evaluation, materials are evaluated while they are used, which allows ascertaining if they should be adapted or replaced. Lastly, post-use evaluation is performed in retrospect. It offers the possibility of discovering the materials’ pros and cons which might result in a decision concerning their usage in the future (Cunningsworth 1995: 14).

Having outlined the difference between analysis and evaluation as well as the ways and purposes of examining materials, the focus will be placed on textbooks due to their relevance for this study.

Coursebook analysis and evaluation constitutes a part of materials analysis and evaluation. However, as far as teaching materials are concerned, coursebooks tend to come readily to mind. Tomlinson (1998: 2) states that the term language-learning materials is usually related to coursebooks by the majority of people due to the fact that they have mostly experienced the use of coursebooks. Similarly, McGrath (2002: 7) mentions that teaching is often expected to be based on a single textbook. Nevertheless, if teachers decide to base their teaching primarily on a coursebook, they are supposed to

make informed choices about which parts of it to teach and how to teach them (McGrath 2002: 11) as well as to ensure that the book helps in reaching the aims of the teaching programme (Cunningsworth 1995: 7). In doing so, teachers perform the task of analysing and evaluating the book (McGrath 2002: 12). The following paragraphs aim at presenting a detailed approach to coursebook analysis and evaluation.

McGrath (2002: 25) distinguishes between the impressionistic method, the checklist method and the in-depth method as the three basic methods of coursebook analysis and evaluation which can be found in the literature on this topic. However, he notes that certain approaches do not entirely correspond to this categorisation (McGrath 2002: 25). Before starting with these techniques, he suggests conducting an analysis of the context and the learners' needs in order to assess the materials in relation to their use in a specific situation (McGrath 2002: 18).

While McGrath (2002: 18) notes that the practice of including context- and learner-related factors in the selection and evaluation of coursebooks is not always considered as essential, to him this preliminary analysis "seems uncontroversial" (McGrath 2002: 18). As far as an analysis of the learners' needs is concerned, his view is consistent with that of Harmer (2001: 276) who also expresses the importance of investigating this aspect. According to him (2001: 276), "[b]efore attempting to evaluate materials [...] the teacher[s] must have come to some conclusions about the students and what their needs are" to be able to take the profile of the learners into consideration when analysing the materials.

Concerning learner-related aspects, a description of the students in general and of their needs in terms of the target language might yield valuable results. McGrath (2002: 19) compiled a list of 15 learner factors, which is based on Harmer (1991), Cunningsworth (1995) and McDonough and Shaw (1993) among others. According to this summary, the learners' age, proficiency level in the target language, first language, academic and educational level as well as their socio-cultural background should be taken into consideration when analysing or selecting materials. Moreover, gathering information about their attitudes to learning, their language learning aptitude, previous experience with language learning and preferred learning styles might be interesting. In addition, examining the learners' interests, expectations and wants might provide useful insights. Lastly, it is also possible to consider the sex distribution within the group as well as the learners' occupation and reasons for studying the target language if relevant (McGrath

2002: 19). Surprisingly, the factor motivation, which is mentioned by McDonough and Shaw (1993: 7), Cunningsworth (1995: 149) and Harmer (1991: 277) is not included by McGrath (2002: 19).

In addition to analysing these general learner factors, in specific contexts, it is often possible to determine the learners' needs with regards to the target language. In cases in which syllabi and/or public examinations are concerned, the learners' needs might be based on them (McGrath 2002: 19). In accordance with the literature, McGrath (2002: 19-20) lists the following items: the dialect, the language-skill emphasis, the contexts and situations of use, which may require different levels of formality or different registers, subskills, notions, functions, language-system emphasis, language forms, whether language systems will be used productively, receptively or both and the attention given to mechanics such as handwriting, spelling and punctuation. Although this list is partly based on Harmer (1991), McGrath did not adopt the category "level". Since it seems relevant to be aware of the level the learners have to reach, this aspect will be added (Harmer 1991: 278). Furthermore, the syllabus, past examination papers, different types of student performances and feedback from teachers can be included in the analysis of students' needs (McGrath 2002: 20).

Concerning the context in which the materials are used, McGrath (2002: 21) suggests investigating the institution, or more specifically, the programme in which the coursebook is used. In this regard, he lists twelve factors, which include the level within the educational system, whether the institution or programme is part of the public or private sector as well as the role of the target language and the time available for studying it. Moreover, information can be gathered on the timetable, the class size, the physical environment and additional resources which are available, such as computers or overhead projectors. Lastly, the aims of the programme, the syllabus, the form of evaluation, the way in which decisions are made by teachers as well as the freedom allowed to them can be examined (McGrath 2002: 21).

In addition, it might be useful to consider the use of a coursebook in a wider context. In this respect, the general aims of education and the aims of language education, which might have an influence on the teaching methods, the examination system or the content of the curriculum, can be investigated. Furthermore, language policy and the role of the target language in the country can be included since this might, for instance, relate to attitudes to learning a foreign language or the access to it (McGrath 2002: 21). Gathering

information about the context in which materials are used as well as about the learners' needs paves the way for methods of coursebook analysis and evaluation, which will be explained subsequently.

The impressionistic method, as the name suggests, aims at gaining a general impression of coursebooks. This basically corresponds to what Cunningsworth (1995: 1) denominated as the impressionistic overview and Littlejohn (1998: 196) as the analysis on level 1. While according to McGrath (2002: 25), it consists of examining the blurb, the contents page and the book in terms of the topics, organisation, layout and visuals, Littlejohn (1998: 196) includes for instance information about the date of publication, the intended audience and the type of materials. In addition, both suggest analysing certain representative features, such as the design of a unit (McGrath 2002: 26; Littlejohn 1998: 196). Thus, this stage of analysis allows gathering information about the strengths and weaknesses as well as possibilities of the materials (Cunningsworth 1995: 1). Therefore, it is highly applicable when decisions have to be made concerning new coursebooks since it might help to reduce the list of possible ones and to select some for further analysis. However, this type of method permits only a general examination, which is why it should ideally be complemented by another one (Cunningsworth 1995: 1; McGrath 2002: 1-2).

An approach that can be used for this purpose is the checklist method. According to McGrath (2002: 26), it establishes a contrast between the system and therefore apparent objectivity on the one hand, and impression and therefore subjectivity on the other hand. As a first step, a feasible list of criteria is compiled in accordance with certain needs and priorities in a specific context (Cunningsworth 1995: 2). Subsequently, the items are ticked if they can be found in the books. In comparison to the impressionistic method and the in-depth method, this approach is characterised by various advantages. First of all, it is systematic in that everything that has been included in the checklist beforehand is considered (McGrath 2002: 26). Secondly, due to the fact that a great amount of information can be integrated into it in little time, it is cost effective. Thirdly, the format of the checklist permits to compare different materials in a simple way. Lastly, another distinguishing feature is its explicitness and function as a common framework for making decisions in case the criteria are clearly defined and understood (McGrath 2002: 27). Besides these benefits, limitations can also be identified. Although systematicity has been defined as an advantage, it might represent a disadvantage at the same time if the items on the checklist are not all relevant to the specific context. Thus, already existing

checklists always have to be adapted to the context in which they are used (McGrath 2002: 27).

The third basic technique consists of the in-depth method. As the name suggests, it allows conducting a more detailed and thorough analysis. According to Cunningsworth (1995: 2), it is “more penetrating in its approach and has its own agenda”. McGrath (2002: 27) describes it as “go[ing] beneath the publisher’s and author’s claims to look at, for instance, the kind of language description, underlying assumptions about learning or values on which the materials are based”. In doing so, it permits to determine whether the coursebooks correspond to the claims which have been formulated for them (McGrath 2002: 28). In comparison to the impressionistic method, which is rather receptive in that noticeable features are considered, the in-depth method aims at analysing materials according to an agenda, which is why it is more active. Thus, it can be used to investigate specific aspects of coursebooks, especially those which concern the language, the learners’ needs and the requirements of the syllabus (Cunningsworth 1995: 2). Moreover, teaching techniques, topics, the approach to learning and the organisation of the content have been suggested for the analysis. Since the selection of the items which are investigated is always based on specific contexts, learners and priorities, many possibilities exist. Another option consists of choosing one or two representative units for detailed examination. In doing so, the focus can, for instance, be placed on the way in which the different skills and activities are balanced in a unit, the extent to which students participate in exercises, the amount of language which is introduced or recycled, etc. (Cunningsworth 1995: 2). While the benefit of techniques like these lies in the fact that the approach is more deliberate, also some drawbacks are involved. First of all, the samples which are chosen for the analysis might not be representative of the whole coursebook. Secondly, since the investigation is conducted with a special focus in mind, it offers only partial glimpses into the materials. A further disadvantage to be mentioned relates to the fact that some in-depth analyses are time-consuming while others have to be conducted by experts (McGrath 2002: 28).

3.2. Design of the analysis

The five coursebooks which are analysed, namely *English in Context 7/8: Student’s Book: Language and Skills Proficiency*, *Make Your Way 7: Coursebook*, *Make Your Way 8: Coursebook*, *Prime Time 7: Coursebook* and *Prime Time 8: Coursebook*, were declared as

suitable for the usage in the seventh and eighth grade of Austrian AHS by the Federal Ministry of Education in accordance with the curriculum (BMBWF: Schulbuchaktion). Based on McGrath's (2002) approach, the study consists of the four steps of a context and needs analysis, an impressionistic method, a checklist method and an in-depth analysis. Before these different stages will be explained, it shall be noted that this schoolbook analysis and evaluation is conducted from the point of view of the researcher. Although in section 3.1. a framework for teachers as agents in a school context was offered, the focus of the following analysis lies on examining the compatibility of the coursebooks with the context of the Matura.

The first step consisted of an analysis of the context in which the coursebooks are used in Austrian classrooms of the school type of AHS and an analysis of the learners' needs. Thus, the requirements of the curriculum were regarded. Moreover, due to the importance of relating students' needs to examinations, the test specifications of the written English Matura, and more specifically the reading part, were taken into consideration.

The aim of the impressionistic method was to provide general information about the books. First of all, their full names and authors were given. In accordance with McGrath's (2002: 25-26) and Littlejohn's (1998: 196) proposals, information about the publication date and the publisher, the intended audience and the type of materials was gathered. Moreover, the blurb, the table of contents and the structure of the books in terms of their organisation, layout, topics and visuals was investigated. Thus, this method also included an examination of the design of the units. Lastly, other interesting or prominent features of the materials were recorded.

The third step comprised a checklist method. Based on the theory about teaching and testing reading and the specifications of the reading part of the written Matura and, consequently, in accordance with the students' context and needs, a list of criteria was developed in order to analyse the reading activities. It is composed of ten items from which different subitems can be ticked. While a blank form of the checklist can be found in the appendix, its components will be explained in the following paragraphs.

The first criterion aims at identifying the topics of the texts which are used for reading activities. Thus, the different topics which are given in the Matura specifications, the CEFR and the AHS curriculum for the 7th and 8th grade are listed (CEFR 2011: 52; BMBWF 2004: 4; University of Innsbruck 2011: 2). Some of them might overlap as the example of the

subitems “free time and entertainment” on the one hand and “travelling and places” or “music” on the other hand show since texts might deal with the topics travelling or music as hobbies. It might also be possible to assign some of the topics of the reading exercises to more than one entry. A text about youth unemployment can for instance be related to the topics “youth”, “professional life” and “economy”. At the same time, certain topics might not be featured in the list. In both cases, a comment can be added to further specify the topic and in the latter scenario, the cell “other” can be used to add another topic. The table listing all the topics is presented below.

The activity ...

deals with (a) relevant topic(s) in terms of the Matura, the CEFR and the curriculum of AHS Oberstufe	Tick	Comments
social life		
free time (hobbies, sports, ...)		
professional life		
education		
languages		
media		
music		
literature		
travelling and places		
environment		
animals		
science and technology		
art		
fashion		
youth		
culture		
traditions and customs		
migration and multicultural society		
food		
health and body care		
services (museums, libraries, hospitals)		
global problems		
economy		
politics		
history		
attitudes and values		
human rights		
crime		
ways of living (together)		
diversity		
other		

Table 2: Checklist – Topics

The second item on the list presents various descriptors from the CEFR which were considered as relevant for reading skills. Although the books to be analysed aim at reaching the language levels of B2 or even B2+, it was decided to also include B1 descriptors since some activities might correspond to this language level. As can be seen in the following table, apart from a descriptor on overall reading comprehension, descriptors for various text types and different aims for reading were selected. In addition, descriptors concerning reading strategies and inferring were added due to their importance in terms of general reading ability.

Before the table is presented, reference shall be made to the formulation “The activity corresponds to (a) relevant CEFR descriptor(s)”. Usually these can-do descriptors are used by teachers in order to evaluate students’ competence or by students in the form of self-assessment. However, in this study, the descriptors are applied directly to reading activities.

The activity ...

corresponds to (a) relevant CEFR descriptor(s)	Tick	Comments
<u>Overall reading comprehension</u>		
B2: Can read with a large degree of independence, adapting style and speed of reading to different texts and purposes, and using appropriate reference sources selectively. Has a broad active reading vocabulary, but may experience some difficulty with low frequency idioms.		
B1: Can read straightforward factual texts on subjects related to his/her field and interest with a satisfactory level of comprehension.		
<u>Reading correspondence</u>		
B2: Can read correspondence relating to his/her field of interest and readily grasp the essential meaning.		
B1: Can understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters well enough to correspond regularly with a pen friend.		
<u>Reading literary prose and everyday or job-related texts</u>		
B2: Can understand contemporary literary prose.		
B1: Can understand texts that consist mainly of high frequency everyday or job- related language.		
<u>Reading for orientation</u>		
B2: Can scan quickly through long and complex texts, locating relevant details. Can quickly identify the content and relevance of news items, articles and reports on a wide range of professional topics, deciding whether closer study is worthwhile.		

B1: Can scan longer texts in order to locate desired information, and gather information from different parts of a text, or from different texts in order to fulfil a specific task.		
B1: Can find and understand relevant information in everyday material, such as letters, brochures and short official documents.		
<u>Reading for information and argument</u>		
B2: Can obtain information, ideas and opinions from highly specialised sources within his/her field. Can understand specialised articles outside his/her field, provided he/she can use a dictionary occasionally to confirm his/her interpretation of terminology.		
B2: Can understand articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular stances or viewpoints.		
B1: Can identify the main conclusions in clearly signalled argumentative texts. Can recognise the line of argument in the treatment of the issue presented, though not necessarily in detail.		
B1: Can recognise significant points in straightforward newspaper articles on familiar subjects.		
<u>Reading instructions</u>		
B2: Can understand lengthy, complex instructions in his field, including details on conditions and warnings, provided he/she can reread difficult sections.		
B1: Can understand clearly written, straightforward instructions for a piece of equipment.		
<u>Identifying cues and inferring</u>		
B2: Can use a variety of strategies to achieve comprehension; checking comprehension by using contextual clues.		
B1: Can identify unfamiliar words from the context on topics related to his/her field and interests. Can extrapolate the meaning of occasional unknown words from the context and deduce sentence meaning provided the topic discussed is familiar.		

Table 3: Checklist – CEFR-descriptors

As can be seen in the subsequent table, the next two criteria are concerned with stages and strategies of the reading process. The third criterion aims at ascertaining if the focus of the pre-, while- and post-reading stage is placed on listening, speaking, writing, grammar or lexicon and, thereby, also analyses if the reading activities promote the integration of the three other skills. The purpose of the fourth criteria is to determine which strategies are triggered in the respective stages.

The activity ...

contains a pre-, while- and/or post-reading stage ...						
pre-reading	Tick	while-reading	Tick	post-reading	Tick	Comments
listening		listening		listening		
speaking		speaking		speaking		
writing		writing		writing		
grammar		grammar		grammar		
lexicon		lexicon		lexicon		
... which triggers					Tick	Comments
<u>pre-reading strategies</u>						
the activation of background knowledge about the topic of the text						
predicting and hypothesising about the content of the text						
<u>while-reading strategies</u>						
self-questioning						
paraphrasing						
<u>post-reading strategies</u>						
the reader's personal response to the text						
the reader's evaluation of the text						

Table 4: Checklist – Pre-, while-, post-reading stages and strategies; integration

The next items allow identifying the length of the texts in the coursebooks as well as different types of texts which are employed in the reading part of the Matura, as shown in the two tables below.

The activity ...

encourages students to work with texts of different lengths	Tick	Comment
up to half a page		
more than half a page to a page		
more than a page to two pages		
more than two pages		

Table 5: Checklist – Length of reading texts

The activity ...

corresponds to the formal text types of the Matura	Tick	Comments
general interest		
literary text		
<u>non-literary text</u>		
correspondence		
news items		
instructions		
guidebooks		
other		

Table 6: Checklist – Text types

The abovementioned text types have been adopted from the test specifications of the reading part of the written English Matura, which were formulated by a team of experts from the University of Innsbruck (2011: 2) in the course of a project concerning the standardised Matura for foreign languages.

Furthermore, the format to which a reading activity corresponds is determined by means of the checklist. As displayed in the following table, the four activity formats which are applied as test formats in the reading part of the written Matura are presented in green.

The activity ...

corresponds to a certain activity format	Tick	Comments
multiple choice		
multiple matching (including gapped variety)		
true or false with justification		
short answers (1-4 words)		
questions		
sequencing		
gap filling		
other		

Table 7: Checklist – Activity formats

Another criterion allows assigning the constructs of reading which are practised in the activities to those relevant to the Matura. The constructs in the checklist were adapted from those that were identified by the University of Innsbruck (2011: 1) and are displayed in the next table. The difference between scanning and search reading shall be clarified again at this point (see also section 2.6.4.). In case the learners are supposed to locate certain words, phrases, dates, numbers etc. in a text, the activity is seen as corresponding to scanning. In contrast, if readers have to find information on specific topics in order to answer questions or do exercises, they are considered as engaging in search reading.

The activity ...

corresponds to (a) construct(s) of reading relevant for the Matura	Tick	Comments
reading for gist (skimming)		
reading for important details (scanning)		
search reading		
<u><i>careful reading:</i></u>		
reading for main ideas and supporting details		
reading to deduce the meaning of a word or phrase		

Table 8: Checklist – Constructs

The objective of the next item on the checklist lies in comparing the reading activities from the coursebooks to those of the Matura reading tasks. In doing so, the test formats, the instructions, the presence of an example and the length of texts are investigated. As already mentioned, the test formats include multiple choice, multiple matching, true or false with justification and short answers. The instructions tend to mention the topic of the text, the fact that the first example has already been done as well as how and where the students have to perform the activity. Lastly, the length of texts from the reading part of the Matura approximately corresponds to three quarters of a page to one page and a quarter. In the appendix, one reading example from each test type can be found.

The activity ...

resembles the Matura tasks	Tick	Comments
the activity features one of the test formats		
the instructions correspond to those of the Matura tasks		
one example has been done for the students		
the length of the text corresponds to that of the Matura tasks		

Table 9: Checklist – Resemblance to Matura tasks

Having presented the ten criteria, reference shall be made to the comment section of the checklist due to its importance for the next stage of the analysis. Although the in-depth method is presented as the fourth and last step, in fact, the fundamental part of it was conducted simultaneously with the checklist method. The comment sections were used extensively in order to record relevant information about the reading activities. Thus, these comments constituted the basis for a more detailed and thorough analysis.

4. Findings

In the following section, the findings of all levels of the analysis will be presented, starting with the results of the context and needs analysis, which is followed by the findings of the impressionistic method. Subsequently, the results of the checklist and the in-depth method will be provided.

4.1. Context and needs analysis

Materials always have to be considered in a certain situation (Cunningsworth 1995: 5). Therefore, the first step of the analysis consisted of examining the context of the Matura and the learners' needs in relation to it on the one hand. On the other hand, the coursebooks were investigated against the background of their use in the 7th and 8th grade of AHS and the learners' needs in terms of the curriculum.

4.1.1. Analysis of the learners' needs

In terms of the general learner factors, it must be noted that not all of those suggested by McGrath (2002: 19) could be considered. Since the schoolbook analysis and evaluation are not concerned with specific learner groups, factors such as the learners' socio-cultural background, attitudes to learning, language learning aptitude, preferred learning styles, interests, expectations, wants, motivation, reasons for studying English as well as the sex distribution within the group were not included. In contrast, characteristics which might be shared by the majority of potential Austrian learners working with the coursebooks, such as the students' age range, level of proficiency in English, first language, academic and educational level, socio-cultural background, previous experience with language learning and occupation were examined.

First of all, the age of Austrian AHS students in the 7th and 8th grade ranges from 16 to 18 years. Secondly, according to the Austrian AHS curriculum, after these grades the students should have reached the proficiency level of B2 in all four competences (speaking/spoken interaction, listening, reading and writing) as specified by the CEFR (BMBWF 2004: 6). Moreover, they should be able to behave culturally and linguistically adequate in a variety of private, professional and public situations (BMBWF 2004: 1) as well as be familiar with different topics, text types (BMBWF 2004: 4), teaching methods and learning strategies (BMBWF 2004: 2).

Thirdly, the analysis attempted to take the students' first language into consideration. Surprisingly, the test specifications formulated by the University of Innsbruck (2011: 1) state that German is the L1 of the majority of the test takers. However, since it is a difficult task to ascertain the mother tongue of the students, the language used by them in everyday life was included as a factor. According to Statistics Austria (2016), in the school year 2015/16 the everyday language of approximately 19 % of students of this school

type was different from German. Although no data was collected on the particular languages, it can be assumed that these 19 % of students are bilingual and habitually speak a variety of languages besides German while the majority (approximately 81 %) uses German as their everyday language.

Fourthly, since students in the 7th and 8th grade of AHS find themselves in their 11th and 12th year of formal schooling, their academic and educational level can be deduced by referring to the curriculum in which various principles and goals are formulated. In general, the objective of Higher Schools of General Education lies in providing the students with an extended general education and to pave the way for higher education (RIS 2004). This school type aims at contributing to the formation of learners in terms of the acquisition of knowledge, competences and values. Thereby, students should be encouraged to think independently and reflect critically as well as to lead a socially-oriented and positive lifestyle (RIS 2004). While those contents of the curriculum specified for the different subjects cannot be considered at this point, more general principles shall be included. The following areas of education are listed among others: health education, education for the equality of women and men, media literacy, artistic education, political education, intercultural learning, sex education, training in reading and speech, environmental education, road safety training, economic education, education for the use of new technologies and preparation for the working environment. In addition, it seems particularly relevant that the curriculum states that students should be enabled to make use of research strategies and investigate a variety of topics by consulting libraries and other types of information systems (RIS 2004). Although the principles and objectives of the curriculum are formulated in a rather general way, they can be used in order to make inferences about the educational and academic level of students of the 7th and 8th grade of AHS.

Fifthly, the students' previous experience with language learning cannot be described as something homogeneous. However, it can be noted that all learners who find themselves at the beginning of the 7th or 8th grade of AHS, have experienced six or seven years of formal English classes respectively (BMBWF 2004: 1). Some learners might even have started to study English in primary school. Moreover, the school type of AHS determines that apart from English another foreign language is learnt by the students (RIS 2004). Therefore, the learners' language learning experiences can be described as rather

abundant at this stage of their school career. Lastly, as far as the learners' occupation is concerned, they are students.

Since in the case of public examinations the learners' needs can be analysed in relation to them (McGrath 2002: 19), the reading part of the written English Matura exam constituted the basis for identifying the students' needs. Therefore, by compiling the test specifications of this specific section of the exam, its characteristics will be investigated. Before that, general information on the Austrian Matura and the written English exam will be given.

The reading part of the written English Matura has to be considered in the wider context of the Austrian school leaving examination. After various rounds of revision and centralisation this exam, which was revised and centralised, was introduced for the school type of AHS in the school year 2014/15. The general objectives of the new version of the exam consist in increasing and assuring its quality by developing standardised and competence-oriented test forms and formats. Thus, its more specific aims are to validate the competences and to provide transparency and comparability of the test requirements as well as objectivity, comparability and fairness in relation to the assessment procedures. Moreover, the new exam shall allow the formulation of reliable statements about the learners' ability and knowledge as well as the simplification and standardisation of regulations. In addition, studying in different countries shall be facilitated and school graduation shall become more comparable in Europe (SRDP). The new Matura consists of a three-part structure and includes a prescientific paper and both written and oral exams (BMBWF: Reifeprüfung).

The level of proficiency that is assessed in the written English Matura exam depends on the number of years during which the students have been exposed to formal English instruction. In this paper, it shall be assumed that English has the status of the first foreign language. In this context, students who learn English for eight years are assessed on the proficiency level of B2 in accordance with the CEFR (SRDP). Hence, in order to pass the Matura, the students have to successfully perform the competences which are formulated by the B2 descriptors in the CEFR. The skills that are tested in the written AHS exam include listening and reading comprehension, written composition and language in use. Reaching the level B2 in these four skills results in a passing grade (SRDP).

Having presented this brief account of the Matura and the written English exam, the focus will be placed on the reading part of it in the form of an account of the test specifications. Thus, this will include the purpose of the test, the test takers, the content of the test, the test formats, the constructs as well as the structure and timing and the assessment and scoring of the test.

First of all, its purpose will be examined. In accordance with the classification of tests in terms of their purpose (see section 2.6.2.), the written English Matura can be classified as a final achievement test which is based on objectives formulated in the curriculum. It constitutes a standardised exam which is administered by the Austrian Federal Ministry for Education, Science and Research (SRDP). As far as the reading part of it is concerned, its purpose lies in testing the learners' reading ability on the level of B2 in accordance with the CEFR.

The test takers will not be discussed in detail at this point since they were already characterised in the section above (see section 4.1.1.). Nevertheless, some aspects shall be added. As far as their age is concerned, most of them are 18 years old when taking the exam. The University of Innsbruck (2011: 1) specified them as 17 years and older with the majority being 18 to 20 years old. Furthermore, they claim that German is the first language of most of them. Lastly, the test takers' familiarity with the topics and task types of the test might be considered as high.

Subsequently, the content of the reading section will be discussed. First of all, the topics of the texts were selected in accordance with the curriculum, which adopted those named by the CEFR. Thus, the topic areas include among others everyday life, leisure time, the world of work and of school (University of Innsbruck 2011: 2). Since the purpose of the reading part is to test reading ability on the level of B2, the texts used in it can be assigned to that level. In terms of length, the analysis of prior or exemplary tasks from the SRDP website allows determining the texts to be approximately one page long. Lastly, the University of Innsbruck (2011: 2) specified the text types as corresponding to "[g]eneral interest, literary, non-literary e.g. correspondence, news items, instructions, guidebooks".

Besides text types, also test formats will be described. Those which are applied to test reading skills include multiple choice, multiple matching, short answers and true or false with justification (SRDP). An investigation of all the former reading test papers for the school type of AHS on the SRDP homepage showed that all four formats never appear

together, which is why one of them occurs twice. In case of multiple choice, incomplete statements are given which have to be completed by selecting the correct answer out of four possibilities. As far as the second format, multiple matching, is concerned, the Matura includes two types of it. The first one consists in matching two sets with each other, such as headings or questions with paragraphs. The second one can be called gapped variety and provides the students with a text in which certain parts have been removed. Subsequently, phrases are presented which have to be matched to the gaps. In both variants, two extra parts which cannot be used are included. The third test technique, short answers, engages the test takers in completing sentences about the text with a maximum of four words (SRDP). The last test format which is applied in the reading section of the written English Matura is true or false with justification. Apart from identifying statements as true or false, the students also have to justify their answers by finding the sentences which contain the information and writing down the first four words of them (SRDP).

Moreover, constructs have to be taken into consideration. According to the CEFR, in reading activities “[t]he language user may read [...] for gist; for specific information; for detailed understanding; [and] for implications, etc.” (Council of Europe 2011: 68). Since the constructs that are assessed in the reading part of the Matura are oriented to the CEFR, they include these amongst others. In addition, “search reading”, “reading for the main ideas and supporting details”, “reading to infer (propositional) meaning” and “reading to deduce the meaning of a word/phrase” have been identified as relevant constructs for the reading part of the Matura by the University of Innsbruck (University of Innsbruck 2011: 1).

As far as structure and timing are concerned, the reading section consists of four different tasks that have to be performed on four different texts within 60 minutes (SRDP). The tasks are formulated in English (BMBWF: Reifeprüfung) and the use of dictionaries is not allowed (SRDP).

In terms of assessment and scoring, the reading part amounts to one fourth of the total weighting alongside the writing, listening and language in use parts. Within the reading section, the four tasks are weighted equally and one test item accounts for one point. Spelling or grammar mistakes, as far as they do not hinder communication, are not considered. In addition, detailed answer keys are provided for the teachers which inform them about the correct or accepted responses with justifications as well as about the

unaccepted ones. In case the students' responses cannot be clearly assigned to one of these categories, there is the possibility of calling a hotline. A team consisting of testing experts and native English speakers is available to give advice on the specific case (SRDP). The answer keys for short answers and true or false with justification tasks are especially important and detailed. In order to receive a point for an item in the latter format, both the statement has to be marked in the right way and the sentence in which the information can be found has to be indicated (SRDP).

As a supplement to this analysis of the test specifications, an exemplary reading part of a former test paper with solutions is presented in the appendix.

4.1.2. Context analysis

As far as the analysis of the context is concerned, information about the institution and programme in which the coursebooks are used as well as about the wider context in which the institution finds itself was gathered.

From the twelve factors suggested by McGrath (2002: 21), which are related to the institution and the programme for which the coursebook is used (see section 3.1.), the following ones were selected as relevant for the present analysis: the level within the educational system, the role of the target language and the time available for the study of it. Moreover, in terms of the wider context, essential aims of language education as formulated by the curriculum and the CEFR were considered.

First of all, the coursebooks which are analysed and evaluated are approbated for the use in Austrian classrooms (BMBWF: Schulbuchaktion). All of them display the numbers seven and eight on their covers, which correspond to the levels of education for which they are supposed to be used. In addition, it is indicated, that they were declared as suitable for these levels of education in Higher Schools of General Education in accordance with the curriculum by the Federal Ministry of Education. This means that they can be employed as teaching devices for the seventh and eighth grade of Higher Schools of General Education. Schools of this type are attended by ten- to eighteen-year-olds and can be divided into four years of lower and four years of upper grade. Their main objective is to provide students with a comprehensive general education and, thereby, to create the conditions for university studies. Thus, at the end of the eighth grade, the so-called Matura takes place, which constitutes the school-leaving exam and passing it allows the students

to pursue further education at university or similar institutions. As far as the role of the target language is concerned, as opposed to being the medium for a different subject, English is a curriculum subject of its own. However, it can be assumed that it is also used as the medium for a considerable amount of time in the English lessons. In terms of the time available for the study of the target language, 7th and 8th graders of AHS are generally exposed to three teaching units per week, which consist of 50 minutes each (RIS).

In addition, reference shall be made to the context of foreign languages in the curriculum and the CEFR. Among other objectives, language awareness and independent and lifelong language learning are of great importance. While the curriculum aims at promoting action-oriented language competence, intercultural competence and the competence for lifelong and autonomous language learning (RIS), the following objectives are formulated in the CEFR (2011: 3-4):

- To equip all Europeans for the challenges of intensified international mobility and closer co-operation not only in education, culture and science but also in trade and industry.
- To promote mutual understanding and tolerance, respect for identities and cultural diversity through more effective international communication.
- To maintain and further develop the richness and diversity of European cultural life through greater mutual knowledge of national and regional languages, including those less widely taught.
- To meet the needs of a multilingual and multicultural Europe by appreciably developing the ability of Europeans to communicate with each other across linguistic and cultural boundaries, which requires a sustained, lifelong effort to be encouraged, put on an organised footing and financed at all levels of education by the competent bodies.
- To avert the dangers that might result from the marginalisation of those lacking the skills necessary to communicate in an interactive Europe.
- To promote methods of modern language teaching which will strengthen independence of thought, judgement and action, combined with social skills and responsibility.

To conclude, since it is essential to analyse coursebooks in a wider context, the implications of the curriculum and the CEFR were taken into consideration.

4.2. Impressionistic approach

The aim of the following section is to present the results of the impressionistic method. Thus, general information gathered about the different coursebooks will be summarised. Additionally, fact sheets giving a short overview of the findings can be found in the appendix.

English in Context

The first edition of the student's book *English in Context 7/8 Student's Book: Language and Skills Proficiency* was published by Veritas in Linz in 2014. It is based on the concept of the book *Context 21* which had been published by the German publisher Cornelsen in 2010 and was adapted for the Austrian market by James Abram and Megan Hadgraft. Its cover presents two pictures and important information. First of all, the authors and a badge saying "Fit für die neue Matura" can be found, which can be translated as prepared for the new version of the school leaving exam. Moreover, the language level (B2-B2+), the school type (AHS) and the grades (7th and 8th grade) for which the book can be used are specified. Thus, the intended audience and the fact that the book aims at reaching the language level of B2 to B2+ are specified explicitly. As far as the type of material is concerned, it is designed as a student's book focusing on language and skills proficiency. Moreover, it includes a CD with extra material, as mentioned on the cover.

The back side features the name of the book series accompanied by the slogan "It's all about understanding the context and making connections!". Furthermore, five bullet points are listed claiming that the book offers more texts for better choice and more flexibility, more structure in terms of connections and interconnectedness, more possibilities for training skills and competences, more opportunities for practising learner autonomy and more service for teachers. In addition, two other *English in Context* books (*English in Context 7/8. Training* and *English in Context 5.-8. Companion*) are advertised and a link which leads to a website providing online material is given. Lastly, the schoolbook number, the ISBN number, the authors, the full name of the book, the publisher and a link to its website as well as the number of edition and year of publication are given.

As far as the table of contents is concerned, the names of the different topics and units are provided with page numbers. Each topic is presented with a picture, which can also be

found in one of the units of which it is composed. Moreover, it is indicated on which pages the “Check Your Progress” and “Communication across Cultures” parts as well as the can-do statements can be found. However, no information is offered on the content of the different units or parts. In addition, symbols show for which exercises video and CD materials are offered.

In terms of the structure, the book contains 189 pages and is divided into twelve topics. Each one is composed of a “Lead-In” double page with pictures which presents the topic, arouses the students’ interest for it and gives an overview about the objectives, a “Words in Context” double page which introduces and consolidates vocabulary and three units. After every second topic, a “Check Your Progress” section of two to four pages can be found in which the contents of the previous two topics are revised. By means of an answer key, the students are enabled to check their responses and monitor their own progress. In general, the coursebook claims to follow the pool of 24 topics determined for the upper grades of AHS and the specifications of the standardised Matura exam. Thus, it includes the topics adulthood, the media, the UK, individual rights in society, the world of work and business, national identity and diversity, the USA, living spaces, global perspectives and science, technology and the environment. At the end of the book two extra topics on the world of English and Shakespeare are provided. Since the book is designed for the usage in the 7th and 8th grade of AHS, the fact that it explicitly mentions consisting of two times six topics might suggest that the first six topics might be covered in the 7th grade while the remaining ones might be intended for the following grade.

Regarding the organisation of the units, they are divided into three parts of different subtopics. These parts are labelled as parts A, B and C plus the respective headings (e. g. A The Power of Images) and consist of one to seven exercises. Each unit contains several pictures and ends with relevant can-do statements which can be ticked by the students. In the cases of some units, these are followed by one or more “Communicating across Cultures” exercise(s) which aim(s) at training the students’ inter- and transcultural competence as well as improving their interpersonal sensitivity and communicative skills. In terms of the layout and content, the margin holds an important function. It presents vocabulary with German translations or English synonyms and explanations and provides information on the pronunciation, level of formality and whether the words are used in American or British English. In addition, various boxes in the margin offer assistance. While “Language Help” boxes provide useful phrases for speaking or writing tasks,

“Trouble Spot” boxes raise the students’ awareness about the different meanings of words and help them in distinguishing words or phrases which are similar in meaning or form. In addition, “Tips” offer advice on how learners might perform activities and to what they might want to pay attention and “Fact files” provide background information on the topics.

Lastly, a few other interesting features can be mentioned such as the double page with the heading “Language for Tasks (‘Operatoren’)” at the end of the book. On it, the special vocabulary used in the tasks of the standardised Matura exam is explained (e.g. analyse, compare, discuss) and examples are given of what is expected from the students when the instructions contain certain expressions. Moreover, on the pages “Language for Discussion” and “Language for Writing” useful phrases are given. In addition, the symbols which are used throughout the book are explained at its beginning.

Prime Time

The first editions of the coursebooks *Prime Time 7: Coursebook* and *Prime Time 8: Coursebook* were published by the Austrian publishing house for schoolbooks, called Österreichischer Bundesverlag Schulbuch, in Vienna in 2011 and 2012 respectively. They were designed for the Austrian context by the authors Hellmayr, Waba and Mlakar on the basis of the coursebook Green Line which had been published by the German publisher Klett in 2009. In terms of the type of material, PT 7&8 are coursebooks with a CD and DVD. On the cover of the books, two pictures and several key words are presented which give an impression about the topics covered in them. Moreover, they feature two symbols indicating that the books include a DVD and CD as well as a badge stating “Sicher und kompetent zur Matura”, reassuring the students to prepare them well for the final exam. Although the language level can neither be found on the cover nor elsewhere in the books, the information about them on the publishing house’s website identifies the level of PT 7 as B2 and that of PT 8 as B2+ (ÖBV).

On the back side of the cover, a short text describing the books can be found. It contains information about the grade for which they are designed and how they are structured. Moreover, five bullet points specify the content. They mention that the books contain topics and texts which encourage the students to express their opinion, tasks which correspond to the formats used in the new Matura, “Spot on language” sections in which

linguistic and grammatical nuances are consolidated and “Check-out” units in which the acquired skills are revised. In addition, while the blurb of PT 7 refers to the online material, that of PT 8 states to include the section “Exam preparation”. Lastly, the backside features the schoolbook and ISBN number as well as a link to the publisher’s website.

The table of contents can be described as detailed. First of all, it provides information about the page numbers and topics of the units. Secondly, it specifies which texts are included and what is practised in each unit as far as the four skills, vocabulary and grammar are concerned. Thirdly, references to online links for the different units are included. In addition, below it the symbols used in the book are explained.

In terms of the structure, both books are composed of 192 pages and ten units. The topics of PT 7 include Great Britain, health, regional identities, adolescence, extreme situations, India, celebrities, art, ethnic and cultural diversity and Shakespeare. PT 8 focuses on Ireland, environmental protection, gender issues, migration, global peace, the individual and society, money and the economy, science and technology, ideals and reality and lifelong learning. After the last unit, PT 7 features the section “Writing Guide” which provides exercises that allow the students to practise their writing skills. Instead of this guide, PT 8 includes the section “Exam preparation” which offers exercises corresponding to the Matura task formats, useful phrases and advice on how to undertake different tasks. Towards the end of both books a glossary which is structured according to the units and subtopics can be found. It features the words with German translations, example sentences and, for some words, phonetic transcriptions. Moreover, information such as “derog.,” “coll.,” “archaic” or “vulgar” and the way in which the plural is formed or whether a word corresponds to the American or British English variety can be found. Both books conclude with the solutions to the Check-out pages and, in the case of PT 8, the “Exam preparation” section.

As far as the units are concerned, they begin with an introductory double page with pictures, timelines, charts, short texts and usually at least one “Word bank” box which introduces key vocabulary. The aim of these pages is to introduce the topic and awaken the learners’ interest. Each unit is divided into three to eight different parts which, in turn, consist of one to nine exercises and feature their own subtopics and headings. At the end of each unit a “Spot on language” and “Check-out” section can be found. While the aim of the former consists in practising and consolidating grammatical and linguistic aspects, the purpose of the latter section lies in examining the skills which were acquired in the

respective unit. In addition, the “Check-out” pages include relevant can-do descriptors from the CEFR. Throughout the units, many pictures can be found and different boxes offer useful information. As mentioned above, “Word bank” boxes provide words and phrases. Moreover, “Fact file” boxes present historical or geographical background while “VIF file” boxes introduce a famous person. The boxes called “Tip” offer advice on how to proceed when performing tasks and the boxes “Useful phrases”, as suggested by their name, provide phrases that might be needed for certain tasks.

Finally, it seems interesting that the books feature symbols for exercises which correspond to the formats of the standardised Matura exam and that the relevant CEFR-descriptors mentioned in the Check-out sections are presented on the last page.

Make Your Way

The first editions of *Make Your Way 7: Coursebook* and *Make Your Way 8: Coursebook* were published by Österreichischer Bundesverlag Schulbuch, the Austrian publisher for schoolbooks, in Vienna in 2011 and 2012 respectively and written by Davis, Gerngroß, Holzmann, Lewis-Jones and Puchta. They constitute a revised version of the books *Make Your Way Ahead 7* and *Make Your Way Ahead 8* which had been published for the Austrian school context in 2006 and 2007 for the first time. Concerning the type of material, MYW 7&8 are coursebooks which include a CD-ROM and audio CD. On their covers, references to these CDs and a big picture can be found. Moreover, a badge saying “Sicher und kompetent zur Matura” is depicted which suggests that the usage of the books results in good preparation for the Matura exam. As in the case of PT 7&8, the language level is not displayed on the cover or elsewhere in the books. However, the website of the Austrian publishing house for schoolbooks reveals the language level of MYW 7 to be B2 that of MYW 8 to be B2+ (OEBV).

The backside of the cover features a brief text which claims that the books have always followed the communicative approach and attached great importance to texts and topics which aim at motivating the learners and conveying educational contents to them. Most importantly, the blurb claims that they have been adapted for the standardised Matura exam. Furthermore, five bullet points go into more detail. It is stated that the book is composed of clearly-arranged and well-sequenced contents and exercises, allows training the different skills efficiently, prepares the students in terms of the new test formats of

the Matura and offers additional exercises on the CD and CD-ROM. In addition, the schoolbook and ISBN number and a link to the publisher's website are given.

As far as the table of contents is concerned, information about the page numbers, topics and subtopics of the units is provided. It is also listed what is practised in terms of the different skills, grammar and vocabulary as well as what the "Extras" and "Mastering" section contain. Moreover, the symbols used throughout the book referring to material on the CDs are explained.

In terms of the structure, MYW 7 consists of 208 pages and twelve units. The first six units are denominated as "Extensive units" and consist of four subtopics each while the other six units are called "Compact units" and comprise two or three subtopics. In contrast, MYW 8 is composed of 192 pages and seven units. After the last unit, the sections "Make Your Way to the Written Matura" and "Make Your Way to the Oral Matura" provide tasks which correspond to the Matura task formats and tips on how to perform them. The topics of MYW 7 include women, violence, Canada, art, life and death, dreams, stories, hats, advertising, documentaries, jobs and science while MYW 8 focuses on fiction, black rights, stars, Ireland, beauty ideals, newspapers and lifestyles.

The different units are divided into two to four parts with their own subtopics and headings. These parts, in turn, consist of one to ten exercises and some of them correspond to those classified as "Extras" in the table of contents. Examples of them include internet projects, reading tips for those who are interested in the topic or explanations of learning strategies. Moreover, each unit features various pictures as well as boxes providing phrases, guidelines and words or phrases with German translations. After the last exercise, the section "Vocabulary station" is provided which presents words with German translations and, in some cases, phonetic transcriptions and example sentences. All entries appear in the order in which they occur in the unit and the numbers of the exercises in which certain words are used are also indicated. Each unit ends with the section "Mastering" in which the different skills can be practised by means of standardised tasks.

To conclude, the fact that the task formats, text types, topics or titles of the different tasks in the "Mastering" sections are specified in the table of contents can be mentioned as interesting.

4.3. Checklist and in-depth method

For reasons of clarity, the results of the checklist and the in-depth approach will be presented at the same time. The outcomes of these two steps of the analysis will be discussed item per item on the checklist in order to allow for a better comparison between the books. Reading activities were identified based on their primary focus on reading skills as well as on the explicit occurrence of the word “read” in the instructions. As far as the book EiC 7/8 is concerned, 87 reading activities were analysed. PT 7&8 offered 100 reading activities in total and 91 ones were examined in both MYW 7&8.

4.3.1. Topics

The great majority of the texts used for the reading activities relate to the topics featured in the checklist while some had to be added. As already mentioned in section 3.2., some texts might match more than one topic and some of the topics might overlap. Moreover, certain topics are broader than others. Thus, in some cases it might also have been possible to assign the topics of some texts to those of the list, instead of adding new ones. However, the topics of certain texts did not correspond to those of the list at first glance and seemed highly interesting or relevant. Therefore, the creation of new entries was sometimes favoured. These additional topics will be mentioned below.

In terms of the reading activities of the book EiC 7/8, the topics of almost all texts could be assigned to at least one of those which had been suggested. However, as far as five activities are concerned, the topics “volunteering”, “poverty”, “architecture” and “legal matters” were inserted in the box “other”.

While many of the reading activities in PT 7&8 corresponded to the topics featured in the list, a considerable number of topics had to be added. Those included “legal matters”, “love”, “death”, “stress”, “religion”, “important or famous personalities” and “architecture” for texts in PT 7 as well as “volunteering”, “political correctness”, “gender issues”, “slavery” and “global peace” in the case of PT 8.

Most of the topics of the reading texts in the books MYW 7&8 could also be ticked on the list. However, a few additional ones, such as “important or famous personalities”, “gender issues”, “violence”, “death”, “dreams”, “love” and “religion” appeared in MYW 7 while the topics “important or famous personalities”, “discrimination”, “ideals of beauty”, “family”, “addictions” and “UFOs and aliens” could be found in MYW 8.

While most of the reading texts thematise aspects from the list, in turn, not all topics on it could be identified in the reading texts of the books. In the case of EiC 7/8, they include “free time”, “music”, “animals”, “fashion”, “services (museums, libraries, hospitals)” and “crime”. The first four topics mentioned above can neither be found in PT 7 nor 8. As far as MYW 7&8 are concerned, reading activities do not display the topic “music” as in EiC 7/8 and PT 7&8. However, in contrast to the other books, in MYW 7&8 there are not any texts corresponding to the topics “education”, “languages” and “environment”. However, the fact that no reading activities could be assigned to these aspects might not mean that students are not prepared for these topics by means of activities which aim at practising other skills.

4.3.2. CEFR-descriptors

The analysis of the next item, which consisted of assigning the reading activities to CEFR-descriptors, also offered interesting results. Since various kinds of descriptors were available for selection, the majority of activities was found to correspond to more than one. The following table aims at presenting the occurrences and distribution of the CEFR-descriptors in the different books. In order to ensure greater clarity, the descriptors were numbered.

Nr.	CEFR-descriptors	EiC 7/8	PT 7&8	MYW 7&8
1	B2: Can read with a large degree of independence, adapting style and speed of reading to different texts and purposes, and using appropriate reference sources selectively. Has a broad active reading vocabulary, but may experience some difficulty with low frequency idioms.	87	97	92
2	B1: Can read straightforward factual texts on subjects related to his/her field and interest with a satisfactory level of comprehension.	/	3	1
3	B2: Can read correspondence relating to his/her field of interest and readily grasp the essential meaning.	/	1	2
4	B1: Can understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters well enough to correspond regularly with a pen friend.	/	/	/
5	B2: Can understand contemporary literary prose.	8	8	10
6	B1: Can understand texts that consist mainly of high frequency everyday or job- related language.	/	1	/
7	B2: Can scan quickly through long and complex texts, locating relevant details. Can quickly identify the content and relevance of	3	2	1

	news items, articles and reports on a wide range of professional topics, deciding whether closer study is worthwhile.			
8	B1: Can scan longer texts in order to locate desired information, and gather information from different parts of a text, or from different texts in order to fulfil a specific task.	61	77	63
9	B1: Can find and understand relevant information in everyday material, such as letters, brochures and short official documents.	/	/	/
10	B2: Can obtain information, ideas and opinions from highly specialised sources within his/her field. Can understand specialised articles outside his/her field, provided he/she can use a dictionary occasionally to confirm his/her interpretation of terminology.	22	18	23
11	B2: Can understand articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular stances or viewpoints.	32	24	32
12	B1: Can identify the main conclusions in clearly signalled argumentative texts. Can recognise the line of argument in the treatment of the issue presented, though not necessarily in detail.	/	/	/
13	B1: Can recognise significant points in straightforward newspaper articles on familiar subjects.	/	/	/
14	B2: Can understand lengthy, complex instructions in his field, including details on conditions and warnings, provided he/she can reread difficult sections.	/	/	/
15	B1: Can understand clearly written, straightforward instructions for a piece of equipment.	/	/	/
16	B2: Can use a variety of strategies to achieve comprehension; checking comprehension by using contextual clues.	25	28	7
17	B1: Can identify unfamiliar words from the context on topics related to his/her field and interests. Can extrapolate the meaning of occasional unknown words from the context and deduce sentence meaning provided the topic discussed is familiar.	18	3	5

Table 10: Findings – CEFR-descriptors

Since the results for the different books are remarkably similar, they will be presented together. As can be seen at first glance, almost all reading activities could be classified as corresponding to the general B2 descriptor (number 1). In EiC 7/8, for example, reading activities on the level of B1 are completely absent.

Apart from the general B2 descriptor, descriptor number 8 could be identified most often in each book since more than two thirds of all reading activities were found to correspond to it. This means that in the large majority of activities students are presented with clear instructions which expect them to find certain information in the text in order to do specific tasks. Thereby, reading operations such as scanning and search reading are practised. In this context, it seems striking that this descriptor is labelled as B1 while almost all activities were identified as B2 in general. Moreover, the descriptor on the level of B2 which is similar to the abovementioned one (number 7) could only scarcely be found in all books. However, the overall level of the activity does not necessarily have to

correspond to that of more specific descriptors. Furthermore, descriptor number 7 would have suited partly (“locating relevant details”) in many cases instead of descriptor number 8. Nevertheless, it was not selected due to the formulations “Can scan *quickly* [...]” [my emphasis] and “Can *quickly* identify the content and relevance of news items, articles and reports on a wide range of professional topics, *deciding whether closer study is worthwhile*.” [my emphasis]. Thus, it was reserved for reading activities in which students had to practise the strategy of skimming.

As far as the number of occurrences is concerned, descriptor 8 is followed by descriptor 11 which corresponds to more than a third of the analysed activities in EiC 7/8 and MYW 7&8 as well as to a fourth in PT 7&8. Thus, all books feature a large number of articles and reports dealing with contemporary problems and displaying the writer’s stance. Furthermore, also descriptor number 10, which is concerned with specialised texts, could be identified in approximately a fourth of the reading activities in EiC 7/8 and MYW 7&8 and almost a fifth of those in PT 7&8. The in-depth analysis of these occurrences allowed ascertaining which kinds of texts are provided by the books, revealing that specialised articles, informative texts or extracts from guides can be found in all of them. While EiC 7/8 also offers extracts from a government text, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the First Amendment to the US Constitution and oaths and pledges required from immigrants, examples from PT 7&8 include an extract from a legal text, Indian matrimonial profiles and an encyclopaedia entry. In MYW 7&8 an obituary, several book or film reviews, and interpretations of paintings could be found.

Descriptors number 16 and 17 shall also be mentioned briefly since they follow in terms of frequency and are concerned with identifying clues and inferring. While strategies to achieve and check comprehension are featured by more than a fourth of the analysed activities in EiC 7/8 and PT 7/8, they could be identified only seven times in MYW 7&8. In all cases, pre-reading strategies predominate. Descriptor 17, which is concerned with encouraging the learners to identify the meaning of new words from the context, can be ranked after descriptor 16 according to the number of total occurrences in all books. However, a considerable number of 18 occurrences could only be found in EiC 7/8.

Another apparent similarity between all books lies in the fact that descriptors number 2, 3, 5, 6 and 7 were counted less than ten times respectively while no reading activities at all could be assigned to descriptors 4, 9, 12, 13, 14 and 15. With the exception of number 14, the latter ones describe B1 reading skills. Therefore, it can be assumed that reading

activities corresponding to these descriptors can probably be found in books of the same level. As far as descriptor number 14 is concerned, it was ascertained that none of the books contains a single text consisting of longer and complex instructions. In addition, a considerable number of text types could not be assigned to more specific descriptors, such as plays, film scripts, poems, quotations, interviews, speeches, song texts and biographical texts. Especially in the case of poems, it was noticeable that, similar to the descriptor “Can understand contemporary literary prose.”, no descriptor such as “Can understand poetry.” exists.

4.3.3. Pre-, while- and post-reading stages and strategies and integration of skills

The following section aims at displaying the results of the analysis of the different stages and strategies book after book. Subsequently, the findings in terms of the integration of the skills will be presented.

In all books, the pre-reading stage mostly involves the learners in discussing or brainstorming in order to activate their prior knowledge about the topic and to hypothesise what the text is going to be about. Activities like these correspond to pre-reading strategies which were recorded and will be presented subsequently. Moreover, students are often supposed to choose a title for a text or sections of it or comment on a given title. The while-reading stage generally engages learners in taking notes or writing down the main points of the text. In the post-reading stage, students frequently have to answer or discuss comprehension questions, analyse specific parts or aspects of the text and work with vocabulary from the text. In addition, their opinion and evaluation of texts as well as writing an ending or an answer to texts is elicited.

As far as the three stages are concerned, the analysis of the reading activities of *English in Context 7/8* offered interesting insights. While less than a third of the activities included a pre-reading stage and a small number of activities provided a while-reading stage, all 87 activities which were analysed in this book offered some kind of post-reading stage, as can be seen in the following charts.

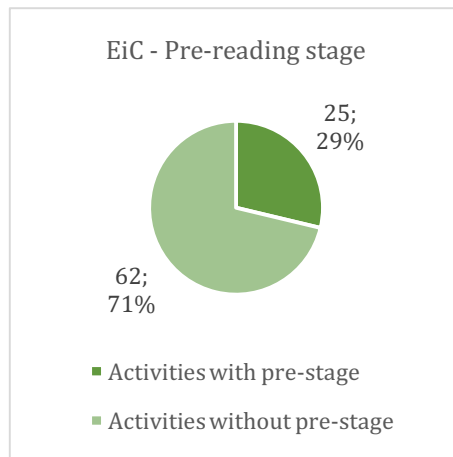


Figure 1: Findings – Pre-reading stage (EiC)

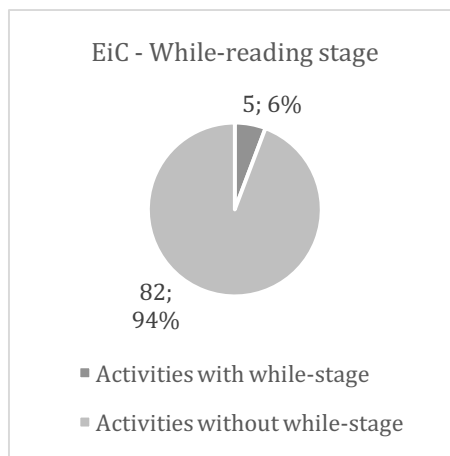


Figure 2: Findings – While-reading stage (EiC)

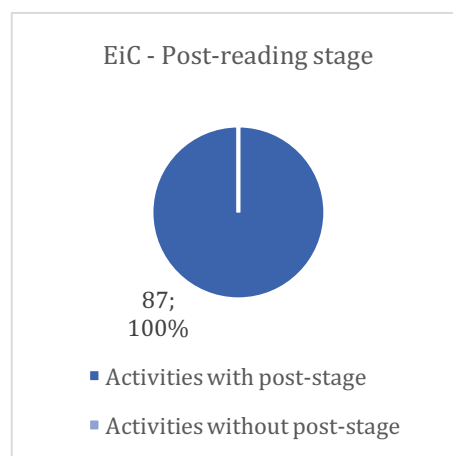


Figure 3: Findings – Post-reading stage (EiC)

In terms of strategies, the amount of those which could be identified in the post-reading stage clearly outweighs the number of the other types. While only one while-reading strategy could be identified, a respectable amount of pre-reading strategies could be recorded. The following table aims at giving an overview of the distribution of the different strategies, presenting those at the pre-reading stage in green, those at the while-reading stage in grey and those at the post-reading stage in blue.

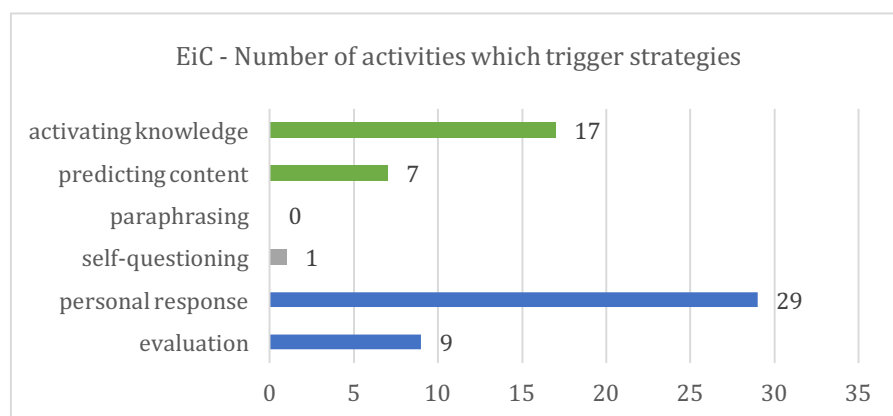


Figure 4: Findings – Strategies (EiC)

As can be seen, the strategy which encourages students to personally respond to texts predominates since it is incorporated in a third of all reading activities. The in-depth method showed that, in the majority of cases, the learners are supposed to give their reaction to the text or different parts or aspects of it during discussions with a partner or in groups. Moreover, several creative writing exercises were found which elicit the students' response to the text. In this context, it shall be mentioned that many exercises in the post-reading stage consist of evoking the learners' response to the topic of the text in general. These instances were not included in the analysis, since, strictly speaking, they do not involve the students in reacting directly to the text. The activation of background knowledge comes second since this strategy is triggered in 17 activities. It is followed by the evaluation of the text and predicting its content, which occurs in nine and seven activities respectively. The while-reading strategies are represented poorly in EiC 7/8. Only one reading activity encourages the students to ask themselves questions while reading.

As represented in the chart below, in PT 7&8 the pre-reading stage is the most prominent one followed by the while-reading stage. From a total of 100 activities, over a third include a pre-reading and post-reading stage respectively. In contrast, only three activities offer a post-reading stage.

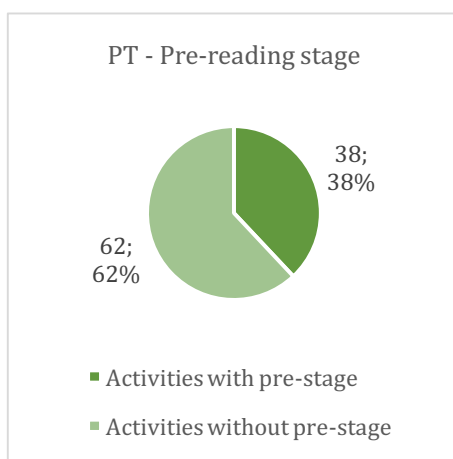


Figure 5: Findings – Pre-reading stage (PT)

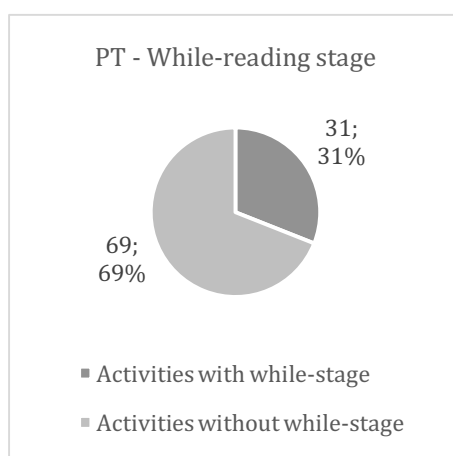


Figure 6: Findings – While-reading stage (PT)

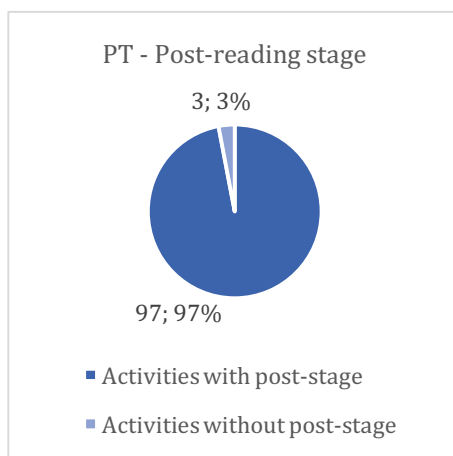


Figure 7: Findings – Post-reading stage (PT)

In terms of strategies, the analysis of PT 7&8 offered interesting insights. While not a single while-reading strategy could be identified, post-reading strategies dominate.

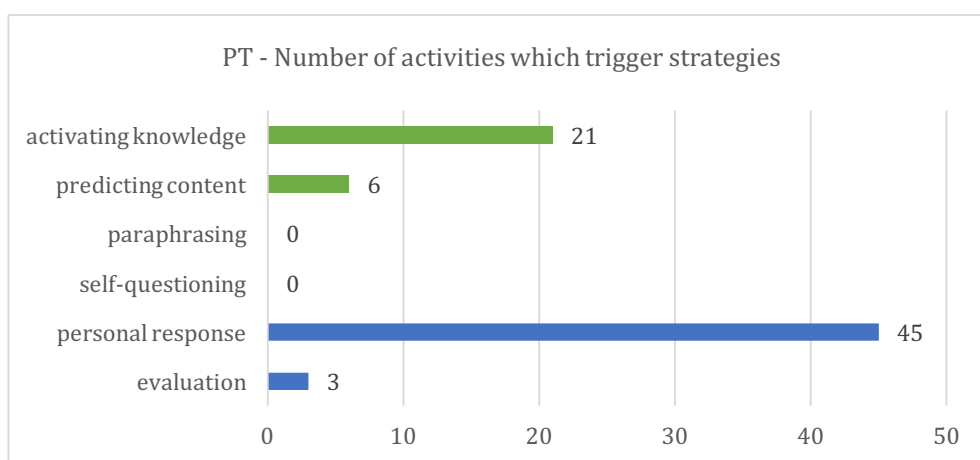


Figure 8: Findings – Strategies (PT)

A first glance at the chart above immediately reveals the absence of while-reading strategies. Neither instances of paraphrasing nor of self-questioning could be found. In contrast, giving a personal response was identified as the most prominent strategy with 45 occurrences out of 100 activities. The in-depth analysis showed that it is usually triggered by writing exercises or discussions after reading and that students are often supposed to give their opinion on different aspects of the text. The second post-reading strategy, evaluating, was only counted three times. Students are asked to evaluate the line of argument of an article, the appropriateness of writing a text in a certain way and how convincingly an author deals with a topic. As far as the pre-reading strategies are concerned, the activation of background knowledge comes first with 21 occurrences while students are supposed to predict the content six times. The majority of activities which trigger these pre-reading strategies aim at being performed orally.

The following three charts represent the distribution of reading activities with a pre-, while- and post-reading stage in MYW 7&8. As evident at first sight, pre- and while-stages are rather not that prominent with 14 and 16 occurrences respectively out of a total of 93 activities. In contrast, almost all reading activities feature a post-stage.

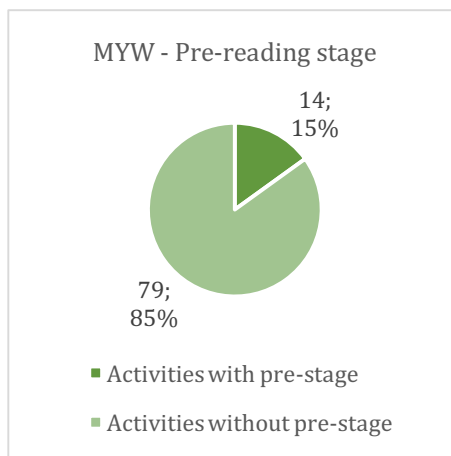


Figure 9: Findings – Pre-reading stage (MYW)

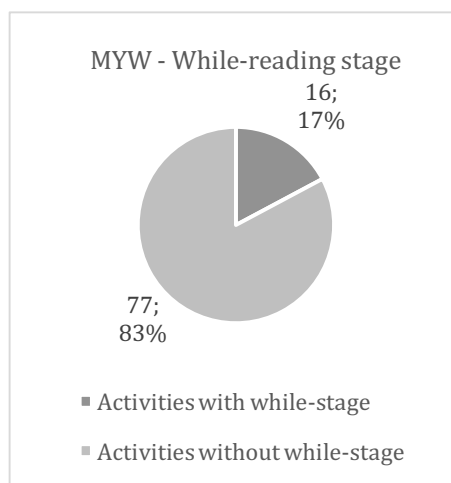


Figure 10: Findings – While-reading stage (MYW)

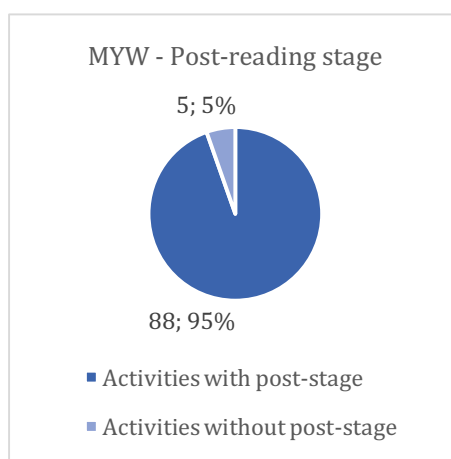


Figure 11: Findings – Post-reading stage (MYW)

As far as strategies in the different stages are concerned, it can be said that they are rather scarce in general, as shown by the following chart.

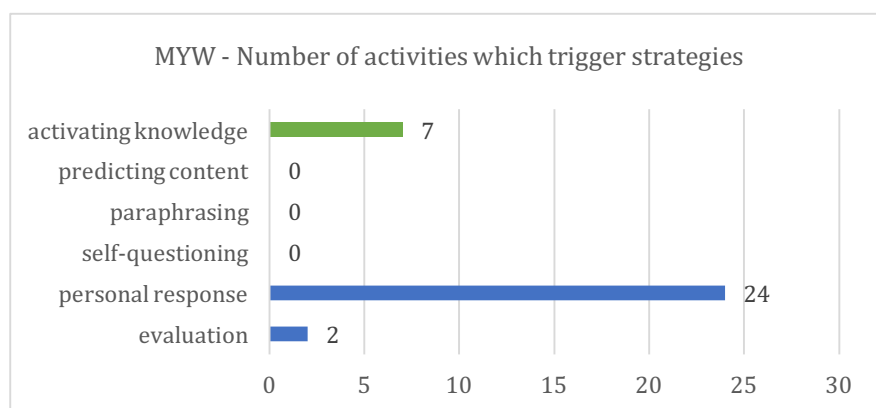


Figure 12: Findings – Strategies (MYW)

As can be seen immediately, out of six strategies only three could be found in MYW 7&8. The first and only pre-reading strategy, activating knowledge, occurs seven times. The in-depth analysis revealed that it is triggered by activities which encourage the students, amongst others, to work with or discuss headings, pictures, lists or questions. While no while-reading strategies at all could be identified, post-reading strategies represent the largest proportion as far as numbers are concerned. However, the learners are supposed to evaluate the text only in two activities while 24 activities aim at obtaining a personal response. According to the results of the in-depth method, giving these personal responses often involves the students in oral discussions in which they have to give their opinion by (not) agreeing on aspects or the message of texts. Furthermore, they have to put themselves in someone's position and think about how they would react. In addition, a personal response is frequently elicited by creative writing.

The item on the checklist investigating the different stages and strategies also allowed for an analysis of the ways in which other skills are integrated in reading activities. The results will be presented in the following paragraphs. Prior to that, it has to be stated that speaking, listening and writing abilities were only regarded as being incorporated in cases in which the instructions explicitly express the need for it. In this context, speaking was only considered if the instructions contain words or phrases such as “speak”, “talk”, “discuss in pairs/groups/class”, etc. Similarly, the word “listen” formed the pre-condition for the inclusion of reading activities which also involve the learners in listening. As far as the integration of writing is concerned, only activities in which students, apart from

reading, have to write a coherent text were considered. Thus, the reason for which certain activities were not added does not lie in the fact that they might not promote other skills, but in that it is not clearly specified in which way they do so.

Subsequently, the results obtained by the checklist and the in-depth analysis will be presented. First of all, the following three charts will provide an overview of the percentage of reading activities which also involve other skills. As can be seen below, EiC 7/8 represents the leader with 63 % while less than half of all reading activities in MYW 7&8 and PT 7&8 are integrated.

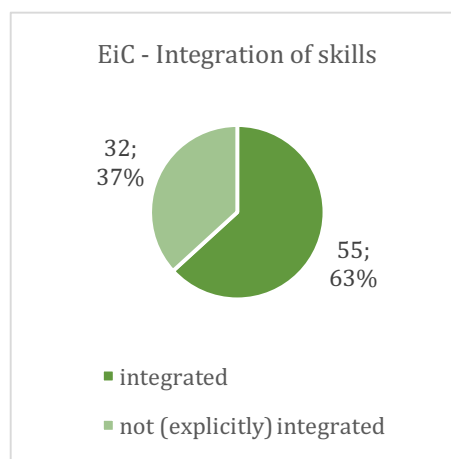


Figure 13: Findings – Integration of skills (EiC)

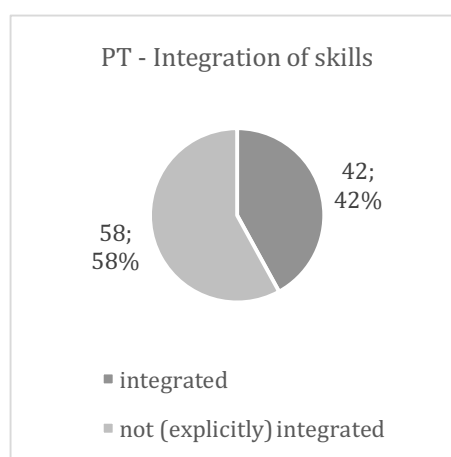


Figure 14: Findings – Integration of skills (PT)

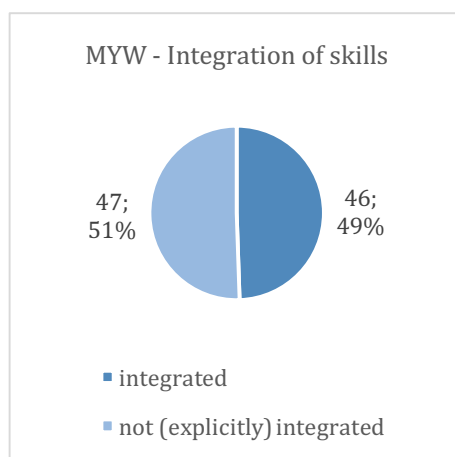


Figure 15: Findings – Integration of skills (MYW)

The majority of the reading activities provided in EiC 7/8 promotes the integration of skills. Out of 87 in total, 55 engage the students in using at least one other skill. Reading is mostly combined with speaking (47 activities), writing (21 activities) or both of these skills (14 activities). In contrast, the integration of listening abilities could only be identified in two activities.

The in-depth analysis provided insights into the way in which the other skills are incorporated into the reading activities in this book. While speaking is mostly integrated by means of tasks which involve the students in discussing different aspects of the texts, writing is often included in the form of creative writing components. The most prominent example for the latter encourages the learners to find an ending to a story. The two activities in which the students practise listening alongside reading engage them in listening to songs after reading the lyrics.

In contrast to those of EiC 7/8, most of the activities from PT 7&8 were identified as being not or not explicitly integrated. In total, 58 correspond to this description while 42 promote the integration of other skills. The most frequent combination is again reading and speaking with 27 activities, followed by reading and writing with 21. Only eight reading activities could be found which engage the learners in both of these other skills. As far as listening is concerned, this ability is integrated in five activities.

The in-depth analysis showed that in PT 7&8 speaking is usually involved in reading activities by means of discussions. Moreover, students are often encouraged to present the results of pair or group discussions in class. Examples for the way in which writing abilities are practised in reading activities include text types such as definitions or

encyclopaedia entries as well as creative writing. Lastly, also listening is integrated in different ways. Procedures range from listening to a text after reading it to reading while watching videos related to texts.

By means of the checklist analysis of MYW 7&8, 41 out of 93 reading activities were found to be integrated while the remaining ones were identified as not integrated or not clearly specified. Similar to the results of the other books, speaking (26 activities) and writing (18 activities) are the skills that are most often involved in reading activities. In addition, students are encouraged to practise both speaking and writing alongside reading in six exercises. As far as the integration of listening is concerned, it again represents the ability which is less often incorporated (four activities).

Investigating the findings of the in-depth method of MYW 7&8, it can be said that students are generally supposed to perform these other skills after reading. In terms of speaking, activities such as discussions and answering questions dominate. Besides creative writing, examples for the incorporation of writing include reports, reviews and letters. Moreover, the learners are engaged in re-writing parts of texts as well as writing summaries.

To conclude, it can be said that the number of activities which integrate other skills might be even larger if the analysis would consider how activities might actually be performed in class. Comprehension questions, for instance, are often formulated in a way which allows the teacher to decide whether the students answer them in written or spoken form. In any case, writing and speaking skills were found to be often practised alongside reading. In contrast, the integration of listening in the narrow sense could only be identified in a small number of activities. However, speaking is often integrated in reading activities in the form of group or pair discussions, which, due to their nature, include listening at the same time. Thus, the number of reading activities which indirectly promote the integration of listening skills is supposed to be much higher. Lastly, as mentioned above, some activities were classified as not being integrated due to the fact that it is not clearly specified. Therefore, the total number of activities which promote the integration of other skills might be higher in the case of all books.

4.3.4. Length of texts

The following charts present the results obtained from examining the length of the texts in the reading activities. The texts were assigned to one of four categories, depending on whether they were shorter than half an A4 page, longer than half a page up to one page, longer than a page up to two pages or longer than two pages. In case two or more texts were presented in one exercise, their length was added.

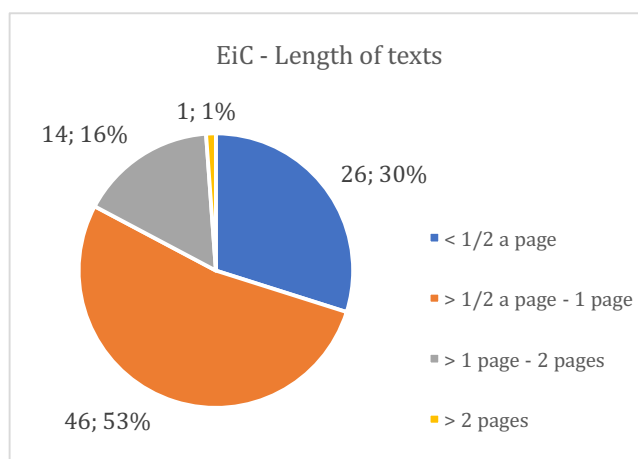


Figure 16: Findings – Length of texts (EiC)

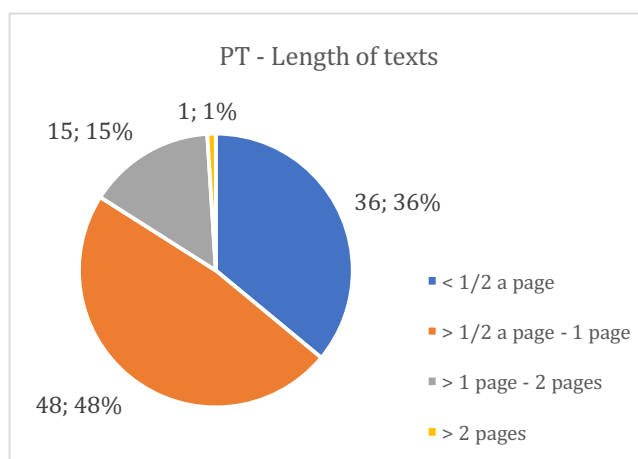


Figure 17: Findings – Length of texts (PT)

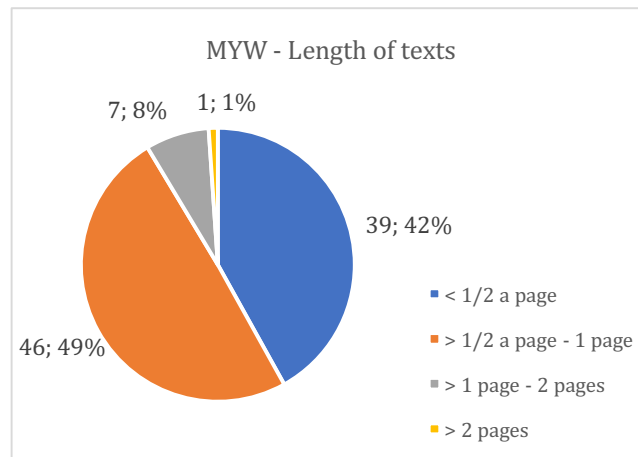


Figure 18: Findings – Length of texts (MYW)

As can be seen immediately, the large majority of texts in all three books are approximately one A4 page long. Moreover, it seems interesting that only three texts in total exceed the length of two pages. The longest text can be found in MYW 7&8 with about five pages, while those in PT 7&8 and EiC 7/8 are about three pages long at the most.

4.3.5. Text types

The text types that appear most often in all books are texts of general interest, literary texts and news items. While the first type mainly includes informative texts or articles, the second one features extracts from novels or short stories and plays. Moreover, song lyrics and film scripts were added to this category. The third text type consists mostly of newspaper articles and sometimes only headlines are presented. In EiC 7/8 and MYW 7&8 texts of general interest could be found most often, followed by literary texts and news items. In PT 7&8, however, news items predominate while texts of general interest remain in second place before literary ones. The results can be found in the table below.

The activity ...

corresponds to the formal text types of the Matura	EiC 7/8	PT 7&8	MYW 7&8
general interest	31	22	35
literary text	25	19	17
<u>non-literary text</u>			
correspondence	1	1	2
news items	13	32	8
instructions	/	/	/
guidebooks	5	4	5
other	14	22	16

Table 11: Findings – Text types

Furthermore, extracts from guidebooks were identified five times in EiC 7/8 and MYW 7/8 and four times in PT 7&8 while examples of correspondence could only be counted twice in MYW 7&8 and once in EiC 7/8 and PT 7&8. In contrast, texts corresponding to the type of instructions could not be found at all.

As far as texts are concerned, which were assigned to the category “other”, they include book or film reviews, speeches and quotations by (famous) persons in general. Apart from that, all books contain specialised text types, as already mentioned in section 4.3.2. CEFR-descriptors. In EiC 7/8 these range from extracts from the Declaration of Human Rights, legal and governmental texts, a job ad, oaths and pledges for immigrants, interviews and broadcasts to the First Amendment to the US Constitution. Moreover, while PT 7&8 offer an extract from a legal text, Indian matrimonial profiles, an encyclopaedia entry, an ad and a brochure, MYW 7&8 feature interpretations of paintings and an obituary.

4.3.6. Activity formats

The following table aims at presenting how many activities corresponding to previously determined formats could be found in the different books.

The activity ...

corresponds to a certain activity format	EiC 7/8	PT 7&8	MYW 7&8
multiple choice	6	10	9
multiple matching (including gapped variety)	15	15	27
true or false with justification	9	8	10
short answers (1-4 words)	4	11	5
questions	32	42	18
sequencing	3	2	2
gap filling	13	5	4
other	74	67	39

Table 12: Findings – Activity formats

As can be seen, from those formats which are listed learners are most often asked to answer questions, either in written or spoken form or without further specifications. The type of questions varies, ranging from comprehension questions to those which elicit the readers’ personal response or evaluation. Thus, especially in EiC 7/8 and PT 7&8, students are frequently supposed to give their opinion on the text or certain aspects of it as well as to evaluate how successful the writers are in achieving what they aim to do in the texts.

Similarly, in MYW 7&8, the readers' agreement with the writers' views or opinions is often elicited. In all books, readers are also frequently asked to interpret what the writers mean with certain phrases or in specific parts of the texts. In addition, questions encourage them to imagine themselves in the position of persons in the texts and state how they would react in or handle certain situations.

As far as the formats used in the Matura are concerned, it can be said that all books offer opportunities to practise them. In this context, it is mentionable that multiple matching dominates in all of them. In MYW 7&8 almost twice as many activities of this type as in the other books are provided. In contrast, the format of short answers is not that strongly represented in general. While PT 7&8 offer eleven activities in which learners can practise this format, EiC 7/8 and MYW 7&8 only present four and five activities respectively. The fact that an activity features a test format does not mean that it is as standardised as in the Matura exam. In many cases the instructions are not that detailed, no examples have been done for the students and in multiple matching tasks, for instance, no additional answers are given which cannot be used. Nevertheless, it can be concluded that the learners are sufficiently familiarised with these formats, although, in the case of short answers additional opportunities to practise might be desirable.

What is also striking is that the category "others" features the highest numbers for all books. Formats which could be assigned to this category most often constitute pair or group discussions after reading, summarising texts or parts of it or writing follow-up texts. In addition, a considerable number of activities in which learners are supposed to do research, take notes, underline or highlight parts of the texts, choose a title, paraphrase or make mind maps, diagrams or charts based on the texts could be found. In general, the analysis of this checklist descriptor allows to conclude that all books offer a great variety of activity formats and that a text is usually accompanied by more than one format.

4.3.7. Constructs

In all books, every construct of the checklist is represented by the reading activities. As is the case with other items, many activities display more than one construct since learners are often supposed to read a text more than once with varying instructions. The findings for this checklist item are summarised in the following table.

The activity ...

corresponds to (a) construct(s) of reading relevant for the Matura	EiC 7/8	PT 7&8	MYW 7&8
reading for gist (skimming)	5	2	1
reading for important details (scanning)	26	15	5
search reading	32	34	16
<u>careful reading:</u>			
reading for main ideas and supporting details	61	90	79
reading to deduce the meaning of a word or phrase	19	1	2

Table 13: Findings – Constructs

As can be seen, reading for main ideas and supporting details predominate followed by search reading. 70 % of the reading activities in EiC 7/8, 85 % of those in MYW 7&8 and even 90 % of those in PT 7&8 encourage learners to read for main ideas and supporting details. Search reading is represented by more than a third of the reading tasks in EiC 7/8 and PT 7&8 and less than a fifth in MYW 7&8. As far as scanning is concerned, it is incorporated in 30 % of the activities in EiC 7/8 and 15 % of those in PT 7&8. Only 5 % of the activities in MYW 7&8 aim at practising this way of reading. In addition, reading for gist and reading to deduce the meaning of words and phrases are the two constructs that could be identified less often. They could be found five or fewer times in all books with the exception of EiC 7/8, in which reading to deduce the meaning of words and phrases was elicited 19 times.

To conclude, it can be said that all constructs which were included are practised in all books. Nevertheless, a prominent focus on reading for main ideas and supporting details could be identified.

4.3.8. Resemblance to Matura tasks

In how far the reading tasks in the coursebooks resemble those of the Matura, was measured by means of four criteria. It was examined if tasks feature activity formats which are employed as test formats in the Matura and if an example had already been done. Moreover, it was determined if the instructions and the length of the texts correspond to those in the Matura exam. Only those coursebook tasks which meet all four criteria were classified as resembling those of the final exam.

In relation to the number of reading activities in total, PT 7&8 present most of these tasks with 30 out of 100, whereby the formats of multiple choice, multiple matching and short answers dominate.

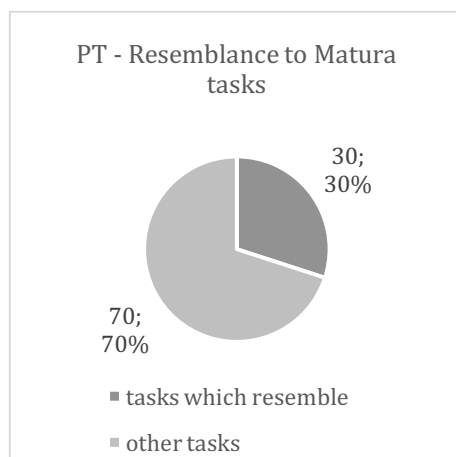


Figure 19: Findings – Resemblance to Matura tasks (PT)

As can be seen below, EiC 7/8 follows with 23 tasks which show a resemblance out of 87. In this context, multiple matching and true or false with justification appear most often.

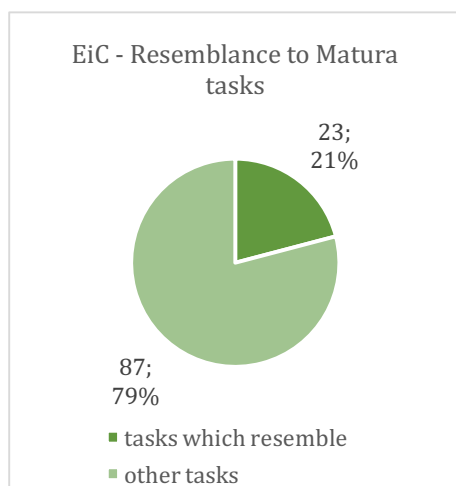


Figure 20: Findings – Resemblance to Matura tasks (EiC)

Lastly, in MYW 7&8 17 tasks corresponding to all criteria in relation to 93 in total could be identified. Out of these, the number of test formats is evenly distributed, with a small majority of true or false with justification.

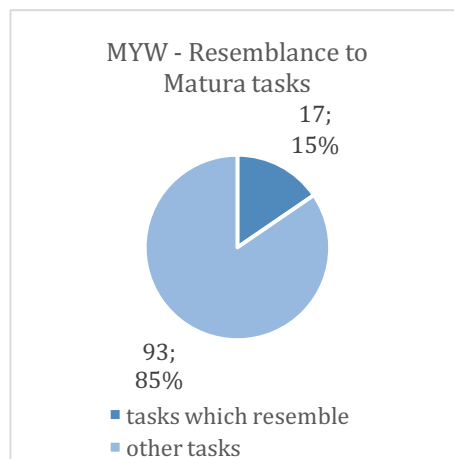


Figure 21: Findings – Resemblance to Matura tasks (MYW)

Due to the adherence to the four criteria, many tasks which correspond only in part had to be eliminated. Among those many could be found which do not meet the criteria of length and offered no example, especially in the case of MYW 7&8. Thus, in case of a more lenient approach the number of tasks resembling those of the Matura would be slightly higher in the case of all books.

Having presented the findings of the last checklist descriptor, the results of all four steps of the analysis will be evaluated in the following section.

5. Evaluation of the findings

While the purpose of the previous section was to summarise the findings of the coursebook analysis, the following paragraphs aim at evaluating the findings of the impressionistic method, the checklist approach and the in-depth analysis in relation to the learners' needs, the context of the Matura exam and the implications of what is important when it comes to teaching and testing reading.

First of all, the implications of the results of the impressionistic method will be presented. As opposed to MYW 7&8, both EiC 7/8 and PT 7&8 contain descriptors which are either taken from or based on those from the CEFR. Every unit in EiC 7/8 features can-do descriptors at the end while in PT 7&8 CEFR-descriptors are added to certain tasks. Thus, the students are encouraged to adopt a reflective attitude towards the activities and their own skills, which promotes independent learning. Moreover, the fact that students are supposed to work with descriptors is also in line with the curriculum, which stresses the importance of an action-oriented approach to learning. In addition, all of the books

contain parts which aim at revising the content. Students are enabled to work autonomously, compare their answers to those of the key and, thereby, monitor their progress. PT 7&8 and MYW 7&8 even provide sections called “Exam preparation” and “Make Your Way to the Written Matura” which allow the students to practise typical test tasks.

In terms of the findings of the checklist approach and the in-depth method, it can be concluded that the books keep the promises they make on their covers.

First of all, the majority of the topics of the reading texts could be assigned to those on the list. Although it was a difficult task to specify the topics of certain activities due to overlaps and the challenge of defining where one topic ends and another begins, the topics featured in the books were generally found to be highly relevant in terms of the learners’ needs. While Matura tasks appear to avoid sensitive topics, some of them could be found in the books, especially death and discrimination. In addition, it seems interesting to mention that for certain topics the books presented the same or similar inputs for reading texts, as is the case with the books and films “My Sister’s Keeper” and “Into the Wild” in EiC 7/8 and PT 7&8.

Secondly, the findings of the investigation of CEFR-descriptors showed interesting tendencies in connection with the students’ needs and the context in which the books are used. Almost all reading activities could be classified as corresponding to the general B2 descriptor. Thus, their level is in line with that of the Matura tasks and the claims of the coursebooks. Moreover, a large number of reading activities could be assigned to descriptors stating that students are able to scan texts and locate certain pieces of information and to grasp the writer’s viewpoints in articles and reports.

Thirdly, the results of analysing the different strategies and stages as well as the integration of other skills shall be evaluated in light of their function and impact mentioned in the theory part. Wallace’s (1992: 86) and William’s (1984:36) claim that reading activities frequently consist of three components could be confirmed in part. While the post-reading stage is almost never absent, pre-reading was found to be the second most prominent stage with percentages ranging from 15 % (MYW 7&8) to 38 % (PT 7&8) of all activities. The number of occurrences of the while-reading stage shows divergence. While almost a third of the reading activities in PT 7&8 contains this stage, only 6 % do so in EiC 7/8. The analysis of the strategies which are practised in these stages

displays interrelated and therefore similar results. Post-reading strategies dominate followed by pre-reading strategies. While-reading strategies, however, could not be identified with the exception of one in EiC 7/8. Thus, a comparison of the books as far as stages and strategies are concerned demonstrates that the post-reading stage is almost always available and usually promotes strategies, followed by the pre-reading stage and its strategies. However, there might be potential for increasing the number of activities containing a while-reading stage with strategies due to the importance of while-reading procedures. In addition, the integration of other skills, which is considered as important by Brown (2007: 285) and Harmer (1991: 52), is generally implemented. In all books, more than 40 % of the reading activities are integrated, with even 63 % in EiC 7/8. Concerning the other skills, reading is mostly combined with speaking, followed by writing and only rarely with listening in all books. To conclude, as far as both the three phase approach and the implementation of skills are concerned, reading activities typically involve a pre-reading stage in the form of a speaking task which often aims at activating prior knowledge and a post-reading phase by means of a writing exercise which elicits the learners' personal response.

In terms of the length of the texts, the books display similar findings. In general, the length of around 50 % of the texts ranges from half a page up to one A4 page. Thus, it roughly corresponds to the length of the Matura tasks which are approximately one page long. In all books, only 1 % of the reading texts exceed the length of two pages. Moreover, it can be mentioned that the texts in MYW 7&8 generally tend to be shorter than those of the other books.

Matching the results of the descriptor concerned with text types to the students' needs showed interesting outcomes. While most of the texts correspond to the types of general interest, literary texts and news items, extracts from guidebooks and examples of correspondence could only scarcely be found. Moreover, the text type of instructions could not be identified at all. However, it has to be stated that an investigation of the exemplary Matura tasks on the SRDP homepage revealed no instances of correspondence or instructions. Thus, the fact that the University of Innsbruck (2011) included these two text types in the test specifications might be considered as questionable. Nevertheless, in light of Koda's (2005: 154) claim that knowledge about text types and their structure is a crucial factor, it seems important that students are familiarised with a variety of text

types. This can be related to the findings of the category “other”, which consists of interesting and diverse specialised texts.

Similarly, as far as the activity formats are concerned, it appears essential that students are exposed to a range of them while also practising those which are employed as test formats in the Matura exam. While a variety of other formats and questions dominate, most test formats, especially multiple matching, are also practised to a large extent. However, in the case of the books EiC 7/8 and MYW 7&8 more activities to practise the format of short answers might be useful. Although there is a difference between teaching and testing, the number of tasks which correspond to the test formats might also be an indicator of how well the books prepare the students for the exam.

In addition, the findings concerning the constructs have to be related to the students’ needs and those determined by the context. All constructs which were defined as relevant could be identified and frequently more than one was displayed by an activity. Reading for main ideas and supporting details leads the list, followed by search reading and scanning while reading for gist and reading to deduce the meaning of words or phrases could not be found that often. These results correspond to Urquhart and Weir’s (1998: 101) claim that search reading, skimming, scanning and careful reading at the global level, which equates reading for main ideas and supporting details, are the types of reading that could be found most often in their analysis of reading tests and coursebooks used for teaching reading. Although they do not specify further to which and how many books or tests they refer, the present analysis shows similar tendencies.

Lastly, the resemblance of the reading activities of the coursebooks to the test tasks of the Matura exam was measured by means of four criteria. In all books more than a fifth of all reading activities displayed a resemblance to the Matura tasks, which seems a satisfactory percentage. Due to the fact that only those activities were included which corresponded to all four criteria, many tasks could not be considered since they only conformed in part.

As a general conclusion, it can be said that the badges stating that students are well prepared for the Matura can be evaluated as being correct as regards reading. The books offer texts on many topics, of different lengths and types and based on various constructs. Moreover, reading activities often consist of different stages and aim at practising a variety of strategies and activity formats as well as promoting the integration of other skills. In addition, all books contain reading tasks which are standardised in the way the

Matura tasks are, which is why students are familiarised with them. Thus, all books were found to meet the learners' needs in terms of preparation.

6. Conclusion

The aim of this thesis was to investigate to what extent and in which ways the coursebooks *English in Context 7/8*, *Prime Time 7&8* and *Make Your Way 7&8* prepare Austrian students for the reading part of the written English Matura. After a detailed account of what reading is and how it can be taught and tested, a closer look was taken on the theory of coursebook analysis. The methodology of this thesis was based on McGrath's (2002) approach and consisted of the context and needs analysis, the impressionistic method as well as the checklist and the in-depth method.

The results of these four steps of analysis showed that the use of the books familiarises the learners with the topics specified by both the curriculum and the test specifications of the Matura. Many of the reading activities are designed in a way which allows the learners to practise different strategies in different stages, such as activating background knowledge or giving a personal response to a text. Moreover, learners are encouraged to practise other skills, mostly speaking and writing, alongside reading, which imitates real-life language use. Not only are learners exposed to a variety of texts of different types and lengths as well as task formats in general, they are also enabled to practise those relevant for the Matura exam. In addition, the books go one step further and offer reading activities which are similar to the test tasks. Lastly, CEFR-descriptors and constructs significant for the Matura can be assigned to the activities.

Although differences between the books could be identified as far as various aspects are concerned, it can be concluded that all of them prepare the learners well and in a variety of ways for the Matura exam. Thus, the claims "Sicher und kompetent zu Matura" and "Fit für die Matura" can be evaluated as correct.

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8. Appendix

8.1. Checklist

The activity ...

deals with (a) relevant topic(s) in terms of the Matura, the CEFR and the curriculum of AHS Oberstufe	Tick	Comments
social life		
free time (hobbies, sports, ...)		
professional life		
education		
languages		
media		
music		
literature		
travelling and places		
environment		
animals		
science and technology		
art		
fashion		
youth		
culture		
traditions and customs		
migration and multicultural society		
food		
health and body care		
services (museums, libraries, hospitals)		
global problems		
economy		
politics		
history		
attitudes and values		
human rights		
crime		
ways of living (together)		
diversity		
other		

The activity ...

corresponds to (a) relevant CEFR descriptor(s)	Tick	Comments
<u>Overall reading comprehension</u>		
B2: Can read with a large degree of independence, adapting style and speed of reading to different texts and purposes, and using appropriate reference sources selectively. Has a broad active reading vocabulary, but may experience some difficulty with low frequency idioms.		
B1: Can read straightforward factual texts on subjects related to his/her field and interest with a satisfactory level of comprehension.		

<u>Reading correspondence</u>		
B2: Can read correspondence relating to his/her field of interest and readily grasp the essential meaning.		
B1: Can understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters well enough to correspond regularly with a pen friend.		
<u>Reading literary prose and everyday or job-related texts</u>		
B2: Can understand contemporary literary prose.		
B1: Can understand texts that consist mainly of high frequency everyday or job- related language.		
<u>Reading for orientation</u>		
B2: Can scan quickly through long and complex texts, locating relevant details. Can quickly identify the content and relevance of news items, articles and reports on a wide range of professional topics, deciding whether closer study is worthwhile.		
B1: Can scan longer texts in order to locate desired information, and gather information from different parts of a text, or from different texts in order to fulfil a specific task.		
B1: Can find and understand relevant information in everyday material, such as letters, brochures and short official documents.		
<u>Reading for information and argument</u>		
B2: Can obtain information, ideas and opinions from highly specialised sources within his/her field. Can understand specialised articles outside his/her field, provided he/she can use a dictionary occasionally to confirm his/her interpretation of terminology.		
B2: Can understand articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular stances or viewpoints.		
B1: Can identify the main conclusions in clearly signalled argumentative texts. Can recognise the line of argument in the treatment of the issue presented, though not necessarily in detail.		
B1: Can recognise significant points in straightforward newspaper articles on familiar subjects.		
<u>Reading instructions</u>		
B2: Can understand lengthy, complex instructions in his field, including details on conditions and warnings, provided he/she can reread difficult sections.		
B1: Can understand clearly written, straightforward instructions for a piece of equipment.		
<u>Identifying cues and inferring</u>		
B2: Can use a variety of strategies to achieve comprehension; checking comprehension by using contextual clues.		
B1: Can identify unfamiliar words from the context on topics related to his/her field and interests. Can extrapolate the meaning of occasional unknown words from the context and deduce sentence meaning provided the topic discussed is familiar.		

The activity ...

contains a pre-, while- and/or post-reading stage ...						
<u>pre-reading</u>	Tick	<u>while-reading</u>	Tick	<u>post-reading</u>	Tick	Comments
listening		listening		listening		
speaking		speaking		speaking		
writing		writing		writing		
grammar		grammar		grammar		
lexicon		lexicon		lexicon		
... which triggers					Tick	Comments
<u>pre-reading strategies</u>						
the activation of background knowledge about the topic of the text						
predicting and hypothesising about the content of the text						
<u>while-reading strategies</u>						
self-questioning						
paraphrasing						
<u>post-reading strategies</u>						
the reader's personal response to the text						
the reader's evaluation of the text						

The activity ...

encourages students to work with texts of different lengths	Tick	Comment
up to half a page		
more than half a page to a page		
more than a page to two pages		
more than two pages		

The activity ...

corresponds to the formal text types of the Matura	Tick	Comments
general interest		
literary text		
<u>non-literary text</u>		
correspondence		
news items		
instructions		
guidebooks		
other		

The activity ...

corresponds to a certain activity format	Tick	Comments
multiple choice		
multiple matching (including gapped variety)		
true or false with justification		
short answers (1-4 words)		
questions		
sequencing		
gap filling		
other		

The activity ...

corresponds to (a) construct(s) of reading relevant for the Matura	Tick	Comments
reading for gist (skimming)		
reading for important details (scanning)		
search reading		
<u><i>careful reading:</i></u>		
reading for main ideas and supporting details		
reading to deduce the meaning of a word or phrase		

The activity ...

resembles the Matura tasks	Tick	Comments
the activity features one of the test formats		
the instructions correspond to those of the Matura tasks		
one example has been done for the students		
the length of the text corresponds to that of the Matura tasks		

8.2. Impressionistic method – Fact sheets

English in Context

Name:	<i>English in Context 7/8: Student's Book: Language and Skills Proficiency</i>
Authors:	James Abram and Megan Hadgraft
Publisher:	Veritas (Linz)
Year of publication:	2014 (1 st edition)
Intended audience:	students of the 7 th and 8 th grade of AHS; aims at the level B2 to B2+
Type of material:	student's book (language and skills proficiency) with CD-ROM
Blurb:	slogan; five bullet points claiming what the book offers; two other <i>English in Context</i> books are advertised; two other books are advertised; two links; general information about the book
Table of contents:	names of topics, units and subtopics are given with page numbers; it is indicated on which pages the "Check Your Progress" and "Communication across Cultures" parts as well as the can-do statements can be found; symbols show for which exercises video and CD materials are offered; a picture is given for each topic
Structure:	289 pages; twelve topics; each topic is composed of a "Lead-In" double page, a "Words in Context" double page and three units; some units contain a "Communicating across Cultures" page; "Check Your Progress" unit after every second topic; two extra topics at the end of the book
Design of the units:	units are divided into three parts of different subtopics; parts consist of one to seven exercises; vocabulary is given; "Trouble Spot", "Language Help", "Tip" and "Fact File" boxes; pictures; can-do statements at the end of units, sometimes followed by one or more "Communicating across Cultures" exercise(s)
Interesting features:	at the end of the book double page "Language for Tasks ('Operatoren')"; page "Language for Discussion"; page "Language for Writing"; explanation of symbols

Prime Time


Name:	<i>Prime Time 7: Coursebook / Prime Time 8: Coursebook</i>
Authors:	Georg Hellmayr, Stephan Waba and Heike Mlakar
Publisher:	Österreichischer Bundesverlag Schulbuch (Vienna)
Year of publication:	2011 (1 st edition) / 2012 (1 st edition)
Intended audience:	students of the 7 th / 8 th grade of AHS; aims at the level B2 / B2+
Type of material:	coursebook with CD and DVD
Blurb:	short text which describes the book; five bullet points stating what the book contains; schoolbook and ISBN number; a link
Table of contents:	offers information about the page numbers and topics of the units as well as the texts that are featured in them; specifies what is practised in each unit in terms of the four skills, vocabulary and grammar; references to online links provided for each unit
Structure:	192 pages and ten units both; section “Writing guide” after last unit in <i>Prime Time 7</i> and section “Exam preparation” after last unit in <i>Prime Time 8</i> ; at the end of both books glossary and solutions to the check-out pages
Design of the units:	introductory double page; units are divided into three to eight different parts with their own subtopics and headings; these parts consist of one to nine exercises; sections “Spot on language” and “Check-out” at the end of each unit; boxes “Word Bank”, “Fact File”, “VIP File”, “Tip” and “Useful phrases”; pictures
Interesting features:	symbol for exercises which introduce the formats of the standardised Matura exam; relevant CEFR-descriptors for the Check-out sections presented on last page

Make Your Way

Name:	<i>Make Your Way 7: Coursebook / Make Your Way 8: Coursebook</i>
Authors:	Robin Davis, Günter Gerngroß, Christian Holzmann, Peter Lewis-Jones and Herbert Puchta
Publisher:	Österreichischer Bundesverlag Schulbuch (Vienna)
Year of publication:	2011 (1 st edition) / 2012 (1 st edition)
Intended audience:	students of the 7 th / 8 th grade of AHS; aims at the level B2 / B2+
Type of material:	coursebook with CD and CD-ROM
Blurb:	short text which describes the book; five bullet points stating what the book contains; schoolbook and ISBN number; a link
Table of contents:	offers information about the page numbers, topics and subtopics of the units; indicates what is practised in each unit in terms of the four skills, vocabulary and grammar; specifies the contents of the “Extras” and “Mastering” sections
Structure:	208 / 192 pages and twelve / seven units; sections “Make Your Way to the Written Matura” and “Make Your Way to the Oral Matura” after last unit in <i>Make Your Way 8</i>
Design of the units:	units are divided into two to four different parts with their own subtopics and headings; these parts consist of one to ten exercises; sections “Vocabulary station” and “Mastering” at the end of each unit; boxes providing vocabulary, phrases or guidelines; pictures
Interesting features:	the task formats and topics or titles of the reading, listening and language in use tasks from the “Mastering” sections are given in the table of contents as well as the text types of the writing tasks and the topics of the speaking tasks

8.3. Exemplary Matura tasks with solutions

Name:	
Klasse/Jahrgang:	



Standardisierte kompetenzorientierte
schriftliche Reife- und Diplomprüfung


AHS


6. Mai 2015

Englisch

(B2)

Lesen

 **BF**
Bundesministerium für
Bildung und Frauen

 **bifie**

öffentliches Dokument

Hinweise zum Beantworten der Fragen

Sehr geehrte Kandidatin, sehr geehrter Kandidat!

Dieses Aufgabenheft enthält vier Aufgaben. Die Zeit zur Bearbeitung dieser vier Aufgaben beträgt 60 Minuten.

Verwenden Sie für Ihre Arbeit einen schwarzen oder blauen Stift.

Bevor Sie mit den Aufgaben beginnen, trennen Sie das Antwortblatt heraus.

Schreiben Sie Ihre Antworten ausschließlich auf das dafür vorgesehene Antwortblatt. Beachten Sie dazu die Anweisungen der jeweiligen Aufgabenstellung. Sie können im Aufgabenheft Notizen machen. Diese werden bei der Beurteilung nicht berücksichtigt.

Schreiben Sie bitte Ihren Namen in das vorgesehene Feld auf dem Antwortblatt.

Bei der Bearbeitung der Aufgaben sind keine Hilfsmittel erlaubt.

Kreuzen Sie bei Aufgaben, die Kästchen vorgeben, jeweils nur ein Kästchen an. Haben Sie versehentlich ein falsches Kästchen angekreuzt, malen Sie dieses vollständig aus und kreuzen Sie das richtige Kästchen an.

A <input type="checkbox"/>	B <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	C <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	D <input type="checkbox"/>
----------------------------	---------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	----------------------------

Möchten Sie ein bereits von Ihnen ausgemaltes Kästchen als Antwort wählen, kreisen Sie dieses Kästchen ein.

A <input type="checkbox"/>	B <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	C <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	D <input type="checkbox"/>
----------------------------	---------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	----------------------------

Schreiben Sie Ihre Antworten bei Aufgaben, die das Eintragen von einzelnen Buchstaben verlangen, leserlich und in Blockbuchstaben. Falls Sie eine Antwort korrigieren möchten, malen Sie das Kästchen aus und schreiben Sie den richtigen Buchstaben rechts neben das Kästchen.

B	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	G	F
---	-------------------------------------	---	---

Falls Sie bei den Aufgaben, die Sie mit einem bzw. bis zu maximal vier Wörtern beantworten können, eine Antwort korrigieren möchten, streichen Sie bitte die falsche Antwort durch und schreiben Sie die richtige daneben oder darunter. Alles, was nicht durchgestrichen ist, zählt zur Antwort.

falsche Antwort	richtige Antwort
----------------------------	------------------

Beachten Sie, dass bei der Testmethode *Richtig/Falsch/Begründung* beide Teile (*Richtig/Falsch* und *Die ersten vier Wörter*) korrekt sein müssen, um mit einem Punkt bewertet werden zu können.

Jede richtige Antwort wird mit einem Punkt bewertet. Bei jeder Aufgabe finden Sie eine Angabe zu den maximal erreichbaren Punkten.

Viel Erfolg!

NAME: _____

— ✂ — ACHTUNG: Für wissenschaftliche Auswertung bitte hier abschneiden. —



ANTWORTBLATT



Coping with traffic problems

0	A	<input type="checkbox"/>	B	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	C	<input type="checkbox"/>	D	<input type="checkbox"/>
1	A	<input type="checkbox"/>	B	<input type="checkbox"/>	C	<input type="checkbox"/>	D	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	A	<input type="checkbox"/>	B	<input type="checkbox"/>	C	<input type="checkbox"/>	D	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	A	<input type="checkbox"/>	B	<input type="checkbox"/>	C	<input type="checkbox"/>	D	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	A	<input type="checkbox"/>	B	<input type="checkbox"/>	C	<input type="checkbox"/>	D	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	A	<input type="checkbox"/>	B	<input type="checkbox"/>	C	<input type="checkbox"/>	D	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	A	<input type="checkbox"/>	B	<input type="checkbox"/>	C	<input type="checkbox"/>	D	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	A	<input type="checkbox"/>	B	<input type="checkbox"/>	C	<input type="checkbox"/>	D	<input type="checkbox"/>

Von der
Lehrperson
auszufüllen

richtig falsch

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

___ / 7 P.

1

Kids addicted to technology

	T	F	First four words
0	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<i>It turns out her</i>
1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
4	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
5	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
6	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
7	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
8	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Von der
Lehrperson
auszufüllen

richtig falsch

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

___ / 8 P.

2



öffentliches Dokument





ANTWORTBLATT



3

When Big Brother is watching Sydney

0	1	2	3
G			
4	5	6	7
8	9		

Von der Lehrperson auszufüllen

richtig	falsch	richtig	falsch	richtig	falsch	richtig	falsch
		1		2		3	
		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4		5		6		7	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8		9					
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				

___ / 9 P.

4

The white rabbit

0	look after Amy
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	
9	

Von der Lehrperson auszufüllen

richtig	falsch
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

___ / 9 P.



öffentliches Dokument

___ von 33 P. 7

Bitte umblättern

Read the text about measures to cope with traffic problems in a Chinese city, then choose the correct answer (A, B, C or D) for questions 1-7. Put a cross (X) in the correct box on the answer sheet. The first one (0) has been done for you.

Coping with traffic problems

China's teeming cities, home to millions, are blanketed in smog. The country is now trying to fight air pollution and traffic chaos by expanding public transportation.

China's rapidly growing cities are grappling with massive pollution. At the start of the year, Beijing made headlines around the world with images of the Chinese capital blanketed in a cloudy haze.

Yet the city is just one of many urban centers in China where air quality has drastically plummeted. As the country's middle class continues to grow, so too, has the demand for cars. China has the highest number of new car registrations in the world. In 2011, 14.5 million new cars were registered – a stark contrast from some 600,000 vehicles in 2000.

With so many new cars, air quality has deteriorated rapidly and roads are badly congested. Local governments and city planners are looking for ways to relieve the traffic and pollution by providing eco-friendly, sustainable transport.

Too often, say analysts, developing countries end up copying the car-based transportation concept they see in industrialized countries. "Instead of reducing individual transit and expanding public transportation, officials focus too much on building up infrastructure and easing the flow of traffic," says Jüren Perschon, an expert at the European Institute for Sustainable Transport (EURIST), in a strategy paper.

Guangzhou BRT – fast, green and clean

But there are signs of progress - take Guangzhou, for example. Located on the Pearl River in southern China, the city is an important manufacturing hub for everything from textiles to high-tech electronics and auto parts. Booming industries have attracted millions of people to Guangzhou, and the city – which is already home to some nine million people – is growing rapidly.

To keep traffic from spiraling out of control, officials introduced the Guangzhou BRT (Bus Rapid Transit) in February of 2010. The buses now transport nearly a million passengers a day, far more than most of China's subway systems.

Guangzhou constructed a special corridor with designated bus lanes in the middle of the street that are exclusively for the BRT. Hoping to inspire residents to leave their cars behind, the city also introduced a bike sharing program that boasts 15,000 bicycles at some 200 stations.

"When you organize transportation, you have to think about the people, not about the cars," says Karl Fjellstrom, the regional director at the Institute for Transportation and Development Policy, which helped design and plan the Guangzhou BRT project.

What's more, the city has also opened the Donghaochong Greenway alongside the bicycle path. The lush network of green spaces, parks and playgrounds offers residents a peaceful oasis in the heart of the city.

The measures have helped Guangzhou not only to ease its traffic chaos, but also to cut its greenhouse gas emissions. Thanks to the bus system alone, the city cut carbon emissions by around 45,000 tons in 2010. And it's aiming to save another 86,500 tons each year over the next 10 years.

- 0 China wants to cope with environmental problems by
- A slowing down economic growth.
 - B increasing transport services.
 - C employing environmental experts.
 - D introducing new technologies.
- 1 The high number of new automobiles in China is caused by
- A rapid urbanization.
 - B car imports from abroad.
 - C people with money to spend.
 - D the removal of trade barriers.
- 2 This many new vehicles has led to
- A new speed limits.
 - B more traffic jams.
 - C protests by residents.
 - D cuts in public transport.
- 3 The traffic policy of less developed states is mostly influenced by
- A developed nations.
 - B ecological experts.
 - C local requirements.
 - D existing infrastructure.
- 4 The population growth of Guangzhou can be put down to
- A political activities.
 - B resettlement programmes.
 - C urban traffic management.
 - D expanding businesses.
- 5 Guangzhou's BRT system is more successful than China's
- A rail companies.
 - B highway busses.
 - C underground networks.
 - D state-run airlines.
- 6 People who design urban traffic systems must consider the needs of
- A automobiles.
 - B local infrastructure.
 - C environmentalists.
 - D city residents.
- 7 Guangzhou's transport policy has led to an increase of
- A road building.
 - B air quality.
 - C subway passengers.
 - D traffic problems.

Read the text by a New York-based writer and mother about the influence of technology on modern family life. First decide whether the statements (1-8) are true (T) or false (F) and put a cross (X) in the correct box on the answer sheet. Then identify the sentence in the text which supports your decision. Write the first 4 words of this sentence in the space provided. There may be more than one correct answer; write down only one. The first one (0) has been done for you.



Kids addicted to technology

This summer a mom I know told me her 12-year-old bookworm daughter regrettably handed back her Kindle Fire, saying she couldn't handle the temptation to play games rather than read. Her mom was stunned. She assumed that all of those hours on the Kindle were being spent pouring over the school summer reading list. It turns out her daughter couldn't resist *Doodle Jumping* her days away.

I was impressed that a young girl could admit this growing addiction and hand over her Kindle, but she's the exception, and not the norm. Most parents are slowly recognizing that what starts out as an innocent distraction and fun way to integrate tech into our lives can easily turn into a full blown addiction to the games and gadgets that our kids now have access to all the time.

One of the reasons I chose my daughters' overnight camp this summer was because of their "no electronics" rule. No gadgets are allowed – and there's no electricity in the bunks. I admit, I needed them to be completely unplugged, and it's much easier to do that in a place where there are literally no plugs. At home, somehow, the one hour of allowed screen time easily morphs into two or three.

When a Taiwanese 18-year-old died in July after playing *Diablo 3* for 40 straight hours, the Internet was abuzz with tales of the dangers of prolonged gaming. But those cases of extreme use aren't what most modern parents are dealing with. Closer to home, my Facebook wall and real life chatter have been lighting up with tales of kids addicted to *Minecraft*, glued to their iPod Touches, and clocking in the hours watching YouTube videos or playing *Angry Birds* and *Temple Run* on iPads. One friend announced she was cutting off her son cold

turkey from *Minecraft* after he had a temper tantrum at 7:00am because she wouldn't let him play as soon as he woke up.

So what is a digital parent to do? We have pretty strict rules in our house – no screen time during the week at all, and the supposed one hour a day on the weekends. I had a fantasy that when my daughters returned from camp they would eschew the computer. And, they tried. But the lure was too great. They had virtual pets to check up on, stats to look at, and basically, their online world has become an extension of their normal world. Part of assimilating back into post-camp world was getting back into their tech groove too. Like most aspects of parenting, balance is key. Technology is an incredibly positive part of our lives, and our kids should be able to create and use it to their benefit. My twin daughters are 10 years old and they need to use a computer for school. By the time most kids reach middle school they will need to conduct research, write papers and, if their school is moving into the 21st century, they'll most likely have classroom blogs, assignments and school communication online as well. This is where it gets more difficult. Just as adults have a difficult time shutting off the email when they get home – kids will need rules to merge their "work" and home lives with technology.

There are all sorts of ways to set tech rules inside the house. In our family, it's no cell phones at the dinner table, or in bedrooms. Laptops are kept in the kitchen or living room. I do know first hand the hard part is having everyone follow the rules. The lure of technology in our lives is so strong; the goal has to be to figure out how to teach our kids to master technology and not let technology master them.

0	A game on an e-book reader kept a girl busy.
1	Children are realizing that they are over dependent on technological devices.
2	The author felt that her children needed a break from technology.
3	The author does not always insist her children follow the family's rules.
4	Nonstop computer gaming is a problem concerned parents face everyday.
5	Parents exchange information about which games their children are hooked on.
6	The author's children are not allowed to use any gadgets at home anymore.
7	Nowadays, children need technology for school work.
8	It's not easy for anybody to cut down on modern technology in their free time.

Read the text about how Sydney is monitored for various problems. Parts of the text have been removed. Choose the correct part (A-L) for each gap (1-9). There are two extra parts that you should not use. Write your answers in the spaces provided on the answer sheet. The first one (0) has been done for you.

When Big Brother is watching Sydney

All around the city, tucked away in soundproof, blast-proof, high-security rooms, teams of men and women (but mostly men) (0) ____, monitoring, correcting, fixing, tweaking and handling crises large and small. Day and night they each play their vital role in a real-world, high-stakes version of *The Truman Show*.

These are Sydney's control centres. From water, traffic, buses and trains to planes, electricity, bushfires and security, these rooms (1) ____ and most of us don't even know they are there.

If Sydney were a living creature, they'd be the organs (2) ____ that keep it alive.

At the Sydney Transport Management Centre (TMC) in Eveleigh, about 18 specialists sit at desks staring at horseshoe arrays of four or five computer screens. Most of the wall at one end of the room is taken up by a vast video screen split into 20 or more smaller screens showing camera footage of rush-hour traffic around the city, (3) ____.

Bus, rail and ferry specialists sit alongside operators monitoring traffic lights and congestion, each concentrating on their little piece of the transport jigsaw and working together to solve problems that (4) ____.

At any moment they are ready to deal with anything from a car (5) ____ to a collapsing crane, as happened in Broadway in November.

"You never know what you're going to get in this place," spokesman Dave Wright says. "You've got to keep your cool. Everyone knows their job and everyone is an expert in their field. I've been here for three years and I've never seen anyone lose it. We just do the best with what we've got. There is a lot of pressure and assertiveness and after a major incident, we all go home pretty exhausted."

The minute level of control the operators have is astonishing. From manually tweaking the phasing of a particular set of traffic lights to ease traffic flow to shifting the median strips on the Harbour Bridge with the flick of a joystick, they are truly masters of all they (6) ____.

But regardless of how much the technology puts them in control, they are still at the mercy of natural events – particularly the weather – which can (7) ____ throughout the whole complex system.

While it's not quite the flapping of a butterfly's wing in the Amazon causing a tornado in China, rain can cause traffic problems right around the city simply because (8) ____ passengers take that much longer to get on and off buses.

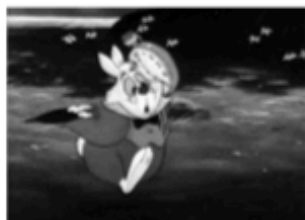
The TransGrid control centre in Eastern Creek is a smaller version of the TMC with the video of streams of traffic replaced by a huge diagram of the state's electricity network, rendered in pleasing tones of white, green and purple. And here the weather is also a major preoccupation for the three operators sitting at their terminals, (9) ____ in the right places to meet demand.

"If nothing is going on, it can be a deadly boring job because they are sitting there, waiting for something to happen," says Lionel Smyth, the manager in charge of the network. "They are constantly looking at what happens next. What's the weather doing? Are there storms or wind? And they are looking at the load [demand], which is dependent on the weather."

And what happens when everyone switches on the kettle at half-time during the grand final? Smyth says it barely registers. It's the weather – particularly all those air conditioners – that drives demand above everything else.

A	controlling all the vital processes
B	inconsiderately left in a clearway
C	fiddling with umbrellas means
D	have enormous knock-on effects
E	pop up minute to minute
F	providing the right amount of power
G	stare intently into banks of computer screens
H	checking the computer systems
I	interspersed with maps and bar charts
J	survey on their screens
K	find an appropriate solution
L	touch almost every aspect of our daily lives

Read the story about a student's babysitting experiences. Complete the sentences (1-9) using a maximum of 4 words. Write your answers in the spaces provided on the answer sheet. The first one (0) has been done for you.



The white rabbit

Susan, my older sister, and Amy, my little niece, had only just moved into their new house when I saw the white rabbit. I had offered to stay over to look after Amy while Susan had a well-deserved Saturday night out. I did, however, have an ulterior motive. On the Monday morning I had a Psychology exam and I knew there would be no distractions at Susan's to keep me from studying after Amy had gone to bed.

After a lively session on the trampoline, Amy and I snuggled up on the sofa with *Alice in Wonderland* in the DVD player. Disney films captivate me, and when Amy eventually dropped off, I finished watching alone before carrying her up to bed. Returning to the living room with my notes, a highlighter and a glass of chilled Chardonnay, I was determined to put the rest of the evening to good use. I sipped my wine and applied myself to Freud's dream theory. But the exertions of the day caused my eyelids to droop, and the next thing I knew, I was wandering in some kind of sinister garden with bizarre creatures, half-human, half-animal, grinning, babbling and hopping all around me.

It must have been well after midnight when I woke, stiff-necked and dry-mouthed. My binder lay open on my lap; I hadn't highlighted a single sentence. The empty wine glass stood on the coffee table. I shuffled into the kitchen to slake my thirst before going upstairs, and it was then, as I was running the tap and looking out through the kitchen window into the moonlit garden, that I saw the white rabbit.

I did all those things you're supposed to do when you can't believe your eyes: I rubbed them and blinked hard. But there it was: a large white rabbit, sitting up on its hind legs and looking straight at me with pink eyes. It twitched its whiskers, cocked its head knowingly, then turned and hopped off slowly and deliberately. I felt an irrational urge to follow it, but since I was wearing neither my shoes nor my glasses, I resisted and simply watched it vanish into the darkness of the hedge.

Next morning at breakfast, I felt drained. My head was heavy and my calves were aching. The strange creatures had plagued me all night, chattering nonsensically and insisting I have tea with them, when all I wanted to do was escape from the garden so I wouldn't be late for

my exam. I frowned at my toast, trying to clear my mind. Had I really seen the white rabbit or had I dreamed that as well? What was wrong with me? A spot of trampolining, one glass of wine – or was it two – and I was a wreck.

Susan and Amy, on the other hand, were in excellent spirits. Amy told Susan, in that detailed way five-year-olds do, about the DVD we had watched.

"*Alice in Wonderland*?" said Susan. "That reminds me – I've met the lady next door and guess what, Amy? She's got a rabbit – a big white one! She says it's the cleverest rabbit in the world. It can do all sorts of things. It can even get out of its cage on its own, but it never gets lost. She says you can go and visit it any time you like."

I felt a rush of relief. Amy clapped her hands in delight. Susan glanced at us in turn.

"Why don't the two of you go over and see the rabbit this morning?" she suggested. "I'm sure Mrs Carroll wouldn't mind."

I managed a weak smile. "As long as it's not wearing a waistcoat and carrying a pocket-watch."

Amy obliged me by laughing at the joke louder than was absolutely necessary.

"Oh, isn't Auntie Alice funny!" said Susan. "By the way, Alice, how was the Chardonnay?"

0	The narrator was at Susan's in order to ____.
1	Susan's was a good place to work because ____.
2	The narrator watched the film to the end because ____.
3	The narrator unintentionally ____.
4	When the narrator looked again at her text, she noticed ____.
5	The narrator's first reaction when she saw the rabbit was ____. (Give <u>one</u> answer.)
6	When the rabbit moved away, the narrator really wanted ____.
7	In her dreams, the narrator was annoyed by ____.
8	On hearing Susan's news, the narrator assumed that the white rabbit ____.
9	Amy was very amused by ____.

Standardisierte kompetenzorientierte
schriftliche Reifeprüfung / Reife- und Diplomprüfung

AHS

6. Mai 2015

Englisch
Lesen (B2)

Korrekturheft

Hinweise zur Korrektur

Bei der Korrektur werden ausschließlich die Antworten auf dem Antwortblatt berücksichtigt.

Korrektur der Aufgaben

Bitte kreuzen Sie bei jeder Frage im Bereich mit dem Hinweis „von der Lehrperson auszufüllen“ an, ob die Kandidatin/der Kandidat die Frage richtig oder falsch beantwortet hat.

Falls Sie versehentlich das falsche Kästchen markieren, malen Sie es bitte vollständig aus (■) und kreuzen das richtige an (☒).

richtig	falsch
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Gibt eine Kandidatin/ein Kandidat bei einer Frage zwei Antworten an und ist eine davon falsch, so ist die gesamte Antwort als falsch zu werten. Bei den Testmethoden *Kurzantworten* und *Richtig/Falsch mit Begründung* zählen alle Wörter, die nicht durchgestrichen sind, zur Antwort.

Bei der Beurteilung werden nur ganze Punkte vergeben. Die Vergabe von halben Punkten ist unzulässig.

Akzeptierte Antworten bei der Testmethode Richtig/Falsch mit Begründung

Die Testmethode *Richtig/Falsch mit Begründung* sieht vor, dass für die Erreichung eines Punktes zwei Bedingungen erfüllt sein müssen:

1. Die Entscheidung, ob die jeweilige Aussage richtig oder falsch ist, muss korrekt sein.
2. Als „Begründung“ sind die ersten 4 Wörter jenes Satzes zu zitieren, der die Entscheidung belegt.

Das BIFIE empfiehlt im Sinne der Kandidatinnen und Kandidaten, Abweichungen von der Regel der ersten vier Wörter zu akzeptieren, wenn zweifelsfrei erkennbar ist, dass auf den die Entscheidung begründenden Satz Bezug genommen wurde (etwa, wenn 4 Wörter innerhalb des Satzes oder der ganze Satz zitiert werden).

Akzeptierte Antworten bei der Testmethode Kurzantworten

Das Ziel der Aufgaben ist es, das Hör- bzw. Leseverständnis der Kandidatinnen und Kandidaten zu überprüfen. Grammatik- und Rechtschreibfehler werden bei der Korrektur nicht berücksichtigt, sofern sie die Kommunikation nicht verhindern. Es sind nur Antworten mit maximal 4 Wörtern zu akzeptieren.

Standardisierte Korrektur

Um die Verlässlichkeit der Testergebnisse österreichweit garantieren zu können, ist eine Standardisierung der Korrektur unerlässlich.

Die Antworten Ihrer Kandidatinnen und Kandidaten sind vielleicht auch dann richtig, wenn sie nicht im erweiterten Lösungsschlüssel aufscheinen. Falls Ihre Kandidatinnen und Kandidaten Antworten geben, die nicht eindeutig als richtig oder falsch einzuordnen sind, wenden Sie sich bitte an unser Team aus Muttersprachlerinnen und Muttersprachlern sowie Testexpertinnen und Testexperten, das Sie über den Online-Helpdesk bzw. die telefonische Korrekturhotline erreichen.

Online-Helpdesk

Ab dem Zeitpunkt der Veröffentlichung der Lösungen können Sie unter <http://srp.bifie.at/helpdesk> Anfragen an den Online-Helpdesk des BIFIE stellen. Beim Online-Helpdesk handelt es sich um ein Formular, mit dessen Hilfe Sie Antworten von Kandidatinnen und Kandidaten, die nicht im Lösungsschlüssel enthalten sind, an das BIFIE senden können. Sie brauchen zur Benutzung des Helpdesks kein Passwort. Sie erhalten von uns zeitnah eine Rückmeldung darüber, ob die Antworten als richtig oder falsch zu bewerten sind. Sie können den Helpdesk bis zum unten angegebenen Eingabeschluss jederzeit und beliebig oft in Anspruch nehmen, wobei Sie nach jeder Anfrage eine Bestätigung per E-Mail erhalten. Jede Anfrage wird garantiert von uns beantwortet. Die Antwort-E-Mails werden zum unten angegebenen Zeitpunkt zeitgleich an alle Lehrerinnen und Lehrer versendet.

Anleitungen zur Verwendung des Helpdesks für AHS und BHS finden Sie unter:

- http://srp.bifie.at/Anleitung_Helpdesk_AHS.pdf (AHS)
- http://srp.bifie.at/Anleitung_Helpdesk_BHS.pdf (BHS)

Online-Helpdesk Englisch	
Eingabe Helpdesk:	6. Mai 2015, 18:00 Uhr bis 8. Mai 2015, 23:59 Uhr
Eingabeschluss:	8. Mai 2015, 23:59 Uhr
Versand der Antwort-E-Mails:	11. Mai 2015 bis 12:00 Uhr

Telefon-Hotline

Die Telefon-Hotline ist ausschließlich in den unten angegebenen Zeiträumen besetzt. Bitte ordnen Sie Ihre Anfragen nach Fertigkeit, Aufgabe und Fragennummer, um dem Hotline-Team eine rasche Bearbeitung zu ermöglichen. Vielen Dank!

Telefon-Hotline Englisch	
Telefon-Hotline Termin 1:	11. Mai 2015 von 13:00 bis 15:00 Uhr
Telefon-Hotline Termin 2:	11. Mai 2015 von 16:00 bis 18:00 Uhr
Telefon-Hotline Termin 3:	12. Mai 2015 von 11:00 bis 13:00 Uhr
Telefonnummern:	01 533 6214 4062 oder 01 533 6214 4064

1 Coping with traffic problems

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	C	B	A	D	C	D	B

Begründungen

0

The text says: "The country is now trying to fight air pollution and traffic chaos by expanding public transportation." China therefore wants to cope with environmental problems by increasing transport services.

1

The text says: "As the country's middle class continues to grow, so too, has the demand for cars." The high number of new automobiles in China is therefore caused by people with money to spend.

2

The text says: "With so many new cars, air pollution has deteriorated rapidly and roads are badly congested." This many new vehicles has therefore led to more traffic jams.

3

The text says: "Too often, say analysts, developing countries end up copying the car-based transportation concept they see in industrialized countries." The traffic policy of less developed states is therefore mostly influenced by developed nations.

4

The text says: "Booming industries have attracted millions of people to Guangzhou, and the city – which is already home to some nine million people – is growing rapidly." The population growth of Guangzhou can therefore be put down to expanding businesses.

5

The text says: "The buses now transport nearly a million passengers a day, far more than most of China's subway systems." Guangzhou's BRT system is therefore more successful than China's underground networks.

6

The text says: "When you organize transportation, you have to think about the people, not about the cars," says Karl Fjellstrom, the regional director at the Institute for Transportation and Development Policy [...]. People who design urban traffic systems must therefore consider the needs of city residents.

7

The text says: "The measures have helped Guangzhou not only to ease its traffic chaos, but also to cut its greenhouse gas emissions. Thanks to the bus system alone, the city cut carbon emissions by around 45,000 tons in 2010." Guangzhou's transport policy has therefore led to an increase of air quality.

2 Kids addicted to technology

	R	F	akzeptiert	nicht akzeptiert
0	x		<i>It turns out her</i>	
1		x	I was impressed that Most parents are slowly	Closer to home, my This summer a mom
2	x		One of the reasons I admit, I needed	At home, somehow the Just as adults have No gadgets are allowed We have pretty strict I had a fantasy
3	x		At home, somehow, the	There are all sorts We have pretty strict But the lure was
4		x	But those cases of	When a Taiwanese 18-year-old One friend announced she
5	x		Closer to home, my	But those cases of Most parents are slowly One friend announced she
6		x	We have pretty strict	Like most aspects of Part of assimilating back
7	x		By the time most My twin daughters are	
8	x		Just as adults have	This is where it Technology is an incredibly The lure of technology

Begründungen

0

The text says: "[...] a mom I know told me her 12-year-old bookworm daughter regretfully handed back her Kindle Fire, saying she couldn't handle the temptation to play games rather than read." It then continues: "She assumed that all of those hours on the Kindle were being spent pouring over the school summer reading list. It turns out her daughter couldn't resist *Doodle Jumping* her days away." This means that an e-book reader kept a girl from completing her school assignments.

1

The text says: "I was impressed that a young girl could admit this growing addiction and hand over her Kindle, but she's the exception, and not the norm. Most parents are slowly recognizing that what starts out as an innocent distraction and fun way to integrate tech into our lives can easily turn into a full-blown addiction to the games and gadgets that our kids now have access to all the time." These sentences contradict the statement that children are realizing that they are over dependent on technological devices.

2

The text says: "One of the reasons I chose my daughters' overnight camp this summer was because of their 'no electronics' rule." The text then says: "I admit, I needed them to be completely unplugged, and it's much easier to do that in a place where there are literally no plugs." This sentence confirms that the author felt that her children needed a break from technology.

3

The text says: "At home, somehow, the one hour of allowed screen time easily morphs into two or three." This sentence confirms that the author does not always insist her children follow the family's rules.

4

The text says: "But those cases of extreme use aren't what most modern parents are dealing with." This sentence contradicts the statement that nonstop computer gaming is a problem concerned parents face everyday.

5

The text says: "Closer to home, my Facebook wall and real life chatter have been lighting up with tales of kids addicted to *Minecraft*, glued to their iPod Touches, and clocking in the hours watching YouTube videos or playing *Angry Birds* and *Temple Run* on iPads." This sentence confirms that parents exchange information about which games their children are hooked on.

6

The text says: "We have pretty strict rules in our house – no screen time during the week at all, and the supposed one hour a day on the weekends." This sentence contradicts the statement that the author's children are not allowed to use any gadgets at home anymore.

7

The text says: "My twin daughters are 10 years old and they need to use a computer for school. By the time most kids reach middle school they will need to conduct research, write papers and, if their school is moving into the 21st century, they'll most likely have classroom blogs, assignments and school communication online as well." This sentence confirms that children need technology for school work.

8

The text says: "Just as adults have a difficult time shutting off the email when they get home – kids will need rules to merge their 'work' and home lives with technology." This sentence confirms that it's not easy for anybody to cut down on modern technology in their free time.

3 When Big Brother is watching Sydney

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
G	L	A	I	E	B	J	D	C	F

Begründungen

0

The first paragraph talks about rooms full of mostly men who monitor, correct and fix crises. Thus "stare intently into banks of computer screens" is the only option that fits the gap contextually.

1

The text continues to talk about different aspects of city life, water, traffic, buses and trains to planes, electricity, bushfires and security; thus, aspects which "touch almost every aspect of our daily lives" are monitored in these rooms.

2

The text then compares Sydney to a living creature and also compares these control centres to the creature's organs. Thus "controlling all the vital processes" is the only option that fits the gap contextually.

3

The paragraph describes the control room with one wall full of video screens. Thus "interspersed with maps and bar charts" is the only option that fits the gap contextually.

4

The paragraph talks about specialists concentrating on their individual tasks and how they work together to solve potential problems. Thus "pop up minute to minute" is the only option that fits the gap contextually.

5

These specialists are ready to deal with problems like with a car that causes a problem or "a collapsing crane". Thus, "inconsiderately left in a clearway" is the only option that fits the gap contextually.

6

The text continues to talk about the operators and their amazing skills, calling them true masters of what they are doing and watching. Thus "survey on their screens" is the only option that fits the gap contextually.

7

The text continues to talk about the one thing which can be more powerful than technology, natural events like the weather system. Thus "have enormous knock-on effects" is the only option that fits the gap contextually.

8

The sentence talks about the effect rain has and the problems it can cause. Thus "fiddling with umbrellas means" is the only option that fits the gap contextually.

9

The paragraph talks about another control centre containing "a huge diagram of the state's electricity network" and the weather affecting the electricity situation. Thus, "providing the right amount of power" is the only option that fits the gap contextually.

4 The white rabbit

	akzeptiert	nicht akzeptiert
0	look after Amy	
1	<p>there are no distractions</p> <p>it was not distracting no distraction from studying no distractions no distractions at Susan's of no distractions she could concentrate well she is not distracted she wouldn't be distracted there is no distraction there is no distractions there nothing distracts her there was no distraction there was no distractions there were no distractions there wouldn't be distractions would be no distractions</p>	<p><i>Correct answers need to mention why Susan's was a good place to study.</i></p> <p>Alice can learn there Amy had to sleep Amy went to bed having a ulterior motive it keeps her studying it's the older sister learning for exam new house of an ulterior motive of her psychology exam of quietness of the new house psychology exam she can learn she can learn psychology she could learn she could learn psychology she could study she could study there she fell asleep she had enough time she had to study she has to study she really enjoyed it she was all alone</p>

		<p>Susan went out the house was new the narrator can study the narrator had an exam the time to learn there was no Amy time to study</p>
2	<p>Disney films captivate her</p> <p>captivated her Disney film captivate her Disney films are captivating Disney films captivated her Disney films captivated them Disney films captivates her Disney films captives her he loved Walt Disney's it captivated her it captivates her liked Disney films she liked the film she liked those films she likes Disney films such films captivate her the film captivate her</p>	<p>Amy dropped off Amy eventually dropped off Amy fell asleep Amy went to bed determined to good use didn't want to study Disney films captivate films captivate her films captivate me her eyelids drooped down she carried Amy upstairs she started studying she won't go sleeping the kid crashed out Wonderland</p>
3	<p>fell asleep</p> <p>fall asleep fall asleep during studying she fall asleep went asleep began to sleep sleeped slept fell to sleep</p>	<p>bizarre creatures dreamed (it is not possible to dream intentionally; "unintentionally" does not collocate with "dream".) dreamt of strange creatures drooped her eyelids dropped her eyelids drunk to much had a dream had bizarre dream her eyelids dropped maked fun of Susan saw a white rabbit saw the rabbit sleeped in (has the meaning of oversleep and is not correct) started dreaming urge to follow rabbits was wandering was wandering in some was wandering sinister garden woke up</p>
4	<p>she hadn't highlighted anything</p> <p>anything wasn't highlighted didn't highlight any sentences hadn't highlighted a sentence hadn't highlighted single sentence having no sentences highlighted her text wasn't highlighted highlighted nothing no highlighted sentence</p>	<p>a lack of highlights (difference in meaning: highlights refer to dye in one's hair) a single sentence a stiff neck a white rabbit any highlighted sentence chilled Chardonnay her opened binder her something highlighted a single sentence</p>

	<p>no sentence was highlighted no words were highlighted not one highlighted sentence not to have studied nothing highlighted nothing was done yet nothing was highlighted she didn't highlighted anything she had highlighted nothing she had learnt nothing she had not studied she had not worked she had read nothing she had studied nothing she had underlined nothing she hadn't done anything she hadn't done much she hadn't highlighted she hadn't highlighted it she hadn't highlighted sentences she hadn't learnt anything she hadn't learnt it she hadn't read it she hadn't studied it she hadn't studied anything she has done nothing she hasn't highlighted anything she hasn't marked anything she learned nothing that nothing was highlighted that she did nothing that she highlighted nothing</p>	<p>it was a dream she had been asleep she had been sleeping she had drunk the wine she have not write that anything was highlighted that she didn't write that there is nothing that there was nothing the binder lay open the empty wine glass there is no text very confused what she had seen</p>
5	<p>to rub her eyes to blink hard</p> <p>amazement blinked hard blinking and rubbing eyes can't believe can't believe her eyes disbelief not believing it not to believe it rubbed her eyes rubbed and blinked hard rubbed her eyes rubbing and blinking eyes rubbing eyes and blink rubbing her eyes rubbing her eyes hard rubbing, blinking the eyes she couldn't believe it she didn't trust eyes she rubbed her eyes she was amazed she was surprised surprise that she couldn't believe</p>	<p>being afraid can't believe your eyes running the tap she couldn't believe them she was shocked (<i>"shock" is a much stronger emotion than "surprise" and moral in nature, therefore it is not accepted</i>) she was tired shock to drink water to follow it to resist it to watch it typical very shocked</p>

	<p>to blink hard to blink in disbelief to mistrust her eyes to rub the eyes to rubb the eyes to rubbe her eyes to rubbed her eyes</p>	
6	<p>to follow it</p> <p>follow it to follow to follow him to follow the rabbit to walk after wanted to follow wanted to follow it</p>	<p>one glass of wine to be wearing her glasses to be wearing her shoes to escape to follow them to have her glasses to have her shoes to resist it to see it to see the darkness to sleep to watch it vanish wake up</p>
7	<p>strange creatures</p> <p>bizarre creatures bizarre creatures all night bizarre cetaures around her half animals strange creatures chattering strange half-human creatures the chattering creatures the strange creatures</p>	<p>a big white rabbit Amy an irrational urge chattering nonsensically drinking tea learning Freud's dream theory no wearing shoes reality and dream such creatures the animals the rabbit the rabbit's chatting the strange creature wearing no shoes yelling animals</p>
8	<p>was not a dream</p> <p>belonged to a lady belonged to a neighbour belonged to Susan's neighbour belonged to the lady belonged to the neighbour belonged to the neighbours belongs to Mrs Carroll belongs to their neighbour came from Mrs Carroll had been real had really been there is from the neighbour is real is the neighbour's one is the neighbour's pet lived next door must have escaped really exists the neighbours one was from her neighbour</p>	<p>Amy was the rabbit can do all things do not wear anything escaped from the garden is Amy's rabbit is not real is the cleverest is the cleverest one is the cleverest rabbit owns Mrs Carroll reminds her sat in their garden still exists was a dream was an illusion was her own was in her dream was in the neighbourhood was just a dream was their pet was there before was very clever</p>

	was from their neighbors was genuine was Mrs Carroll's rabbit was no hallucination was no illusion was not a imagination was probably the neighbour's was real was the lady's was the neighbour's was the neighbour's pet was the neighbour's rabbit was the neighbours	wasn't real
9	the narrator's joke Alice's joke her aunt's joke her aunt's reaction her funny aunt the joke the joke Alice made the joke Alice told the joke from Alice the joke of Alice the joking narrator the narrator's answer the narrator's comment this joke what Alice said what Auntie Alice said what the narrator said	a bad joke Alice Alice dream and reaction Auntie Alice hearing the story her joke (not clear enough, could mean Amy's joke) her rabbit laughing laughing at her joke laughing at the joke learning the news Susan Susan's joke that thought the Chardonnay the clever rabbit the invitation the joke from Amy the joke of Amy the narrator the new white rabbit the purpose of the visit the story of her the white rabbit their laughing visiting the rabbit what she said

Begründungen

0

The text says: "Susan, my older sister, and Amy, my little niece, had only just moved into their new house when I saw the white rabbit. I had offered to stay over to look after Amy [...]." The narrator was therefore at Susan's in order to look after Amy.

1

The text says: "I knew there would be no distractions at Susan's to keep me from studying [...]." Susan's was therefore a good place to work because there were no distractions.

2

The text says: "Disney films captivate me and [...]" I finished watching alone [...]." The narrator therefore watched the film to the end because Disney films captivate her.

3

The text says: "But the exertions of the day caused my eyelids to droop, and the next thing I knew, [...]. It must have been well after midnight when I woke, [...]." The narrator therefore unintentionally fell asleep.

4

The text says: "My binder lay open on my lap; I hadn't highlighted a single sentence." Therefore, when the narrator looked again at her text, she noticed that she hadn't highlighted anything.

5

The text says: "I did all those things you're supposed to do when you can't believe your eyes: I rubbed them and blinked hard." The narrator's first reaction when she saw the rabbit was therefore to rub her eyes and blink hard.

6

The text says: "It [...] hopped off slowly and deliberately. I felt an irrational urge to follow it." When the rabbit moved away, the narrator therefore really wanted to follow it.

7

The text says: "The strange creatures had plagued me all night." In her dreams, the narrator was therefore annoyed by strange creatures.

8

The text says: "[...] the lady next door [...] got a rabbit - a big white one! [...] It can even get out of its cage on its own [...] I felt a rush of relief." On hearing Susan's news, the narrator therefore assumed that the white rabbit was not a dream.

9

The text says: "Amy [...] laughing at the joke louder than was absolutely necessary." Amy was therefore very amused by the narrator's joke.

8.4. Abstract

The aim of this thesis is to investigate in which ways and to what extent the coursebooks *English in Context 7/8*, *Prime Time 7*, *Prime Time 8*, *Make Your Way 7* und *Make Your Way 8* prepare Austrian students for the reading part of their written English Matura exam. The aforementioned books, which have been approbated for the use in Austrian classrooms, are examined by means of a coursebook analysis.

First of all, a review of the literature on reading presents what is involved in the ability to read as well as how this skill can be taught and tested in the context of foreign language education. Secondly, the approach of coursebook analysis and evaluation according to McGrath (2002) is outlined. This is followed by a description of the design of the present study, which consists of the context and needs analysis, the impressionistic method as well as the checklist and the in-depth approach. The subsequent section aims at illustrating the results of the four steps of the analysis before these are evaluated against the theoretical background and the context of the Matura exam.

The findings show that all books prepare the learners well for the reading section of their written English Matura exam and do so in a variety of ways. In reading activities, the students are familiarised with a variety of topics, test formats, text types and texts of different lengths. Moreover, all books provide opportunities to practise different reading strategies and constructs as well as tasks which are similar to the test tasks of the Matura. In addition, the reading activities could be assigned to relevant descriptors of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). Thus, it can be concluded that the use of the books results in a thorough preparation for the exam.

8.5. Zusammenfassung auf Deutsch

Ziel dieser Arbeit ist es, herauszufinden in welchem Ausmaß und auf welche Art und Weise Schülerinnen und Schüler durch die Verwendung verschiedener Englisch-Schulbücher auf den Leseteil der schriftlichen Englisch-Matura vorbereitet werden. Die Bücher, die mittels Schulbuchanalyse untersucht werden, umfassen *English in Context 7/8*, *Prime Time 7*, *Prime Time 8*, *Make Your Way 7* und *Make Your Way 8* und wurden alle für den Gebrauch an österreichischen Schulen approbiert.

Die Arbeit beginnt mit der Darstellung theoretischer Konzepte hinsichtlich der Fertigkeit Lesen. Zuerst wird thematisiert weshalb die Fertigkeit Lesen so wichtig ist und wie Lesen definiert werden kann, wobei verschiedene Modelle, Kompetenzen und Strategien vorgestellt werden. Danach wird darauf eingegangen, wie diese Fertigkeit im Bereich des Fremdsprachenunterrichts gelehrt und getestet werden kann.

Der darauffolgende Teil gibt einen Überblick über die Methode der Schulbuchanalyse und -evaluation nach McGrath (2002), die aus der „Context and needs analysis“, der „Impressionistic approach“, der „Checklist method“ und der „In-depth method“ besteht. Diesem Zugang folgend werden zuerst der Kontext und die Bedürfnisse der Schülerinnen und Schüler beleuchtet, bevor die Bücher auf den ersten Blick analysiert werden. Im Anschluss daran werden sie anhand einer Checkliste untersucht, die gleichzeitig die Basis für die detaillierte Methode darstellt. Schließlich werden die Ergebnisse der vier Analyseschritte im Hinblick auf die theoretischen Ausführungen und den Kontext der Matura evaluiert.

Dabei zeigt sich, dass alle Schulbücher die Lerner gut und auf verschiedene Arten auf den Teil der schriftlichen Englisch-Matura vorbereiten, in dem ihre Lesekompetenz abgeprüft wird. Durch die Leseübungen werden die Schülerinnen und Schüler mit einer Vielzahl von Themen, Übungsformaten, Texttypen sowie Texten unterschiedlicher Länge vertraut gemacht. Weiters bieten alle Bücher zahlreiche Möglichkeiten, um verschiedene Lesestrategien und Testkonstrukte zu üben und Aufgaben zu lösen, die denen der Matura ähnlich sind. Zu guter Letzt, können die Übungen auch relevanten Deskriptoren des Gemeinsamen Europäischen Referenzrahmens für Sprachen zugeordnet werden. Daher kann zusammenfassend gesagt werden, dass sich durch die Verwendung der Schulbücher eine gründliche und vielseitige Vorbereitung der Schülerinnen und Schüler hinsichtlich der Lesekompetenz ergibt.