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**ТРУДНОЩІ У РОЗУМІННІ ПРОЧИТАНОГО І СТРАТЕГІЇ ЧИТАННЯ
ВИКОРИСТОВАНІ УЧНЯМИ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ**

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**Reading comprehension difficulties and reading strategies used by learners of
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Master's Thesis**

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ЗМІСТ

ВСТУП	6
РОЗДІЛ 1. ЧИТАННЯ	10
1.1. Коротка історія читання	10
1.2. Визначення ключових термінів	11
1.3. Декодування тексту	15
1.4. Історія навчання читанню	17
1.5. Методи та стратегії навчання читанню.....	18
1.6. Техніки навчання читанню.....	22
РОЗДІЛ 2. РОЗУМІННЯ ПРОЧИТАНОГО.....	25
2.1. Різні рівні розуміння прочитаного	25
2.2. Розвиток навичок читання.....	28
2.3. Основні навички читання	30
2.4. Роль пізнавальних умінь у розумінні тексту	32
2.5. Роль когнітивних стратегій і метапізнання в осмисленні	33
2.6. Роль фонових знань у процесі читання.....	35
2.7. Основні навички читання. Навички високого та низького рівня.....	37
2.8. Труднощі з читанням.....	40
РОЗДІЛ 3. ДОСЛІДЖЕННЯ СТРАТЕГІЇ ЧИТАННЯ ТА РОЗУМІННЯ ПРОЧИТАНОГО СЕРЕД СТУДЕНТІВ-МАГІСТРІВ, ЯКІ ЗДАЛИ ЄДИНИЙ ВСТУПНИЙ ІСПИТ У 2020 -2021 РОКАХ.....	44
ВИСНОВКИ.....	67
СПИСОК ЛІТЕРАТУРИ.....	70
РЕЗЮМЕ.....	74
ДОДАТОК	76

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION	6
PART 1. READING	10
1.1. A brief history of reading.....	10
1.2. Definitions of key terms.....	11
1.3. Decoding of the text.....	15
1.4. History of teaching reading.....	17
1.5. Methods and strategies for teaching reading.....	18
1.6. Techniques to teaching reading.....	22
PART 2. READING COMPREHENSION	25
2.1. Different levels of comprehension	25
2.2. Reading skills	28
2.3. Development of reading skills.....	30
2.4. The Role of Cognitive Skills in Reading Comprehension	32
2.5. The Role of Cognitive Strategies and Metacognition in Reading Comprehension	33
2.6. The role of schemata in the reading process.....	35
2.7. Reading subskills. „Higher” and „lower” skills	37
2.8. Reading comprehension difficulties	40
PART 3. RESEARCH ON READING STRATEGIES AND READING COMPREHENSION ON THE ENTRANCE EXAM OF MASTER’S LEVEL (EVI) IN 2020 AND 2021	44
CONCLUSION	67
REFERENCE LIST	70
SUMMARY	74
APPENDICES.....	76

Introduction

Reading is an ability that people apply to gain knowledge and transfer information. It helps people located in different places and living in different eras to communicate ideas. In today's world, it is a vital skill that does not develop naturally but has to be learnt. It is a complex cognitive skill having been around us for about five thousand years. Literacy has grown considerably in Europe and in the world during the last two centuries but still, a lot has to be done in this area. Children usually learn to read by the age of six or seven in their native language, in exceptional cases even earlier. In the field of a second, often a third language there is a growing tendency in early language learning. This tendency can be traced in Ukraine since 2003 when the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine introduced FL as a compulsory subject in class two for the first time. A couple of years later the starting age of learning a FL became the very first school year. However, teaching reading starts only in the second grade. As a result, children are expected to be able to read in two languages by the age of ten. It opens a new world and opportunities for them but, at the same time, both children and teachers face a lot of new challenges as reading is a complex, receptive skill and has to be taught systematically. Understanding the written text is a meaningful aspect of the reading process and the final goal.

A number of studies have been conducted on both first and second language reading (Nunan, 1991, Rumelhart, 1977, Hudson, 2007, Brown, 1985, Munby, 1978, Gordon, 1982, Rosenshine, 2012, Grabe, 1988, Alderson, 2000, Csépe, 2006). According to Nunan (1991), the approaches applied to second or foreign language reading include linguistic, psycho-linguistic, and socio-linguistic approaches. Researchers agree that it is necessary to see the reading process as a series of literacy events or literacy acts. Reading involves lower-level decoding skills, higher-level cognitive skills, and interactional skills. According to Rumelhart (1977), background knowledge also plays an important role in understanding what we read. There are three approaches to reading: bottom-up, top-down, and interactive. In the bottom-up (analytic) approach, the process is started by decoding graphic symbols into sounds, so the reader first identifies the features of letters. In the top-down (holistic/general) approach, the process of understanding the text triggers the reader's prior knowledge and experience. The interactive approach to reading supposes that both print and prior knowledge are important for the process of translating the text into meaning.

Considerable research has also been conducted into the strategies employed by foreign language learners (Oxford, 1993, McKay, 2006). Strategic competence is one of the components of communicative competence. Learner strategy resources started in applied linguistics after 1975 with the appearance of articles about good language learners by Rubin and Stern (Rubin, Stern,

1975). Strategies used by good and bad readers are a widely researched topic. Good readers utilize several strategies when encountering a difficult text. One of these strategies has been summarized by Walter (1982). She claims that good readers read the text slowly, pausing to consider what they have read, then reread it looking from one part of the text to other parts to make connections between these different parts and to make a mental summary of what they have read. She states that most of the people who read this way remember both the general points and the details better than those who use other strategies. Hosenfeld (1976) conceptualized reading strategies as being on two levels: one for 'main meaning' and the other focusing on 'word level'. The strategies examined in the present paper are connected to both levels.

The thesis attempts to show the role of reading as well as the role of strategies in language learning in general and the role of strategy use in reading comprehension in particular.

The **object** of the thesis is the process of reading and understanding the message of a written text in a foreign language.

The **subject** of the thesis is the reading strategies used in EFL in the process of developing the reading comprehension skills and the skills used in the entrance exam of MA-level students, EVI.

The **purpose** of this work is to give a literature review about reading in a FL, methods, and approaches to teaching reading as well as the use of reading strategies. Reading comprehension is the main topic of the thesis. The reading skills and their development, cognitive skills, the role of cognitive strategies and metacognition in reading comprehension, levels of understanding, higher and lower skills, and reading comprehension difficulties are also discussed. The research was carried out with two groups of students in 2020 and 2021 and aims to identify some reading comprehension difficulties of EFL learners. In addition, the research aims at finding out some reading strategies used in the process of understanding the message of a text. In addition, the research intends to gain an insight into some reading habits of the students.

Hypotheses

- The reading habits of students are changing and paper-format sources are being replaced by electronic resources
- Before starting reading students use prediction strategies
- Students apply scan and skim reading strategies when reading texts in EFL
- Students use a wide range of reading strategies in completing exam tasks.
- Teachers find it important to teach reading strategies

The **methods** used in the first two parts are predominantly theoretical. It was necessary to analyze literary sources and organize information about the subject. Part three shows research carried out among two groups of students (a total of 60 students) of MA level from three different higher educational establishments. The research was carried out with the help of an online questionnaire due to the situation in the country. The **methods of data analysis** are quantitative.

The thesis consists of an introduction, three parts, and a conclusion. In the introduction, the aims of the research, the hypotheses, the main research questions, the methods of research, and their significance are described in brief. In parts one and two a theoretical overview of the topic is given. The first part gives an insight into the brief history of reading, the key terms of the topic, decoding, history of teaching reading, the role of schema, techniques, methods, and strategies to teaching reading. The second part is a literature review on reading comprehension. It consists of a short review of reading skills and the way they are developed, the role and development of cognitive skills and strategies in reading comprehension, metacognition, the levels of reading comprehension, higher- and lower-level skills, and reading comprehension difficulties. The third part presents a piece of research carried out among MA-level students who passed the EVI in 2020 and 2021. The research aims to study the reading comprehension difficulties and use of reading strategies of MA students in general and to get an insight into the difficulties they faced on the EVI held in 2020 and 2021.

The **practical value** of the paper is that the results can give practicing teachers some insight into the reading habits and strategies used by their learners based on the results of empirical research.

Understanding written texts is a widely examined topic. Articles on the structure of EVI and the strategies teachers have to follow to successfully prepare their students have also been written (Galynska, 2021, Reznova, 2019). However, little is known about the strategies used by the examinees and the difficulties they face at the exams such as ZNO and EVI. Despite the significance of reading comprehension in the EVI, little attention has been paid to research on the reading strategies used by the candidates at these exams. Neither has empirical research been carried out among the teachers of EFL in our area dealing with the topic of teaching language learning strategies in general and reading strategies in particular. So, still little is known about the strategies that language teachers teach their learners. In today's world teachers need to guide their students to become successful readers in a foreign language and teaching reading comprehension strategies is an essential part of this process. The novelty of the paper is in finding out the reading comprehension strategies used by bachelor's degree students preparing for an exam in EFL. Teaching strategies are important in exam preparation for the reason that students who use reading

comprehension strategies while reading retain more information, comprehend the text better, and perform better on any examination.

PART 1.

READING

1.1. A brief history of reading

The practice of reading and writing emerged around 5000 (3300-3200 B.C) years ago in Mesopotamia. Fischer (2003) states that the use of systematically coordinated sounds and symbols to create “signs” of a writing system was a paradigm shift in reading and writing. “Reading in its true form emerged when one started to interpret a sign for its sound value alone within a standardized system of limited signs” (Fischer, 2003:16). The Sumerians began to use systemic phoneticism along with pictograms. Gradually, the pictographic elements were lost and more logographic elements appeared thus becoming more abstract and sophisticated. Now, it was possible to read not only isolated words but also to convey whole texts. Reading was now a logical sequencing of sounds to recreate human language and it became possible to read language. The idea began to spread to other areas with different languages that demanded other graphic expressions.

Two hundred years after the emergence of the Sumerian writing system the Egyptian hieroglyphs containing both pictographic signs with phonetic elements were invented. Woodward (2001) points out that both Sumerian and Egyptian systems are partially logographic and partially phonetic. The phonetic symbols in the Egyptian system represent either single consonants or sequences of two or three consonants. The first attested script (proto-Canaanite’ script) consisting only of symbols for individual sounds dates back to the second millennium BC and was found in Egypt. Made entirely of consonants, it was the earliest trace of alphabetic writing and the ancestor of the Phoenician alphabet. The Phoenician alphabet had a great impact on other languages due to the adoption of a regulated alphabetic script that was written from right-to-left, rather than in many directions. It became one of the most widely-used writing systems of the age. It was the source of Greek and Aramaic languages as well as the source of Latin. A breakthrough in language representation technologies occurred in 1000 BC when Greek vowels were introduced to the ABC. The next major upgrade in writing occurred some 800 years later, in 200 BC: punctuation marks. Aristophanes' Alexandrian writings were the first to investigate punctuation. The most recent major elevation occurred about 1100 years ago, in the year 900 AD, with the inclusion of spaces between terms. Thus, the most fundamental advance in the readability of texts were due to the

appearance of logographs, consonants, vowels, punctuation marks, and word spaces. The development of the writing system we are using today underwent considerable changes since the first simple pictures of objects and activities were depicted around five millennia ago. (Woodward, 2001)

Scholars agree that in ancient times, reading aloud was the most normal practice, and reading quietly was uncommon. The act of reading silent remained a mystery, given that early texts were intended to be understood rather than observed. With the invention of the printing press, one of the major significant events in the history of mankind, reading became available to a greater number of individuals providing them access to more information. Books written in different languages began to appear in large quantities. Silent reading became the standard as comprehension improved and books were made more available to the general audience. Nevertheless, the ability to read was spreading slowly and for a long-time literacy and illiteracy divided people all around the world. (Fischer, 2003)

1.2. Definition of key terms

Reading is an ability that humans apply to gain knowledge and transfer information. This capacity allows people in different physical locations to communicate ideas and knowledge. Unlike speaking, reading does not develop naturally. It is an acquired skill that, as it has already been mentioned, has been around for about five thousand years. Reading is a complex, receptive skill and is taught systematically. Most children learn to read by the age of six or seven.

It has taken many years of research to arrive at some understanding of what first language (L1) reading consists of. The development of the second language (L2) skills and knowledge is closely connected to the skills already existing in L1. Hudson (2007) states that “second language reading involves second and first language interactions.” (p.12).

At least two characteristic changes in attitudes can be observed in theories about the reading process. The first is a shift between a traditional and a cognitive approach, and the second is a shift from a cognitive to a metacognitive perspective. For decades, the focus of the traditional approach was on the printed form of the text and its properties, and with the advent of the cognitive approach, the role of so-called basic knowledge (prior knowledge, knowledge related to the topic of the text, etc.) was strengthened. Almost at the same time, the role of the control and operational functions that the reader can rely on has become more important, giving rise to a metacognitive approach.

In traditional reading theories, the reader is a passive recipient of the information conveyed in the text. In this traditional approach, the role of the report is very simple; the meaning is in the text itself, and it is up to the reader to reproduce it. The essence of this is that the novice reader acquires skills built on each other in a hierarchical order, the sequence of which serves comprehension (Dole, 1991). The reader possessing these skills is seen by the traditional approach as an experienced reader, who understands anything he reads. Nunan (1991:64) uses the term ‘bottom-up approach and claims that „the central notion behind the bottom-up approach is that reading is a matter of decoding a series of written symbols into their aural equivalents”.

Criticisms of traditional theories of reading highlight two essential aspects: (1) the processing processes involved in the explanation are insufficient, and (2) the interpretation of reading is simplified, limited to the formal properties of language, words, and structure. While it is true that these theories overestimate the role of linguistic structures, it is worth noting that knowledge of linguistic features is a necessary component of comprehension. Perhaps this contradiction is also due to the rapid spread of the cognitive approach.

The emergence of a cognitive approach in reading theories brings with it a top-down or concept-driven model breakthrough. Indeed, the widely used model of psycholinguistics in reading corresponds exactly to the top-down model of cognitive psychology (Dubin and Bycina 1991). Reading as *a psycholinguistic guessing game* (Goodman 1967) is when the reader sets up a hypothesis by taking samples from the text, confirming or rejecting it, setting up a new hypothesis, and repeating it all while reading the text. This is a profound turn that results in the reader being the focus of the reading process, not the text. Reading comprehension, according to Olson and Diller (1982:42), is a term used to describe the abilities required to comprehend and apply knowledge found in written materials.

The schema theory of reading emerges in line with the cognitive approach. According to Rumelhart (1977), schemata are the building blocks of the cognitive system that are used in the process of interpreting sensory data, memory recall, organizing goals and sub-goals, allocating resources during processing, and controlling processes in the processing system. One of the basic assumptions of the schema theory of reading is that if the schemata are not complete and do not provide an understanding of the incoming data available in the text, the processing, and comprehension of the text will be problematic. Cognitive theories and current psycholinguistic theories also highlight the importance of the interactive and constructive nature of reading comprehension. All models agree that prior knowledge plays an important role in reading and there is widespread agreement that without the activation of relevant prior knowledge by a cognitively active reader and the melding of that prior knowledge with the text information, there can be no *reading* of the text.

Today the dominant models that have emerged from the main trends in reading do not dispute that reading is at the same time data-driven (bottom-up), i.e. a process based on language processes and top-down i.e. based on knowledge. The role of basic knowledge or so-called prior knowledge is not disputed by anyone either. An important change in terms of practice has been the interpretation of the control that involves the reader's different abilities and skills in reading comprehension. This control is what we call metacognition (Block, 1992). Wenden (1999) defines metacognitive knowledge as "specialized portion of a learner's acquired knowledge base which consists of what learners know about learning. This knowledge may be acquired unconsciously, the outcome of observation and imitation, or consciously as learners listen to teachers, parents or peers providing them with advice about how to learn". (p.435-436) Metacognitive knowledge plays a significant role in cognitive activities related to language use such as oral comprehension, reading comprehension, writing, etc. The metacognitive processes involved in reading comprehension consist of metacognitive knowledge as well as metacognitive monitoring and control. The reader thinks about what he or she is doing while reading. Metacognitive knowledge includes the learner's knowledge of their cognitive abilities, the learner's knowledge of the nature of particular tasks, and the learner's knowledge of different strategies including when to use these strategies (Brown, 1985). Flavell (1978) referred to it as „knowledge that takes as its object or regulates any aspect of any cognitive endeavor" (Flavell, 1978, p. 8.)

This includes identifying the purpose of the reading as well as the form and type of the text, analyzing the text characteristics, identifying the topic sentence, and incorporating the related details into the interpretation. Part of the reading strategy is the projection of the text writer's goal, highlighting, scanning, and reading in detail, and the prediction of the continuation of the text based on what has been read, prior knowledge, and conclusions drawn earlier during the reading. Therefore, the metacognitive theories of reading consider (a) the creation of the relationship between the part and the whole through classification and staggering as a condition of intelligent reading for cognitive architecture as a whole, and (b) the comparison and determination of the cause, (c) and on which the summary, hypothesis, prediction, partial and conclusions are based.

Much research has been carried out on reading and different definitions have been formulated. Hudson states that reading "involves the interaction of an array of processes and knowledge. It involves basic decoding skills such as letter recognition, higher-level cognitive skills, such as inferencing, and interactional skills, such as aligning (or not aligning) oneself with an author's point of view". (2007:10) One of the most widely cited definitions of reading is given by Anderson (1985) according to which reading is a process of constructing meaning from written texts. It is a complex skill requiring the coordination of several interrelated sources of information. Research in the field of psychology and education points to the active and strategic nature of

reading because readers are actively involved in both cognitive and metacognitive activities in different stages of the reading i.e. before, during, and after reading. In pedagogy, according to Cs. Czaches' (2005) reading was looked at from different perspectives such as linguistic, psycholinguistic, socio-linguistic, cognitive psychological, and constructivist perspectives. Huszti (2009) points to another perspective, the perspective of the 'engaged reader' which considers reading as an individual activity where encouraging and motivating on the part of the readers' fellow play an important role.

Anderson (1985) summarizes skilled reading as

1. constructive: learning to reason about written material using knowledge from everyday life and disciplined fields of study;
2. fluent: mastery of basic processes to the point where they are automatic so that attention is freed for the analysis of meaning;
3. strategic: controlling one's reading in relation to one's purpose, the nature of the material, and whether one is comprehending;
4. motivated: able to sustain attention and learn that written material can be interesting and informative; and
5. a lifelong pursuit: continuous practices, development, and refinement.

From the numerous definitions, it becomes clear that reading is a complex cognitive interactive process where there is an interaction between the reader and the text.

To sum up, even definitions of reading that emphasize meaning indicate that reading is activated by print. The reader must be able to translate the written words into meaningful language. Virtually all four- and five-year-old children can communicate with and learn from oral language, but very few can read because they lack the ability to identify printed words. While simply being able to recognize or "say" the printed words of text without constructing the meaning of that text is not reading, constructing meaning from the written text is impossible without being able to identify the words. Research in the fields of psychology and education points to the active and strategic nature of reading

In conclusion, reading is the act of looking at a collection of written symbols and deciphering their meaning. When we read, our eyes obtain written signals (letters, punctuation marks, and spaces), which we then translate into terms, sentences, and paragraphs that interact with us. It is possible to read silently (in our heads) or aloud (so that other people can hear). Reading is a complex cognitive process. We pronounce and decode the written word with the help of speech. Reading meaning is the most crucial aspect of it; if we read, we take a look at the written language and attempt to decode it or figure out what it means. Reading is the process of decoding and comprehending written material for the objectives of a specific reader. Readers decode written

material by converting it to voice and then to meaning directly. Decoding entails converting writing system symbols into the spoken words they represent. The aim of reading, the context, the character of the material, and the readers' tactics and knowledge all influence comprehension. Readers participate in constructive processes to make text meaningful, to interpret written content which is the final objective or outcome of reading.

1.3. Decoding of the text

Each language can differ significantly in the depth of its spelling, i.e. the correspondence between letters or combinations of letters and sounds, and the number and regularity of context-dependent pronunciation variations. According to Ziegler and Goswami (2005), the process of reading learning is determined by three important factors:

1. The voice-letter/letter-voice correspondence relies on a very strong association and two-way relationship that children do not have at the beginning of learning to read and have no explicit knowledge of either letters or speech sounds.
2. The consistency of the sound-letter/letter-sound mapping shows whether several letter combinations can be pronounced differently and whether several variants of letters and letter combinations can be assigned to certain sounds and sound combinations.
3. Ingredient size or granularity shows the size of the orthographic units to be fitted to the given elements of the phonological system. (Ziegler and Goswami, 2005)

Johannes Ziegler and Usha Goswami's often cited idea, called ingredient size, the different developmental rates of reading in shallow (Italian, Hungarian) and deep (English, French) spelling can be traced back to the fact that the unique characteristics of these three factors differ in each orthography, and their effect is different in the development of reading. In the case of all three factors, it can also be seen that the system of rules and exceptions that apply to them differs significantly. According to Ziegler and Goswami (2005), the shallower, more transparent, and more consistent the orthographic system, the shorter the first stage of reading development and the level of phoneme awareness, i.e. individual and sequential access to the sounds of words. This is logical since in shallow and consistent orthographs the phonological and orthographic units required for word recognition are smaller and consist of fewer elements. However, according to Booth (1999), the weight of phonological information does not decrease with the development of reading skills, only their role changes. Examining schoolchildren (grades 2–6) in a priming experiment, they found that children relied on both orthographic and phonological information to recognize words. The degree of preload, i.e., the time taken to extract and use the two types of

information, was closely related to the performance shown in standard reading tests. However, experimental results in developmental psychology (e.g., Nation, 2004) support the conclusion of Plaut et al. development. However, the indirect reading path relies heavily on the factors that aid meaning at the beginning of reading. (Nation, 2004)

According to Stanovich (2000), for readers, grapheme-phoneme matching is fast and accurate, so word recognition requires less protection and processing capacity. However, poor readers are less efficient in processing visual information, so they need to rely more on additional information. Semantic priming studies showed that effective word recognition is associated with a longer reading experience. It was found that in the case of rapid stimulation (short, i.e. less than 300-millisecond stimulation deviation), no prestressing effect was detected in those under 14 years of age, unlike those older than that. (Stanovich, 2000)

Recently, an interlingual comparative study and analysis were conducted to explore whether orthographic consistency modifies the cognitive dynamics of reading. For the five languages in the analysis, one of the extremes of the orthographic transparency continuum was represented by the highly transparent Finnish and Hungarian, followed by the medium-transparent Dutch, and the other endpoint of the orthographic depth scale by the least transparent Portuguese and French (Ziegler et al. 2010). The results confirmed that phonological awareness is a key element in the development of decoding, namely in all orthographies. The effect size is smaller for shallow than for deeper orthographies. However, the RAN (rapid naming), which was closely related to reading performance, appeared to be a less important factor in reading development and correlated only with reading speed. From all of this, the author concluded that although factors that can predict reading performance are generally considered to be universal, their true weight varies depending on the transparency of the spelling. These results, consistent with those of Georgiou et al. (2008 a, b) and Mann and Wimmer (2002), indicate that orthographic consistency affects how strong the role of phonological awareness can be in the development of reading. However, the question arises as to whether orthographic consistency interacts with cognitive factors in reading development or not. The answer to the latter question is in a series of studies in which three spellings were compared (Hungarian, Dutch, Portuguese). Reading performance as well as several cognitive indicators were measured in first- to fourth-grade students (Vaessen et al. 2010). The results showed that the development of fluent reading of words followed the same pattern for orthographs characterized by the correspondence of letters and speech sounds with different consistencies. In all three orthographs examined, the weight of phonological awareness, letter-to-speech matching, and varied as a function of reading experience, word type, and word frequency, unaffected by orthographic consistency. It is a fact, however, that the close relationship between phonological awareness, letter-to-speech matching, and reading skills characterizes a longer period of reading

learning in the case of less transparent orthographs. This suggests that orthographic consistency does indeed influence the pace of reading development. However, differences in orthographic transparency do not mean that the learner relies on different cognitive functions in reading during successive developmental stages of reading. This also means that in alphabetic orthographies, the factors predicting reading performance (predictors) also follow a universal pattern of development.

In summary, each language can differ significantly in the depth of its spelling, i.e. the voice-letter/letter-voice correspondence relies on a very strong association and two-way relationship that children do not already have at the beginning of learning to read and have no explicit knowledge of either letters or speech sounds. The consistency of the sound-letter/letter-sound mapping shows whether several letter combinations can be pronounced differently and whether several variants of letters and letter combinations can be assigned to certain sounds and sound combinations. Ingredient size or granularity shows the size of the orthographic units to be fitted to the given elements of the phonological system. In the case of all three factors, it can also be seen that the system of rules and exceptions that apply to them differs significantly. The degree of preload, i.e., the time taken to extract and use the two types of information, was closely related to the performance shown in standard reading tests. According to Stanovich (2000), for readers, grapheme-phoneme matching is fast and accurate, so word recognition requires less protection and processing capacity. The results confirmed that phonological awareness is a key element in the development of decoding, namely in all orthographies. However, the question arises as to whether orthographic consistency interacts with cognitive factors in reading development.

1.4. History of teaching reading

For many centuries, reading was not seen as a separate field of language teaching, it was only an “auxiliary science” to biblical explanations or literary text analysis, and this embedding role did not change with the prevalence of translation-centric methods. In a technical sense, both spelling (pronouncing the letters one by one) and syllable readings existed according to contemporary descriptions.

In the twenty-five-century history of language learning or teaching, we often encounter reading-centric methods similar to antiquity. The particular “monastic” path of medieval language teaching or learning means learning from books through reading, with the greatest awareness, as opposed to learning the language of situations and interests based on communication in marketplaces (“the forum). Reading as a special goal, the cultivation of which can take care of the completeness of language skills, only first appears in Marcel (1853) (et al. Bárdos, 2000), who

says that after reading 25-30 books, there are no more language problems. The most important of his teaching techniques are hearing comprehension based on teacher reading; reading by imitation; conversation based on what is read. In his analysis, ideas also emerge (e.g., to the extent that the reader brings meaning to the printed text) that also satisfy the modern conception of the reading process as an interpretation. He envisioned the conscious teaching of reading along with her favorite reading.

The first method to consciously target reading skills is named after West, whose original idea and its variants became known around the world as a reading method. The reading method came into being in the 1920s as a result of a crisis. West used simplified texts in his reading books, in which he limited vocabulary, grammar, and even the amount of information, while also making it gradual in terms of student progress. Extensive text reading was made popular by the reading method. Although audiolingual, which is very demanding of all skills, taught reading consciously, its techniques were more focused on checking grammar and vocabulary and practicing pronunciation. A dramatic change was caused by the demand for a sharp increase in the number of foreign students enrolling in Anglo-Saxon universities from the late 1960s onwards. Neither audiolingualistic nor extensive reading instruction was able to meet these needs. New reading teaching solutions were needed, based on sound theoretical foundations. This theoretical basis has been established in various models of psycholinguistics (Goodman, 1967; Smith, 1971).

Contemporary reading teaching methods draw their inspiration from cognitive psychology, information processing, pragmatics, text analysis, linguistic, psychological, psycho-, and sociolinguistic fields, and more.

1.5. Methods and strategies for teaching reading

There are two types of reading in schools, according to Huszti (2009): silent reading and reading aloud. The alphabetical, phonetic, "look and say," and sentence methods are the four basic methods for teaching reading.

The alphabetical method or phonics method means that the instructor teaches the names of the letters and the sounds they make. They will go on to reading two letters together to construct simple phrases after they have mastered the sounds of the letters, then three letters, four letters, and so on. To learn the phonics process, children need phonically written books with regular vocabulary that they find appealing. This method emphasizes the interpretation of new vocabulary rather than linguistic comprehension. (Huszti, 2009)

The phonetic method is based on a scientific knowledge of how sounds are made and how words are formed. The Phonics Method aims to teach a child how to break down words into sounds, convert sounds into letters, and merge letters to create new words. The power of phonemes and the letters that go with them in English words may be utilized to educate students. There are 40 phonemes to master, and there are several programs and methods for doing so. The materials show word communities, which are made up of rhyming terms that are classified. Another way to teach similar-looking letters is to pair them with similar-sounding letters. Reading improvement may be gradual and shaky at first, but translating between letters and sounds becomes more common and fluent with time. (Husztí, 2009)

The next method is the „look and say” or the word method; this is about showing students how to read entire words. The children are shown pictures or flashcards by the teacher who tutors them. Teachers also demonstrate the pronunciation of the words. Instead of learning letters, children learn brand-new words and expressions. They learn individual words with word cards first, then add the word cards to form a phrase. Husztí (2009)

The expanded variation of the term for ‘look and say’ form is the sentence method. The focus is on sentence comprehension rather than word comprehension. The method pays no attention to letter and sound instruction. The teacher generates various sentences over and over by using word cards. It teaches children how to memorize information. (Bárdos, 2000)

Other methods, such as the language experience process, are used in addition to these. The Language Experience Method is a method of teaching reading to children that are tailored to their level and needs. Teachers and parents will think up individual stories in which vocabulary that is common to children can be used. They will create fantasy words by drawing images. Children can be given lessons on both common and foreign phrases, and they can be asked to infer the meaning of the unknown words. (Bárdos, 2000)

The Global Reading Method is also a common method of educating children with disabilities including dyslexia and several developmental conditions that can make learning to read challenging. The Global Reading Method may be viewed as both an alternative to typical reading comprehension teaching approaches and the first step in teaching literacy. Some learning centers even encourage parents to start teaching their children to read at a young age using the new approach. (Bárdos, 2000)

The three main approaches to teaching reading are bottom-up, top-down, and interactive approaches. (Hudson, 2007)

The bottom-up approach begins by decoding graphic symbols into tones, allowing the reader to identify letter features first. The reader combines these characteristics to identify letters, which are then combined to recognize sentences. According to these models, correct word

recognition leads to automatic reading comprehension. If readers are successful in completing the process, they can immediately comprehend what they are hearing. Learners, according to Norton, read the letters first and then interpret sentences. He goes on to say that this kind of reading is very analytical because the letter-sound relations are abstract, and readers are unable to assign meaning to what they are reading. Its focus is on the text's content rather than the reader's experiences or prior understanding. (Hudson, 2007)

The approach of reading the text in the top-down approach is triggered by the reader's previous awareness and experience. Readers can make hypotheses and predictions about the text by having prior knowledge and experience. The top-down paradigm aims to teach students how to comprehend full words and read sentences without sounding them out, as well as how to be aware of phonemes and letter-sound correlations when reading. Readers read whole sentences and attach meaning to what they've read. Learners see words as a whole and gain the capacity to comprehend them quickly. It is concept-driven and the reader has a prior understanding of the meaning of the text. As a result, readers' prior experience affects their reading of the text, and the decoding behavior merely helps to decide whether the reader's interpretation of the text is right or not. Readers read whole sentences and attach meaning to what they have read. Learners see words as a whole and gain the capacity to comprehend them quickly. (Hudson, 2007)

Hudson points out that both print and previous knowledge are necessary for the process of transforming text to meaning, according to interactive reading practices. Predicting meaning is the first step in the process. The reader makes predictions based on the interplay of information from semantic, syntactic, and graphophonemic sources of information. Both the information in the reader's thoughts and the pictorial information are required for comprehension. Comprehension may be hampered when a vital skill or piece of information is absent. Sound identification, sound-symbol connection, and reading comprehension are all emphasized in the interactive approach. The reader's attention is constantly shifting between the text (i.e., examination of single letters and words) and reading comprehension, according to this theory (i.e., thought content of the reading material). According to this model, when the reading material is known, the reader will use the top-down approach, and when the reading material is unknown, the reader will use the bottom-up approach, and as the reader's skill improves, more attention will be given to reading comprehension and less to word recognition and analysis of individual letters.

There are several strategies for teaching reading, which focus on reading comprehension, such as monitoring comprehension, metacognition, answering questions, generating questions, and summarizing.

To begin with, monitoring comprehension is a reading approach that is used because pupils are adept at monitoring and understanding the meaning of the text they are reading. The method

encourages students to be mindful of their level of understanding, accept what they do not understand, and use appropriate methods to overcome comprehension problems.

Metacognition is thinking about thinking. Flavell (1979) uses the term to describe two somewhat separate phenomena. According to the first interpretation, metacognition is the knowledge that relates to an individual's cognitive processes, their operation, and outcomes, or anything related to it. For example, when it comes to perception, remembrance, and comprehension as cognitive processes, metacognition includes knowledge about perception, remembrance, and comprehension. According to Flavell's second interpretation (Flavell, 1979), metacognition is the control of the operation of one's knowledge, the sum of the self-regulatory mechanisms implemented during problem-solving. Self-regulatory mechanisms include checking the results of self-testing for problem-solving, planning the next step in problem-solving, monitoring the effectiveness of the action taken, and testing individual learning strategies.

Answering questions can be effective because they give students a purpose for reading. It focuses pupils' attention on what they have to learn. It helps schoolchildren to think continuously while they are reading whereas encourages learners to observe their understanding and helps students to keep count their knowledge which is new and which already have been learned.

By generating questions, schoolchildren get acquainted with their virtue of answering the question and the comprehension of reading. Students learn to put up questions that make them remember data from the text and to answer the question.

Summarizing requires students to determine what is important in what they are reading and to put it into their own words. Thanks for summarizing pupils can find the main ideas of the text and generate relationships between them, furthermore, to eliminate unnecessary information, to remember and call back what they read.

Brown (1985) suggests ten strategies:

1. Identify the purpose of reading.
2. To help with bottom-up reading, use graphemic principles and patterns.
3. For reasonably quick reading, try a variety of quiet reading strategies.
4. Scan the text for the important points.
5. Look for particular information in the text.
6. Use semantic mapping or clustering to organize data.
7. Make an educated guess when not sure.
8. Analyze vocabulary.
9. Recognize the difference between literal and implied meanings.
10. Use discourse markers to help process relationships.

Teachers may use a variety of strategies to help students in improving their comprehension and fluency in reading, as well as their overall reading commitment.

In conclusion, there are four approaches to reading instruction in schools. Phonics, phonetics, "look and say" and sentence systems are the most common approaches. When teaching reading with phonics method, reading progress may be sluggish and shaky, but it will ultimately become more common and fluent. The look and say method teaches children how to remember information. A common approach for educating children with problems, such as dyslexia, is the Global Reading Approach. The three models of language processing are the bottom-up, the top-down and the interactive models or approaches. Different reading comprehension techniques can be used to teach reading. Monitoring comprehension, asking and answering questions, and summarizing are just a few. Teachers can use various strategies to help students improve their reading comprehension.

1.6. Techniques to teaching reading

There are four main techniques of reading: extensive, intensive, skimming, and scanning.

Extensive reading is reading longer texts for pleasure or for information that they are interested in and requires global understanding. When students are engrossed in a book, magazine, or newspaper, extensive reading can be described as casual reading done for enjoyment or to obtain a general understanding of a subject. Students in this approach read long texts and consult a variety of accompanying research materials solely for the sake of reading and to achieve a deeper understanding of the definition. Extensive reading is simply meant to inspire students to read for fun and transform them into voracious readers. As a result, it does not even matter if the reader knows every word written in the text to grasp the passage's main idea. Furthermore, the extensive reading approach allows students to read a large amount of content that they choose for themselves based on their reading speed and skill. (Harmer 2007)

Reading intensively includes reading short texts carefully and with a specific aim in mind, such as completing reading comprehension questions or figuring out how sentences are connected. Unlike extensive reading, the purpose of intense reading is to read a shorter bit of literature to obtain a better knowledge of it. Although acquiring subject content, learning vocabulary, and examining the authors' intentions are all possible aims of extensive reading, reading comprehension is just one of them. To put it another way, the purpose of rigorous reading isn't only to improve comprehension. Unmistakably, if students want to read a book in-depth, they must choose materials that are both intriguing and brief, read just for short periods, and do it when they

have the greatest mental energy. Articles, stories, and blogs are excellent tools for deep reading. Rough reading seeks to comprehend the book's substance and subject matter, improve grammar and vocabulary, and comprehend the author's thinking process. Rather than the text, the learner's major focus is on the language utilized. (Harmer 2007)

While skimming and scanning are two separate techniques for speeding up reading, they are both employed to do so. They are utilized for several things, although not always. Flexible readers are individuals who can swiftly pick up information by skimming or scanning. To receive knowledge, they must read quickly and effectively. Skimming is the process of quickly looking through a text to acquire an overview of the content. To navigate swiftly through the text, the reader employs rapid eye movement and keywords. Another suggestion is to use a timer as one of the tactics for reading more in less time. Skim reading allows the student to look through the material to locate the essential points. Skimming will assist the student in quickly locating information while maximizing the learner's time. Skimming a book may help understand the essential message. The table of contents, titles, and abstract might be skimmed by students. Pupils may also read the start and end chapters, as well as the first and last line of each paragraph, in a connected area. (Harmer 2007)

Scanning is a useful technique for accelerating the reading process. Scanning, unlike skimming, concentrates on a specific fact or piece of information rather than reading the whole text. To be effective in scanning, the student must first grasp how the content is organized and then comprehend what they are reading to discover the exact information they want. Scanning is also utilized by students to quickly locate details and other information, such as during an exam. The content scanned by the learner is generally organized alphabetically, chronologically, non-alphabetically, by category, or textually. Alphabetical information is agreed upon. For example, a television schedule may be structured in a non-alphabetical manner. If the goal is to locate specific bits of information, students scan. To summarize, scanning aids the reader in swiftly locating particular information. Any keywords or phrases that indicate where the issue is being addressed may be noticed by learners. (Harmer 2007)

To summarize, thorough reading entails reading lengthy materials for enjoyment as well as gaining a broad comprehension of the subject. This method requires students to read extensive texts and examine a range of research resources just for the sake of reading. It makes no difference whether the reader recognizes any of the words in the text to comprehend the core concept. Reading intensely entails reading small materials extensively and with specific objectives in mind. The purpose of intense reading is to obtain a better knowledge of a book rather than to read a large number of texts for fluency. Articles, tales, and blogs are excellent tools for deep reading. Skimming is the process of quickly skimming over a book to acquire an overview of the content.

Skimming reading allows the student to skim over the material to locate the essential points. Flexible readers are individuals who can swiftly pick up information by skimming or scanning. Scanning, unlike skimming, concentrates on a particular fact or piece of information. To be effective in scanning, the student must first comprehend how the content is organized. Scanning is also utilized by students to quickly locate details and other information, such as during an exam.

PART 2.

READING COMPREHENSION

2.1. Different levels of comprehension

Reading comprehension is the ability to read, understand, process, recall the text, and integrate with the reader's knowledge. It is derived from the interaction of written words and how they activate knowledge outside of the text or message. Comprehending is described as a multidimensional, creative process. (Davis, 1944)

According to Davis (1944), reading comprehension is divided into three levels:

1. literal comprehension
2. inferential or interpretive comprehension
3. critical or applied comprehension.

There are other classifications of the stages of reading comprehension. According to the Barrett Taxonomy (1976) of Cognitive and Affective Dimensions of Reading Comprehension, there are five stages of reading comprehension.

1. literal comprehension, which includes recognition and recall
2. reorganization
3. inferential comprehension
4. evaluation
5. appreciation

Another classification of stages of reading comprehension, according to Block (1992), includes:

1. literal comprehension
2. reorganization or reinterpretation
3. inference
4. evaluation
5. personal response

The first and most important level of understanding is literal comprehension, according to all the classifications mentioned above. Surface definitions are included in comprehension at this stage. Teachers can ask learners to find explicitly stated information in the text and learners must be able to understand this information. They have to be able to determine the main idea, and the supporting details, to categorize and identify stated facts and statements. The reader also follows instructions, uses context clues to provide interpretation, follows a sequence of events, and

determines organizational patterns. These patterns may include explicitly stated information, cause, and effect as well as recognizing and recalling. Recognition and recall are two aspects of literal understanding. These concentrate on ideas and knowledge that are mentioned clearly in the text. Recognition is the process through which a learner locates or recognizes material that was expressed explicitly in the reading section or in activities that utilized explicit concepts and facts. Recalling is a process in which the learner recalls from memory concepts and information that were expressly mentioned in the reading section. The questions and purposes for reading that the teacher uses to elicit a response may be basic or complicated. It may be an easy task to recognize or remember a particular truth or accident with literal comprehension. Recognizing or recalling a sequence of information or events in a reading selection may be a more difficult challenge. (Davis 1944, Barrett 1976, Block 1992)

Reorganization is the mechanism by which students outline, summarize and synthesize the information that was explicitly stated in the selection. The reader has the option of taking the author's words literally or paraphrasing them. The student separates objects, items, events, or locations into categories by classifying them, that is the following:

1. Outlining – the student arranges (organizes) the selection in outline form using direct or paraphrased sentences.
2. Summarizing – the student synthesizes the list using direct or paraphrased sentences.
3. Synthesizing is where a student consolidates knowledge from several sources. It is necessary to combine data. (Barrett 1976, Block 1992)

Inferential or interpretative comprehension is the next level of understanding the written text. This level requires deeper understanding and the reader is expected to be able to combine ideas, draw conclusions, predict outcome, evaluate and interpret information, understand cause and effect relationship, generalize and identify tone and voice. The meaning is not explicitly stated, the reader has to read between the lines. Teachers at this level usually ask more difficult and demanding questions. In order to answer them students should read the text critically and think over what it is about. It is necessary for them to go above and beyond of what has been stated to get a deeper understanding of the text. They have to grasp the underlying meaning of ideas, as well as the connections that exist between them and how they work together. The student's conclusions can be both convergent and divergent. Inferential understanding is aided by reading goals and teacher questions that include creativity and critical thought about the text. Inferential comprehension has the following subsections: first point includes inferring supporting detail that means the student suppose facts which were in the text and made the reading section informative. The second argument is inferring main ideas, which suggests the student generates the section's main concept or style. The third argument is inferring order, which requires the student to speculate

about what action occurred between two specified events or what will occur next. Inferring parallels is the fourth point, which means that the student makes inferences about the distinctions between characters, dates, or locations. Inferring cause and effect relationships is the fifth point, in which the student assumes the intentions of characters and their interactions with time and space. The sixth argument is inferring characteristics about the characters of the texts, which suggests students make assumptions about the characters' personalities. The seventh argument is predicting results, which requires the student to read a portion of a selection to determine what will happen next. The eighth argument is reading figurative words, which suggests that the student infers literal meanings from the author's language choices. (Davis 1944, Barrett 1976, Block 1992)

Reading objectives necessitate a response from the students in evaluation. Students rendered an evaluative judgment by comparing ideas raised in the collection to external parameters. The emphasis of evaluation is on consistency, acceptability, and judgment. Students may make judgments such as a fact or fiction judgments, in which they determine whether or not an action is likely to occur. The second judgment is a fact or opinion judgment, in which the student evaluates the author's meaning and the writing in light of their experience. The third step is adequacy and relevance judgment, which entails the student analyzing and contrasting the source with other sources. The fourth step is the judgment of appropriateness, in which the student assesses the appropriateness of various pieces. Last but not least, students assess the character's merit, desirability, and acceptability, deciding if the character was right or wrong based on their values. (Barrett 1976, Block 1992)

The next level is appreciation. Literal comprehension, reorganization, inferential comprehension, and assessment are also part of this level. Students can not only understand the work but also have an emotional reaction to its style and form. There are some forms of gratitude: the first is known as an emotional reaction to the material, in which the student expresses his or her thoughts and emotions about the selection. Students can say whether something was fascinating, thrilling, tedious, or frightening. It has much to do with the reader's emotional response. The second form is an association with characters or situations, in which students can show concern with and appreciation for the author's characters, events, and ideas. It also shows their openness to new concepts. The third form of reaction is to the author's use of language; in this case, the students are reacting to the author's competence in the semantic dimension, especially word connotations and denotations. The last form is imagery, in which the students express their concerns about the author's creative abilities to depict words in images (Barret, 1976). According to Block (1992), the reaction is a separate level and called personal response. Students must respond to their emotions. Since the responses are not contained in the letter, they must communicate their thoughts in their own words, and each

answer is right. Students must rely on material in the textbook, arrange the information, consider and visualize, make text decisions, and provide an emotional reaction based on the five stages.

To sum up, there are various stages of reading comprehension. The concentrations of various sources are not the same. According to the Barrett Taxonomy (1976) of Cognitive and Affective Dimensions of Reading Comprehension, there are five stages of reading comprehension. The reading comprehension levels are similar in both outlets, although there is a little variation between them. It concentrates on ideas and knowledge that are mentioned clearly in the selection. Recognition is the process through which a learner locates or recognizes material that was expressed plainly in the reading selection or in activities that utilized explicit concepts and facts. The questions and purposes for reading that the teacher uses to elicit a response may be basic or complicated. Reorganization is the mechanism by which students interpret, synthesize, and arrange the information that was explicitly stated in the selection. The reader has the option of taking the author's words literally or paraphrasing them. Synthesizing is where a student consolidates knowledge from several sources. It is necessary to combine data. Inferential comprehension occurs when a student uses his or her intuition, personal knowledge and experience, and the ideas and facts stated in the selection. The student's conclusions can be both convergent and divergent.

2.2. Reading skills

The style or manner in which language is used is referred to as language skills. Skills, such as decoding sounds in related speech or comprehending connections within a sentence, are often divided into subskills. Skill is a learned ability to perform well, according to Harris and Hodges (1981). Thus, the term may be used to mean a relative degree of reading capacity, as in the idea of a skilled reader, or it can be used to describe a reading action, such as making acceptable phoneme-grapheme communication. The following excerpt from Proctor and Dutta (1995): exemplifies this difficulty in the usage of the word expertise. (Harris, 1981, Proctor, 1995)

To begin, skills are developed by practice and preparation. The skills are characterized by the fact that they are not innate but must be learned. Second, professional action is geared toward a specific target. Although some learning can occur incidentally to that demand, skill evolves in response to some demand put by the job environment on the organism. Third, since the reading activity is strongly developed and well structured, competence is said to have been learned. The

components of action are organized into cohesive structures by practice. Finally, as competence is learned, cognitive burdens are weakened, freeing up limited brain energy for other tasks. The description of competence is derived from these characteristics: Skill is described as goal-directed, well-organized action that is learned through experience and executed with minimal effort. (Harris, 1981, Proctor, 1995)

In general, there are four types of reading skills: 1) word attack skills, 2) vocabulary skills, 3) fluency skills, and 4) critical reading skills. Word attack skills (also known as decoding skills) are the abilities used to translate orthographic symbols into English. This range of abilities necessitates the reader's recognition of the script as representing language units such as phonemes, syllables, and words. Recognizing syllable patterns, translating strings to sound on occasion, recognizing upper- and lower-case letters, and recognizing word borders are some of the subskills of this skill category. Through semantic meaning identification, vocabulary knowledge aids reading comprehension and collaborates with inference on sentence meaning understanding. Comprehension abilities refer to the capacity to deduce meaning from what is read based on context and prior experience. Grammatical ability and understanding of grammar, syntax, and mechanics are examples of comprehension abilities, as are using context to obtain meaning, using schemata as supports, using metacognitive knowledge, knowing text structure, and anticipating what will happen next in a text. Fluency skills are aimed at helping the reader to see bigger sentences and words as a whole, which aids in reading faster. Sight word recognition and identifying high-frequency letter groups, fast reading, and using a large vocabulary are all examples of fluency skills. Finally, critical reading skills allow the reader to analyze, synthesize, and comprehend what they've read. Identifying cause-and-effect or comparison linkages in the document, as well as applying an analytical approach to the text, are all duties that fall under this strategy. There is a lot of variance in the fundamental abilities identified by various teachers and researchers, as well as a lack of precision in the terminology used to describe them. (Brown, 1985)

Gordon (1982), points out only three distinct sets of competencies that must be acquired to become a successful reader: reading skills development, reading comprehension, and critical reading. This three-part breakdown refers to lower-level skills (decoding), higher-level skills (comprehension), and techniques, respectively metacognition. Reading skills are separated from comprehension skills in this classification. Letter-sound communication is highly emphasized in reading skills. This set of skills is geared toward students at a far younger age than the ones mentioned by Rosenshine. (Gordon, 1982, Rosenshine, 2012)

One of the approaches to reading that considers skills as reflections of cognitive functions is the component skill approach. Reading is viewed as the product of a dynamic yet decomposable information-processing mechanism in this approach (Carr et al. 1990: 5). This decomposable

method, according to proponents, is made up of a collection of distinct mental processes, or part abilities, that can be empirically separated. Although the skills are distinct, they operate in tandem and have varying degrees of control based on the reading activity and reader requirements. According to Levy and Hinchley (1990), there is unlikely to be a single organization of the multiple-component skills that distinguishes a good reader from a bad reader. Instead, depending on whether they're working on a timed task, a comprehension reading task, or a memory-based task, successful readers may arrange their skills differently. As a result, competence in reading can provide organizational versatility rather than a rigid model in which the various component skills all work in the same way about one another. This acknowledges that different literacy actions have different aims and objectives for the reader. Additional reading skills, such as organizational versatility, emerge from such a perspective. (Levy and Hinchley, 1990)

According to Brown and Haynes (1985), there is no clearly defined set of needed reading subskills. They may, however, claim that a review of several sources has identified six useful skills:

- a. systematicity of variations in patterning of letters in the perception of graphic features
- b. application of orthographic rules in phoneme-grapheme correspondence
- c. vocabulary knowledge
- d. use of semantic and syntactic context
- e. ability to hold information in short-term memory
- f. co-ordination of word knowledge and textual information to elaborate comprehension.

To sum up, a learner must acquire distinct sets of competencies to become a successful reader. Literature on both mother tongue and foreign language reading skills is of the view that there are no reading skills arranged in a strict hierarchy. Broad categories of skills exist rather than detailed lists of separate reading skills. These include word-focused, comprehension, fluent reading, and critical reading skills. The skills and processes underlying reading are far more complex and significant than can be placed in the taxonomies that exist today. Some of the reading involves the simultaneous and multifaceted use of certain overlapping skills.

2.3. Development of reading skills

Wier (1990) suggests some strategies to develop the reading skills, such as brainstorming, and storytelling.

Brainstorming is a quick and effective way to generate material for subsequent association and thought. During a brainstorming session, students submit thoughts that come to mind about the topic or concept under discussion. Smoothness and scope are critical aspects of brainstorming. A brainstorming technique can be carried out alone on a piece of paper or in a group, verbally, or on a whiteboard. (Wier, 1990)

Storytelling is one of the most important aspects of any great education. Storytelling is especially excellent for youngsters. This is a skill that takes a lot of energy, as well as differences in volume, facial emotions, tone pitch, gestures, and maybe even movement of the instructor in front of the students. When narrating a story, there are a few crucial criteria to keep in mind:

- for the students to focus on the tale and stay focused while understanding it, the instructor should be as energetic and powerful as possible.
- the narrative process should be participatory, with the instructor involving the students in the plan.

Literature indicates that skilled readers use several strategies in the act of reading. Reading strategies are defined as activities consciously chosen by learners to regulate their language learning. The term strategy has been variously defined and has remained controversial in the literature. Griffiths, for instance, has identified some of the strategies which are typical of higher and lower level students. (Oxford, 1993)

Good readers make connections between the text they are reading and their own experiences. Prior knowledge is used to assist readers in making sense of new material. To assist students, comprehend the meaning of the text, teachers should encourage them to rely on their existing knowledge and experiences. Prediction also allows readers to apply their personal experiences and knowledge to the content. (Brown, 1985)

Think-aloud gives readers a glimpse into a competent reader's cognitive and understanding processes (Afflerbach, 2000). This method is commonly used by successful reading teachers to help pupils understand the reading processes and strategies of an excellent reader. Teachers might model the application of reading skills that a good reader utilizes in the process of reading by employing the think-aloud approach. As a result, learners may be able to become more strategic readers.

Reading comprehension is aided by the use of visual aid. Pictures, graphs and diagrams may aid in the development of content comprehension. A diagram, for example, might aid readers in comparing and contrasting data from two texts on the same subject. Self-monitoring of understanding might also be done with visualization prompts. A fluent reader, for example, visualizes the content he or she is reading in his or her mind's eye (Harris, 1980).

In conclusion, reading strategies are defined as activities consciously chosen by learners to regulate their language learning. Good readers relate what they are reading to previous experiences. To assist students, comprehend the meaning of the text, teachers should encourage them to rely on their existing knowledge and experiences. Reading comprehension can be aided by use of visual aids, such as diagrams and self-monitoring prompts.

2.4. The Role of Cognitive Skills in Reading Comprehension

Cognitive skills are the fundamental abilities that the human brain employs to think, comprehend, remember, interpret, pay attention, and reason. They work together and take incoming information. The knowledge is then saved in the brain, which is used every day at school, at work, and in daily life. Brain conditioning will improve cognitive capabilities, which are the abilities that the brain uses to reason and understand. Each of the cognitive abilities is crucial in the processing of new knowledge. As a result, regardless of the type of knowledge available, if any one of these capabilities is lacking, the use of information is limited. One or two poor reasoning abilities are to blame for the majority of students' difficulties.

According to scientists, education will help children improve their cognitive abilities. Fluency, grammar, semantic processing, visualization, working memory, logic, and inference are cognitive abilities that help in reading comprehension. (Flavell, 1979)

Fluency is regarded as a necessary ability for comprehension. Fluency authorizes the cognitive ability needed to understand the context of the words. It is regarded as automatic word recognition. Between comprehension and decoding, there is a connection. Decoding was shown to be the ability that predicted variations in understanding in early studies. (Flavell, 1979). According to a groundbreaking report by Vaessen (2010), only those children who practiced reading the words before they understood them immediately were able to accurately answer comprehension questions. Fluency has a greater effect on the development of reading comprehension skills in young learners than it does in older learners. As the text gets more difficult, fluency becomes less predictive. Rather, it makes room for vocabulary. (Flavell, 1979)

The components of understanding are vocabulary and semantic memory. Understanding the context of the text necessitates a grasp of grammar. Children must first comprehend the meaning of the words before extracting meaning from the language. The first scientific study on the relationship between word recognition and reading comprehension was published in 1992. (Block, 1992) For decades, vocabulary competence was thought to be the most important indicator of reading comprehension growth. Vocabulary skills are the best predictors of the

reading comprehension development of young learners. As a result, students who struggle with understanding have a loss of semantic knowledge. When children are introduced to vocabulary, vocabulary teaching aids in the development of reading comprehension. (Block, 1992)

Visualization is another aspect of the understanding process. Another important aspect of reading comprehension is the successful creation of a conceptual representation of the text. These illustrations shift as the reader absorbs the new text. The dual-coding theory of reading has been adapted into visualization. Readers interpret visual representations of linguistic content and objects to construct the context. This skill aids understanding and helps to strengthen text retention. (Flavell, 1979)

Working memory is also an important component of reading comprehension. Working memory is in charge of retaining content in the mind, as well as handling the task of removing information from the text and mixing it with previous experience to establish text context. Working memory stores text-based memories in sequences, which are then mixed with a new incoming text and previous knowledge stored in long-term memory. For understanding longer sentences into constantly shifting mental images, more working memory is needed. (Flavell, 1979)

Reasoning and inference are terms that describe the tendency to use facts in a document to find more information. The willingness to conclude is linked to reading comprehension. Inferencing ability is lacking in students with low comprehension. Long-term and short-term memory are needed for inferential reasoning. Extracts tacit information from the document by retrieving context details that are paired with the text. (Flavell, 1979)

To sum up, thinking abilities, which are essential for the brain to think, can be improved by brain preparation. Each of the five thinking skills has an essential part to play. Cognitive skills are the abilities that the brain uses to think, comprehend, remember, interpret, pay attention, and reason. Fluency, grammar, semantic processing, visualization, working memory, logic, and inference are also cognitive abilities that help in reading comprehension. Education will help children improve their cognitive abilities. An important aspect of reading comprehension is the successful creation of a conceptual representation of the text. Readers interpret visual representations of linguistic content and objects to construct the context. This ability aids understanding and helps to strengthen text retention. Working memory is also an important component of reading comprehension.

2.5. The Role of Cognitive Strategies and Metacognition in Reading Comprehension

Cognitive skills are important prerequisites for reading comprehension. Reading comprehension necessitates both thinking abilities and cognitive tactics. They are different because while cognitive skills are passive, cognitive strategies are rather active. (Wenden, 1999)

The word "cognitive methods" refers to the use of the mind (cognition) to accomplish a task or solve a problem in its most basic form. Procedural facilitators or procedural reminders are other terms for cognitive techniques. (Wenden, 1999)

Cognitive methods provide a framework for learning where a task cannot be completed or completed in a sequence of steps. If the student follows the steps carefully, he or she will be able to solve the dilemma. Reading comprehension is a difficult process that does not have a set of steps to take.

A cognitive approach aims to help the learner while he or she learns internal procedures that enable him or her to accomplish complicated tasks, according to Rosenshine (2012). Reading comprehension requires the use of cognitive techniques. Students comprehend the text they read with the aid of a self-questioning strategy. According to Rosenshine, asking questions would not always lead to understanding. Students conduct a text check, then merge knowledge and produce questions all at once. After that, they comprehend what they have read. (Rosenshine, 2012)

Thinking about thinking i.e. controlling cognitive techniques is referred to as metacognition. Metacognition is an important factor in the advancement of reading comprehension. Cognitive techniques aid in the processing of new textual material. Prediction, triggering prior information, asking, visualizing, tracking and clarifying, and concluding are some of them. Multiple learning interventions enhance reading comprehension and text memory when reading. Students' ability to track their understanding at the age of eight estimated their reading comprehension abilities at the age of eleven, according to Oakhill and Cain (1999). Bad comprehenders have a key deficit in that they are unable to use metacognitive techniques when thinking. Many weak comprehenders, on the other hand, are unable to use or pick techniques. As a result, reading comprehension necessitates an understanding of cognitive techniques. (Oakhill and Cain, 1999)

The ability to unlock and activate prior knowledge is required for successful reading comprehension; otherwise, a cognitive technique is required for generating inferences. Background experience is a set of previous knowledge, such as long-term memory of mental images of text. It makes a major contribution to understanding. If students lack knowledge, they may fail to understand the content of the text. (Oakhill and Cain, 1999)

Reading comprehension and reasoning abilities also benefit from cognitive techniques. The use of the mind to accomplish a task is referred to as cognitive tactics. Metacognition is described as the control of cognitive techniques, as well as thinking about thinking.

In conclusion, reading comprehension necessitates both thinking abilities and cognitive tactics. (Wenden, 1999). The word "cognitive methods" refers to the use of the mind (cognition) to accomplish a task or solve a problem in its most basic form. If the student follows the steps carefully, he or she will be able to solve the dilemma. Reading comprehension is a difficult process that does not have a set of steps to take. A cognitive approach aims to help the learner while he or she learns internal procedures that enable him or her to accomplish complicated tasks. Reading comprehension requires the use of cognitive techniques. Metacognition is described as the control of cognitive techniques, as well as thinking about thinking.

2.6.The role of schemata in the reading process

Rumelhart and Norman (1975) played a key role in general schema theory, a framework for analyzing cognitive processing and gaining knowledge in the field of neuroscience.

The word schema refers to cognitive patterns of information, particularly links between distinct kinds of knowledge, in the fields of cognitive psychology, psycholinguistics, and other related studies. They were primarily investigated for their ability to impact perception and acquisition of new knowledge for him. (Rumelhart and Norman, 1975)

David Rumelhart argued that the idea of schema refers to information accessible to humans in his book *Schema: The Building Blocks of Cognition* (1980), which had a profound impact on the development of schema theory. They relate to generic collections of information that are largely non-specific.

The human experience is represented at all levels in these systems, from the most fundamental sensory perception to abstract characteristics such as ideology, all the way to language's muscle motions, sounds, structure, and meanings.

Schemas, according to Rumelhart and Norman (1975), are made up of several variables that may take on numerous values. On a cognitive level, we analyze the information we acquire and compare the charts and their alternative configurations, which are stored in long-term memory and improve cognition efficiency.

Learning, and hence schema development, according to Rumelhart and Norman (1975), is not a coherent process; rather, we gain information in three ways: accumulation, adjustment, and

restructuring. The fundamental process is the spontaneous gathering of information via senses and intellect.

Accumulation, on the other hand, is only conceivable provided the additional data is compatible with current systems. If there is a divergence, the cognitive structure should be changed; if the departure is minor, an adjustment process occurs that retains the system's underlying relational network while altering just a few variables. (Rumelhart and Norman, 1975)

When the gap between memories and new knowledge is too great, however, adjustment is insufficient, and we must turn to restructuring. This procedure is described as the development of a new schema from a collection of existing schemas or the discovery of common patterns among them. (Rumelhart and Norman, 1975)

As previously stated, Rumelhart and Norman (1975) used the word "variables" to describe the determinants of schemas and their potential forms. When learning via adaptation, changing these factors to update cognitive structure is a common part of acquiring information.

There are four methods to modify variables, according to these writers. The first is to change the report for that value range to boost the specificity of the schemas. Another option is to broaden the range so that the variable's applicability is increased. Nevertheless, the converse might also occur: the range of applicability is reduced or the variable is replaced with a constant. Setting defaults for a certain variable is the fourth and final model; this leads to conclusions when the knowledge about the variable is lacking in a given circumstance. (Rumelhart and Norman, 1975)

In addition, Rumelhart (1975) devised an interactive model to explain understanding from a cognitive standpoint. Rumelhart (1975) explains the acquisition of visual-linguistic knowledge as a process in which the mind works with various sources of information at the same time, according to the interactive model.

As a result, when we read, our brain considers things like the arbitrary links between sounds and letters, the meaning of words and spoken expressions, and the syntactic ties between various components of speech.

When one of the important physiological-cognitive systems involved in reading comprehension malfunctions, other forms of information are used to compensate for the loss of information processing. When we do not know what a word means or can't hear it clearly, we might attempt to derive it from the discursive context. (Rumelhart and Norman, 1975)

Rumelhart, on the other hand, thought the tales were identical to those of nuclear grammar. Understanding this common language will help comprehend events and make it simpler to mentally arrange and anticipate the course of events while hearing or reading tales that have never been heard or read before.

In conclusion, the word schema refers to cognitive patterns of information, particularly links between distinct kinds of knowledge, in the fields of cognitive psychology, psycholinguistics, and other related studies. David Rumelhart argued that the idea of schema refers to information accessible to humans. Schemas are made up of several variables that may take on numerous values. Learning, and hence schema development, according to Rumelhart and Norman (1975), is not a coherent process; rather, we gain information in three ways: accumulation, adjustment, and restructuring. Accumulation, on the other hand, is only conceivable provided the additional data is compatible with current systems. When the gap between memories and new knowledge is too great, however, adjustment is insufficient, and we must turn to restructuring. As previously stated, word "variables" describes determinants of schemas and their potential forms. The first is to change the report for that value range to boost the specificity of the schemas. In addition, Rumelhart (1975) devised an interactive model to explain understanding from a cognitive standpoint. It is explained that the acquisition of visual-linguistic knowledge as a process in which the mind works with various sources of information at the same time, according to the interactive model. When one of the important physiological-cognitive systems involved in reading comprehension malfunctions, other forms of information are used to compensate for the loss of information processing.

2.7. Reading subskills. „Higher” and „lower” skills

It is common in reading theory to identify skills that aid in the reading process. The skills may be linked to textual linguistic characteristics, various types of meaning, or different degrees of reader comprehension derived from the text. These reading abilities can be discovered, trained, measured, and studied. (Nassai, 2003)

In both mother tongue and foreign language, there are varying stages of comprehension. According to Davis (1944), there are several subskills:

- recalling word meanings
- drawing inferences about the meaning of a word from context
- finding answers to questions answered explicitly or in paraphrase
- weaving together ideas in the content
- drawing inferences from the content
- recognizing a writers' purpose, attitude, tone, and mood
- identifying a writer's technique

- following the structure of a passage.

These subskills are related to a text's level of comprehension.

Munby (1978) compiled a list of micro-skills that help readers. It affects how English as a Foreign Language is taught and assessed. These micro-skills are the following:

- recognizing the script of a language
- deducing the meaning and use of unfamiliar lexical items
- understanding explicitly stated information
- understanding information when not explicitly stated
- understanding conceptual meaning
- understanding the communicative value of sentences
- understanding relations within the sentence
- understanding relations between the part of text through lexical cohesion devices
- understanding relations between the part of text through grammatical cohesion devices
- interpreting text by going outside it
- recognizing indicators in discourse
- identifying the main point or important information in discourse
- distinguishing the main idea from supporting details
- extracting salient points to summarize (the text, an idea)
- selective extraction of relevant points from a text
- basic reference skills
- skimming
- scanning to locate specifically required information
- transcoding information to diagrammatic display

Benjamin Bloom's (1956) collection is a little shorter. The Bloom taxonomy (Bloom, 1956) and the Munby taxonomy are not the same. Bloom's taxonomy includes the following items:

- knowledge
- comprehension (sub-divided into Translation, interpretation, and extrapolation)
- application
- analysis
- synthesis
- evaluation

In spite of the fact that Widdowson (1980), Holliday and Cooke (1982), and Hutchinson and Waters (1983) all attacked Munby's taxonomy, taxonomies based on his work are still widely used in education.

There are a few exceptions to Munby's divisions being linked to degrees of linguistic organization. There are more knowledge-based than skill-based groups. Munby uses the term "skills" to describe his types. The exact status, however, is unknown. They are defined in terms of a communicative and an operational function.

According to Matthews (2015), the taxonomy might be useful for the specification of discrete-point or structural tests if the majority of the categories were related to expertise rather than ability.

There was a lot of discussion about what capabilities are needed for understanding the written text. Eskey and Grabe (1988) emphasized the value of speed and automaticity. According to Matthews, knowing words is not enough, but it is crucial for good reading, and instant recognition must be created. Eskey, Grabe, Carrell, and Devine (1988) emphasize the importance of coordinating "top-down" and "bottom-up" processing for performance.

„Skimming” and “scanning” seem to be distinct from other abilities. They were regarded as abilities, but they were often regarded as tactics. It's easy to see how talent is involved here in terms of stability and peace. If provided an infinite amount of time, pre-readers will search successfully. Since speed is an essential criterion, sub-tests must be used to examine ability in both fields. In these sub-tests, a high level of speed is needed. (Devine, 1988)

Reading abilities or subskills are divided into two categories: "higher" and "lower." Memory, translation, and interpretation are called "lower" abilities in the Bloom taxonomy. Higher-order capabilities include analysis, replication, and assessment. Lower-order skills are concerned with verbal abilities, and higher-order skills are concerned with cognition, logic, and other abilities. Recalling word sense and seeking answers to questions that have been explicitly answered is on Davis' list of "lower" abilities. Drawing inferences and understanding the writer's meaning or tone are examples of "higher" abilities. Lower-order skills will often come before higher-order skills, according to Alderson (2000).

According to Weir, Hughes, and Porter, (1990) language testers conclude that learning higher-order skills would necessitate the use of certain lower-order skills, regardless of acquisition order. For e.g., one cannot comprehend the text's main concept (higher skills) without first comprehending the relationships between the sentences. Higher-order skills in a foreign language may not be entirely dependent on the foreign language itself. They can be learned by the use of the first language. (Weir, 1990)

Minor facility values are required for higher-order skill items but not for lower-order skill items. Alderson (2000) seems to believe that high-order and low-order capabilities have an implicational relationship. Furthermore, test items measuring higher-order skills may be more complex than test items measuring lower-order skills.

It's possible to overlook the relative difficulty of the products in unusual situations. Expecting the upper or lower order of skills to be examined by two things makes little sense. Failure of a lower-order skill, for example, does not imply failure of a higher-order skill. However, it was not inferred from this that lower-order skills are not needed.

Alderson's conclusions are the following:

Judges are unable to agree on what an item is testing; they are unable to agree on the tasking of specific skill to a test item, and they are unable to agree on the degree of a specific skill or item. There appears to be no connection between item statistics and the things that are supposed to be tested.

The explanations are the following:

There are good reasons to doubt that skills should be ranked higher or lower than other skills in a hierarchy that suggests relative complexity or an uneven step of progression. The Munby skills, as examined by Weir, Criper, and Davies (1988), are more overlaying than distinct. It is erroneous to divide abilities in the Munby taxonomy into higher and lower order skills, and it is unlikely that any test object is ostensibly measuring a single ability. (Weir, 1988)

Teachers, scholars, and reviewers in the area of literacy, according to Alderson, perceive reading abilities as being ordered hierarchically into higher order and lower order skills. Regardless of the relationship between the two levels of competence, a valid reading comprehension test must be based on a knowledgeable range of higher and lower-level abilities. The theory of careful selection will then logically imply that it should be possible to tell what the necessary skills are, which are lower-order and higher-order, and which of these skills or varieties are being evaluated by a test object. (Weir, 1988)

Several subskills can be classified as higher (act toward cognition, reasoning ability) or lower (act toward cognition, reasoning ability) (engage with language abilities). Subskills are various stages of comprehension of a document in one's native language as well as in a foreign language. Readers' talents are supported by micro-skills. (Weir, 1988)

In conclusion, it is common in reading theory to identify skills that aid in the reading process. In both mother tongue and foreign language, there are varying stages of comprehension: literal, inferential and critical. Teachers, scholars, and reviewers in the area of literacy perceive reading abilities as being ordered hierarchically into higher order and lower order skills. Subskills are various stages of comprehension of a text in one's native language as well as in a foreign language.

2.8. Reading comprehension difficulties

For a long time, reading comprehension issues have been a common difficulty in EFL classrooms. These issues may be seen in a variety of scenarios. The EFL reader, for example, may have difficulties distinguishing between multiple meanings of the same word, such as homonyms and homophones. The term "left" has several connotations, while the word "rite" has four spellings: rite, write, right, and wright, as well as a variety of meanings. In this respect, an EFL reader who only understands one definition of the word right may easily mistake the meaning of a phrase using the word right. On the other hand, the EFL reader should learn about collocations, idioms, and proverbs. If a reader translates an idiom or a proverb literally, they will miss the true meaning. Complicated noun groups, nominalizations, co-ordinating conjunctions, participial phrases, and prepositional phrases, according to Nuttal (2000), are the source of many reading comprehension issues since they make texts more complex and difficult to grasp for EFL students. In other cases, a reader may be unable to comprehend a book due to a lack of previous information regarding the subject matter. According to Goodman (1979), even the best readers have trouble connecting what they already know with what they are reading. Reading comprehension issues may also be divided into linguistic and non-linguistic reading issues.

Decoding is the act of breaking down a word into individual phonemes and decoding it depending on those phonemes. A student who has trouble decoding might not be able to tell the difference between a few phonemes. Reading without expression, inconsistency of sounds and letters, reading word-by-word, going by punctuations, difficulty pronouncing sentences, and understanding words out of order are also signs of decoding problems.

Decoding fluency is needed for comprehension. Children with decoding disabilities can not comprehend and recall what was in the text because catching individual phrases is exhausting for them and they have no tools left for comprehension. Readers with comprehension problems include a variety of symptoms, including the inability to connect thoughts in a passage, confusion over the context of sentences and vocabulary, omission of details, inability to focus when reading, and trouble distinguishing important information from minor details.

Decoding and comprehending written text are also needed for retention difficulties. It is focused on high-level cognitive abilities. Memory and the capacity to categorize and recall similar thoughts are also involved. As students progress to higher classes, they can retain more and more detail from previous readings. It is elementary to learn reading in the classroom, and it becomes a very necessary activity in high school.

Reading comprehension and decoding are closely linked in the early grades of school. Despite competent word decoding, readers may experience difficulties with understanding. They are referred to as "poor comprehenders." (Block, 1992)

Few researches have looked into the precursors of reading comprehension problems. Retrospective studies search back in time for cognitive characteristics that might explain subsequent reading comprehension problems. Prospective studies look at an issue that initially occurred after a few years, and they look ahead in time. Vocabulary, grammar, verbal memory, inferences, and other text-related processes are all linked to reading comprehension. (Block, 1992)

According to Block (1992), research has established a strong link between vocabulary and reading comprehension. Poor comprehension suffers from a lack of vocabulary. Poor comprehenders and normal readers have distinct characteristics. According to Block, weak comprehenders perform worse on receptive and expressive vocabulary problems than regular readers. Reading can help poor comprehenders acquire new words and infer terms from written material. When the explanation and the target word are separated by filler phrases, poor comprehenders do worse than ordinary readers. (Block, 1992)

Several studies found that poor comprehenders have impairments in grammar and morphology at the word or sentence level, whereas poor comprehenders performed a test for perception of grammar. Morphological awareness refers to the ability to work with words, develop them into new words, and be aware of morphemic structure. As a youngster learns increasingly complicated words, morphological awareness becomes more important. Poor comprehenders struggle with irregular verb inflection, particularly past tense formulations in inflected words, which signifies that a word is a past tense modification, such as say-said. Poor comprehenders have problems understanding derived terms, which indicates that a word is constructed in a certain way, such as logical-illogical. As a result, language usage grows more complicated, weak comprehenders begin to have issues. (Block, 1992)

Poor comprehenders have a problem with working memory in general. It's possible that comprehension problems show up in activities requiring the semantic side of language. Poor comprehenders would thus do poorly on activities that require spoken language abilities. On activities requiring general working memory, poor comprehenders perform similarly to regular readers. Poor comprehenders do not do as well as regular readers in verbal working memory exercises. (Block, 1992)

In order to develop a rich picture of a text, the reader must link each phrase with the scenario model and derive conclusions from the text when there is no expressly provided information. Inferences are the connections between sentences. In order to achieve global coherence, inferences from text information to general knowledge must be established. (Block, 1992)

Poor comprehenders draw fewer conclusions. Poor comprehenders score significantly worse than young readers on a task involving text connection inferences, indicating that inference issues exist prior to reading comprehension issues. (Block, 1992)

Another complicated method that builds a scenario model is comprehension monitoring. Comprehending monitoring refers to a person's capacity to evaluate the readers' understanding. It means that the text can be checked to see if it makes sense. Comprehension monitoring may be assessed using error detection exercises. (Block, 1992)

To sum up, poor comprehenders have a limited understanding of various text structures. Even if they can decode words quickly, poor comprehenders struggle with reading comprehension. Vocabulary, grammar, verbal memory, inferences, and other text-related processes are all linked to reading comprehension.

PART 3.

**RESEARCH ON READING STRATEGIES AND READING
COMPREHENSION ON THE ENTRANCE EXAM OF MASTERS' LEVEL
(EVI) IN 2020 AND 2021**

This research aims to study the reading comprehension difficulties and strategies of MA students in general and to get an insight into the difficulties they faced on the EVI held in 2020 and 2021.

EVI or the Single Entrance Exam is a compulsory exam in a foreign language for university students who wish to be admitted to study at the Master's degree. Having completed the BA or BSc studies in certain disciplines, candidates must complete the EIT-administered Standardized Foreign Language Test (EVI).

The purpose of the single entrance exam is to determine the results of candidates in a foreign language on a scale from 100 to 200 points according to the number of points they will gain at the foreign language test. In fact, the EVI test is similar to the ZNO and differs in the number and level of tasks and the length of time given for completing the test. The ZNO test consists of 3 parts: listening, reading, and writing. It has 59 tasks and the test lasts 150 minutes. The EVI test consists of tasks aimed at checking reading comprehension as well as knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. It has 42 tasks and the test lasts for 60 minutes. Tasks for the test are based on the European Recommendations on Language Education for levels B1-B2.

The test contains seven tasks that check reading comprehension. The reading part consists of 4 texts and contains 22 tasks that follow each text. The grammar section consists of two texts with tasks to fill in the blanks. In order to complete the tasks in reading successfully, the candidates have to apply different skills and subskills like predicting, scanning, skimming, and reading for details. The first and third tasks require scan reading. The candidates do not have to understand all words in the text; they have to identify the keywords and understand the main idea of the text. (Task 1: № 1–5, Task 3: № 11–16) The second type is a multiple-choice task with one correct answer (Task 2: № 6–10). The task aims at understanding the details and the candidates have to find explicitly or implicitly stated information in the text. So, the focus of this task is reading for details. In tasks 4-6 candidates have to fill in the gaps in the text (Task 4: № 17–22, Task 5: № 23–32, Task 6: (33–42). In the tasks, it is suggested to supplement the sentences in the text with the omitted parts of sentences, phrases, or words from the given variants. Candidates have to be able to use grammar structures as well as follow the development of ideas and events.

Research instruments

The instrument chosen for the research is a questionnaire. The research has been carried out with two groups of students who participated in the EVI in 2020 and 2021. Two questionnaires were used. The first questionnaire was filled in by current second-year students at the MA level and the second, extended, questionnaire was filled in by current first-year students studying at the MA level. The research instrument consisted of questions aimed at collecting information about reading habits, reading strategies, and difficulties of the EFL learners. A set of questions were related to the EVI.

The questionnaire is an instrument for collecting data that involves asking a given subject to respond to a set of oral or written questions. It is a quick and easy way to collect information and it allows gathering information from a large audience. However, this tool has some disadvantages. Among them are the possibility of low response rates, the inability to probe responses, dishonest, not truthful, or unconscientious answers, and ignored questions.

This research instrument was chosen, because in 2020, due to the pandemic caused by the virus COVID-19, students had to stay home in quarantine. In 2021, the choice of the method of research was also greatly influenced by the current situation in the country. The questionnaire was filled in by 30 Transcarpathian students in 2020 and 30 other students in 2021. In the questionnaire, closed format questions and multiple-choice Likert-scale questions were used. The questionnaire can be found in Appendices. (Appendix 1.)

Participants

The questionnaire was filled in by 60 participants. The participants of the research are 30 students (20 females and 10 males) who participated in the exam in 2020, and another 30 students (17 females and 13 males) who passed the exam in 2021. They are studying at Transcarpathian higher educational establishments, such as II. Ferenc Rákóczi Transcarpathian College of Higher Education, Mukachevo State University, and Uzhhorod National University. The respondents are currently first- and second-year students at the Master's level, majoring in biology, archeology, elementary school teacher, international relations as well as philology (English, Hungarian and Ukrainian).

Procedure

The procedure of the research started with planning: making a hypothesis and determining the aim of the research. Then the questionnaire was designed and piloted. When the questionnaire was ready, it was sent and filled in by EFL learners. Then the results were analyzed. Data analysis methods are quantitative

Findings

As there is an interrelationship between the first language reading ability and second language reading performance (Hudson, 2007). The first question aimed to ask about the reading habits of the participants in general. In the questionnaire, the participants have been asked to mark how often they read printed books, electronic books, newspapers, online articles, borrow books from the library or borrow books from their friends. The results of the questionnaire filled in in 2020 show that 63% of the respondents (19 respondents) often read printed books i.e. either daily (one respondent), several times a week (six respondents), weekly (six respondents), or several times a month (six respondents). 37% of the participants either never (four respondents), rarely – either once or several times a year - (four respondents), or seldom – i.e. monthly - (three respondents) read printed books. As to electronic books, 57% (17 respondents) read as often as several times a month (seven respondents), weekly (two respondents), several times a week (five respondents), and daily (one respondent). 43% of the participants either never (five respondents), rarely – either once or several times a year - (four respondents), or seldom – i.e. monthly - (four respondents) read electronic books. So, the proportion of printed books read by the participants slightly prevails over the electronic ones. Only a few (two) respondents (6%) read either printed or electronic books daily and 73% (22 respondents) read them on a weekly basis or several times a week.

The situation with the habits in reading media text is different. 53% of the respondents (16 respondents) read newspaper articles online every day, 24% (seven respondents) read them on weekly basis or several times a week, and another 13% (four respondents) read online articles several times a month. As rarely as once a year 7% (two respondents) read online and 3% (one respondent) never reads online newspaper articles. In reading printed media the situation is the opposite: daily or several times a week only 7% (two respondents), weekly or several times a week 13% (four respondents) read newspaper articles. 20% (six respondents) admitted reading printed papers once a month, 23% (seven respondents) even less frequently – once or a couple of times a year – read printed media while 37% (eleven respondents) of the participants never read printed newspapers. In this area, a shift from printed to online reading can be traced in the reading habits of the students. Borrowing books from a library cannot be traced on a daily or weekly basis at all; several times a month only 7% (two respondents) borrow books. 30% (nine respondents) visit libraries once a month, 13% (four respondents) engage in the services of the library a couple of times a year while 13% (four respondents) attend libraries as rarely as once a year. Quite a high number - 37% of the participants (11 respondents) - never go to a library. Not more than 6% (two respondents) borrow books from friends weekly or several times a month and 10% (three respondents) do the same monthly. A couple of times a year 13% (four respondents) and once a

year 20% of the participants (six respondents) ask their friends to lend them books. 40% (12 respondents) answered that they never ask their friends to lend them books. 10% of the students (ten respondents) answered that they borrow books from their friends several times a month.

The results of the 2021 questionnaire show that 50% of the respondents read printed books often, which is a lower percentage than that of the previous year. The other 50% either sometimes (43%) or never (7%) read books in paper format. 47% of the students (14 participants) read electronic books sometimes, while thirteen respondents (43%) read them often. 7% of the respondents (2 participants) answered that they read electronic books always -i.e. daily-, and one participant marked that he seldom reads electronic books. It can also be seen, that only four students (13%) consistently read both paper and electronic books.

The results of the next part of the question indicate that 40% (12 respondents) of the participants answered that they never, while 27% seldom (eight respondents) read printed newspapers. 30% (9 respondents) of the participants read printed newspapers sometimes. Only one participant reads paper-based newspapers often. Fifteen students responded (50%) that they always -i.e. daily- read online articles, and thirteen (43%) answered they read online newspapers often. A small number of the participants (two participants -7%) responded, that they read online newspaper articles sometimes.

Over half of those surveyed (eighteen participants - 60%) reported that they sometimes borrow books from the library, while 26% (eight participants) responded they only borrow books on rare occasions. 7% of the participants (two students) borrow books from libraries seldom, however, another two students (7%) answered they visit libraries often. The results of the question about borrowing books from friends indicated that seventeen participants (57%) seldom (40%) or never (17%), whereas thirteen (43%) participants do so sometimes.

The results of this study indicate that the reading habits of the students are partly dissimilar. It can be seen from the results, that participants read both electronic and printed books frequently. Both groups of students prefer online newspapers to paper-based and read them often. The current study found that respondents visit libraries rarely. This result can be related to the pandemic, because those, who completed the EVI in 2020 faced difficulties visiting the libraries, but those, who participated in the exam in 2021 were already allowed to visit libraries. A large number of respondents answered that they never borrow books from their friends in both groups of students. Maybe this result can also be connected with the pandemic when most students had to stay at home without any physical connection with their friends.

Inferring the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context is an important skill. The following question focused on the way the learners grasp the meaning of unknown words. Students have been asked to mark if they use Google Translate, online or printed dictionaries; try to

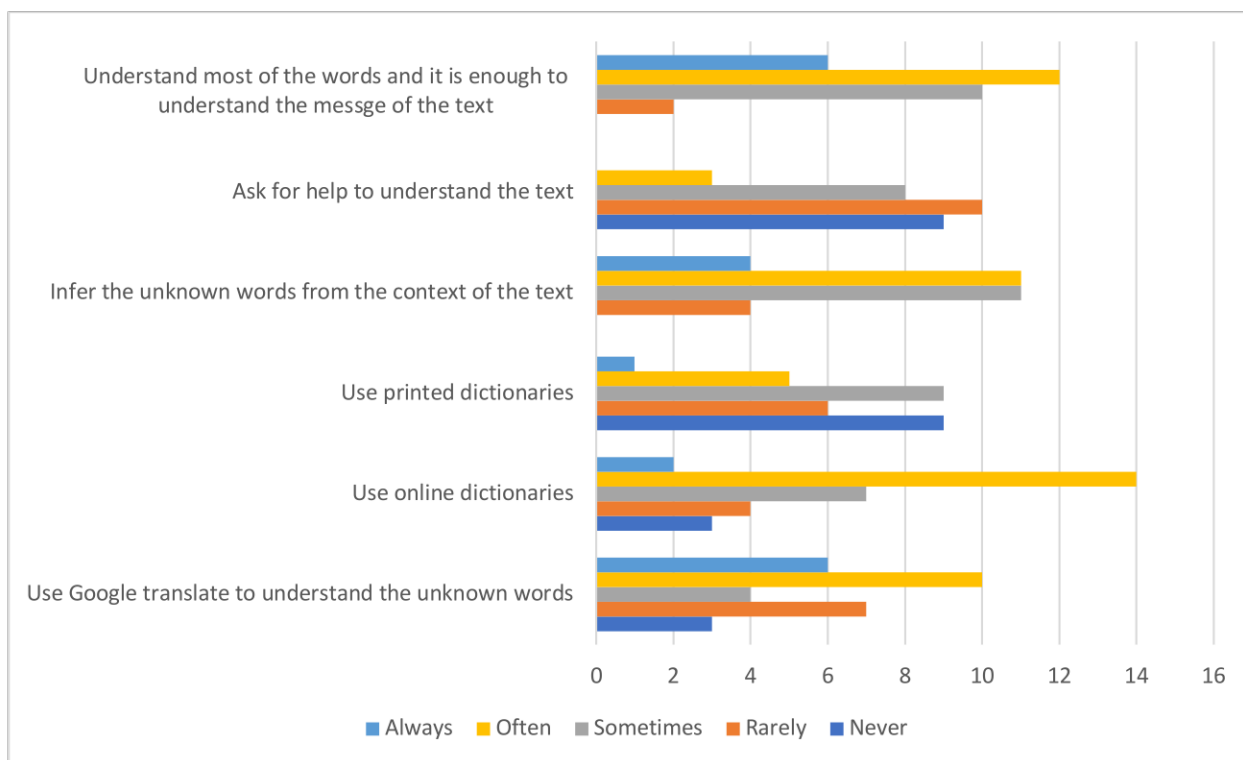
understand the meaning of unfamiliar words from context; ask for the teacher's help or do not find it necessary to understand all the words in order to understand the message of the text. It was possible to mark the answer on a five-point Likert scale.

Three questions dealt with using dictionaries or a translator to find the meaning of new words. A tendency in using dictionaries shows a shift from printed to online dictionary usage. 30% (nine respondents) never use printed dictionaries, 20% (six respondents) rarely, another 30% sometimes consult a traditional dictionary. Paper format dictionaries are often used only by 7% (five respondents) and 3% (one respondent) claim to use them always. The highest number of the participants – 47% (14 respondents) prefer to use online dictionaries often while 6% (two respondents) use them always. 6% (two respondents) never use online dictionaries, and the rest of the respondents sometimes (seven respondents) or rarely (three respondents) use them. 20% of the participants (six respondents) use Google translate always, and another four participants (13%) answered they use the site sometimes. This translating tool is rarely used by seven participants (23%). 13% of the respondents (4 respondents) claimed that they always guess the meaning of the unknown words and the same number admitted doing it rarely. The number of those who often or sometimes guess the meaning of new words is the same: 37% (11 respondents, altogether 22 respondents). None of the respondents gave a negative answer to this question, so it can be stated that with different frequencies all the respondents use this essential skill.

A question about asking for help with reading comprehension difficulties was the next one. Nineteen students (63%) do not ask for help to understand the text, and eleven (37%) respondents sometimes ask the teacher to help them understand the written material.

A question examined if the students can understand the text without understanding the meaning of all words. Twenty-eight students (93%) marked that they understand most of the words and it is enough for them to understand the message of the text. A small number of the participants (7%, i.e two respondents) answered that they do not feel that understanding the majority of words is enough for them to understand the message of the whole text.

Diagram 1. How students dealt with unknown words in 2020



The answers obtained for the same questions in 2021 are depicted in Diagram 2. Two participants (7%) always use Google translate seven (23%) of the participants use Google Translate often, five (17%) use it sometimes, and twelve participants (53%) use it rarely (20%) and never (33%). Online dictionaries are used by 43% (13 respondents) rarely, as many as 10 participants (33%) use them sometimes, four respondents (14%) often use them while three respondents (10%) always use electronic dictionaries. Nine (30%) students rarely use paper-based dictionaries. Printed dictionaries are not used by 43% of the participants (13 participants) at all. Only one participant uses them often, whereas seven respondents (23%) use printed dictionaries sometimes.

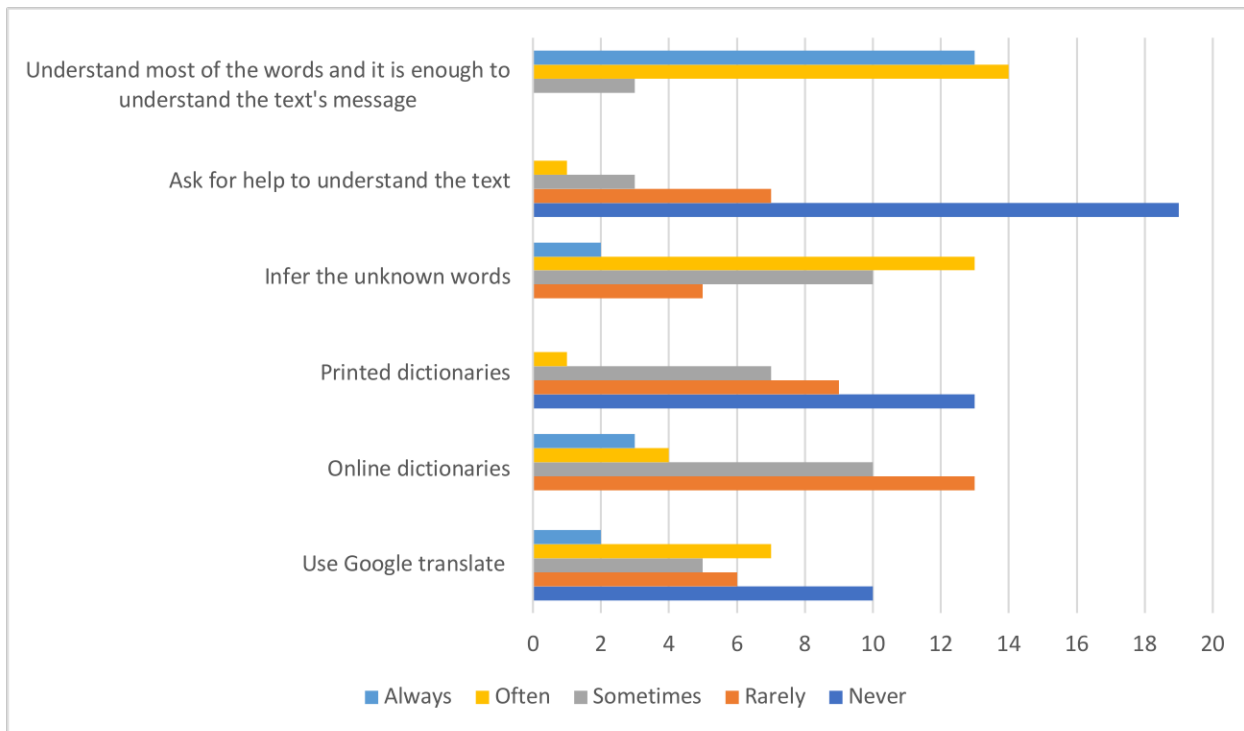
The results of the question about inferring the meaning of unfamiliar words indicated that nearly half of the respondents (43%) often try to guess the meaning of unknown words from the context. Two of the participants (7%) always try to infer the meaning of unfamiliar words, while half of the participants infer the meaning from the content sometimes (33%) and rarely (17%).

Nineteen students (63%) do not ask for the help of the teacher at all when they have difficulties in grasping the content, whereas seven students (23%) do so rarely. Three students (10%) sometimes need help to understand the meaning of the text, only one participant responded she always asked the teacher to help her understand the text.

A large number of the participants (27 respondents i.e. 90%) claimed they always (43%) and often (47%) understand a large amount of the words and this is enough for them to grasp the

message of the text. A small number of the respondents (three participants i.e. 10%) answered that the words they understand in the text are sometimes enough for them to understand the main ideas.

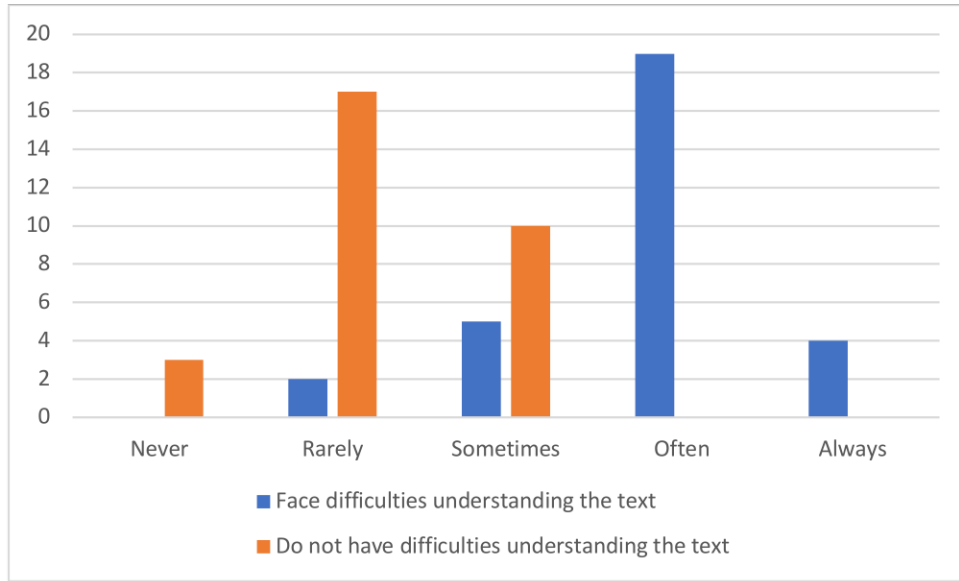
Diagram 2. How students dealt with unknown words in 2021



It can be summed up from the results, that the skill of inferring the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context is used by most of the students in both groups of participants. Not all the students use this skill, but most of them apply it often. It can be also seen, that most students in both years prefer online dictionaries to paper-based ones. It was indicated that second-year students use Google translate as a translating tool more often, whereas they use online and printed dictionaries less frequently. The results show that second-year students ask for teacher's help more frequently compared to first-year students, who require help occasionally.

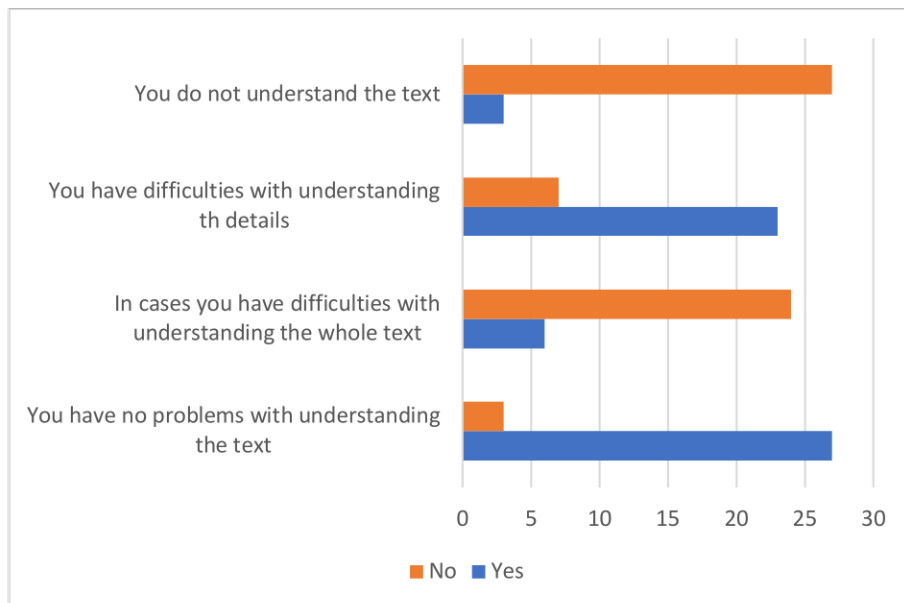
The following question is aimed at finding out whether the language learners consider the texts they have to understand difficult or not. In response to this question, most of the participants (73%) gave a negative answer while 27% encounter difficulties.

Diagram 3. Reading comprehension difficulties in 2020



The results of the second group can be seen in Diagram 4. The majority (27 participants) of the students answered they do not have difficulties, while a small number of the participants (10%) answered that they have difficulties understanding the text. 80% (24) of the respondents claimed they have difficulties just in case with comprehension. Twenty-three students (76%) answered that they do not have difficulties comprehending the details. The majority of participants (89%) answered the texts are easy for them to understand, but for 10% of the participants (three participants) it is hard sometimes to comprehend the text during reading comprehension exercises.

Diagram 4. Reading comprehension difficulties in 2021



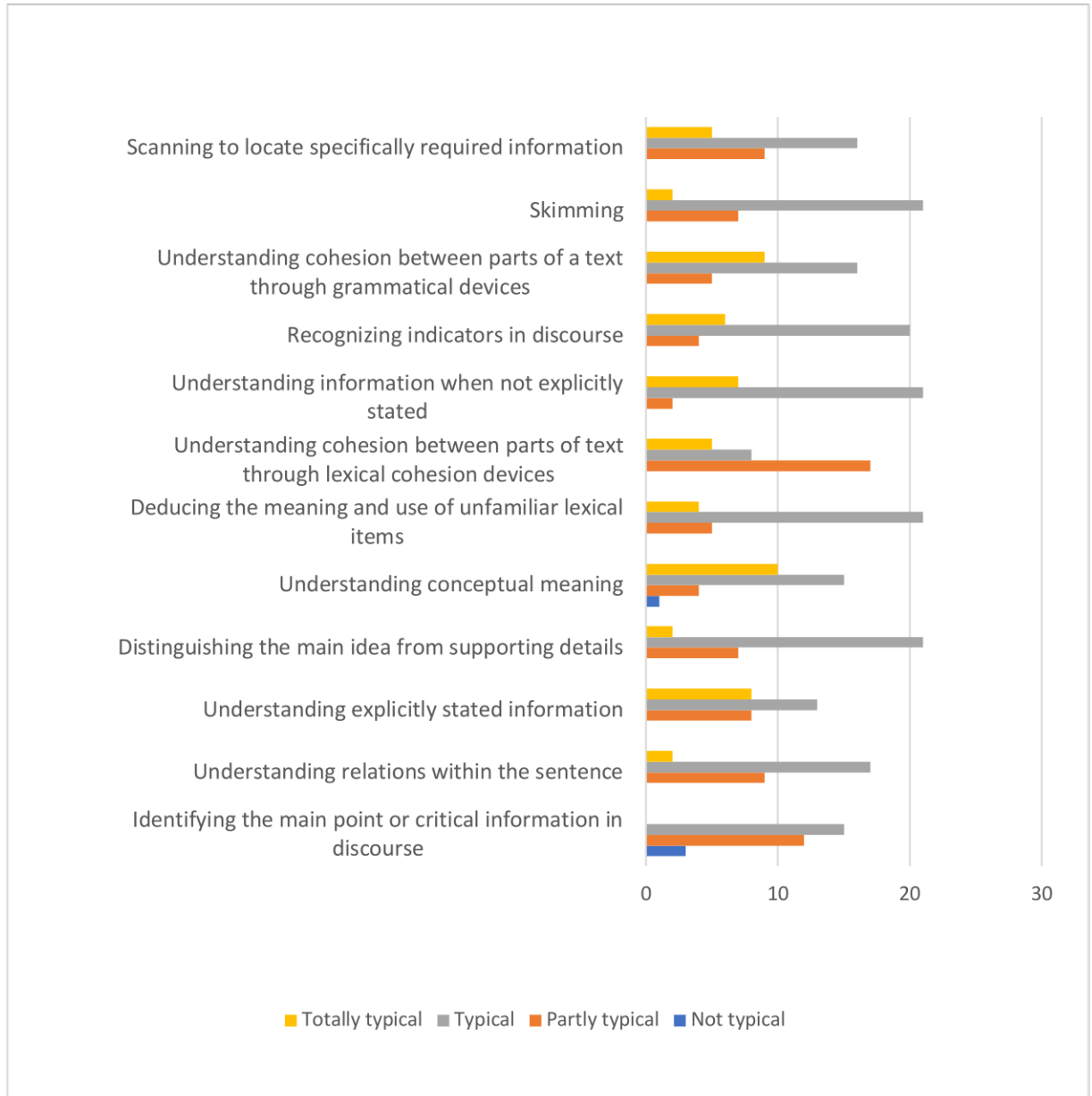
The results show that most of the students in both years, in general, do not have difficulties understanding the text, while there is a number of students who admitted facing difficulties in understanding what they read.

The next two questions are related to predicting. Question four examined if learners try to predict what the text might be about from its title. Twenty-eight respondents (92%) try to predict what the text might be about by reading just the title, two participants do not try it. Question five dealt with the issue of predicting the text from the pictures related to it before the students start reading. 82% of the participants (25 respondents) try to predict what the text might be about from the pictures. Twenty-eight participants (92%) try to predict what the text is about based just on the title, whereas two of the participants (7%) do not attempt to make predictions. The results of question 5 indicate that 80% of the participants (24) try to guess what the text is about based on the pictures to it. The results indicate that students use prediction during reading texts in English. The results are very similar, most of both groups of students predict by reading not just from the title but from the pictures to the texts as well.

Using subskills is a crucial part of the language learning process in general as well as of the reading process. The sixth question investigated the reading subskills based on the Taxonomy of Munby (1978). This question was added to the questionnaire and only the group of students participating in the exam in 2021 answered them. This multiple-choice Likert-scale question contained only four possible options, this way no neutral opinion could be given. The results can be seen in Diagram 5. They show that half of the students always identify the main point or important information in the text, 12 participants (40%) responded that they usually do the same and only sometimes identify the main point(s) of the text. However, 10% of the respondents admitted that it is only sometimes typical for them to identify the main idea in the discourse. The next subskill, or micro-skill, is connected to understanding relations within the sentence. Only three participants (10%) claim that they always understand these relations, 60% of the learners (eighteen students) responded that they usually understand them and nine participants 30 % only sometimes can understand relations within the sentence. Explicitly stated information is understood by most learners: ten students (33%) always, 13 participants (43%) usually understand them, but seven learners (23%) marked the 'sometimes' answer. Distinguishing the main idea from the supporting details is always done by two respondents (7%). Twenty-one respondents (70%) marked that they usually distinguish between the general idea and the details, and seven learners (23%) sometimes differentiate between them. Understanding conceptual meaning is typical for most participants: ten respondents (66%) answered that they always understand the literal sense of the words, and fifteen learners (50%) usually claim to understand it. Five participants (17%) responded that they sometimes understand the conceptual meaning. Deducing the meaning and use of unfamiliar lexical items is always typical for four respondents (13%). Twenty-one learners (70%) state that they usually can deduce the meaning, while five students (17%) can do it sometimes. Five respondents claim that they always understand cohesion between parts of a text

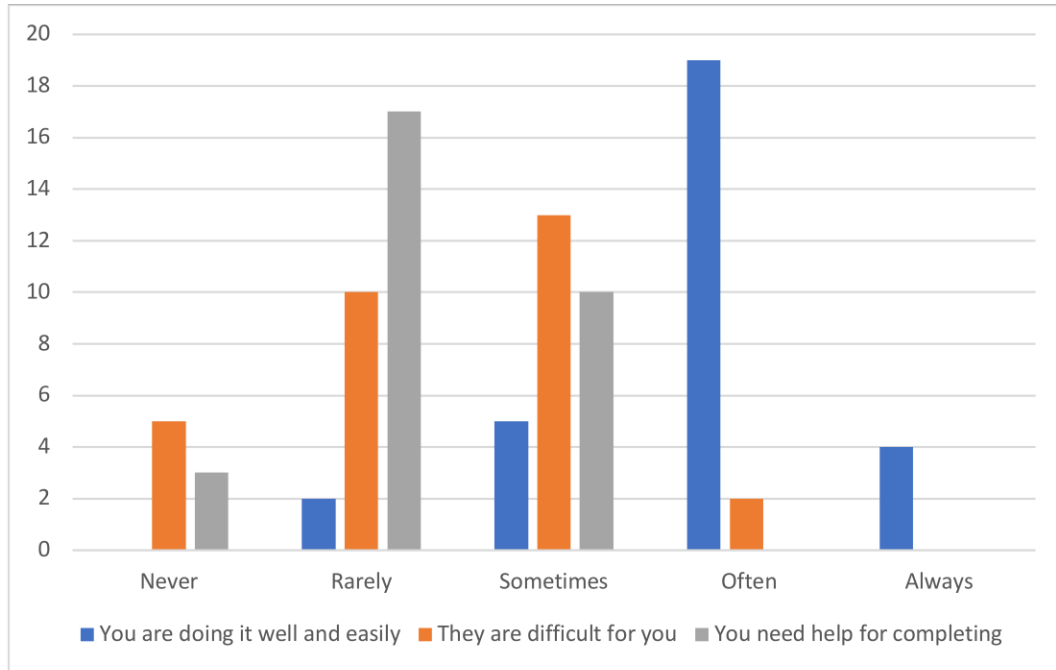
through lexical cohesion devices while eight learners (27%) marked the 'usually understand' answer. 7 respondents only sometimes can understand this cohesion. Seven respondents (23%) always can understand information when not explicitly stated. Twenty-one participants (70%) usually and two participants sometimes understand not explicitly stated information. Nine participants stated that they always understand relations between parts of a text through grammatical cohesion. Over half of them (16 participants, i.e. 53%) responded that they usually understand relations through grammatical cohesive devices and five students understand them only sometimes. It is typical for 70% of the students (21), and for two participants (7%) it is totally typical that they apply skimming during reading. Seven participants partly typically skim-read a text. 53% of the participants (16 students) responded that it is typical, and another five totally typically use scanning to locate specifically required information. Nine students partly typically use scan reading while reading in English. None of the students marked the 'never' option when answering questions about the micro-skills. These answers indicate that it is typical for the EFL learners to use their reading subskills while reading in the target language though the frequency differs.

Diagram 5. Reading subskills of MA students



The next question aimed at finding out whether the EFL learners find the reading comprehension exercises difficult to cope with. In response to this question, 13% of the students (4 respondents) answered that they always cope well with the tasks, 63 % (19 respondents) often, 17% (5 respondents) sometimes cope well and only 6% (2 respondents) rarely succeed easily in doing the tasks. 10 respondents (33%) rarely need help to complete them. The results can be seen in Diagram 6.

Diagram 6. Are reading comprehension exercises difficult for MA students in general?



The answers, given by the second group of students greatly differ from those of the first group. Eighty-six percent (26 participants) of students always and 10% (three participants) often cope well with the tasks, and only one participant marked, that he/she sometimes completes the exercises without facing difficulties. The question that states students have difficulties with reading comprehension got the same results but vice versa. 26 participants (86%) never, three participants (10%) rarely, and one student sometimes has difficulties understanding the text. The results show that 29 participants (96%) do not need help understanding the text at all, while one student rarely needs help to complete the reading comprehension exercises.

The results show a big difference between the two groups. While one group 86% of the students always cope well with the tasks, in the other group only 13% feel to be able to cope well with them always. The first group also admits that they ask for help more frequently than the members of the second one.

With the help of the next question, we intended to clear out whether it annoys the respondents if they come across unknown words or not. Twenty-three students (77%) who filled in the questionnaire in 2020 answered that it annoys them while seven participants (23%) do not worry about unfamiliar words. In the other group, twenty-six students (86%) stated that unknown words upset them, while four participants answered (13%) that unfamiliar words do not trouble them. So, the results show that unfamiliar words cause annoyance for the majority of the respondents and only 11 learners from the 60 respondents (18%) do not worry if the text contains unknown words for them.

The next question investigates whether the students look up the meaning of the unfamiliar words or not when they read. Twenty participants of the 2020 research (66%) search for the meaning because they are interested in it, four respondents (13%) look up the meaning because it is necessary for them to understand the text but six students (20%) do not look up the meaning of unknown words, they focus on the message of the text. The data obtained from the questionnaire in 2021 show that seventeen students (56%) look up the meaning of unknown words or phrases because they are intrigued about the meaning. Six students (20%) check the meaning of these words in order to understand the main idea of the text while seven students (24%) do not look up the meaning of words; they focus on the message. The results are similar in both groups: most students look up the meaning of the unfamiliar words because they are interested in the meaning. The number of those students who check the meaning of these words because they want to know them to understand the message of the text is the smallest. A relatively small number of students do not look up the meaning; they rather focus on understanding the message of the text.

The next question dealt with the use of the students' reading comprehension strategies. This question was asked only in the second group of students. More than one option could be marked. The results can be seen in Diagram 7. Seventeen respondents (56%) ask themselves questions to make sure they understand what they have read. Eight of the participants (26%) answered that when they finished reading a section, they ask questions to help them focus on reading. Twenty-two respondents said (73%) that when they get confused, they retrieve the required part and reread it. Twenty-seven students (89%) responded that they read the instructions carefully before they begin the task. 66% focus on the meaning. Nine of the students (30%) read more slowly and pay attention to important information. Two respondents (7%) draw diagrams to understand the difficult text or parts of the text. Seven participants (23%) translate the text into their native language. Half of the participants do not translate the text, they interpret the meaning directly in the target language. Twelve of the repliers (40%) answered that during their studies they set goals to direct their activities to achieve their goals in each study period. The answers show that most students use appropriate reading comprehension strategies, but it also can be seen from the results, that not all the students know and use all the strategies.

Diagram 7. Use of reading strategies



The next question investigated if students understand the message of the text by reading certain keywords. Fourteen participants (46%) attempted to understand the message of the text by reading the key phrases, while 16 answered (54%) that they do not try to predict what the text might be about after reading the keywords.

The following question investigated if the participants scan-read the text before reading it in detail. Twenty-eight respondents (92%) answered that they find out what the text might be about by scan-reading it. The results of the second group show that 63% (19 respondents) use scan reading as a technique to find key information to understand the message of the text, whereas eleven (37%) do not apply scan reading.

The following question investigated whether students apply skimming as a reading technique. This technique is used by 20 (66%) first-year respondents, while another ten students (34%) do not use skimming while reading. The results of the second group do not differ much, 23 respondents answered they use, and seven students responded they do not use skimming.

The last question investigated if their previous teachers taught them reading strategies during the English lessons or not. Forty-six of the respondents (76%) answered that their teachers

taught them to use reading strategies. The hypothesis that teachers teach to use reading strategies was partly supported by the answers of the students. Most teachers in elementary and high schools teach students to use strategies to improve students' reading skills.

The following questions are connected to the EVI. The first question asked the respondents if, in their opinion, the exam was difficult. Seventeen participants (56%) gave a positive answer while 40% of the respondents (12 learners) did not consider the exam tasks to be hard. One student did not answer the question.

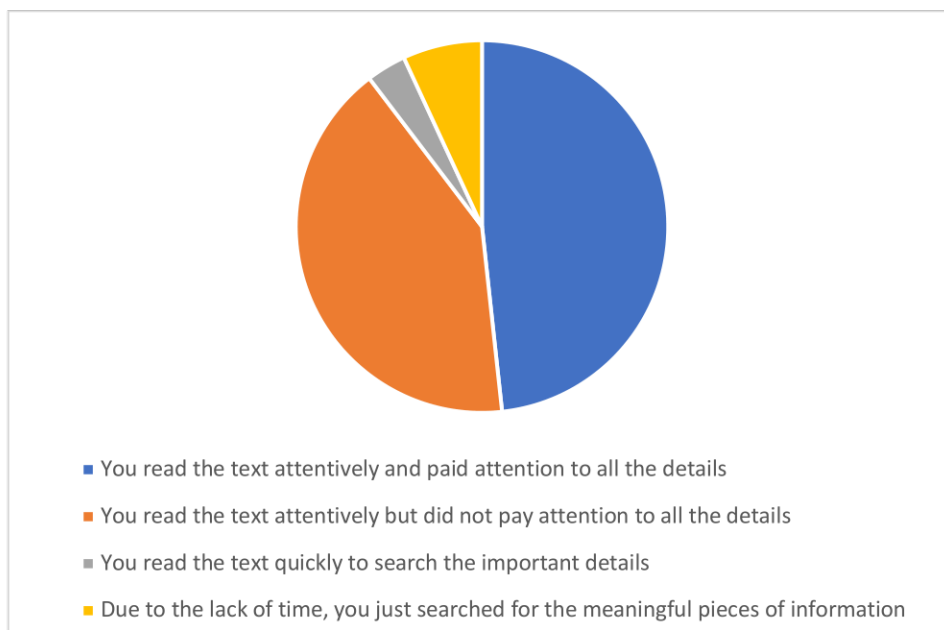
The next question focused on the preparation time for the exam. 53% of the respondents (16 students) prepared for a couple of weeks, but nine students (30%) prepared only for a few days before the exam. Two students (7%) prepared for several months while two other respondents did not prepare for the test at all. One student did not answer the question. In the second group of students, in 2021, 56% of the candidates (17 respondents) hardly prepared for the exam, they spent only a few days on preparation while nine of the respondents (30%) studied for the test for a few weeks. Four participants (14%) said they prepared for months before sitting the EVI. The current study found that most students prepared for participating in the exam for as long as a couple of days or weeks. A small number of students prepared for a couple of months, however, a few (two) students did not prepare at all.

The third question, connected to the EVI, focuses on the technique of preparation. In 2020 /in the first group twenty-four students (79%) answered that they solved previous test papers, and fourteen respondents (46%) answered that they solved tests on different websites, focusing on their weaknesses. Seven participants (23%) took private lessons to prepare for the exam. In 2021 eighteen students (60%) answered they solved previous exam papers, nine candidates (30%) answered they prepared by completing tests in coursebooks, twelve respondents (40%) replied they completed tests on websites, and four (13%) answered they attended private lessons. Eighteen students (60%) responded they focused on the activities that were challenging for them, six (20%) answered they concentrated on extending their vocabulary, and twelve (40%) responded they focused on improving their grammar knowledge. It can be stated that students used several techniques to prepare for the EVI. They completed different tasks to improve their grammar and vocabulary before participating in the exam, did exercises in books or websites solved tasks from tests papers of the previous years.

The following question intended to find out if the time was enough to complete all the tasks. Twenty-three students (76%) answered that the time was sufficient to complete the test, but for six students (20%) one hour was too short to cope with all the tasks. One participant did not answer this question. From the second group of students, twenty-two participants (73%) answered the time was enough to finish the exam, while eight students (27%) answered it was insufficient.

In the fourth question, the students have been asked to mark whether they read the texts thoroughly paying attention to every detail, read it attentively but did not pay attention to all details, looked only for specific information, looked through the text, and localized only the specific information because of the short time limit, i.e. used the scan reading technique. The results can be seen in diagram 8. Fourteen students (46%) answered that they read the whole text and paid attention to all the details. 40% of the participants (twelve) responded that they read the texts attentively, but did not pay attention to all the details. Two respondents (7%) scan-read the text as the time was limited and one participant answered that he or she used scan reading technique on purpose to find the meaningful details.

Diagram 8. Use of reading techniques among MA students



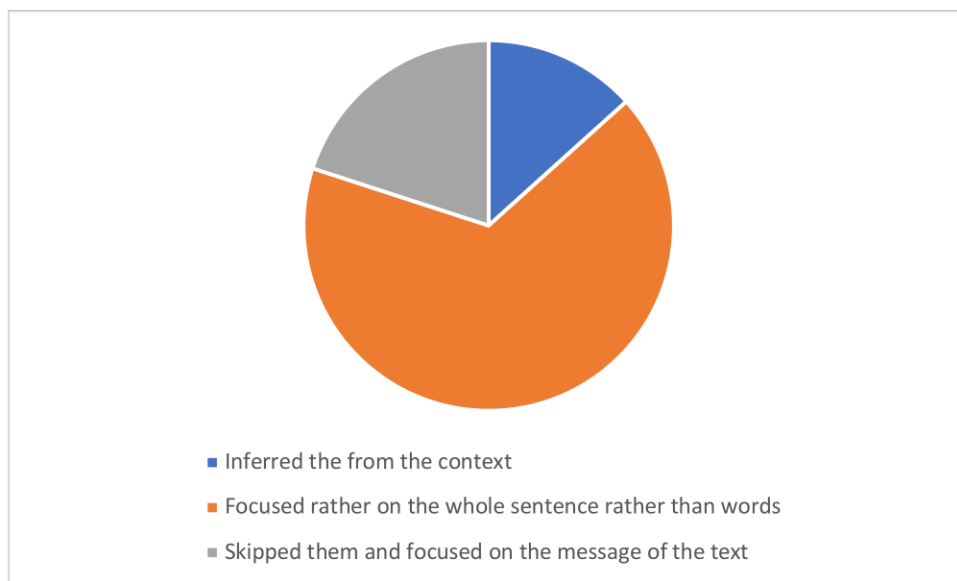
From the students, who participated in the exam in 2021 eighteen students (60%) said they read the whole text. Nine participants (30%) answered they read the materials attentively but did not pay attention to every detail. One respondent scan-read the texts because of the lack of time, while only two participants (7%) answered they skim-read on purpose to search for the important ideas of the texts.

The next question focused on the number of times the examinees had to read the text to complete the tasks. Four students (13%) were able to complete the exam tasks after reading the texts once. 60% of the students (eighteen) had to read the texts twice to understand the main points whereas seven participants (23%) read the texts more than two times to completely comprehend them. In the second group, seven participants (23%) read the texts once to complete the assignments. Eighteen students (60%) had to read the texts twice. To understand the texts, five participants (17%) read them more than twice. The results indicate that reading once was enough only for a few candidates, in both groups 60% of the examinees had to read the texts twice to

understand them. A small number of students in both years had to read the texts more than twice to understand the message of the text.

During the exam, the students are not allowed to use dictionaries while the texts contain a certain number of unfamiliar words. In the next set of questions, it was intended to find out about the way the examinees understood the parts of the texts that contained unfamiliar words. Twenty-four students (79%) tried to infer the meaning of unknown words from the context. Sixteen participants (53%) focused on the meaning of the whole sentence rather than the words. Nine participants (30%) skipped the unfamiliar words because they were not important for understanding the general idea of the text.

Diagram 9. How did students deal with unfamiliar words on the EVI?



The results of the second group show that eighteen students (60%) tried to infer the meaning of unknown words from the context. Eight participants (27%) focused on the meaning of the whole sentence rather than the words. Four participants (13%) skipped the unfamiliar words because they were not important for understanding the general idea of the text.

The next question examined if the students had difficulties solving the reading comprehension tasks. Half of the respondents (15 examinees) marked that in spite of some difficulties they had they managed to complete the tasks successfully. Ten participants (33%) answered that they did not have any difficulties. Five students (17%) admitted having serious difficulties while doing the tasks. In the second group of students, exercises proved to be challenging for nine of the respondents (30%), but they completed the tasks. Nineteen participants (63%) answered that they experienced no problems when solving the tests while two respondents (7%) admitted facing difficulties.

The next question dealt with the students' difficulties with reading comprehension. Twenty-three participants (76%) said that they did not face any problems, while seven participants

confused the meaning of some words in the texts. Twenty-seven of the students (89%) had no problems understanding the relations within the sentences; however, three participants had difficulties with this subskill. Twenty-six students (86%) responded that they identified the important information, but 14% of the participants did not manage to identify all the main points in the text. Ten examinees (33%) skipped those parts of the texts that were difficult for them to understand. Twenty-nine participants (96%) were able to distinguish the crucial information from the irrelevant one; however, one participant could not always separate the essential information from unnecessary details. The next question asked if the students took notes or underlined the main points of the texts while working on them. It was allowed during the exam; participants could take notes on the test paper and highlight important information because the answer had to be given on an answer sheet. Nineteen students (63%) underlined the keywords and important details, one examinee took notes on the side of the paper. Students highlighted the keywords and phrases in the reading activities during the test. Twenty-one participants (70%) answered that they underlined significant pieces of information, and two respondents (7%) said they noted it on the side of the page. Four of the students (13%) underlined the keywords, while three others (10%) noted them on the exam paper's side. The results indicate that the vast majority of the candidates highlighted the keywords and phrases during the exam with the techniques enlisted above.

The tenth question studied the difficulties students faced during the exam. Unknown terms did not cause a problem for 93% of students (28 participants), however, two participants were not able to deduce the meaning of the unfamiliar words. Twenty-eight of the participants (93%) understood sentences without facing difficulties. Twenty-seven candidates (90%) understood the connections between sentences, but it was challenging for the rest 10% of the participants. Twenty-four of the students (80%) indicated they had no trouble understanding the main idea, however for 20% it was challenging to understand the main idea of the text.

The following question asked students if they felt prepared for the exam. Eleven participants (36%) did not feel prepared, nine respondents (30%) could not decide, and nine students (30%) felt prepared well enough for the test. One student did not answer the question.

The next question investigated whether students try to predict what the text is about based on its title. Twenty-one students (70%) responded they tried to predict what the writing is about after reading its title, but 30% did not use prediction before reading the text during the exam.

Predicting by reading a few sentences was the subject of the 12th question. Twenty-two of the respondents (73%) answered they attempt to predict the content by reading a few sentences from it, however, 27% did not use prediction before reading the whole text.

In the last question, of the questionnaire, the participants had to indicate their scores on the test. In 2020, twelve respondents (40%) scored 121-140 points, eight students (26%) scored 141-

160 points, six participants (20%) scored 161-180 points and four students (14%) scored over 180 points. In 2021, ten students (33%) received 121 to 140 points, eight students (27%) achieved 141 to 160 points, ten students (33%) scored 161 to 180 points, and two students (7%) received more than 180 points.

Both groups of students read frequently paper-based and electronic books, they also read online articles daily, but they rarely read printed newspapers. They sometimes use Google translate, but frequently use online dictionaries, while they rarely use printed dictionaries. In both groups of students, the results indicate that they use the skill of inferring the meaning from the context.

Another important finding was that students use prediction to find out what the text might be about. The results indicate that most of the participants try to predict what is in the text by its title, and the pictures to it. On question 9, which is related to the subskills, it was found that most of the participants do not have difficulties using them, they apply scan, skim, extensive, intensive reading, and also predicting, recalling, and their background knowledge.

The current study found that students use reading strategies while studying English, which proved the hypothesis about using different strategies to do better on reading exercises. The results showed that a large number of teachers do find it important to use strategies, which leads to the conclusion, that the hypothesis was partly proved. Despite the fact, that most teachers do not teach learners to use reading strategies directly, from the answers given by the students we can see that some strategies are used. A possible explanation for this might be that they use them subconsciously. Students use strategies to improve their knowledge.

Questions related to the EVI found that most students prepared for the exam; nevertheless, the preparation time was not long. Participants prepared to sit for the exam mainly by solving previous tests, but a few participants also prepared by taking extra, private lessons. Every participant tried to focus to develop their vocabulary, grammar, and those skills or abilities that they were not good at. The results of the study found that a small number of students used scan reading during the exam. The results indicated that for most of the participants it was enough to read the texts twice in the EVI. The results of the questions related to the unknown words indicated that most of the respondents try to infer the meaning of the unfamiliar words from the context, while others skip them and focus on the message of the text. The results of this study show that more than half of the participants had no difficulties understanding the texts during the exam.

The results of this study indicate that nearly all of the participants completed the reading comprehension exercises without difficulties, however, a small number of the participants admitted that they faced problems while solving the reading exercises. A small number of students answered that they had difficulties with unfamiliar words and homonyms. The results indicate that

very few students had difficulties connecting the main ideas of the text and understanding the message of the texts. The current study found that students used prediction from the title or pictures, but they did not try to predict what the text was about after reading the keywords and phrases.

Interpretation of the results

The findings of this study show that participants read both electronic and paper-based books regularly but when reading books preference is given to the traditional printed version. In reading newspapers, the choice was made in favour of online newspapers. Printed newspapers are regularly read by a small number of the respondents, others hardly ever read them, while a considerable number of the respondents admitted that they never read printed papers. With the development of technology, the reading habits of the students changed, and reading the information in electronic form is becoming dominant. It is beneficial to read online because most newspapers have an online version and a lot of books can be downloaded free of charge. This fact has a great impact on the frequency of visiting libraries: the majority of the respondents either sometimes or rarely visit libraries, some admitted never going to a library and only a few respondents often visit a library. This result may have been influenced by the pandemic, as students who took the EVI in 2020 had no opportunity to use the service of the library and even in 2021 there were some restrictions. Thus, the first hypothesis was supported.

Reading and vocabulary development are closely connected. Texts contain a certain number of unfamiliar words and understanding their meaning is important for an overall interpretation of the sentence and the whole text. The current study found that all the respondents use the skill of inferring the meaning from the context. The percentage of those who frequently or sometimes infer the meaning of new words is quite high - 73% and a small number of participants claim that they either always or rarely use this important skill. Another way of understanding the meaning of unfamiliar words is translation. Google Translate is a widely used tool for translating from one language to another. One of the disadvantages of using this translation tool is that it is not accurate enough. The results indicate that most of the students sometimes, and a small number often use Google translate. However, a large number of the participants frequently use online dictionaries, while they rarely use printed ones. This result may be explained by the fact that Google translate is a website available for everyone for free as well as online dictionaries. They are easy to reach and quicker than looking up the meaning in a printed vocabulary. Another possible explanation for this is that people use their gadgets in almost every area of life due to the development of technology.

Using subskills is a crucial part of the language learning process in general as well as of the reading process. On question dealing with the subskills, it was found that most of the

participants do not have difficulties using them. They usually identify the main point or important information in the text, understand relations within the sentence, understand explicitly stated information, distinguish the main idea from the supporting details, understand the conceptual meaning, deduce the meaning and use of unfamiliar lexical items, understand information when not explicitly stated, understand relations between parts of a text through grammatical cohesion, and they apply scan- and skim-reading. The results of the study found that only two-thirds of the respondents used scan and skim reading during the exam. A possible explanation for this might be that they concentrated on all the details to answer the questions after reading them once. The results indicated that most of the participants had to read the texts twice in the EVI. This result may be explained by the finding that students often retrieved the parts they did not understand for the first time. When asked about the micro-skills, none of the pupils selected the 'never' option. These responses show that EFL students utilize their reading subskills while reading in the target language, however, the frequency varies.

On the question whether respondents face reading comprehension difficulties or not, this study found that a large number of students do not have difficulties understanding the text, nevertheless, a few students ask for help to understand the written material. The results of this study show that more than half of the participants assert to have had no difficulties in understanding the texts during the exam.

Two sets of questions investigated whether the unfamiliar words the language learners come across while reading hinder them in understanding or not. The results of the study indicate that unfamiliar words do not hinder most learners and they look up the meaning just because they are interested in it. The number of those students who check the meaning of these words because they want to know them only to understand the message of the given text is the smallest. These respondents try to understand the text without looking up the meaning of unknown words; they rather focus on understanding the message of the text than on the meaning of certain words. A small number of students answered that they had difficulties understanding the meaning of unfamiliar words. The results indicate that very few students had difficulties connecting the main ideas and understanding the message of the texts.

The main goal of reading strategies is to improve comprehension. Teaching reading skills is crucial because it demonstrates how a successful reader thinks. The current study found that students use reading strategies while studying English, which proved the hypothesis about using different strategies to perform better on reading tasks. A large number of students frequently use the following strategies: asking questions after reading sections or the whole text, rereading, reading the instructions attentively, drawing diagrams to understand the text, translating, and setting goals. The answers indicate that most students use appropriate reading comprehension

strategies, but it also can be seen from the results, that still not all the students know and use all the strategies.

Predicting is an important reading technique or strategy. It helps students to use information from the title of the text or the picture(s) if there are any to predict what might the text be about. Predicting encourages students to plan ahead and actively ask questions. Another significant finding was that most of the respondents use prediction as a strategy. The results show that the majority of participants predict what is in the text based on the title and pictures but they did not use prediction after reading the keywords and phrases.

Teaching reading strategies explicitly gives students the skills they need to become conscious of their thinking, gain confidence in their capacity to think and evaluate text, and, most crucially, make thinking visible and audible. Students were asked if their teachers taught them to use reading strategies. The results showed that a large number of teachers do find it necessary to teach strategy use, which means the hypothesis was partly proven because a small number of students answered their previous teachers did not teach them any reading strategies.

In the last question of the questionnaire, the participants had to indicate their scores on the test. Most students scored between 120-141 points and the number of those who achieved more than 180 points was not high. Though the examinees did not feel the reading comprehension part of the exam was difficult, the general scores at the exam were far from being the highest. This result shows that still, a lot has to be done in the field of teaching reading comprehension and reading strategies to EFL learners.

Pedagogical implications of the results

Applying reading strategies is a crucial part of developing the skill and the sub-skills of reading. Teachers should focus more on teaching students reading strategies and the language learners should be more aware of these strategies to perform better in reading comprehension.

One of the issues that emerge from these findings refers to the use of prediction. It was found in the research that not all the students use prediction; however, it is beneficial for them to use it as a pre-exercise task, and learners' sub-skills also improve during the activity. Another issue is the use of scanning and skimming as reading techniques. A small number of students do not apply scan- and skim-reading, however, it would be beneficial for them while reading, as a pre-reading exercise. Inferring the meaning of the words from the context is a frequently used strategy to deal with unknown words in the text. The results indicate that the participants also use this strategy to deal with unknown words, which means, no further studies are needed on this topic. These findings have important implications for developing teachers' awareness of teaching

reading techniques and strategies, such as prediction, inferring the meaning of the words from the context, and scan and skim reading to teach students to use them.

CONCLUSION

The main focus of the work was reading in a foreign language. The most important element in it is meaning, i.e. when we read, we look at the written text and try to decode it, and understand what is the message of the text. The types of reading are extensive and intensive reading. The thesis touched upon the methods and approaches to teaching reading and the use of reading strategies as well as the role of schema. Reading comprehension was another main topic in the thesis. The reading skills and their development, cognitive skills, the role of cognitive strategies and metacognition in reading comprehension, levels of understanding, higher and lower skills, and reading comprehension difficulties were also discussed.

The research described in the thesis the reading habits, use of reading strategies, and reading comprehension among MA-level EFL students. The findings of this study show that participants read both electronic and paper-based books regularly but when reading books preference is given to the traditional printed version. In reading newspapers, the choice was made in favour of online newspapers. Printed newspapers are regularly read by a small number of the respondents, others hardly ever read them, while a considerable number of the respondents admitted that they never read printed papers. With the development of technology, the reading habits of the students changed, and reading the information in electronic form is becoming dominant. It is beneficial to read online because most newspapers have an online version and a lot of books can be downloaded free of charge. This fact has a great impact on the frequency of visiting libraries: the majority of the respondents either sometimes or rarely visit libraries, some admitted never going to a library and only a few respondents often visit a library. This result may have been influenced by the pandemic, as students who took the EVI in 2020 had no opportunity to use the service of the library and even in 2021 there were some restrictions.

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setting goals. The answers indicate that most students use appropriate reading comprehension strategies, but it also can be seen from the results, that still not all the students know and use all the strategies.

Predicting is an important reading technique or strategy. It helps students to use information from the title of the text or the picture(s) if there are any to predict what might the text be about. Predicting encourages students to plan ahead and actively ask questions. Another significant finding was that most of the respondents use prediction as a strategy. The results show that the majority of participants predict what is in the text based on the title and pictures but they did not use prediction after reading the keywords and phrases.

Teaching reading strategies explicitly gives students the skills they need to become conscious of their thinking, gain confidence in their capacity to think and evaluate text, and, most crucially, make thinking visible and audible. Students were asked if their teachers taught them to use reading strategies. The results showed that a large number of teachers do find it necessary to teach strategy use, which means the hypothesis was partly proven because a small number of students answered their previous teachers did not teach them any reading strategies.

In conclusion, applying reading strategies is a crucial part of developing the skill and the subskills to reading. Students should be more aware of these strategies to perform better on reading tasks. It was found in the research that not all the students use prediction, however, it is important to use, because students' sub-skills improve during the activity. Students use scan and skim reading, but not all participants. These findings have important implications for developing teachers' awareness of teaching reading techniques and strategies, such as prediction, inferring the words from the context, scanning, and skimming, and teaching students to use them. These results show that still, a lot has to be done in the field of teaching reading comprehension and reading strategies to EFL learners.

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Резюме

У своїй роботі я представив історію читання, як вона розвивалася, та які рівні пройшов, щоб отримати своє сучасне визначення. Я також висвітлив історію, як навчалися читати, представив методи, які раніше використовували, а потім, коли я їх зрозумів, представив методи, прийоми та стратегії, які зараз використовуються для навчання читанню. Крім того, важливою частиною роботи стало поняття розуміння прочитаного. Він складається з короткого огляду навичок читання та їх розвитку, ролі та розвитку когнітивних навичок і стратегій, метапізнання, рівнів розуміння прочитаного, піднавичок та труднощів розуміння прочитаного.

Робота складається із вступу, трьох частин і висновку. У вступі я коротко описав цілі дослідження, гіпотези, основні питання дослідження, методи дослідження та їх значення. У першій і другій частинах я представляю теоретичний огляд теми. У третій частині пописано саме дослідження, яке я проводив серед студентів-магістрів, які склали Єдиний вступний іспит (ЄВІ) у 2020-2021 роках.

Читання – це здатність сприймати, розуміти інформацію для подальшої її передачі. Це допомагає людям у різних місцях і в різних епохах передавати свої ідеї. У сучасному світі це життєво важливий навик, який не розвивається природним чином, а його потрібно навчитися. Це складний когнітивний навик, який існує близько п'яти тисяч років. Протягом останніх двох століть освіта значно зросла в Європі та світі, але в цій сфері ще багато чого потрібно зробити. Діти, зазвичай, навчаються читати рідною мовою до шести-семи років, у виняткових випадках навіть раніше. Для навчання читанню можна використовувати різні підходи до розуміння прочитаного. Контроль за розумінням, запитання та відповіді на них, підведення підсумків – це лише кілька прикладів. Крім того, використовуються й інші підходи, наприклад, процес мовного досвіду. Вчителі можуть використовувати різноманітні стратегії, щоб допомогти учням у розумінні прочитаного та швидкості читання.

Розуміння тексту – це здатність розуміти повідомлення. Це походить від взаємодії написаних слів і роботи мозку, а також із того, як вони стимулюють знання за межами тексту або повідомлення. Розуміння тексту описується як багатовимірний, творчий процес. Читач розвиває навички дослівного, висновкового та критичного розуміння. Ці навички потрібно відточувати і розвивати. Регулярне вивчення англійської мови дозволяє учню розширити свій словниковий запас і покращити граматику. Когнітивні здібності – це основні навички, які людський мозок застосовує до мислення, розуміння,

запам'ятовування, інтерпретації, спостереження та міркування. Вони працюють разом і отримують вхідну інформацію. Проблеми з розумінням прочитаного вже давно є поширеною проблемою на уроках англійської, як іноземної мови. За даними кількох опитувань, більшість студентів мають труднощі з розумінням англійської літератури. У зв'язку з цим учні можуть стикатися з різними труднощами читання. Дослідження вказують на низку проблем, які виникають на уроках читання EFL, включаючи брак словникового запасу, труднощі в розумінні лінгвістичної складності, включаючи лексичні та синтаксичні знання, недоступність мови, погані навички читання та відсутність базових знань.

Дослідження, яке описано в третій частині, має на меті забезпечити загальний огляд труднощів розуміння тексту та використання стратегії студентів-магістрів, а також отримати уявлення про труднощі, з якими стикалися на ЄВІ у 2020 та 2021 роках.

В кінці роботи я дійшов до висновку, що гарне розуміння тексту є життєво важливим, якщо читання має мету, наприклад, якщо читач хоче брати участь у тексті, вчитися з нього, і зрештою, якщо читач хоче насолоджуватися тим, що він читає.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1.

Olvasási stratégiák és olvasásértés a mesteri képzésre való felvételin (€BI) 2021-ben

Nagy Zsolt vagyok, a II. Rákóczi Ferenc Kárpátaljai Magyar Főiskola II. évfolyamos, angol mesterszakos hallgatója. Kérdőívem első részével szeretném felmérni a mester szakos hallgatók olvasási stratégiáit és a nehézségeiket, a második részben pedig a vizsgával kapcsolatban szeretnék néhány kérdést feltenni. A kérdőív névtelen és az adatok titkosak! Kérlek a kérdéseket figyelmesen olvasd el és válaszolj rájuk őszintén! Segítségedet előre is köszönöm!

Neme:

a) Férfi

b) Nő

Intézmény: _____

Szak: _____

Véleményed szerint milyen szinten vagy angoltól?

a) Kezdő

b) Haladó

1. Milyen gyakran...?

	soha	ritkán	néha	gyakran	mindig
Olvasol nyomtatott könyvet					
Olvasol elektronikus könyvet					
Olvasol nyomtatott újságot					
Olvasol online újságcikkeket					
Kölcsönzöl könyvet a könyvtárnól					
Kölcsönzöl könyvet a barátaitól					

2. Ha idegen nyelvű szöveget olvasol...

	Soha	Ritkán	Néha	Gyakran	Mindig
Az ismeretlen szavak jelentésének megértéséhez Google fordítót használsz					
Internetes szótárt használsz					
Fordításhoz nyomtatott szótárt használsz					
Kikövetkezteted az ismeretlen szavak jelentését a többi szó alapján a szövegkörnyezetből					
Segítséget kérsz valakitől a szöveg megértéséhez					
Nagyjából érted a szavakat és az elég a szöveg megértéséhez					

3. Ha idegen nyelvű szöveget olvasol, akkor...

	Igen	Nem
Nincs problémád azzal, hogy megértsd a szöveget		
Nem mindig érted meg a teljes szöveg lényegét		
Nem mindig érted meg a szöveg apró részleteit		
Nem mindig érted meg a szöveget		

4. Az idegen nyelvű szöveg elolvasása előtt szoktál-e a címből következtetni a szöveg tartalmára?

a) Igen

b) Nem

5. Szoktad-e a szöveg elolvasása előtt a képek alapján kitalálni, miről szólhat a szöveg?

a) Igen

b) Nem

6. Mennyire jellemzőek rád a következő állítások?

	Egyáltalán nem jellemző	Részben jellemző	Jellemző	Teljesen jellemző
A lényeg vagy lényeges információ azonosítása				
A mondaton belüli kapcsolatok megértése				
A közölt információk megértése				
A fő gondolat megkülönböztetése a részletektől				
A fogalmi jelentés megértése				
Ismeretlen szavak jelentésének és használatának levezetése				
A szövegrészek közötti kohézió megértése				
Az információk megértése, ha nincs kifejezetten kimondva				

Kulcsszavak felismerése a szövegben				
A szövegrészek közötti kohézió megértése nyelvtani eszközökkel				
Gyors átolvasás				
Felületes átolvasás a konkrétan szükséges információk megtalálásához				

7. A szövegek utáni feladatokkal...

- a) Könnyen boldogulsz, érted a feladatokat
- b) Nehezen boldogulsz, nem érted a feladatokat egyáltalán
- c) Segítségre van szükséged a feladatok megértéséhez

8. Ha olvasol, akkor milyen gyakran szoktak a következők megtörténni?

	Igen	Nem
Elolvasod az egész szöveget (minden mondatot szóról szóra)		
Elolvasod a szöveg nagy részét (kihagyod a bekezdések utolsó mondatait)		
Elolvasod a szöveg felét (több mondatot is kihagysz a bekezdésekből)		
Keveset olvasol el a szövegből (csak a bekezdések első mondatát olvasod el)		

9. Zavar-e az, ha a mondatban vagy szövegben a szavak közül egyet, vagy többet nem ismersz?

- a)Igen
- b)Nem

10. Megkeresed a jelentését azoknak a szavaknak, amelyeknek a jelentését nem ismered?

- a)Igen megkeresem, mert nem tudom értelmezni a szöveget
- b)Igen megkeresem, mert érdekel
- c)Nem keresem meg, a szöveg egészét próbálom értelmezni

11. Használod-e a következő stratégiákat? Ha igen, jelöld be!

- a)Felteszol magadnak kérdéseket, hogy megbizonyosodj arról, hogy megértetted-e az elolvasott anyagot
- b)Amikor elolvasol egy részt, kérdéseket teszel fel, azzal a céllal, hogy segítsenek az olvasásra összpontosítani
- c)Amikor összezavarodsz valami miatt, amit olvasol, visszakeresed a szükséges részt, és elolvasod még egyszer
- d)Elolvasod figyelmesen az utasításokat, mielőtt elkezdenéd elvégezni a feladatot
- e)A figyelmed a jelentésre összpontosítod
- f)Lassabban olvasol és a figyelsz a fontos információkra
- g)Ábrákat rajzolsz a nehéz szöveg vagy szövegrész megértéséhez
- h)A szöveget lefordítod az anyanyelvedre
- i) Nem fordítod le a szöveget, egyenesen az olvasott szöveg nyelvén (angol, német stb.) értelmezed a jelentést
- j) Amikor tanulsz, célokat tűzöl ki, hogy tevékenységeid ráirányítsd a céljaid elérésére az egyes tanulmányi időszakokban

12. Szoktad-e megpróbálni megérteni a szöveg lényegét néhány kulcsmondat elolvasása után?

- a)Igen
- b)Nem

13. Szoktad-e áttekinteni a szöveget lényeges információkat keresve?

- a)Igen
- b)Nem

14. Szoktad-e megpróbálni megérteni a szöveg lényegét a szöveg gyors áttekintése után?

- a)Igen
- b)Nem

15. Idegen nyelvtanulás során tanítottak-e a tanáraid olvasási stratégiákat?

- a) Igen
- b) Nem

A következő kérdések a független egységes nyelvvizsgára (CBI) olvasásértési feladataira vonatkoznak

1. Véleményed szerint a feladatok nehezek voltak a független egységes nyelvvizsgán?

- a) Igen
- b) Nem

2. Mennyi időt vett igénybe a felkészülés?

- a) Néhány nap
- b) Néhány hét
- c) Néhány hónap
- d) Egy év

3. A felkészülés során...

- a) Korábbi vizsgafeladatokat oldottál meg
- b) Hasonló feladatokat oldottál meg könyvekről
- c) Hasonló feladatokat oldottál meg weboldalakról
- d) Különóra jártál
- e) Koncentráltál azokra a feladatokra, amelyek nehézséget okoztak
- f) A szókincs fejlesztésére koncentráltál
- g) Nyelvtani ismereteid bővítésére fókuszáltál

4. A vizsgára egy órát kapnak a résztvevők, a vizsga pedig nagyrészt olvasási feladatokból áll. Elég volt számodra ez az idő az elolvasáshoz és a válaszolásra?

- a) Igen
- b) Nem

5. A vizsgán az olvasási feladatokat...

- a) Figyelmesen elolvastad, minden részletre figyeltél
- b) Figyelmesen elolvastad, de nem figyeltél oda minden részletre
- c) Csak átfutottam, a fontosabb információt kiszűrve
- d) Az idő hiánya miatt csak átfutottam a lényeges információkért

6. A szöveg megértéséhez...

- a) Elég volt egyszer elolvasnom a szöveget
- b) Kétszer kellett elolvasnom a szöveget
- c) Többször kellett elolvasnom a szöveget

7. Mivel a vizsgán semmilyen segédeszköz nem használható, az ismeretlen szavakat:

- a) Kikövetkeztetted a szöveggörnyezetből
- b) Ha gondolkodtál, eszedbe jutott a jelentése
- c) Kihagytad és a mondat teljes jelentésére koncentráltál

8. Az szöveghez tartozó feladatokat

- a) Könnyen megoldottad
- b) Voltak nehézségeid a megoldással
- c) Nehezen, de sikerült megoldanod

9. Előfordultak-e veled a vizsga során a következők?

	Igen	Nem
Összekeverted a szavak jelentését		
Összekeverted a mondatok jelentését		
Nem tudtad összekapcsolni a mondatok jelentését		
Kihagytál fontos részleteket		
Kihagytad a nehezen érthető részeket		
Nem tudtad megkülönböztetni a fontosabb információkat a jelentéktelenektől		

10. A feladat megoldása közben...

- a) Aláhúztad a fontos információkat
- b) A lényeges információt kiírtad a szöveg mellé
- c) A kulcsszavakat kijelölted
- d) A kulcsszavakat kiírtad a szöveg mellé

11. A teszt során gondot okoztak-e...?

	Igen	Nem
Az ismeretlen szavak		

A többjelentéssel bíró szavak		
A szöveg lényegének megértése		
A mondatok megértése		
A mondatok közötti összefüggések megértésére		
A szöveg teljes egészének megértése		

12. A vizsgán megpróbáltad kikövetkeztetni a szöveg tartalmát a címből?

- a) Igen
- b) Nem

13. A vizsgán megpróbáltad kikövetkeztetni a szöveg tartalmát néhány mondat elolvasása után?

- c) Igen
- d) Nem

14. Elég felkészültnek érezted magad a vizsgára?

- a) Igen
- b) Nem
- c) Talán

15. Hány pontot sikerült elérned?

- a)100-120
- b)121-140
- c)141-160
- d)161-180
- e)180+

Köszönöm a segítséged! :)

NYILATKOZAT

Alulírott, Nagy Zsolt angol szakos hallgató, kijelentem, hogy a dolgozatomat a II. Rákóczi Ferenc Kárpátaljai Magyar Főiskolán, a Filológia tanszéken készítettem.

Kijelentem, hogy a dolgozatot más szakon korábban nem védtem meg, saját munkám eredménye, és csak a hivatkozott forrásokat (szakirodalom, eszközök stb.) használtam fel.

Tudomásul veszem, hogy dolgozatomat a II. Rákóczi Ferenc Kárpátaljai Magyar Főiskola könyvtárának Kézirattárában helyezik el.

Beregszász, 2022. június 1.

Nagy Zsolt