Master Thesis

# L1 and L2 Reading Comprehension and the Role of Script Differences, Dominance and Out-of-school L2 Reading Engagement in Transfer

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# CONTENTS

1. ABSTRACT	3
2. INTRODUCTION	3
3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND	6
3.1. Arabic, Turkish and Dutch scripts and orthographies	6
3.2. Reading comprehension in general	8
3.3. Transfer of reading comprehension ability in bilinguals	9
3.4. Predictions of the present research	10
4. METHOD	12
4.1. Participants	12
4.2. Material and process	13
5. RESULTS	15
6. CONCLUSION	18
7. DISCUSSION	19
8. REFERENCES	21
9. APPENDIX	24
A. Parental Questionnaire	24
<ul> <li>B. Reading comprehension texts translated in Dutch for every school group</li> <li>C. Dutch version of the text for technical reading</li> </ul>	31 47

## 1. ABSTRACT

The subject of the present study is the cross-linguistic relationship between the reading comprehension ability in the first (L1) and in the second language (L2) of bilingual pupils from Dutch primary education with low-medium socioeconomic status, aged between 9 and 14 years old. 20 children, with Arabic or Turkish as their L1 and Dutch as their L2, were examined in multiple choice reading comprehension tests in both their languages in an effort to detect any kind of association. Their L2 vocabulary level was also taken into consideration. The influence of factors such as differences in script and orthography, dominance and out-of-school L2 reading engagement of the children on the L1 and L2 reading comprehension has also been studied. Different groups were created based on those three variables and the cross-linguistic relationship was studied once more right after that. Only one significant correlation of the L1 and L2 reading children and it was negative. No other significant correlations emerged from the study and thus no conclusions over the existence of a cross-linguistic transfer and the predicting power of the three previously mentioned factors could be drawn.

## 2. INTRODUCTION

The Netherlands has been a host country for immigrants and refugees from all over the world for years (Geschiedenis van de immigratie in Nederland-UCL, 2008). Since the 60s guest workers from countries such as South Europe, North Africa and Turkey have come to the Netherlands to reinforce the land's workforce and in the years that followed most of them managed to bring their families, too. Since the middle of the last century many other people from former Dutch colonies like Indonesia, Dutch India and Suriname arrived and since the 80s refugees from countries like Iraq, Somalia and Afghanistan as well. The financial crisis in South Europe and the beginning of the civil war in Syria have caused further new immigration and refugee streams in the last decades. Not surprisingly, according to the estimates from the last KNAW rapport (2018) more than 3,5 million people in the Netherlands use and hear a language different from Dutch at home.

The Dutch educational system therefore, has served, in addition to the monolingual children, whole generations of immigrant children who speak more than one language. Many of them are literate in the home language, as either they have followed the educational system of

the country of origin up to a specific grade, or they have learned reading and writing in the heritage language schools or even at home without any formal instructions. Reading comprehension skills are of decisive importance for all children not only while receiving formal education but also for a complete and successful participation in society later on (Lervåg & Aukrust, 2009). Research which aims to throw some light on the biliterate skills of bilingual children and especially on the relation between reading comprehension in the L1 and reading comprehension in the L2 can contribute not only to understand the individual differences in educational outcomes in the L2, but also to think of interventions for preventing general educational problems either in the L2 or L1 or even better in both. Given that second-language learners have lower educational outcomes in comparison to monolingual learners (Melby-Lervåg & Lervåg, 2014), this kind of research literally constitutes an attempt to offer equal chances to all children independently of their origin.

Since the formulation of the Interdependence Hypothesis by Cummins (1981,1991) according to whom L1 literate students are probably more effective in acquiring L2 literacy, there is a growing interest in the relationship between academic performance in both the L1 and the L2. With an emphasis on reading skills this researcher has claimed that there exists a threshold level in the L1 reading comprehension and it is only beyond this threshold that transfer from L1 to L2 is possible. Despite the existence of studies that do not support the Interdependence hypothesis (Akamatsu, 2003; Guo & Roehrig, 2011; Shimron and Sivan, 1994; Verhoeven, 2000 in Abu-Rabia, Shakkour & Siegel, 2013), there is evidence from a variety of studies which, on the contrary, confirm it (Kahn-Horwitz et al., 2005; Kieffer & Lesaux, 2008; Nassaji & Geva, 1999; Zang et al., 2003; Zhang & Koda, 2008 in Abu-Rabia, Shakkour & Siegel, 2013). According to all those studies, L1 components that range from phonological and morphological awareness and orthographic knowledge to syntax awareness, vocabulary and metacognitive knowledge can be transferred to the L2 and enhance L2 reading comprehension ability.

Another theoretical point of view concerning cross-linguistic transfer of literacy skills is the so called script-dependent hypothesis according to which differences in the writing systems between the L1 and L2 are crucial in determining the existence of a positive transfer (Liberman, Shankweiler, Fischer & Carter in Abu-Rabia, Shakkour & Siegel, 2013). Bialystok, Luk and Kwan (2005) is an example of a study which showed that positive transfer and facilitation in L2 reading is a phenomenon constrained by differences in script. In this research there was no positive transfer found for the Chinese-English bilinguals, unlike Hebrew-English and Spanish-English bilinguals who benefitted from their L1 literacy skills thanks to the fact that both their languages shared an alphabetic writing system (Bialystok, Luk & Kwan, 2005). Subsequently, the orthographic depth hypothesis goes one step further. According to this hypothesis, in deep orthographies, i.e. those with low levels of grapheme-phoneme correspondence, readers rely more on whole lexical items in order to recognise a word than readers of shallow orthographies do. The latest make more use of the lowest phonemic units thanks to higher levels of grapheme-phoneme correspondence (Katz & Frost in Abu-Rabia, Shakkour & Siegel, 2013). This claim means consequently that the development of reading ability even between languages of the same sort script, such as for example alphabetic

languages, can behave differently when it comes to reading ablities (Katz & Frost in Abu-Rabia, Shakkour & Siegel, 2013). Thus, orthographic differences between L1 and L2 can possibly hinder facilitation of L2 reading. Again, research findings present no consensus what that concerns and it seems that positive transfer of orthographic skills is actually the kind of transfer most likely constrained by differences in orthography among languages (Abu-Rabia, 1997a; 2001a; Abu-Rabia & Siegel, 2003 in Abu-Rabia, Shakkour & Siegel, 2013).

Regarding reading comprehension, which is the subject of the present paper, there are a number of studies over bilingualism and biliteracy such as for example Bernhardt and Kamil (1995), Droop and Verhoeven (2003), Durgunoğlu (2002), Schoonen, Hulstijn and Bossers (1998), Walter (2007), Sparks, Patton, Ganschow and Humbach (2012) which specifically deal with it. The research findings, which talk about the existence of both language-dependent and language-independent processes in reading development, vary from those supporting Cummin's view (1981,1991) and thus shedding light mostly on the contribution of language-independent abilities in L2 reading skills (Sparks, Patton, Ganschow and Humbach, 2012) to those emphasizing, on the contrary, the essential role of L2 competence, for example vocabulary, morphosyntax, listening comprehension and processing spelling patterns (Hummel, 2013). Further, Walter (2007) pointed out the role of L2-based working memory in L2 reading skills, whereas Schoonen, Hulstijn and Bossers (1998) confirmed the predictive power of general metacognitive knowledge with respect to language proficiency, including reading comprehension, of the mother and foreign language as well, after comparing it to the predictive power of vocabulary. Of course additional future research, which can possibly reinforce different theoretical aspects on reading comprehension performance of biliterate individuals and which can offer a deeper understanding of the factors that formulate it, is very important.

The present research shares with the above studies the interest in cross-linguistic relationships concerning reading comprehension ability. What it wishes to provide in addition is more evidence, on one hand, from language pairs other than those including English, thus, making an estimation of the influence of orthographic differences in different language pairs possible and, on the other hand, evidence from a specific population group with low socioeconomic status, which is literally underrepresented in scientific research. Moreover, the fact that the children who participate in the present study are attending the last years of the Dutch primary education, is an additional point of interest. This is so because they are not regarded as beginning readers, but instead, more advanced ones. As it will be explained in the theoretical background below, these two kinds of readers share different characteristics, although, as a matter of fact, the last years of primary education do not exactly mean advanced reading ability. It means that the pupils are still in the process of becoming advanced readers. Knowledge based on this distinguished sort reader who is not a beginner, but also not an advanced reader, could seem useful in order to understand transfer of reading abilities and the circumstances under which it occurs. After all research needs data from as many age groups as possible. Furthermore, by studying the role of language dominance the present research wishes to eventually find additional support to Cummin's view about the existence of a threshold level in reading in order for transfer to occur (1981, 1991). Language dominance is here interwoven not only with the length of residence in the host country, but also with language use and language

input in daily life, as it can be concluded from a questionnaire given to the parents at the beginning of the research. Dominance is operationalized as language proficiency as well, which improves with age. Finally, what distinguishes this study from others on the same topic, is that at the same time it wishes to investigate one more thing; what the influence is of the quantity of time children are engaged with out-of-school L2 reading on the cross-linguistic relationship between their L1 and L2 reading comprehension ability. According to Cummins (2018) in order educational success of low socioeconomic status students to increase, maintaining a high engagement with reading and a stable exposure to print is of high significance. It would be interesting to see if children who read regularly and often out of school, present correlations of their L1 and L2 reading comprehension skills.

# 3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

# 3.1. Arabic, Turkish and Dutch orthographies and language proficiency

When it comes to the evaluation of reading skills, there are some factors which pertain languages that need to be taken into consideration. One of these factors is the kind of writing system and orthography that characterizes the languages involved; in the present research Arabic, Turkish and Dutch. Reading comprehension requires the processing of an array of information such as orthographic, phonological, semantic and morphological and each language conveys these aspects in a different way (Frost, 2005). Alphabetic writing systems can differ in their degree of grapheme/phoneme correspondence and orthographies can vary concerning the transparency of the spelling-phonology relation (Abu-Rabia, Shakkour and Siegel, 2013). Languages with orthographies and grapheme/phoneme mappings characterised by ambiguity can pose additional difficulties to readers and in particular to the less advanced ones, because of the low predictability of the spelling-phonology relation. A transparent system does not present any kind of ambiguity whereas an opaque one does.

To begin with, Arabic is one of the Semitic languages with a writing system that differs from Latin. It is read and written from right to left and possesses mostly consonants in its alphabet (Abu-Rabia, Shakkour and Siegel, 2013). These consonants can be written with more than one grapheme depending on their position in a word and correspond to different consonant-vowel pronunciations depending on the presence of diacritical marks in specific positions in the word (Abu-Rabia, Shakkour and Siegel, 2013). For example, the diacritic named *sukun*, which is literally a small circle above a letter, indicates the absence of any kind of vowel following the letter. Thanks to this kind of vowelization system which depends on the presence of a number of diacritics in specific positions in the word and their combination with consonant graphemes, there is a sound-symbol correspondence between letters and their sounds, which is characterised by great predictability (Abu-Rabia, Shakkour and Siegel, 2013). This is the so called shallow-transparent orthography. Arabic has by the way an unvowelized deep orthography too, one without the presence of diacritics, mostly used in cases of adult advanced readers (Abu-Rabia, Shakkour and Siegel, 2013), but this, of course, does not concern the present study; Arabic speaking children read mostly texts of the shallow orthography. To better

understand the concepts of shallow and deep orthography, think further of other languages such as English, a language of particularly deep orthography, where very often the same syllable, for example *wa* in 'wave' and *wa* in 'water', is pronounced in a different way depending only on the word where it appears. In languages as Spanish on the other hand, with its shallow orthography, this kind of ambiguity in pronunciation is not present. Arabic has, thus, a transparent orthography. His morphology is however characterized by opacity, i.e. there is ambiguity in the suffixes that have to be added in order to derive new word forms from roots, and therefore this fact forces beginning readers to rely more on phonological processing during reading and less on morphology (Abu-Rabia, Shakkour and Siegel, 2013). To better understand the concept of morphological opacity here, think again of the English language and what it needs to produce for example the noun *excitement* from the root *excite* on the one hand and on the other hand what it is needed to produce the noun *decision* from the root *decide*. The second case is far less transparent. So, the morphological opacity of Arabic makes it difficult for beginning readers particularly to count on morphology during reading.

Moreover what makes Arabic interesting and should be mentioned here as it can have a negative effect on learning to read, is the phenomenon of *diglossia*. We can define *diglossia* as a linguistic situation in which two languages or two varieties of the same language, are used under different conditions within a community, often by the same speakers. The term is usually applied to languages with distinct 'high' and 'low' (colloquial) varieties, and the Arabic world constitutes an example, given that there are two distinct Arabic varieties: the spoken one, the so called colloquial, and the written one, the so called Literary or Modern Standard, learned under formal instructions (Thompson-Panos and Thomas-Ruzic, 1983). The paradox is that Arabic speaking individuals learn to read and write in a language they do not use when communicating in their everyday life. Hence, the Arabic speaking children of the present study, unlike the Turkish speaking children, when tested in their L1, were actually tested in a sort of third language and probably faced additional difficulties in comparison to the Turkish speaking children.

What concerns Turkish and Dutch on the other hand, Latin is the kind of alphabet these two languages use. In relation to orthography Turkish is transparent and the phoneme-grapheme mappings is very regular in this language (Öney & Durgunoğlu, 1997). According to Öney and Durgunoğlu (1997) the decoding ability of Turkish beginning readers, i.e. the ability to transform graphemes into phonemes, so one of the reading components (Bowey, 2005), is very high and reading comprehension is not hindered by difficulties in relation to this factor. Although Turkish belongs to the so called agglutinative languages, languages with multiple suffixes on both nouns and verbs, its morphology is characterized by transparency as well (Babayiğit & Stainthorp, 2010). Finally Dutch has a transparent orthography as Turkish, at least for what concerns reading (Babayiğit & Stainthorp, 2010) and it has a relatively transparent morphology (Rispens, McBride-Chang & Reitsma, 2008).

The presentation of all the above information is important for two reasons. The first is that it reveals the possible difficulties with reading comprehension that beginning readers with yet no automatized processing of spelling patterns can face during the acquisition of either their first or their second language. The second concerns bilinguals and the possibility of

cross-linguistic transfer of reading skills from the strong to the weaker language. The present study, except for aiming to answer the more general question of what the relationship between the L1 and L2 reading comprehension ability is, aims furthermore at examining if differences in the writing systems and orthography of different language pairs can influence the cross-linguistic relationship between L1 and L2 reading comprehension ability. Previous research has indeed revealed that limited differences of this kind can facilitate positive transfer from one language to the other, but the participants were mostly children at the beginning of their literacy development (Bialystok, Luk & Kwan, 2005). A research with older children participating could eventually provide interesting results that enrich the general research findings on this subject and expand knowledge on different age groups.

## 3.2. Reading comprehension in general

Reading comprehension is an ability which includes a number of specific components: decoding, phonological awareness and language comprehension, this last one meaning the understanding of the language-dependent vocabulary, grammar and whole sentences (Melby-Lervåg & Lervåg, 2014). As previously mentioned in the text, decoding refers to the ability of translating printed symbols into spoken units in an accurate and fluent manner, whereas the skills of manipulating sounds into spoken words constitute the so called phonological awareness (Melby-Lervåg & Lervåg, 2014). According to Kintsch and Rawson (2005) reading comprehension involves different levels of processing. Terms such as microstructure (word meanings and proposition interrelationships) and macrostructure (global topics and interrelationships), together called *textbase*, form the meanings as literally declared by the text, but because of the need of a deeper understanding of the situation depicted by the text, there is additionally the construction of a situation model (Kintsch & Rawson, 2005). This demands the exploitation of prior knowledge and it involves the process of inferencing and the contribution of both the short- and long-term working memory, connected with each other by the so called retrieval structures (Kintsch & Rawson, 2005). These structures are a network of linked propositions corresponding to "a spatially dispersed network of neural activation" (Walter, 2004, p.316) at the disposal of people with reading expertise in a specific domain and they are capable of resulting in highly advanced readers. Extensive practice is crucial for establishing retrieval structures, otherwise learning to apply active and strategic processing during reading could be a sort of compensation for the lack of reading practice, although not actually resulting to deep understanding of a text (Kintsch & Rawson, 2005). Thus, as readers grow older, acquire more knowledge and develop their cognitive skills, a simultaneous improvement of their reading comprehension skills should be expected. The above metalinguistic comprehension skills could also be of some interest for the present study, since the involved population group concerns children of the last grades of primary education, i.e. not exactly beginning readers, but readers with some reading history behind them, although, again, not advanced.

From what has been introduced up to now, learning to read for beginning readers of alphabetic scripts means mastering the letter-sounds correspondence, identifying words and generally making use of phonological skills, namely the ability to manipulate sounds into spoken words. On the other hand, for more advanced readers, when texts become more complex and the conceptual demands increase, listening comprehension, which is of course part of a language-dependent competence as previously mentioned, general cognitive abilities, such as phonological abilities and working memory, and linguistic abilities, such as vocabulary and grammatical competencies, play a more crucial role (Bowey, 2005). The processing demands needed in order to read and understand a continuous text are of higher level. But when attention addresses lower level processes because of a lack of automation resulted either from limited practice or reading disorders, reading comprehension becomes hindered (Bowey, 2005).

Despite the considerable variation in the results of studies which compare the reading comprehension skills of L1 and L2 learners, the majority of longitudinal studies reveals that L2 language comprehension has an impact on L2 reading comprehension which increases with age. Language comprehension also seems to play an even more important role for L2 readers than for L1 readers (Melby-Lervåg & Lervåg, 2014). Oral language skills and specifically vocabulary and morphosyntax seem to be the main problem of L2 readers (Melby-Lervåg & Lervåg, 2014). The difference between L1 and L2 readers regarding these oral skills is, nevertheless, moderated by the socioeconomic status of the parents of L2 learners. Specifically, parents of high educational level seem to form a positive influence to the development of L2 comprehension of their children (Melby-Lervåg & Lervåg, 2014). In relation to cross-linguistic transfer of reading comprehension, which means the transfer of this ability from the first to second language or even the other way round, L2 learners can benefit from the transfer of specific reading components from their L1, such as decoding and phonological awareness skills, whereas not from the transfer of the component language comprehension, as this is significantly smaller (Melby-Lervåg & Lervåg in Melby-Lervåg & Lervåg, 2014).

# 3.3. Transfer of reading comprehension ability in bilinguals

Despite the existence of language-dependent knowledge that cannot be transferred between the two languages of bilinguals, there are metalinguistic and metacognitive skills which are language-independent and can indeed undergo this process, as Durgunoğlu (2002) claims. Her article is a suggestion of using cross-linguistic transfer as a diagnostic tool in order to detect bilingual children with reading or learning difficulties and dissociate them from bilingual children with just low L2 proficiency (Durgunoğlu, 2002). One of the possible domains of cross-linguistic transfer regarding reading comprehension is phonological awareness, as mentioned earlier in the text. This awareness includes the knowledge of all kinds of phonological units of the spoken language from separate phonemes to words (Durgunoğlu, 2002). Durgunoğlu (2002) has concluded that a high phonological awareness in the L1, the stronger language, is capable of facilitating phonological awareness in L2 through transfer, despite the findings of previous studies that low levels of L2 language comprehension in bilinguals, especially vocabulary, would mean hindered development of L2 phonological awareness. According to her (Durgunoğlu, 2002), another metalinguistic ability which can be transferred from L1 to L2, is syntactic awareness, i.e. the ability to follow and be aware of the grammatical structure within a sentence. Understanding how words are combined into broader syntactic units, such as sentences,

paragraphs and texts, contributes to reading acquisition and high levels of reading comprehension (Abu-Rabia, Shakkour & Siegel, 2013). Durgunoğlu (2002) mentions moreover functional awareness, the metalinguistic ability of understanding the situations under which written language is used. Literacy practises beyond school help children form notions regarding written language and its functions and conventions, knowledge which is further transferable to other languages, too (Durgunoğlu, 2002). Also, concerning decoding, although there is a metalinguistic element common across languages and related to the ability of recognising statistical patterns, it is constrained only between alphabetic scripts (Durgunoğlu, 2002).

Finally, Durgunoğlu (2002) refers that reading comprehension has a decontextualized and non-personal character. The researcher claims this in the sense that the reader does not have necessarily a personal relationship with the writer of the text, what she/he reads concerns people, objects and events not from here and now and she/he cannot use any non-verbal information or actual feedback to what is uttered a moment ago. Thus, print is a very special kind of speech which demands active interaction and the creation of a rich mental representation and therefore the application of specific metacognitive strategies for someone to effectively understand it (Durgunoğlu, 2002). In her review of literature on crosslinguistic transfer in literacy, Durgunoğlu (2002) mentions a number of metacognitive strategies that can be transferred across languages, such as "monitoring comprehension, identifying and repairing comprehension problems, clarifying the meaning of words, focusing on constructing a sensible overall representation, forming hypotheses, using genre characteristics, inferencing; questioning the author, and relating the new information to existing background knowledge" (p.200). Through the application of this kind of strategies good readers are capable of interacting with the text in order to fully depict it.

After the presentation of part of the most relevant existing literature on reading development and cross-linguistic transfer in reading comprehension, it is high time for formulating the specific questions of the present study, too. Thus, what this study wishes to provide an answer to, is:

What is the relationship between the L1 and L2 reading comprehension ability in bilingual children of primary education, aged between 9 and 14 years old with Turkish or Arabic as their first language and Dutch as their second? What can be said about it in comparison to the relationship between their L2 vocabulary and L2 reading comprehension ability? How do the differences in the script and orthography between L1 and L2, the language dominance and the L2 out-of-school reading engagement of the children influence the relationship between L1 and L2 reading comprehension ability?

## 3.4. Predictions of the present research

The existence of different points of view in the literature about the possibility of transfer of abilities between the two languages of bilinguals and the factors that determine high L2 reading skills, has consequences for the predictions of the present research. Different results are to be expected for example, if one of the already presented hypotheses is not right. For

example, positive correlation of L1 and L2 reading scores will probably be seen in the results of the reading comprehension tests of all children regardless of the different alphabets, if Cummins (1981, 1991) is right. According to previous research, this correlation is also expected to be weaker in comparison to the correlation between L2 reading comprehension and L2 vocabulary. This is because the sample in this research is taken from the last grades of the Dutch educational system and language competence is more important as children get older (Lervåg & Aukrust, 2009, Melby-Lervåg & Lervåg, 2014). If, on the other hand, script-dependent hypothesis holds, positive correlations are to be expected mostly for the group of Turkish speaking children, since Turkish and Dutch share a Latin alphabet and not for the group of Arabic speaking children. According to the deep orthographic hypothesis though, it is not expected any kind of impeding of a positive transfer for any of the language groups, as all three language groups, this would probably mean that the L1 threshold that Cummins (1981, 1991) has claimed about, is not reached for any of the children of the present sample.

Moreover, if dominance, as measured with the parental questionnaire which includes language use, language input and language proficiency, is taken into consideration, lower L2 scores are expected for the group of L1 dominant children and lower L1 scores are expected for the group of L2 dominant children. L1 dominant children who have been living in the Netherlands for only a few years, have also received a lot more formal instructions in their L1 compared to the L2 dominant children who are born in the Netherlands. A negative correlation is therefore expected for both groups; L1 dominant and L2 dominant.

Finally, there are also predictions about the research question regarding the influence of the amount and frequency of reading habits on the relationship between L1 and L2 reading comprehension. If it is true that children who read a lot, not only have a higher specific language knowledge but also a broader knowledge (Kintsch & Rawson, 2005), with developed reading strategies and trained short and long-term working memory, it is expected that they will be generally effective readers in both their languages when bilingual and there will probably be a high correlation between their L1 and L2 reading performance. On the contrary, bilingual children who do not read regularly out of school time, are not expected to benefit from this sort of transfer. But if the kind of script to which children are exposed plays a role, L2 daily readers will not necessarily also benefit in their L1 reading, as language-dependent knowledge, like vocabulary and grammar, and L1 verbal working memory is more important in this case (Walter, 2007). Correlation is then plausibly not expected.

In conclusion, it is interesting to see which of the three factors, script differences, dominance and out-of-school L2 reading engagement, in which way and to what extent can shape the relationship between L1 and L2 reading comprehension skills. Dominance and out-of-school L2 reading engagement are both related to the concept of exposure to the language, something completely ignored by all theories mentioned in this paper, at least openly. So, the question is if such a factor is also taken into consideration, how this would influence the power of the presented theories. After all research has reached different conclusions up to now. In the following sections it is presented a detailed description of the way the present researcher tried to capture the complexity of bilingualism and the interaction between the two languages of a bilingual.

# 4. METHOD

# 4.1. Participants

A group of 20 children, 11 with Turkish and 9 with Arabic as their home language, participated in this research after an invitation was made in three elementary schools in the district of Ede in the Netherlands, known as schools which many bilingual pupils follow. The parents of the specific children were the only ones who volunteered and gave their written permission before the completion of a parental questionnaire. 10 of the children were girls and 10 were boys. Their ages ranged between 9 and 14 years with a mean age of 12,5. The distribution of children in the different school grades is given in the table below:

	Gr.5	Gr.6	Gr.7	Gr.8	Total m
Turkish speaking	2	3	1	5	11
Arabic speaking	0	5	4	0	9
Sum	2	8	5	6	20

Table 1. Amount of Turkish and Arabic speaking children per grade

All Turkish speaking children are born in the Netherlands, whereas the Arabic speaking are not. The later come from Syria and their age of arrival ranges from 7 to 11 years (mean age 9). In other words they lived in the Netherlands approximately the last 2 to 3,5 years of their life. This is why they are actually regarded as second language learners and dominant in Arabic. Moreover they have started school in a country other than the Netherlands and the grades they have been in there vary between 3 and 6 according to the Dutch educational system. All the other children are dominant in Dutch according to the answers their parents gave to the questionnaire. Only three children in the group of Turkish speaking children are considered simultaneously bilinguals, whereas 8 are considered successive bilinguals. In conclusion and although this was not planned, the group of Turkish speaking children corresponds also to the group of L2 dominant bilinguals and the group of Arabic speaking children corresponds to the L1 dominant bilinguals. Thus, Table 1 shows at the same time the groups divided by dominance.

Relatively to the socio-economic status of the sample, the economical level has not been taken into consideration. Instead, there has been a control over the maternal education. Namely, all mothers have a low to medium education level. Moreover there has not been any sort of control over children's QI. Concerning reading engagement on the other hand, what can be said on the basis of the parental answers, is that children can be divided into three groups:

one with no reading habits, including children who might read once in a month, a second one with somehow scarce habits (once/twice weekly or every two weeks) and a third one with reading habits on a daily basis. Table 2 shows the distribution of children depending on reading engagement:

	Gr.5	Gr.6	Gr.7	Gr.8	Sum
No reading	1	1	1	1	4
Scarce reading	1	2	3	3	9
Daily reading	0	5	1	1	7
Sum	2	8	5	6	20

Table 2. Amount of children with no reading, scarce reading and daily reading per grade

In sum, the independent variables which divide the children in different groups except for school grades, are language/script, dominance and reading habits. Only the last one of these yields more than two groups.

## 4.2. Material and process

Given that the non-negotiable requirement for the participation of a child in this research was the ability to read in Turkish or Arabic, this ability should be certified in cases where children have not learned the language under formal instructions and so parents were not really sure about it. This was noted in three cases of Turkish speaking children, who were then given the Turkish version of the short reading text which is proposed in the edition "Taal en Teken: technisch lezen bij nieuwkomers" (Language and Print: technical reading in newcomers) of HCO (see Appendix C for the Dutch translation). They were additionally asked to follow the instructions included: answer two questions concerning their name and age, make a simple do-assignment with colours, i.e. paint the trousers of a boy in a picture and finally answer a closed question checking comprehension of the text. Although this is proposed as a way of helping teachers to find out what their pupils' level of L1 reading skills is regarding mostly technical reading, for the needs of this research it is also considered a quick and safe way of detecting reading comprehension ability in the L1. All three children mentioned above were finally included in the research after succeeded in this test.

After the signing of their written permission, all parents were interviewed in order to provide the necessary information concerning their children and their environments. In Appendix A the exact form of the questionnaire which has been used in the present research is given. It is in Dutch and actually it was initially used during the stage of the researcher in one of the three primary schools for the needs of a research about home language situations of the pupils. It is created largely on the basis of the unpublished parental questionnaire UBiLEC of Unsworth (2013), which is developed to diagnose qualitative and quantitative language input and output of

bilingual children and therefore to draw reliable conclusions about language dominance. The questionnaire is nevertheless refined with additional questions in order to cover more variables concerning the home language situations and specifically the reading habits of the children and their families. It consists of 66 questions in total and it is divided into 8 units: a) general guestions concerning the child, b) languages spoken by the child and its proficiency according to the parents, c) questions concerning the parents, d) language proficiency/use and reading habits of the parents, e) home contact persons of the children, f) language in after-school care or babysitting and during holidays, g) language contact in the past and finally h) child activities after school. In this guestionnaire parents are often asked to make an assessment of the proficiency in the languages spoken either by them or by their child or even by people who regularly come in contact with their child. Although justified scepticism could be raised regarding the reliability of this sort of assessments by parents, research findings have confirmed that assessment scales and questionnaires completed by parents and teachers, are capable of offering reliable and useful information regarding the bilingual status of a child (Gutiérrez-Clellen & Kreiter, 2003). Besides, the lack of time in the present study has made the option of such a questionnaire the most economical solution in every respect.

Relatively to the material which has been used for the measurement of reading comprehension, the texts were selected from the reading comprehension exercise brochures of CITO, level M (medium) Start for grades 5, 6 and 7 (2007, 2008 and 2009 respectively) and level B (begin)/M (medium) Start for grade 8 (2010). CITO examinations are an independent educational assessment of final year Dutch primary school pupils on their Dutch, mathematics, world orientation involving biology, geography and history, and study skills and, although not obligatory, they are administered by a large majority of primary schools in the Netherlands. In the present study, the choice of such old versions of the tests was justified because using an already existing instrument, despite its obvious advantages, cannot exclude the chance that some of the children were already given these tests for exercise in the current school year. Newer versions are more likely to be provided by teachers in the current school year and thus, to be remembered by the children. The selected texts and the related four multiple choice guestions were translated in Turkish and Arabic by native speakers who also speak fluently Dutch. The texts were the same for both Turkish and Arabic but differed in comparison to the Dutch texts. The selection is based mostly on length in the sense that the two texts in the two different languages should share approximately the same number of lines and questions. In Appendix B the reader can find the Dutch translations of all texts that are used for the reading comprehension measurements.

About half of the children were assigned the tests at the researcher's place in small groups, after an invitation which was made to their parents. The other half of them were tested in their school in the absence of the researcher and under the surveillance of the teachers. All children were assigned both texts on the same day. In an effort to control the effect of fatigue, since during the second test children are likely to be already tired compared to the first test, half of them were given the Dutch text first and half of them the Turkish or Arabic text. Because of the small size of the texts, there was no time limit. The only instructions that children were given were: "Read the texts and answer as many questions as you can. You are not allowed to ask

anything or speak with other people eventually present in the same room with you". No child has spent more than twenty minutes for the tests.

In relation to L2 vocabulary, it was not necessary to submit one more test to detect children's competence. Instead, the primary schools of the participants were approached with the documents of the written permission of their parents and a request to notify the specific grade of every child for the CITO test in vocabulary for the period February/March. At this point it should be also mentioned that Arabic speaking children who all score in Dutch vocabulary lower than it would be expected according to their grade, have, nevertheless, been assigned the reading comprehension tests which correspond to their grades and not to their Dutch vocabulary level. Otherwise, the texts translated in the L1 would have the same vocabulary level as the respective L2 texts, but it is not sure if the bilingual children of this research possess the same vocabulary level for their two languages. By taking such a decision, children are asked to perform according to their grade/age and L1 and L2 texts would hopefully correspond to each other.

# 5. RESULTS

In the table below the results of the reading comprehension tests are presented together with the levels of the L2 vocabulary CITO tests of February/March for every participant, such as information concerning the independent variables (grade, L1 and reading habits). As previously mentioned, the group of Arabic speaking children corresponds to the L1 dominant group, whereas the Turkish speaking group to the L2 dominant group. Hence, information about dominance is not presented in the table, since it can be extracted directly through the language group. Furthermore, the highest score for each reading test is 4 and the lowest 0. Although there is also a numerical value for the Dutch vocabulary competence, this depends on the grade where every child belongs to, since every grade uses a different scale. For reasons of comparison, only the level of the child is used; A the highest level and E the lowest or otherwise 5 the highest and 1 the lowest. The five Arabic speaking children with a lower L2 vocabulary level than the group where they belong to, have the lowest L2 vocabulary level they can get. Consequently, it is assumed that they would also have the lowest L2 vocabulary level if this language competence of them would be measured with a test corresponding to their grade. This is why they nevertheless receive level 1 for their vocabulary in the SPSS database.

Participant Information	L1 Reading Comprehension	L2 Reading Comprehension	L2 Vocabulary				
1. [gr.6, AR., scarce R.]	2	1	1(M5)*				
2. [gr.6, AR., daily R.]	2	1	1(M5)*				

Table 2 0.

3. [gr.6, AR., daily R.]	2	3	1(M5)*
4. [gr.6, AR., no R.]	0	3	no data***
5. [gr.6, AR., scarce R.]	1	2	no data***
6. [gr.7, AR., scarce R.]	3	0	no data**
7. [gr.7, AR., scarce R.]	2	1	1(M6)*
8. [gr.7, AR., scarce R.]	4	0	no data***
9. [gr.7, AR., no R.]	2	3	1(M6)*
10. [gr.5, TU., scarce R.]	1	3	2
11. [gr.5, TU., no R.]	2	1	2
12. [gr.6, TU., daily R.]	1	1	1
13. [gr.6, TU., daily R.]	0	4	1
14. [gr.6, TU., daily R.]	1	3	3
15. [gr.7, TU., daily R.]	1	4	3
16. [gr.8, TU., scarce R.]	4	3	1
17. [gr.8, TU., no R.]	3	4	1
18. [gr.8, TU., scarce R.]	1	1	1
19. [gr.8, TU., daily R.]	3	4	3
20. [gr.8, TU., scarce R.]	0	4	3

\*the vocabulary level of this participant is one year lower than the grade where she/he belongs to \*\*the participant came to school after this specific vocabulary test was assigned \*\*\*the school of this participant does not assign CITO vocabulary tests

All the above values were entered in an SPSS database and analysed specifically for Spearman correlations conforming to the ordinal character of the dependent variables. According to this analysis, there is a small negative correlation (r = -,322) between L1 and L2 reading comprehension (p<0.05 and n=20) for all participants before any kind of group splitting, i.e. high L1 performance corresponds to low L2 performance. This is, though, found to be insignificant. On the contrary, between L2 vocabulary and L2 reading comprehension the result was a moderate positive correlation (r=,456, p<0.05 and n=16), which actually means that high L2 vocabulary scores correspond to high L2 reading comprehension scores. This was of no significance, too. After a group splitting according to language/orthography or otherwise language dominance for the present study, the relationship between L1 and L2 reading comprehension was a significant high negative correlation (r = -750, p < 0.05 and n = 9) for the group of Arabic speaking or otherwise L1 dominant children. In this group good L1 reading comprehension performances mean bad L2 reading performance. One more analysis followed after a group splitting according to reading habits. A moderate correlation was found, positive and negative respectively (r= ,500, p<0,05, n=4 and r= -,570, p<0,05, n=9) for the groups of no reading habits and scarce habits. This is interpreted as a correspondence of high L1 to high L2 reading scores for children who do not read at all and a correspondence of high L1 to low L2 reading scores for children who read rarely. For the group of children with daily reading habits, on the other hand, the result was a very small negative correlation (r = -,139, p<0,05 and n=7), what again means that high L1 reading scores correspond to low L2 reading scores. Nevertheless, none of these latest correlations in respect with reading habits was significant. All correlations are presented in the table 4 below:

					Corre	ation							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. L2 Vocabulary	-												
2. L1 Reading Comprehension		-											
3. L2 Reading Comprehension	.46	32	-										
AR													
4. L1 Reading Comprehension				-									

Table 4. Correlations between L1 and L2 reading comprehension plus L2 reading comprehension and L2 vocabular	ry
correlation	

17

5. L2 Reading Comprehension	75* -	
TU		
6. L1 Reading Comprehension	-	
7. L2 Reading Comprehension	12 -	
NO		
8. L1 Reading Comprehension	-	
9. L2 Reading Comprehension	.50 -	
SCARCE		
10. L1 Reading Comprehension	-	
11. L2 Reading Comprehension	57 -	
DAILY		
12. L1 Reading Comprehension		-
13. L2 Reading Comprehension		14 -

\*p<0,05

# 6. CONCLUSION

In conclusion and based on the results of the present study, the only significant L1 and L2 reading comprehension correlation found, is the one for the group of L1 dominant Arabic speaking children. Subsequently, there is no sufficient evidence to give a definite answer to the first research question. No conclusion can be drawn over the relationship between L1 and L2 reading comprehension performances, even regarding only the specific 20 children who

participated. Moreover and in contrast to previous research findings (Lervåg & Aukrust, 2009, Melby-Lervåg & Lervåg, 2014), no conclusions can be drawn over the relationship between L2 vocabulary level and L2 reading comprehension scores. So, for the second research question, there is also no available definite answer.

What concerns the third research question or at least one part of it, the answer is not so simple. And this is related to the fact that the influence of the independent variable script/orthography cannot easily be distinguished from the influence of the independent variable dominance, since only the group of Arabic speaking children is L1 dominant and the rest of them, the Turkish speaking children, are L2 dominant. The fact that for the Arabic speaking children a high negative correlation is found between L1 and L2 reading comprehension, does not necessarily mean that script is crucial for the cross-linguistic transfer of this ability. It can also mean that dominance is what literally matters or even that these two independent variables together can cause a negative correlation between the two dependent variables. In other words, whenever biliterate children, whose two languages do not share the same sort script with shallow orthographies or who are L1 dominant and relatively new bilinguals or even both, show high scores in L1 reading comprehension, they will certainly show low scores in L2 reading comprehension relationship, again no definite conclusions can be drawn, precisely because the correlation is not significant.

## 7. DISCUSSION

One possible explanation for the lack of definite answers to the majority of the questions of the present study could be the size of the sample. Looking back, 20 participants are not sufficient to base a research on and to draw valuable conclusions from. Actually, the inclusion of more L2 dominant children born in the Netherlands for the group of Arabic speaking children, as well as L1 dominant for the group of the Turkish speaking children, would have been ideal. Unfortunately, this was not possible in the present study. The difficulty to find these participant categories, in combination with the lack of available time, have had obvious consequences for the research design and its productiveness. This is why the independent variables script/orthography and dominance did not correspond to different groups and hence, a distinction of their influence on the relationship of L1 and L2 reading comprehension ability has not been made possible. Finally, even the fact that data of four Arabic speaking children correlation of this variable with the L2 reading comprehension.

The size effect could hold in particular for the group splitting based on the variable reading engagement. The size of the formed groups in this case ranges from 4 to 7 and 9 members, i.e. considerably small. In addition, regarding this variable, doubts could be expressed in respect to the reliability of the parental questionnaire used to measure it. Objections could be raised due to social desirability bias in questionnaires (Garrett, 2010), which could lead parents to give the most socially approved and acceptable answer when asked

about the reading engagement of their child. Consequently, the formulation of groups based on the parental answers in this case could be misleading.

Nevertheless, given the one significant negative correlation which is found for the L1 dominant Arabic speaking group, based on this admittedly small sample, alternative interpretations should be also hunted. The question is what makes this group splitting and this particular group so special that it is the only case where significance is detected. What can be seen in the table with the scores of the children in all three dependent variables is that the L1 dominant Arabic speaking group has the lowest ceiling and floor performance analogy, i.e. the fewer scores of 0 or 4, in the L1 and L2 reading comprehension tests. For all other formed groups and for the L2 vocabulary levels, as well, a ceiling and/or floor effect is present, most likely causing the absence of significance at the outcomes of the statistical analysis.

This raises also additional questions about the quality of the present research method. Trying to keep the size of the reading comprehension tests identical for both the L1 and L2 has led to the final number of only four multiple choice questions for every test. This considerably restricted number obviously did not manage to offer the necessary variation in the performances of the participants with the known results for the statistical analysis.

Furthermore, the fact that a number of children did not manage to get any points for one of their two languages, could also have an alternative interpretation for at least some of them. For the two Arabic speaking children with 0 points in their L2 reading comprehension ability, this could be indeed the most apparent evidence that their L2 competence is much lower than the tests given. Even for the Arabic speaking child with 0 points in his L1 reading comprehension ability, the same thing could be claimed for his L1 reading ability and the given L1 test. As for the Turkish speaking children, only two floor performances are found and only for the L1. These children could probably have very low L1 language competence compared to the level of the given L1 reading comprehension test, as Turkish speaking children have not received any L1 formal instruction, at least to the extent Arabic speaking children have. Only a few of them follow lessons in the Turkish language once a week.

Finally, there is no point in talking about the confirmation of the Interdependence Hypothesis of Cummins (1981, 1991) or not, since the only significant result found concerns exclusively a specific group in the present sample, after splitting based on script/orthography or dominance. The fact that the Arabic speaking children are relatively new in the Netherlands, in combination with the fact that they had not completed their primary education in the country of origin, could supposedly play the most important role in this finding. If they had come earlier in the Netherlands and the duration of their stay here had also been longer, a different picture would be probably expected. A positive correlation, for example, could be an option.

In conclusion, despite the fact that this work suffers from a small group of participants, it provides interesting data. Future research with more participants or with the luxury of more selectivity on participants could probably reveal its potential. Additionally, the application of a different research method or a combination of different methods could provide more reliable answers to questions like the relationship of literacy between the two languages of bilinguals and the predicting factors of a possible cross-linguistic transfer. The reputation of bilingualism and biliteracy is what is after all at stake. And of course it should never be forgotten that the

nature of such a complex subject as bilingualism and the interplay of all its factors makes the creation of an ideal research design a real challenge.

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# 9. APPENDIX

# A. Parental Questionnaire

Deze vragenlijst is opgesteld vooral voor gezinnen waarin er sprake van meertaligheid is(zelfs als het kind zelf alleen maar Nederlands spreekt). Vragen met een asteriscus kunnen toch aan eentalige gezinnen ook gegeven worden. Hiermee wordt gekeken naar taalsituaties buiten de schooltijden. Verder wordt wat niet van toepassing is, overslaan. Als de ouders bepaalde vragen niet willen beantwoorden of zich bedenken en niet door willen, wordt dit natuurlijk gerespecteerd. De vragen worden in het kader van een gesprek met de ouders gesteld.

# **Oudervragenlijst**

Gesprek met: moeder/ vader/ beide

### Algemene vragen over het kind

- \*1.Naam van het kind en groep:....
- \*2.Geslacht:....
- \*3.Geboortedatum:....
- \*4.Geboorteland:.....

De volgende vraag is alleen voor kinderen die niet in Nederland zijn geboren

5.Leeftijd van aankomst in Nederland:.....

De volgende vraag wordt overslaan als het kind toen te jong was om naar school te gaan.

6.In welke schoolgroep heeft het kind voor het laatst gezeten in het land van afkomst

(Nederlandse equivalent):.....

\*7.Namen van zussen en broers en hun leeftijd:

.....

Vervolgens wordt er vaak een 5-puntsschaal gebruikt. Deze cijfers corresponderen als volgt:

- 1= niet vloeiend, slechts basiswoorden en uitdrukkingen
- 2= redelijk vloeiend, in staat eenvoudige conversaties te houden
- 3= tamelijk vloeiend, in staat uitgebreide conversaties te houden
- 4= heel vloeiend, in staat elke vorm van conversatie te houden in iedere situatie
- 5= moedertaalniveau

### Door het kind gesproken talen

8. Hoe kwam uw kind voor het eerst in contact met:

Het Nederlands	De tweede taal	De derde taal

9.Vanaf wanneer werd uw kind consistent blootgesteld aan:

Het Nederlands	De tweede taal	De derde taal

10.Welke taal spreekt het kind tegen de zussen/broers (plus percentage):

.....

11.Welke taal spreekt het kind tegen de moeder (plus percentage):

.....

12.Welke taal spreekt het kind tegen de vader (plus percentage):

.....

13.Hoe goed spreekt het kind vanaf 1 tot 5:

Het Nederlands	De tweede taal	De derde taal

14. Hoe goed begrijpt het kind vanaf 1 tot 5:

Het Nederlands	De tweede taal	De derde taal

De volgende twee vragen zijn niet voor peuters bedoeld.

15.Hoe goed leest het kind vanaf 1 tot 5:

Het Nederlands	De tweede taal	De derde taal

16.Hoe goed schrijft het kind vanaf 1 tot 5:

Het Nederlands	De tweede taal	De derde taal

### Vragen over de ouders

- \*17.Leeftijd van de moeder:....
- \*18.Leeftijd van de vader:.....
- \*19.Geboorteland van de moeder:....
- \*20.Geboorteland van de vader:....

(Overslaan maar vragen 21 en 22, indien het geboorteland van de moeder en vader niet in Nederland is)

21.Geboorteland van de ouders van de moeder:
22.Geboorteland van de ouders van de vader:
23.Leeftijd van aankomst in Nederland van de moeder:
24.Leeftijd van aankomst in Nederland van de vader:
*25.Het hoogst voltooid opleidingsniveau van de moeder:
*26.Het hoogst voltooid opleidingsniveau van de vader:
27.Land van acquisitie van de opleiding van de moeder:
28.Land van acquisitie van de opleiding van de vader:
*29.Huidige beroep van de moeder:
*30.Huidige beroep van de vader:
*31.Hoeveel uur per dag doordeweeks en s' weekends ziet het kind de moeder (gelijktijdige
aanwezigheid):
*32.Hoeveel uur per dag doordeweeks en s' weekends ziet het kind de vader (gelijktijdige
aanwezigheid):

## Taalvaardigheden van de ouders

33.Hoe goed spreekt de moeder vanaf 1 tot 5:

Het Nederlands	De tweede taal	De derde taal

### 34.Hoe goed spreekt de vader vanaf 1 tot 5:

Het Nederlands	De tweede taal	De derde taal

35.Hoe goed begrijpt de moeder vanaf 1 tot 5:

Het Nederlands	De tweede taal	De derde taal

36.Hoe goed begrijpt de vader vanaf 1 tot 5:

Het Nederlands	De tweede taal	De derde taal

37.Hoe goed kan de moeder schrijven en lezen vanaf 1 tot 5 in:

Het Nederlands	De tweede taal	De derde taal

38.Hoe goed kan de vader schrijven en lezen vanaf 1 tot 5 in:

Het Nederlands	De tweede taal	De derde taal		
*39.Hoe vaak le	est de moeder in h	net Nederlands:	nooit/ zelden/ soms/ vaak/ heel vaak	
*40.Hoe vaak le	est de vader in het	Nederlands:	nooit/ zelden/ soms/ vaak/ heel vaak	
41.Hoe vaak lee	est de moeder in de	e tweede taal:	nooit/ zelden/ soms/ vaak/ heel vaak	
42.Hoe vaak lee	est de vader in de t	weede taal:	nooit/ zelden/ soms/ vaak/ heel vaak	
43.Wat spreken de ouders met elkaar (plus percentage):				
44.Wat spreekt de moeder tegen het kind (plus percentage):				
45.Wat spreekt de vader tegen het kind (plus percentage):				
46.Heeft of had iemand in de familie moeite met spraak of lezen/schrijven:				

### \*47.Nu denk maar aan mensen die thuis regelmatig met het kind in contact komen

	Het Nederlands	De tweede taal	De derde taal
Persoon 1.:			
Hoe vaak spreekt zij/hij tegen het kind:	%van de tijd .	%van de tijd%	ovan de tijd
Hoe goed spreekt zij/hij vanaf 1 tot 5:			
Hoe goed begrijpt zij/hij vanaf 1 tot 5:			
Persoon 2.:			
Hoe vaak spreekt zij/hij tegen het kind:	%van de tijd	%van de tijd	%van de tijd
Hoe goed spreekt zij/hij vanaf 1 tot 5:			
Hoe goed begrijpt zj/hij vanaf 1 tot 5:			
Persoon 3.:			
Hoe vaak spreekt zij/hij tegen het kind:	%van de tijd	%van de tijd	%van de tijd
Hoe goed spreekt zij/hij vanaf 1 tot 5:			
Hoe goed begrijpt zij/hij vanaf 1 tot 5:			
Persoon 4.:			
Hoe vaak spreekt zij/hij tegen het kind:	%van de tijd	%van de tijd	%van de tijd
Hoe goed spreekt zij/hij vanaf 1 tot 5:			
Hoe goed begrijpt zij/hij vanaf 1 tot 5:			

### Taal in buitenschoolse opvang/oppas en tijdens vakantiedagen

48.Instructietaal bij de buitenschoolse opvang/oppas:.....49.Welke taal spreken de kinderen onder elkaar daar (plus percentage):.....50.Van de 12 weken vakantie hoeveel contact heeft het kind met:

Het Nederlands	De tweede taal	De derde taal
% van de tijd	% van de tijd	% van de tijd

### Taalcontact in het verleden

(Alleen indien het kind wel naar een kinderdagverblijf is gegaan dus tot 4 jaar)

51. Hoeveel dagen per week en hoeveel uur per dag ging het kind naar het

kinderdagverblijf:....

52.Instructietaal daar:....

### Activiteiten van het kind buiten de schooltijden

\*53.Wat voor activiteiten zoals bvb sport, clubjes, muziekinstrument, bibliotheek, heeft het kind elke week: \*54.Hoeveel uur per week brengt het kind gemiddeld door hiermee:..... 55.In het algemeen welke taal gebruikt het kind tijdens deze activiteiten:..... \*56.Hoe goed spreken de andere kinderen die deelnemen aan deze activiteiten de gebruikte taal vanaf 1 tot 5:.... \*57.Hoeveel uur per week speelt het kind met andere kinderen buiten de school:..... 58.Welke taal spreken de kinderen met elkaar in het algemeen:..... \*59.Hoe goed spreken de andere kinderen de gebruikte taal vanaf 1 tot 5..... \*60.Wat spelen/doen ze:.... \*61.Hoeveel uur per dag doordeweeks kijkt het kind naar tv,ipad of mobiel:..... \*62.Hoeveel uur per dag s' weekends:..... 63.In welke taal (plus percentage):..... \*64.Behalve de bovengenoemde activiteiten wat anders speelt/doet het kind graag thuis (plus in welke taal):.... \*65.Noem maar gezamenlijke activiteiten van de moeder en het kind per week of maand:..... In welke taal (plus percentage):..... \*66.Noem maar gezamenlijke activiteiten van de vader en het kind per week of maand In welke taal (plus percentage):.....

### Algemene opmerkingen van de interviewer

B. Reading comprehension texts translated in Dutch for every school grade

# Nederlands



- Tim is bijna jarig.
   Voor zijn verjaardag wil hij een echte hond.
   Een hond die blaft en bijt.
- 4 Die likt en kwispelt met zijn staart.
- Die likt en kwispeit met zijn staart.
  Die speelt en springt en rent.
  "Dat kan toch niet", zegt mama.
  "Een hond wil een tuin. Wij hebben niet eens een balkon."
  "Ik laat hem elke dag uit", zegt Tim.
  "En ik geef hem eten."

- "Jaja", zegt mana.
   "Ik weet hoe dat gaat. Na twee keer heb je geen zin meer."
   "Maar ik wil het zo graag", zegt Tim.
- 13 Mama denkt er niet aan.
- 14 "Geen hond in huis", zegt ze.





- A Omdat een hond blaft en bijt.
- B Omdat een hond een tuin nodig heeft.
- C Omdat ze geen zin heeft om hem eten te geven.
   D Omdat ze geen zin heeft om hem uit te laten.

٨

# Nederlands

- Terwijl ze de straat uitrende, dacht Jessica voor de duizendste keer 1
- dat het toch wel heel vervelend was om een heks als moeder te 2 3 hebben. De moeders van de andere kinderen hadden tenminste
- gewone hobby's.
  Ze beweerden niet dat ze wratten konden wegtoveren, en maakten
- 6 geen toverdrankjes van kikkerdril, spinnenpoten en kakkerlakken

- 6 geen toverdrankjes van kikkerdril, spinnenpoten en kakerlaken
  7 tegen ingegroeide teennagels.
  8 Ze trokken geen lange, zwarte mantel aan om achter in de tuin
  9 bezweringen uit te voeren, zodat alle buren naar buiten kwamen om
  10 te kijken en de buurkinderen stonden te giechelen. En ze maakten ook
  11 niet telkens brandnetelsoep omdat die zo goed was voor het bloed.
  12 De vriendinnen van haar moeder waren net zo erg. Ze werden
  13 niet allemaal heksen genoemd. Sommigen waren helderziende,
  14 westerster medicingergiew of beziten gewoon 'mysterieuze

- 14 waarzegster, medicijnvrouw of bezaten gewoon 'mysterieuze
- krachten'.
   Maar hoe ze ook genoemd werden, ze hielden zich allemaal bezig met
- 17 dezelfde 'klinkklare onzin', zoals tante Anna het noemde.





Gr. 5

Turks /Arabisch

- 1 Het regende hard en Ernstjan mocht niet buiten spelen. 2
- "Wat moet ik dan doen?", vroeg Ernstjan aan zijn vader. "Dat moet je zelf bedenken", zei papa, die net van een kop koffie zat 3
- 4 te genieten.
- 5 "Wat deed jij vroeger, als het lelijk weer was?", vroeg Ernstjan en hij
- 6 kroop bij zijn vader op schoot.
- "Och, zo'n beetje hetzelfde als wat jij doet. Alleen had ik een 8
- broertje." 9 "Deden jullie wel eens gekke spelletjes? Of stoute dingen?"
- 10 "Ja, natuurlijk", zei papa. "leder kind doet wel eens domme,

- "Ja, naturnijk", žel papa. reder kind doet veri even even even veri even
- 15 binnen. Vroeger deed ik met oom Ben wel eens het 'telefoonspelletje'
- 16 "Hoe ging dat dan?", vroeg Ernstjan nieuwsgierig.
- Papa schoof zijn lege kopje opzij en begon te vertellen.
   "Soms pakten oom Ben en ik de telefoon en dan draaiden we zomaar
   een nummer. Dan kregen we natuurlijk wildvreemde mensen aan de
- 20 lijn en daar gingen we mee praten. Vaak zeiden we gekke dingen of
- 21 22
- spraken we met heel rare stemmen ..." "Werden die mensen dan boos?", vroeg Ernstjan.
- 23 "Soms wel," zei papa, "maar we hadden een grapje waar de

- 24 meeste mensen toch om moesten lachen. Dan deden om Ben en
   25 ik of we mannen van de Telefoondienst waren. We belden iernand
   26 op en zeiden met een heel zware stem: "Hallo ... u spreekt met de 27 storingsdienst. Mevrouw, er is iets niet in orde met uw toestel. Wilt u 28 even blazen?"
- 29 "Gingen die mensen dan echt blazen?"
- 30 "Ja," antwoordde zijn vader met een grijns, "meestal gingen ze echt
- blazen en dat klonk dan zo: Fffbbbrrr."
   Ernstjan gierde het uit. "Jullie moesten dan zeker heel hard lachen om zo'n mevrouw of meneer?"
- 34 "Ja, natuurlijk!"



- 1.
- Welke titel past het best boven deze tekst?
- Binnen spelen Α в
- Het telefoonspelletje Lelijk weer
- CD Ondeugende dingen

34

# Turks / Arabisch



2

# Nederlands



Gr. 6

### 1 Hoe Japan een keizer kreeg

Turks / Arabisch

Hoderi was een goede visser en Hoeri, zijn jongere broer, een slimme 2

jager. Op een dag besloten de broers hun wapens te ruilen. Hoderi 3 nam dus de pijl en boog en Hoeri de vishaak. Ze spraken af om elkaar

5 aan het eind van de dag over hun avonturen te vertellen.

Hoeri ving die dag geen enkele vis en, wat nog erger was, hij liet de vishaak van zijn broer in het water vallen. "Wat moet ik nu doen?", dacht hij. "Hoderi wordt vast heel kwaad op me." 6

7

8

Hoderi kwam met een slecht humeur terug van de jacht. "Jagen is

stom," zei hij "ik heb niets gevangen. Geef me mijn haak terug!"
 Hij was erg bedroefd toen hij hoorde dat Hoeri hem verloren had.

12 Hoderi wilde geen andere haak. Hoeri liet zich daarom in een mand in

13 de zee zakken om de verloren haak te zoeken. Al gauw zat hij op de 14

bodem van de zee. Hoeri vroeg aan alle vissen of ze Hoderi's haak hadden gezien. Eindelijk vond hij hem in de mond van een vis. 15

16 Natuurlijk had Hoeri toen terug moeten gaan, maar hij ontmoette de

17 mooie dochter van de zeegod. Ze heette Toyotama en was net zo

18 mooi als kersenbloesem. Hoeri en prinses Toyotama trouwden en waren zo gelukkig, dat Hoeri helemaal vergat om de haak terug te 19

20 brengen.

9

\$

21 Drie jaar later dacht Hoeri ineens weer aan zijn broer en hij besloot

22 terug aan land te gaan en de haak naar Hoderi te brengen. Toyotama

was verdrietig. "Ik kom je zoeken, Hoeri," zei ze "want we krijgen een kind." Hoeri kuste haar ten afscheid en zwom naar boven. 23

24 25

Wat was Hoderi blij zijn broer weer te zien! "Ik dacht dat je jaren 26 geleden verdronken was!", zei hij. Prinses Toyotama kwam aan land

27 en kreeg een baby, een jongetje. Hoeri's zoon werd de vader van de 28 eerste keizer van Japan.



1

# Gr. 6

# Turks / Arabisch

- 1. Geen van beiden had geluk. Waar past deze zin het best? A Achter: ... te vertellen. (regel 5) B Achter: ... een vis. (regel 15) C Achter: ... te brengen. (regel 19 en 20) D Achter: ... naar boven. (regel 24) 2 Lees: "Jagen is stom," (regel 9 en 10) Waarom vindt Hoderi jagen stom? A Omdat Hoderi geen avontuur te vertellen had. B Omdat Hoderi niet goed was in jagen.
  C Omdat Hoeri geen enkele vis had gevangen.
  D Omdat Hoeri zijn vishaak had verloren. 3. Lees: *Al gauw ... de zee.* (regel 13 en 14) Waarom ging Hoeri de zee in? A Om de vishaak die hij had laten vallen te zoeken. B Om een andere vishaak voor Hoderi te zoeken. C Om toch nog een vis te kunnen vangen. D Om zijn vrouw Toyotama op te zoeken. 4. Lees: Natuurlijk had ... moeten gaan, (regel 16) Waarom ging Hoeri niet meteen terug naar Hoderi?
  - A Omdat hij bang was dat Hoderi boos op hem was.
  - B Omdat hij de weg naar huis niet meer wist.
     C Omdat hij door de prinses betoverd was.
     D Omdat hij Hoderi helemaal vergeten was.

# Nederlands

Gr. 7

1 Het viel niet mee in de prehistorie. Alleen al om iets te eten moest er 2 een dier worden gevangen en geslacht, de botten moesten worden 3 gebroken, de vacht verwijderd en het vlees moest in stukken worden 4 gesneden. Dat is niet makkelijk zonder mes. Maar ijzer was nog niet 5 bekend.

6 De eerste werktuigen die gevonden zijn, waren van steen. De mensen
7 sloegen van ronde stenen stukken af en gebruikten de stenen als

- 8 mes. Dat was nog eens een uitvinding! In de loop van de tijd zijn de
- 9 werktuigen verder ontwikkeld, scherper gemaakt en kleiner
- 10 geworden.
- 11 Er werd ook gereedschap van de botten van dieren gemaakt.
- Waarschijnlijk kwam iemand op dat idee toen hij de resten van de
   maaltijd weggooide. Zo zijn er harpoenen gevonden om te vissen,
   speren om te jagen en zelfs naalden om te naaien.



1.

Welke titel past het best boven deze tekst?

- A Gereedschap in de prehistorie
- B Handige uitvinding
   C Overleven in de prehiste
   D Werktuigen van botten
- Overleven in de prehistorie

ı

# Nederlands

### 1 Wonen op de maan

- 2 Wonen op de maan lijkt nu nog een droom, maar het is binnen 20
- 3 jaar werkelijkheid. Tenminste, als het aan de Amerikaanse 4 ruimtevaartorganisatie NASA ligt. Zij hebben namelijk plannen voor
- 5 een maanhuis. Sinds 1972 zijn er geen mensen meer op de maan
- 6 geweest. Nu heeft NASA bedacht dat het handig is dat er voortaan
  7 altijd mensen op de maan zijn. Zo kun je in de gaten houden wat er
  8 allemaal gebeurt. Maar de belangrijkste reden om op de maan te
- 9 gaan wonen is eigenlijk de simpelste. Mensen willen gewoon graag
- 10 nieuwe dingen ontdekken!
- 11 NASA heeft al bedacht hoe het maanhuis eruit gaat zien. Het zal
- 12 bestaan uit vier containers. Deze staan op wielen, zodat het maanhuis
- 13 makkelijk verplaatst kan worden. De astronauten kunnen ook
- 14 rondrijden in de buurt van hun huis. Het ruimteschip waarmee ze 15 naar de maan reizen, kunnen ze namelijk ombouwen tot een soort
- fa autorije. In 2024 moet het huis helemaal klaar zijn. Astronauten gaan
   er dan elk een halfjaar wonen.



9			
L,	W	Wat wordt niet duidelijk uit deze tekst?	
	А	hoe lang de mensen op de maan gaan wonen	
	в	hoeveel mensen op de maan gaan wonen	
	С	waarin de mensen op de maan gaan wonen	
	D	wat voor mensen er op de maan gaan wonen	
2			
<b>J</b> ,	Le	Lees: Deze wielen, (r. 12)	
	En	n: zodat kan worden. (r. 12 en 13)	
	W	at hebben deze twee stukjes tekst met elkaar te maken?	
	А	Het tweede stukje geeft een oorzaak van het eerste stukje.	
	в	Het tweede stukje geeft een voorbeeld bij het eerste stukje.	
	С	Het tweede stukje geeft het gevolg van het eerste stukje.	
	D	Het tweede stukje geeft het tegengestelde van het eerste stukje.	
4			
1.	W	/elke zin is waar volgens deze tekst?	
	А	De maanhuizen kunnen ook als ruimteschip gebruikt worden.	
	в	In 2024 kun je een huis kopen op de maan.	
	С	In 1972 stonden er al huizen op de maan.	
	D	Van het ruimteschip kunnen astronauten een auto maken.	

### Gr. 7 1 Drummen, zingen en dansen

# Turks / Arabisch

"Spelen jullie mee?", roepen de voetballende klasgenoten op het 2

- 3 strand. "Nee," zegt Simonica, "we gaan lekker muziek maken.
- Samen met haar tweelingzus Monica loopt ze naar de oefenruimte 4
- van meneer Pires. Binnen spelen de meisjes ritmisch op grote 5 6 trommels. Simonica en Monica zijn lid van een muziekgroep en
- 7 wonen op het eiland Santiago in Kaapverdië, voor de kust van Afrika.
- 8 Simonica veegt het zweet van haar voorhoofd en vertelt: "Ik vind het
- 9 zo leuk dat ik hieraan mee kan doen. Meneer Pires leert ons alle
- 10 soorten Kaapverdiaanse muziek spelen en hij vertelt ons er veel over.
- 11 We spelen vooral batoek, een muziekstijl die onze voorouders uit
- 12 West-Afrika hebben meegebracht. De Portugezen, die hier toen de

13 baas waren, verboden ons te spelen. Maar nu is batoek gelukkig weer 14 helemaal in."

- 15 "We maken onze eigen muziek. We luisteren veel naar cd's,
- improviseren en bedenken zelf teksten. We hebben bijvoorbeeld een
   liedje gemaakt over Almicar Cabral. Hij is onze nationale held. Hij
- heeft er voor gezorgd dat Kaapverdië onafhankelijk is geworden. Als
   we optreden wil iedereen dat lied horen", zegt Simonica trots. "Maar
   we schrijven ook teksten over dingen uit ons eigen leven", vult
- 21 Monica aan. "Liedjes over waar je mee zit en hoe je dat kan oplossen.
- Misschien kan een ander daar ook wat mee." Haar grote popidool is
   de in Nederland wonende Kaapverdiaan Gil Semedo. "Hij speelt veel
- 24 batoekritmes. Als hij hier een concert geeft, sta ik op de eerste rij."
- 25 De meidengroep van Simonica en Monica treedt regelmatig op.
- 26
- Simonica: "We worden vaak gevraagd voor feesten en dankzij onze groep komen we op alle eilanden van Kaapverdië. Maar het 27
- 28 spannendste vond ik om in Europa op te treden. Alleen jammer dat ze
- 29 ons niet konden verstaan." Simonica en Monica zijn al kleine
   30 beroemdheden aan het worden. "We worden nu met hele andere
- 31 ogen door onze klasgenoten bekeken."



1

41

# Turks / Arabisch

1 Lees: "We ... rij." (r. 15 t/m 24) Welke titel past het best boven dit stukje tekst? A Eigen teksten schrijven B Mijn popidool
C Op de eerste rij staan
D Problemen oplossen 2 Lees: *Hij ... geworden.* (r. 17 en 18) Wat betekent deze zin? Almicar Cabral heeft er voor gezorgd dat ... A Kaapverdië een bijzonder land is geworden. B Kaapverdië een populair land is geworden. C Kaapverdië een welvarend land is geworden.
 D Kaapverdië een zelfstandig land is geworden. Lees: De ... bekeken." (r. 25 t/m 31) Welke titel past het best boven dit stukje tekst? 3 A BeroemdB FeestenC Klasgenoten D Spannend 4. Lees: Simonica ... worden. (r. 29 en 30) En: "We ... bekeken." (r. 30 en 31) Wat hebben deze twee zinnen met elkaar te maken? A De tweede zin betekent het tegengestelde van de eerste zin.

- B De tweede zin betekent hetzelfde als de eerste zin.
  C De tweede zin geeft de oorzaak van de eerste zin.
  D De tweede zin geeft het gevolg van de eerste zin.

9

## Nederlands

# Gr 8

### 1 De eerste de beste

- 2 Langste tijd doorgebracht op een zolder, luidste knip met de vingers,
- 3 verste worp met een bierflesdopje. Mensen doen de gekste dingen
- 4 voor een officieel wereldrecord.

### 5 Briljant idee

- 6 Welke loopvogel is de snelste renner van Europa? De goudplevier?
- Of toch de patrijs? Die vraag dook op tijdens een jachtpartij in het lerse North Slob op 10 november 1951. Een van de aanwezigen was
- Sir Hugh Beaver, directeur van bierbrouwerij Guinness. Eenmaal Q
- thuis zocht hij zich in zijn bibliotheek een ongeluk naar het juiste
   antwoord. Tevergeefs. Maar Beaver kreeg wel een briljant idee voor
   een boek: het *Guinness Book of Records*, later omgedoopt tot
- 13 Guinness World Records. Het eerste exemplaar verscheen in 1955 en
- 14 werd al snel in veel landen een succes.
- Door het groeiende aantal records werd het boek steeds dikker. 15
- De makers besloten daarom in de jaarlijkse uitgave alleen een 16
- 17 selectie van de records op te nemen, met meer nadruk op de foto's.
- 18 Dit tot teleurstelling van veel recordhouders, die nu tevreden moeten
- 19 zijn met alleen een oorkonde.

### 20 Guinness beslist

- "Het is moeilijker dan het lijkt om zo'n officieel wereldrecord te halen. 21
- Want lang niet alle voorstellen worden goedgekeurd", zegt Marco 22
- Frigatti. Hij is de baas van de records bij Guinness World Records. 23
- 24 Deze organisatie krijgt zo'n duizend aanvragen per week, waarvan er 25
- ongeveer driehonderd worden goedgekeurd. De helft van die goedgekeurde voorstellen gaat over het breken van een bestaand 26
- 27 record, de andere helft gaat over een nieuw record.
- 28 Dat laatste lijkt misschien het makkelijkst. Verzin gewoon iets
- 29 absurds, zoals de meeste keren je neus snuiten terwijl je hinkelt.
- 30 Omdat je de eerste bent die dat doet, is het gegarandeerd een
- 31 wereldrecord.
- 32 "Jammer, maar dat komt er bij ons niet in", lacht Frigatti. "Een nieuw
- 33 record mag niet opgebouwd zijn uit verschillende elementen die niets
- aan de prestatie toevoegen. Anders kunnen we wel een tweede boek
   maken met precies dezelfde records, maar dan door mensen met een
- 36 rood petje op."
- 37 En zo heeft Guinness nog een paar strenge eisen. Een record moet
- 38 bijvoorbeeld meetbaar zijn. Het langste gedicht valt dus af. Want er
- 39 zullen ongetwijfeld mensen zijn die beweren dat iemand die zijn
- hoofd een dag op het toetsenbord legt, ook een gedicht heeft gemaakt. 40
- 41 Ook moet een record 'interessant zijn voor andere mensen op de
- 42 wereld om te breken'. De grootste pannenkoek ter wereld komt dus
   43 wel in aanmerking, want pannenkoeken worden overal gebakken.
- 44 Maar de frietboer met de langste frikadel kan wel fluiten naar zijn
- 45 officiële record.

### 46 Samenwerken

- 47 lets doen wat niemand anders ooit heeft gedaan. Volgens Marco
- 48 Frigatti is dat de grote drijfveer achter recordpogingen. Of het nu gaat 49 om de snelste honderd meter sprint, of om het grootste aantal
- 50 wasknijpers op je gezicht zetten. Frigatti: "Zelf ben ik het meest
- 51 enthousiast over records waarbij mensen moeten samenwerken.
- 52 Ik bezocht eens een Italiaans dorpje dat al wekenlang in de ban was van een poging om het grootste brood ter wereld te bakken. Dat is 53
- 54 toch fantastisch?"

# Nederlands



Gr. 8

9

# Gr.8

# Turks /Arabisch

### 1 Indianenverhalen

Neeltje vertelt vaak dingen die niet waar zijn. Die indianenverhalen 2

van haar altijd, moppert Joost. Hanna zegt dat Neeltje verzonne 3

4 dingen en echte dingen door elkaar haalt. Ik noem het maar gewoon

leugens, lk trap er nooit in. 5

Neeltje vertelt haar verzinsels altijd 's avonds laat, als ze allang moet 6

slapen. Soms komt ze in tranen (namaaktranen) de trap af, gaat bij

8 Hanna of Joost op schoot zitten en begint. Het is altijd een lang, warrig verhaal en je weet meteen dat het onzin is. Alleen die domme

9

Hanna zegt: "Maar Joost, er moet toch inte orizin a anzijn, hoe kan ze
 Hanna zegt: "Maar Joost, er moet toch iets van aan zijn, hoe kan ze
 dat allemaal verzinnen?" "Neeltje kan álles verzinnen", zeg ik, maar ik
 mag me er niet mee bemoeien. "Indianenverhalen!", roept Joost en

13 dan krijgen ze ruzie.

14 Soms komt Neeltje ermee bij mij. Ze kruipt bij me onder de dekens

15 en begint te fluisteren. "Niet bang zijn, hoor, Stella, maar het is een 16 heel eng verhaal. Heel erg eng! En het is echt heus waar gebeurd!"

17 "O, jee!", zeg ik dan. "Vertel maar gauw!"

18 Zo kwam ze ook bij mij met het verhaal over Bartje. "Een heel erg

19 eng verhaal! En echt heus gebeurd, Stella!" O, dacht ik, daar gaan we

weer! Ik speelde het mee. 20

21 In haar klas zat een jongetje dat Bartje heette. Die had thuis een 22 vriend waar hij erg boos op was en Bartje wou nooit meer doen wat

23 die vriend zei.

24

"Dan is het zeker nu zijn vriend niet meer", zei ik. 25

"Nee-ee ...," zei Neeltje, "het is niet een ander jongetje om mee te 26 spelen, maar een vriend thuis. Een groot mens.

27 "O. Van zijn moeder? Een soort stiefvader?

28

"Ja," zei Neel, "zo'n soort iemand. Hij heet Hendrik." "Hm", zei ik. "En waarom was Bartje dan zo boos op die Hendrik?" 29

30 "Die had hem iets gedaan", zei Neeltje, en ze begon na te denken.

31 "lets érgs."

32 "Geslagen?"

33

"Nou... ja, ook, geloof ik." "Hem... uuuh... hem opgesloten?" 34

35 "Ja, ja, ja! Opgesloten! Zonder eten. Elke dag moet hij in de kast

36

37

zonder eten. De hele tijd. Tot het ochtend is." "Waar plast hij dan?", vroeg ik. Neeltje dacht weer na en begon te proesten. "Door een gaatje in de 38

39 muur", zei ze toen. "Want het is een jongen."

40 Ik proestte ook. "Maar als het een echt verhaal is, Neel, dan is het niet 41 om te lachen", waarschuwde ik toen.

42 "Het is echt! Echt, dat zeg ik toch! Bartje is echt heel dun en wit van

43 het niet eten! Ik moet hem altijd al mijn boterhammen geven anders 44 gaat hij dood!"

45 O, dacht ik, dat is het, de boterhammen. Neeltje at de laatste tijd haar

46 schoolboterhammen op. Hanna was daar erg blij mee. Bartje, dat is

47 gewoon de vuilnisbak op school, grinnikte ik bij mezelf, maar ik bleef

48 meespelen.

49 "Wat goed van jou, Neel", zei ik.

50 "Ja, he," zei Neeltje, "en weet je wat?"
51 "Nou?" Ik wachtte, maar er kwam niks. "Het is zeker te eng om te

52 vertellen", zei ik.

53 Ik voelde Neeltje knikken tegen mijn schouder.

54 "Doe toch maar, ik kan er wel tegen, hoor."

# Turks / Arabisch



Gr.8

2

# C. Dutch version of the text for technical reading

## Verhaal

Joop, opschieten, zegt vader. Het is vandaag maandag.

Je moet naar school. Joop trekt snel zijn kleren aan.

Hij trekt een hemd en een shirt aan. Hij trekt een blauwe broek aan.

O, de broek is te wijd. Joop doet een riem om de broek.

Hij doet schoenen aan. Hè, hè, hij is klaar.

Opschieten Joop, zegt moeder. Je moet eten.

Snel, je moet naar school! Joop eet snel brood.

Hij drinkt snel thee. Joop kijkt naar buiten.

Hij ziet geen kinderen buiten lopen.

Is het vandaag maandag? Nee, vader en moeder hebben zich vergist.

Het is zondag! Joop gaat vandaag niet naar school. Hij gaat lekker spelen.

Mijn naam is .....

Ik ben ..... jaar.

Opdrachten: 1. Pak het blauwe potlood. Kleur de broek van Joop blauw.

2. Gaat Joop vandaag naar school? Ja of Nee?

