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Metacognitive Monitoring in Relation to Academic Achievement in Reading and Writing by first and second year undergraduates

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Abstract

Metacognitive monitoring as a key component of general metacognition is part and parcel of most of the academic activities students at university are involved in. It refers to 'learners' estimates of their own knowledge, that is, learners' knowledge of strategies that support cognition and their knowledge of conditions that dictate when and how to execute strategies that might influence their own learning' (Valdez,2013). For reading and writing at the undergraduate stage of instruction, monitoring is crucial since it determines academic performance in these two demanding skills and in other subjects that require reading extensively and composing in the same time. The study at hand investigates the correlation between metacognitive monitoring of first and second year university students and their academic achievement in reading and writing. It employed the Taxonomy of Metacognitive Judgments to collect data on monitoring and the Reading/Writing test scores for achievement data. The results revealed an important correlation between the aforementioned variables and calls for instruction in metacognitive development that can assist students with the reading and writing skills necessary for independent learning in college.

Key words: metacognitive monitoring, reading and writing, achievement.

1. Introduction

Students involved in university studies are expected to make use of a range of techniques that allow them to cope with the demands of highly challenging academic tasks. Among these tasks, particularly in language learning settings, are reading and writing. These two skills are not required in general reading and writing classes per se, they also represent the main processes students engage in almost all content subjects like literature, research, linguistics, to name but a few. Therefore, the ability to take charge of the learning task and the employment of effective strategies is compulsory and leads to efficient study habits as supported by research evidence. According to Thiede et al (2003), metacognitive monitoring affects regulation of study, and this affects overall learning. It means that a student who can accurately discriminate better learned material from less learned material will regulate his or her study more effectively.

2. The research problem

In relation to the study at hand, EFL undergraduates in the Algerian context experience difficulties in reading and writing. This is the case of first and second year university students in the Department of English at the University of Algiers-2. The evidence of their failure is

represented by the reading/writing exam scores they obtained. The majority of the student participants in the study are below average achievers. Thus, the study aims to highlight one of the key factors that might improve reading and writing at the undergraduate level that is metacognitive monitoring. This latter is one of the processes students are required to engage in when coping with high order thinking tasks like reading technical materials in linguistics, critically analyzing literary passages and preparing projects.

3. Related literature

University students acquire an important amount of new knowledge and are engaged with classroom tasks that require them to apply problem solving skills for higher order thinking. The literature on metacognition advocates that accurate monitoring of new learning enables students with effective metacognitive strategies to concentrate on new content and adjust their learning goals (Hartman, 2001). It also argues that students who accurately distinguish between what they have already mastered and what is yet to be learned have an advantage in these situations since they can be more effective and strategic learners. Yet many students have ineffective metacognitive strategies. It is important, therefore, to evaluate students' metacognitive abilities and target instruction to the development of these key learning strategies (Everson & Tobias, in Hartman, 2001, p. 69, 83).

For reading and writing integrated, writing is closely linked to reading. According to Hacker, Dunlosky and Graesser (1998, p.75) 'research in writing instruction resembles work on metacognition and reading'. They justified this similarity arguing that the two skills inform each other. Writers read their texts and often construct texts from sources that they have read. While reading their own texts during composing, they exhibit the same moves as when reading the texts of others, such as backtracking to aid comprehension and building a representation in memory. This granted, the primary focus of writing research has been on the production of texts rather than on their comprehension. The one area where the two activities interface most notably is in revision, particularly revision involving peer review or editing. Reading and writing are usually described as 'parallel processes' or 'natural partners' (Trosky & Wood, Tierny & Pearson, Sarasota, and Tsai, in Farahzad & Emam, 2010) where the activities of readers are congruent to or mirror images of the activities of writers (Smith, in Farhzad & Emam, 2010). Reading and writing are rightly referred to as 'parallel' because there is a connectedness between what readers do and what writers do as they prepare to read or write: as they create meaning through text (in writing), and as they reflect on the text (in reading).

For this reason, high demands are placed on college students to cope not only with academic texts by critical reading and reflection but also to produce them through writing. In order to reach that end, students need to possess effective metacognitive monitoring skills.

Researchers (e.g. Grabe, in Farahzad & Emam, 2010) claim that helping students become strategic readers and strategic writers should be a major role for any English for Academic Purposes curriculum. Accomplishing this goal requires extended attention to strategic processing and continual student awareness of planning, monitoring, and repairing. Students' attention and awareness need to be built steadily and consistently by learning, modeling, and using many types of strategies: strategies for planning, for learning information, for monitoring comprehension and writing, for re-evaluating goals and plans, and for repairing and revising. All these processes and sub processes are key to metacognitive monitoring and regulation highlighted in the present study.

4. Objective, Research question and Hypothesis

The purpose of this investigation is to point out a possible relationship between two variables: metacognitive monitoring and academic achievement in reading and writing. First and second year undergraduate students experience difficulties in the tasks of reading and writing and

demonstrate below average levels according to the scores they obtained in this subject. Thus, a number of factors are possibly responsible for this level of achievement and the present research aims to highlight one of these factors. The variable of interest is that of metacognitive monitoring in reading and writing. Students are probably not able to regulate the processes due to the ineffective and inappropriate use of strategies. According to Everson and Tobias (In Hartman, 2001, p. 69):

> 'the metacognitive ability to accurately estimate one's knowledge was hypothesized to be related to academic achievement in college' and that 'students with effective metacognitive skills accurately estimate their knowledge in a variety of domains, monitor their on-going learning, update their knowledge, and develop effective plans for new learning'

Besides considering the overall state of first and second year students metacognitive monitoring in relation to their reading and writing achievement, this study compares between degree level and monitoring. This is to point out whether year of instruction plays a part in enhancing metacognitive monitoring.

Therefore, the study attempts to answer two main research questions:

RQ1:'What is the relationship between first and second year students metacognitive monitoring and their academic achievement in reading and writing?'

RQ2: 'How do first year students compare to second year students in terms of metacognitive monitoring in reading and writing?

5. Subjects of the study

Two groups of students from the Department of English at University of Algiers-2 participated in this research. Eighty (n=80) first and second year male and female undergraduates represent the sample of the study (50 first year students and 30 second year students). The two degree levels are merged purposefully in the first part since they represent the population of students who have the reading and writing module. Yet, they are later compared in terms of metacognitive monitoring in reading and writing to consider the role of degree level in metacognitive monitoring. In addition to students, the two reading and writing teachers of the two groups were consulted for the scores of the students in the reading/writing exam.

6. Methods and procedure of data collection

At the onset of the study, reading and writing exam scores were collected to classify the students into achievement levels. The two teachers of the groups provided the exam scores obtained in the academic year 2015-2016 (See Appendix A for the first year R/W exam: S1 and Appendix B for the second year R/W exam: S3). After the classification of the students into high, average and low achievers, the researcher asked for permission to administer the **Taxonomy of Metacognitive Judgments** that is a means to gather data on students metacognitive monitoring during task performance in an exam setting. The tool elicits students monitoring of the reading/writing task and how they judge their performance before, while and after working on the task. It concerns the metacognitive judgments made by students to describe the state of metacognitive monitoring at different levels of task performance (adapted from Schraw, 2009, p. 416, 417). This tool is an inventory of metacognitive judgments adopted from the literature in the form of statements that students have to measure by selecting appropriate percentages that apply directly to the rate of their reading/writing performance. The taxonomy was also adapted to the reading/writing exam context. (See Appendix: D for the original taxonomy and Appendix E for the adapted one). After measuring the relationship between students monitoring and reading/writing

achievement, the study compares between the two levels of instruction regarding metacognitive monitoring in reading and writing.

7. Data presentation and discussion

The first range of data collected concerns the variable of reading/writing achievement. The 1st and 2nd year reading/writing teachers provided the marks obtained by the eighty student participants in the study. The aim is to classify the 80 participants in different achievement levels. The R/W exam was prepared and corrected by the two teachers of the module. The total mark on which the exam was assessed is 20/20. The teachers assigned the following scores to each achievement level:

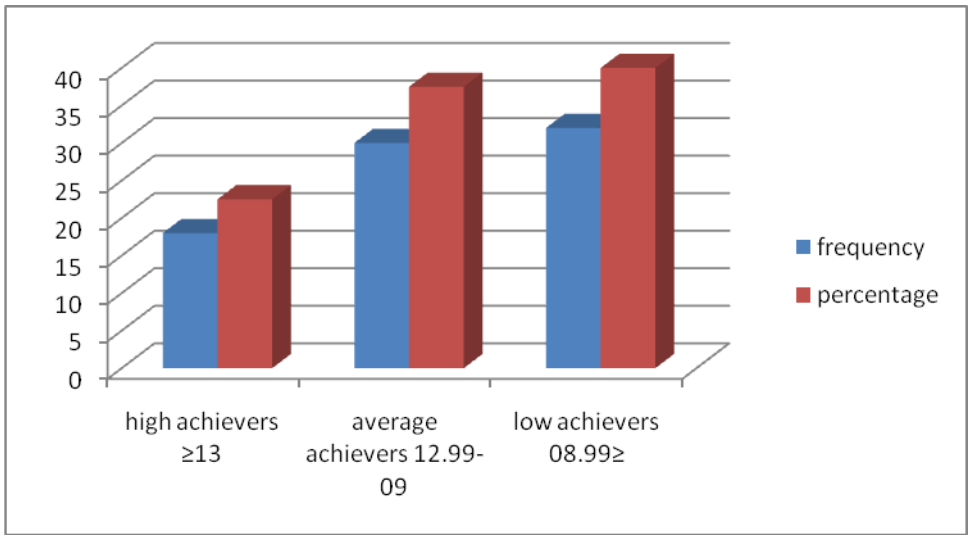
- 13/20 and above is the mark assigned to high achieving readers/writers.
- Between 12.99/20 and 09/20 is the mark assigned to average readers/writer.
- 8.99/20 and below is the mark assigned to low achieving readers/writers.

The table below shows the frequency and percentage of each achievement level i.e., high, average and low, among the 80 student participants.

Level	Frequency	Percentage
High achievers ≥13	18	22.5
Average achievers 12.99-09	30	37.5
Low achievers 08.99≥	32	40
Total	80	100

Table 1: Frequency and percentage of each R/W achievement level

The graph below demonstrates further the frequencies and percentages of the three different achievement levels of the students.



Graph 1: Frequency and percentage of each achievement level

Both the table above and the graph show that the number of low and average students exceeds that of high achievers. High achievers represent 22.5% whereas average and low achievers are of 37.5 and 40% consecutively.

The second variable of interest in this study is metacognitive monitoring that was measured by the administration of the taxonomy of metacognitive judgments (adapted from Schraw, 2009) to the students in a reading/writing exam setting. The participants attributed their measures of performance in the form of percentages before, while and after reading and writing. In other words, they made prospective, concurrent and retrospective quantitative judgments.

8. Monitoring levels before reading and writing

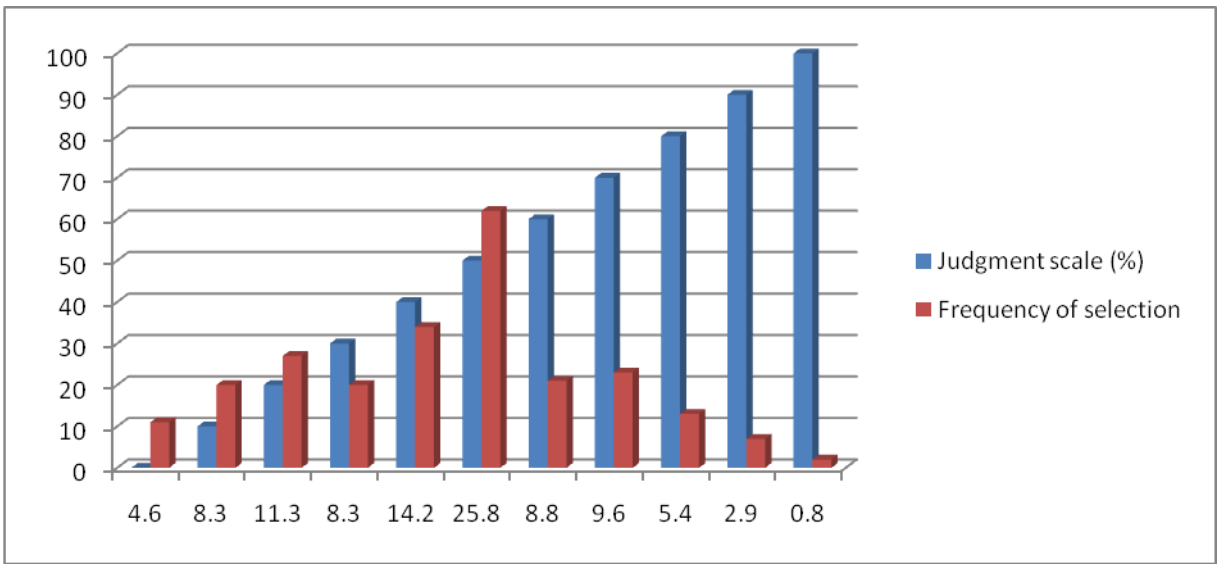
The prospective metacognitive judgments of the participants are demonstrated quantitatively in table 2 below. It concerns the percentages of monitoring selected by students prior to taking the R/W exam. The before R/W exam phase consists of three judgments that refer to the extent to which students:

- Recollect what they learnt in the R/W course
- Think the R/W exam is easy
- Know what the content of the R/W exam is

Judgment scale (%)	Frequency of selection	Percentage of selection
00	11	4.6
10	20	8.3
20	27	11.3
30	20	8.3
40	34	14.2
50	62	25.8
60	21	8.8
70	23	9.6
80	13	5.4
90	7	2.9
100	2	0.8

Table 2: Students' metacognitive judgments before the R/W exam

A further presentation of the data obtained from the taxonomy of prospective judgments is provided in graph 2 below:



Graph 2: Students' metacognitive judgments before the R/W exam

What is noticed from the data collected for prospective judgments is that the degrees of knowledge are varied. Yet, it is clear from the table and graph that 25.8% of the participants selected 50% as the degree of their knowledge monitoring prior to the R/W exam. Most judgments are inferior to 50% and few are above.

9. Monitoring levels while reading and writing

Data gathered for the concurrent judgments are reported in this section. Student participants attributed a percentage to each of the three items related to the while R/W exam performance. The statements refer to the extent to which students:

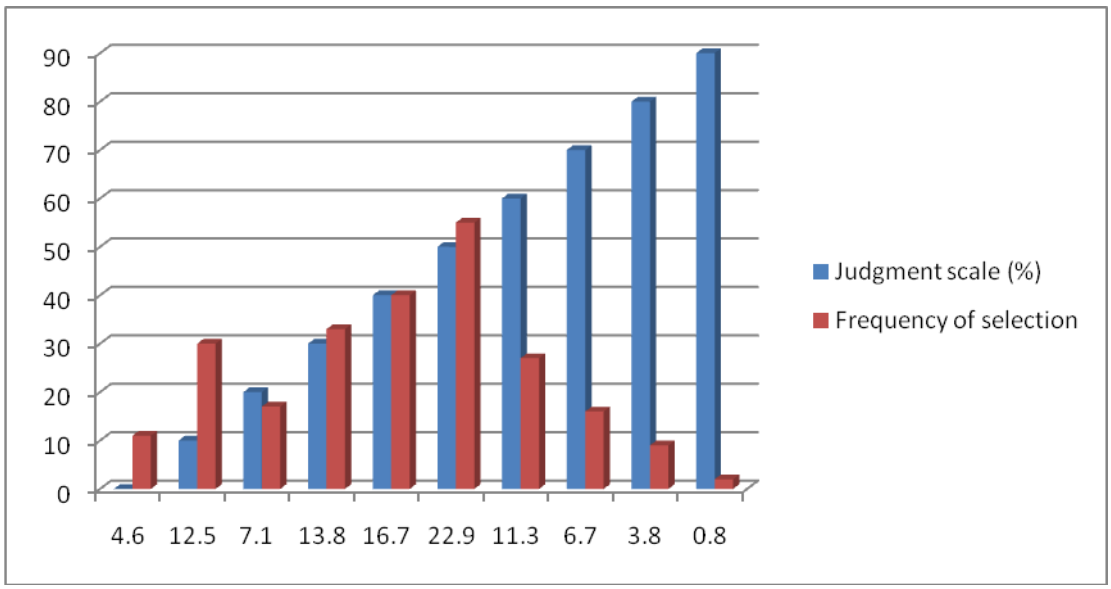
- Feel confident in the R/W exam
- Find it easy to answer the R/W exam questions
- Think they are answering the questions correctly

Judgment scale (%)	Frequency of selection	Percentage of selection
00	11	4.6
10	30	12.5
20	17	7.1
30	33	13.8
40	40	16.7
50	55	22.9
60	27	11.3
70	16	6.7
80	9	3.8

90	2	0.8

Table 3: Students' metacognitive judgments during the R/W exam

The data obtained for the concurrent R/W exam judgments are further illustrated in the graph below.



Graph 3: Students' metacognitive judgments during the R/W exam

Both the table and graph display differences in the extent of students' concurrent judgments. However, what is remarkable is that 30% of the participants rated their monitoring of the exam at 50%. The majority of the students stated that they monitor at lower than 50%, the rest reported that they can monitor their knowledge while doing the exam above 50%.

10. Monitoring levels after reading and writing

As regards the third category of judgments, the participants of the study made retrospective decisions on the extent to which they:

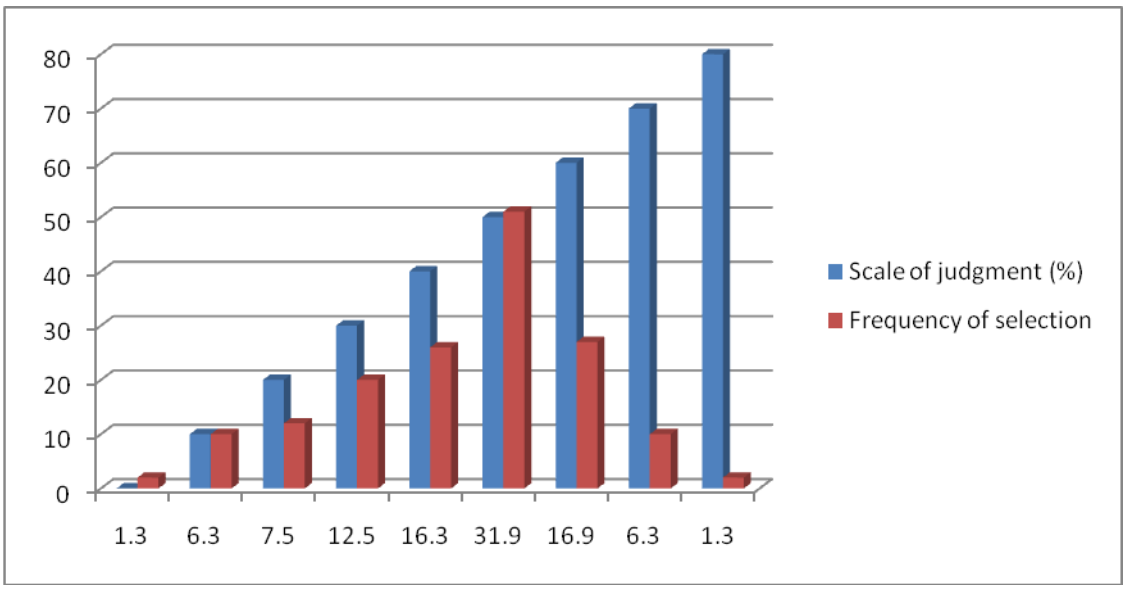
- Think that the R/W exam was easy
- Think they performed well in the R/W exam

The table and graph below present the data collected for retrospective judgments.

Scale of judgment (%)	Frequency of selection	Percentage of selection
00	2	1.3
10	10	6.3
20	12	7.5
30	20	12.5
40	26	16.3
50	51	31.9
60	27	16.9

70	10	6.3
80	2	1.3

Table 4: Students' metacognitive judgments after the R/W exam



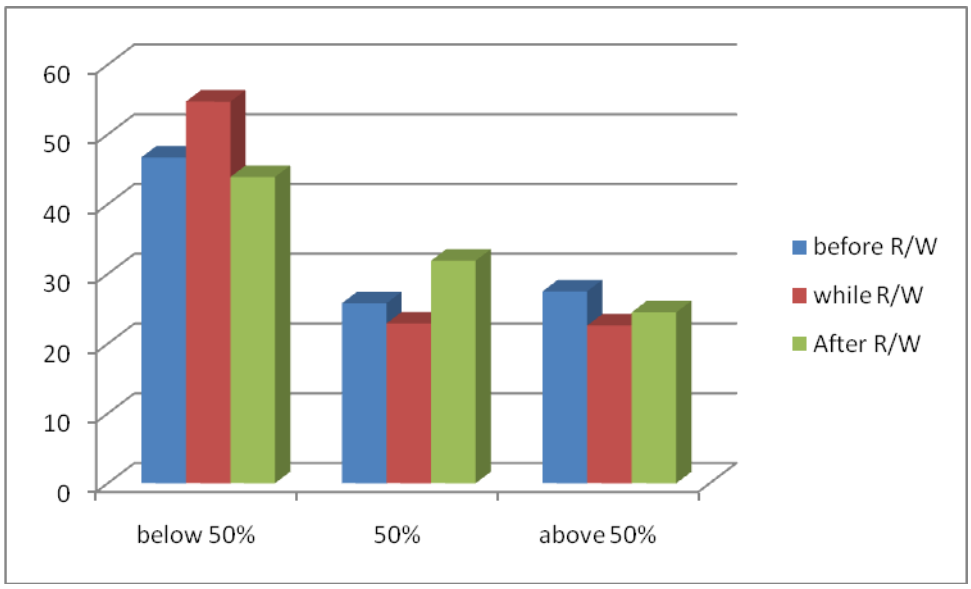
Graph 4: Students' metacognitive judgments after the R/W exam

The table and graph show that 32% of the students describe their monitoring of knowledge after the exam at 50% scale. The majority of participants are able to monitor below 50% according to the results presented and the rest (16.9%, 6.3% and 1.3%) at above 50% level.

The sum of judgment percentages in each R/W phase are further presented in the following table.

Scale	Before R/W	While R/W	After R/W
Below 50%	46.7	54.7	43.9
50%	25.8	22.9	31.9
Above 50 %	27.5	22.6	24.5

Table 5: Comparison of monitoring levels in the three R/W phases



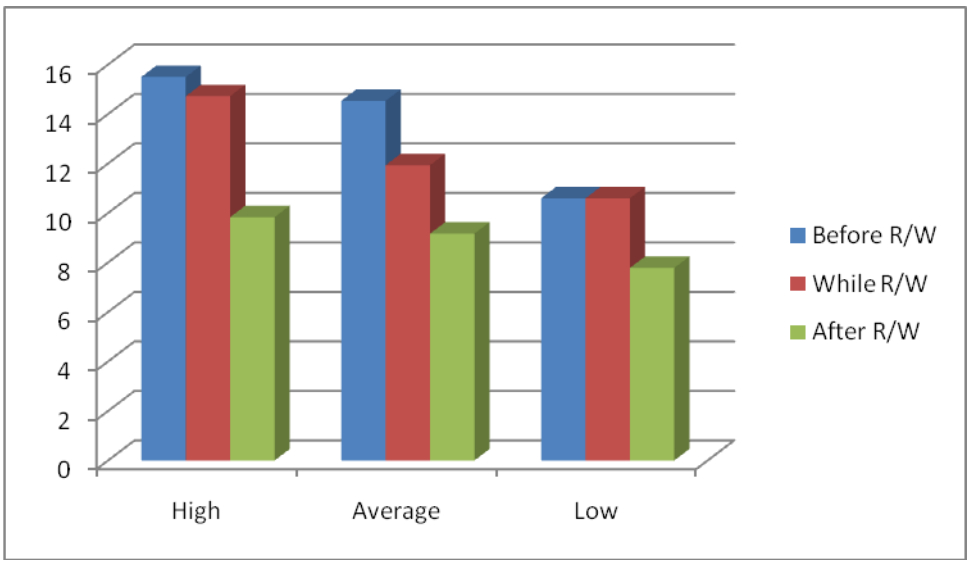
Graph 5: Comparison of monitoring levels in the three R/W phases

The table and graph show that students monitor their knowledge at the extent of 50% or less. Lower levels of monitoring are shown above 50%. It is clear from the graph that the majority of students cannot monitor their knowledge beyond 50%.

11. Comparison between high, average and low achievers' metacognitive monitoring

Data obtained from student participants through the taxonomy of metacognitive judgments are presented in three tables. Following the procedure adopted above, the three tables display the means, analysis of variance and significance in this part. The three phases of monitoring (before, while and after) are displayed in relation to each level of achievement. Descriptive statistics reveal the results presented in the tables appended at the end of this article (See Appendix C for comparison of mean and standard deviation, analysis of variance and level of significance)

From the data displayed in the three tables (Appendix C), results show different means among the three achievement levels. The means related to metacognitive monitoring in the before and while stages are importantly different among the three levels. Yet they are not considerably distinct among high and average achievers in the after R/W stage but again noticeable compared to those of low achievers. The graph below provides a clear difference among the levels in monitoring.



Graph 6: Mean differences in metacognitive monitoring

According to the means displayed, high achievers monitor more than average and low achievers in the before and while R/W phases. They also monitor more than low achievers in the after R/W phase but monitor at approximately the same level with average achievers in the after R/W stage. Moreover and from the analysis of variance (ANOVA) scores, the variations are significant in the three phases for the three levels since p≤0.05as shown in the ANOVA table above. However, the sheffe test determines the alpha level at ≤0.05 between high and low achievers in the before and while phases which means that the difference between them is important, yet it is not significant between high and average achievers in the same phases. It is also not significant among the three groups in the after R/W stage as it is ≥0.05. Thus, the null hypothesis that states that 'there is no difference between high, average and low R/W achievers in terms of metacognitive monitoring' is rejected due to the obtained level of significance among the three groups i.e. p-value≤0.05.

The relationship between metacognitive monitoring and academic achievement in reading and writing of first and second year undergraduates

Metacognitive monitoring in relation to reading/writing achievement is also presented in this section so as to display the correlation coefficient. This, as justified above, provides an exact statistical result of the overall relationship between the key variables of the study. In the table below, the correlation coefficient along with its significance are provided.

Correlation

		results	metacognitive_monitoring
results	Pearson correlation	1	,395**
	Sig. (bilateral)		,000
	N	80	80
Metacognitive monitoring	Pearson correlation	,395**	1
	Sig. (bilateral)	,000	
	N	80	80

**. The correlation is significant at 0.01 (bilateral).

Table 6: Correlation between metacognitive monitoring and R/W achievement

The results show a correlation coefficient of r=.4 in the table. This refers to a positive significant relationship given that the significance level is that of ($p \leq 0.01$). Therefore, it is concluded that there is a positive significant relationship between metacognitive monitoring and reading/writing achievement.

Comparison between year of instruction (1st and 2nd) and metacognitive monitoring in reading and writing

After displaying the results of the total sample of 80 students that include first and second year undergraduates in the Department of English, it is important to compare the participants' degree of instruction and their metacognitive knowledge monitoring. This will answer the second main research question of the study and give evidence about the role of year of instruction in relation to metacognitive knowledge monitoring. For this purpose quantitative descriptions are displayed in the table 7 to show the results.

	Degree Level	N	Mean	Standard deviation
Metacognitive knowledge monitoring	1st year	50	40,5000	12,44129
	2nd year	30	48,4000	12,49441

Table 7: Comparison between 1st and 2nd year students' monitoring in reading/writing

For a clearer presentation of the difference between the two years of instruction, Levene test along with the t-test are conducted to calculate the significance of variance between the two levels. This is presented in the table 8 below.

		Levene test for equality of variance		t-test for equality of means		
		f	Sig	t	df	Sig (bilateral)
Metacognitive monitoring	Hypothesis for inequality of variance	,013	,908	-2,754	78	,008
				--2,752	60,993	,008

Table 8: significance of variance between 1st and 2nd year students monitoring in reading/writing

The tables reveal that the two levels of instruction i.e. first and second year are distinct in terms of metacognitive monitoring. The mean is higher for second year undergraduates (M=48.4) compared to first years (M=40.5). As for variance, it is clear from the scores obtained out of Levene and t-tests that the difference is significant given that $p \leq 0.05$ (α=0.008). Therefore, the answer to research question two proclaims that second year students show higher metacognitive monitoring than first year students in reading/writing. Year of

instruction then might be an important factor in promoting metacognitive monitoring and this provides an interesting area of investigation since:

> 'little research has been conducted on the metacognitive processes related to learning in adults, looking, for example, at those in college or in advanced instructional or training programs, where instructional times less easily accommodates research. Thus, more efficient measures of metacognition are needed not merely to satisfy psychometric standards (although important), but because they would permit research in settings where instructional time is less flexible, such as college classrooms and training courses' (Everson & Thobias, 2001, p. 70)

This paves the way to higher education researchers to embark on studies that might provide more evidence for the type of relationship between monitoring and academic achievement. More importantly, the study calls for the investigation of the effect of academic instruction in promoting metacognitive monitoring.

12. Conclusion

The results pertaining to the monitoring construct of metacognition reveal that high achievers monitor their knowledge more than average and low achievers prior to and while reading and writing. They also monitor more than low achievers in the post reading/writing phase but monitor at approximately the same level with average achievers in the after reading/writing stage. What is important is that the difference among the three levels of achievement in terms of knowledge monitoring is significant.

Furthermore, the results confirm to a large extent the positive relationship between metacognitive monitoring and reading/writing achievement which is the main concern of this piece of research. These findings also demonstrate that metacognitive monitoring as a construct of metacognition is a key determiner of achievement in reading/writing and in academic achievement in general. This is highlighted by research findings which conclude that: 'The findings of a number of studies indicating that accurate knowledge monitoring was related to achievement in different domains' and 'demonstrated the importance of accurate knowledge monitoring in a variety of school settings' (Tobias & Everson, 2009, p. 123). Furthermore, the second aspect of this study, that targeted year of instruction in relation to metacognitive monitoring, demonstrated higher metacognitive monitoring of second year students compared to their first year counterparts. This suggests the need to address the effect of university instruction on metacognitive development in general and monitoring in particular.

In light of these results, researchers have considered the power of metacognitive skill instruction. They gave evidence that instruction in metacognitive development can assist students with the reading and writing skills necessary for independent learning at university. Teaching metacognitively develops knowledge of cognition and also regulation of study.

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Appendices

Appendix A: First year reading/writing exam (S1)

University of Algiers 2/ Department of Anglophone Studies/ Reading and Writing/ S1/ 2016

Full Name: …… **Group:** …… **Mark:** ……/ **20**.

FIRST READING AND WRITING EXAM

PART ONE: READING (8 points)

Read the text below, and then do the activities that follow.

Concussions are brain injuries that occur when a person receives a blow to the head, face, or neck. Although most people who suffer a concussion experience initial bouts of dizziness, nausea, and drowsiness, these symptoms often disappear after a few days. The long-term effects of concussions, however, are less understood and far more severe. Recent studies suggest that people who suffer multiple concussions are at significant risk for developing chronic traumatic encephalopathy (CTE), a degenerative brain disorder that causes a variety of dangerous mental and emotional problems to arise weeks, months, or even years after the initial injury. These psychological problems can include depression, anxiety, memory loss, inability to concentrate, and aggression. In extreme cases, people suffering from CTE have even committed suicide or homicide. The majority of people who develop these issues are athletes who participate in popular high-impact sports, especially football. Although new sports regulations and

improvements in helmet technology can help protect players, amateur leagues, the sports media, and fans all bear some of the responsibility for reducing the incidence of these devastating injuries.

In response to the growing understanding of this danger, the National Football League (NFL) has revised its safety regulations. Players who have suffered a head injury on the field must undergo a "concussion sideline assessment"—a series of mental and physical fitness tests—before being allowed back in the game. In an effort to diminish the amount of head and neck injuries on the field, NFL officials began enforcing stricter penalty calls for helmet-to-helmet contact, leading with the head, and hitting a defenseless player. It is hoped that these new regulations, coupled with advances in helmet design, will reduce the number of concussions, and thus curb further cases of CTE.

Efforts by the NFL and other professional sports leagues are certainly **laudable**; we should commend every attempt to protect the mental and physical health of players. However, new regulations at the professional level cannot protect amateur players, especially young people. Fatal cases of CTE have been reported in victims as young as 21. Proper tackling form—using the arms and shoulders to aim for a player's midsection—should be taught at an early age. Youth, high school, and college leagues should also adopt safety rules even more stringent than those of the NFL. Furthermore, young athletes should be educated about the serious dangers of head injuries at an early age.

Perhaps the most important factor in reducing the number of traumatic brain injuries, however, lies not with the players, the coaches, or the administrators, but with the media and fans. Sports media producers have become accustomed to showcasing the most aggressive tackles and the most intense plays. NFL broadcasts often replay especially violent collisions while the commentators marvel at the players' physical prowess. **Some sports highlights television programs** even feature weekly countdowns of the "hardest hits." When the media **exalts** such dangerous behavior, professionals are rewarded for injuring each other on the field and amateurs become more likely to try to imitate their favorite NFL athletes. Announcers, commentators, television producers, and sportswriters should engage in a collective effort to cease glorifying brutal plays. In turn, fans should stop expecting their favorite players to put their lives on the line for the purposes of entertainment. Players must not be encouraged to trade their careers, their health, their happiness, and even their lives for the sake of a game.

1- Circle the letter corresponding to the right answer.(2,5pts)

1) The author apparently believes that

a. NFL officials have not thoroughly implemented stricter safety regulations

b. doctors need to do more research about the potential long-term effects of CTE

c. amateur athletes suffer more serious long-term effects of CTE than professional athletes

d. fans share some of the blame for athletes' injuries

e. young people should not be encouraged to play football due to CTE risks

2) Based on information in the passage, it can be inferred that all of the following statements are true except

a- tackling is not always dangerous; however, players who use improper tackling form may injure others

b- scientists have established a link between players who die untimely deaths and the onset of CTE

c- NFL officials have done little to address the problem of CTE

d- athletes who are praised for exceptionally brutal hits are likely to continue engaging in such dangerous behavior

e- the NFL has done more to mitigate future cases of CTE than youth, high school, or college leagues have done

3) According to the passage, which of the following factors contribute(s) to the incidence of CTE in amateur players?

I. inconsistent application of safety regulations for all levels
II. lack of education about the dangers of head injuries
III. amateur players' desire to emulate professionals

a- l only **b-** II only **c-** I and II only **d-** II and III only **e-** I, II, and III

4) As used in paragraph 3, which is the best synonym for **laudable**?
a- praiseworthy **b-** ineffectual **c-** memorable **d-** audacious **e-** satisfactory

5) As used in the final paragraph, which is the best antonym for **exalts**?
a- ignores **b-** misrepresents **c-** praises **d-** reports **e-** criticizes

2- What is the general idea of the text?(1 pt)

3- Answer the following questions according to the text. (2 pts)

a- What does the author emphasise when describing sports media? Justify your answer

b- ***Explain in your own words the author's last sentence, 'Players must not be encouraged to trade their careers, their health, their happiness, and even their lives for the sake of a game'.***

4- Summarise the passage into one paragraph.(2,5 pts)

PART TWO: WRITING (10 points)

Activity 01: (3 pts.) Add an appropriate topic sentence (1pt.) and a concluding sentence (1pt.), and also underline the sentence(s) that break unity (1 pt.).

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First of all, a good add is simple. It lets pictures, not words, tell the story. Of course, all ads need some words, but a good ad has a powerful headline and only a small amount of text. Second, a good ad is directed to a particular group of consumers. For example, ads for face creams are for older women, and ads for motorcycles are for unmarried young men. Third, a good ad appeals to emotions. Women in the thirty-to-fifty age group, for instance, want to look and feel younger, so face creams ads tell them women who use XYZ cream will look like the twenty-year-old models pictured in the ad. Teenagers want to feel popular, so ads directed at teens often show a happy, confident-looking group of young people using the product in the ad. Teenagers have a surprising amount of money to spend, so advertisers research teenage fads and fashions.

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Activity 02: (3 pts) Determine the type of mistake (fragment –F- or parallel structure –PS-), and then rewrite the sentences correcting the mistakes when necessary; otherwise, write Correct –C-.

1- Stoics deny the importance of such things as wealth, good looks, and having a good reputation.(……)……
……

2- Bruce Wayne enjoys donning his Batman costume, answering the Commissioner's phone calls, and saving Gotham City from cruel villains like the Penguin. (……) ……
……

3- After they tried to defraud the government on their federal income tax return. (……)……
……..…….

4- Many people vacation in Maine because the state offers outdoor activities and historical sites.(……)……
…….…….

5- He tried hard to convince the jury, but to no avail**.** (……)……
…….

6- Sir Humphry Davy, the celebrated English chemist, was an excellent literary critic as well as being a great scientist. (……)……
…….

<u>Activity 03</u>: Choose <u>ONE</u> of the following topics to write a meaningful paragraph. (6pts)

<u>Topic 1</u>: Studying at the secondary school VS. Studying at the university.
<u>Topic 2</u>: Qualities of a good boss.
<u>Topic 3</u>: Describe a person who has had an influence on your life.

<u>Chosen Topic nb.....</u>

Appendix B: Second year reading/writing exam (S3)