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PŘÍNOS PRAKTIKOVÁNÍ ČTENÍ S POROZUMĚNÍM NA DRUHÉM
STUPNI ZÁKLADNÍ ŠKOLY

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V Bludově dne 1. 6. 2021

.....

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ABSTRAKT

KOSTKOVÁ, Petra. *The Benefits of Practicing Reading Comprehension at Lower-Secondary School*. Šumperk, 2021. Diplomová práce. Pedagogická fakulta Olomouc. Vedoucí práce Mgr. Josef Nevařil, Ph.D.

Diplomová práce se zabývá strategiemi používanými při čtení s porozuměním ve výuce anglického jazyka na druhém stupni základní školy v České Republice.

Cílem diplomové práce je porovnat žáky používané strategie čtení s porozuměním na druhém stupni ŽŠ. Je zkoumána souvislost mezi četností užití strategií na nižší a vyšší kognitivní úrovni, věkem žáků a pohlaví. Dále jsou na základě přechodných výzkumů doporučeny strategie s aktivitami, které jsou považovány za nejpřínosnější pro rozvoj dovedností čtení s porozuměním u žáků druhého stupně.

Teoretická část práce podává přehled strategií používaných během různých fází čtení s porozuměním. Soustředí se zejména na strategie, které jsou doporučovány odborníky a jsou ověřeny vědeckými výzkumy. Druhá část teoretické práce se zaměřuje na začlenění čtení s porozuměním ve vzdělávacích dokumentech (RVP, ŠVP). Dále porovnává strategie uvedené v textech dvou učebnic angličtiny.

Praktická část je zaměřena na zkoumání strategií používanými žáky a učiteli druhého stupně základní školy. Výzkum byl uskutečněn pomocí dotazníků pro žáky a učitele a hospitací vyučovacích hodin ve výuce anglického jazyka. Data z dotazníků a hospitací byla analyzována v programu Microsoft Excel a převedena do podoby tabulek a grafů.

Na základě výzkumu byly vyvozeny tyto závěry: Žáci druhého stupně základní školy upřednostňovali při čtení s porozuměním užití nižších kognitivních strategií, zejména žáci šesté třídy. Větší míru zastoupení vyšších kognitivních strategií vykázali starší žáci, obzvláště žáci osmé třídy. U pohlaví byla zjištěna tendence dívek číst text doslovně, zatímco chlapci upřednostňovali čtení pro porozumění.

Byly doporučeny aktivity pro rozvoj vyšších kognitivních dovedností a to: pojmové mapy, anotace textu, monitorování porozumění, Bloomova taxonomie ve čtení s porozuměním, Jigsaw aktivita, čtenářské divadlo.

ABSTRACT

KOSTKOVÁ, Petra. *The Benefits of Practicing Reading Comprehension at Lower-Secondary School*. Šumperk, 2021. Diplomová práce. Pedagogická fakulta Olomouc. Vedoucí práce Mgr. Josef Nevařil, Ph.D.

The Diploma Thesis addresses reading comprehension strategies in English classrooms at lower-secondary schools in the Czech Republic.

The thesis aims to compare learners' usage of reading comprehension strategies at lower-secondary school. The relation between the frequency of lower and higher cognitive strategies, the learners' age and gender is investigated.

The theoretical part of the study reviews the strategies used during various stages of reading comprehension. It gives attention to the strategies advised by experts and research on second language reading. The second section of the theoretical part focuses on reading comprehension in the Educational Framework Programme and the school syllabuses. It compares the reading strategies instruction in texts of two English coursebooks.

The practical part investigates the reading comprehension strategies employed by the learners and teachers of the lower-secondary schools. The research instruments are student and teacher self-report questionnaires and English classroom observations. The questionnaires' data were analysed in the Microsoft Excel Programme and processed in tables and graphs.

The research findings revealed the learners' preference for lower-level cognitive strategies in reading comprehension, especially the sixth-graders. Greater representation of higher-level cognitive strategies reported older learners, primarily the eighth-graders. The female learners tended to word-reading in contrast to comprehension reading preferred by male learners.

Based on the research findings, higher-level cognitive strategies were recommended: cognitive maps, text annotation, monitoring comprehension, Bloom's taxonomy in reading comprehension, jigsaw activity and readers theatre.

INTRODUCTION

People acquiring a second language have the best chance for success through reading.

Without a reading habit, children simply do not have a chance.

~Stephen D. Krashen

As a complex process, reading involves reading skills with different levels of comprehension. Alderson (2000) distinguishes between literal understanding of a text, inferring the meaning and the reader's critical evaluation. According to the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (Spangler, 2015), reading consists of 14 cognitive processes that learners must develop to become successful readers.

A study investigating the frequency level of reading strategies (Cogmen & Saracaloglu, 2009) holds that reading comprehension strategies (RCS) enhances reading comprehension and improves comprehension difficulties at the sentence level. On the other hand, some factors can affect the strategies, such as gender, age, language competence, prior knowledge and cultural background (Anderson, 1999). It is, therefore, necessary to take into account learners' differences in teaching RCS. Teachers need to teach a variety of strategies to improve learners reading comprehension. This thesis, *The Benefits of Practicing Reading Comprehension at Lower-Secondary School*, suggests that RCS in English reading enhances the reading comprehension of lower-secondary school learners.

English as a foreign language (EFL) has been taught in Czech primary and secondary schools for over three decades. The Czech Republic holds a high standard of English proficiency, yet there seems to be a slight decline since 2019 (news.expats.com). The factors that may hinder the EFL acquisition are many, such as the learners' environment, cultural knowledge, readers' skills and abilities or readers motivation (Alderson, 2000). The most natural way to learn English is through reading. As Krashen mentioned, "Without a reading habit, children simply do not have a chance" (2004, p. 78).

The diploma thesis is divided into two parts: theoretical and practical. The theoretical part deals with the approaches, methods, and reading strategies taught in EFL classrooms. These are reviewed in works and research written by experts on teaching reading as a foreign language. Afterwards, it investigates the teaching and learning reading comprehension strategies in L2 reading at lower-secondary schools in the Czech Republic. The reading instructions in the Czech Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education are analysed with the School Educational Programme –

the school curriculum – of two schools. Subsequently, two English coursebooks are compared, and the reading comprehension instructions analysed.

The practical part investigates the methods and RCS taught and learnt in EFL classrooms at lower-secondary schools in the Czech Republic. The research uses a mixed-methods research design to address the research questions directed by the study:

1. What reading strategies are most frequent with learners at lower-secondary school?
2. How the year of study influence the choice of reading comprehension strategies among learners?
3. What role does gender play in the reading comprehension strategies selection?
4. How the teachers' instruction on RCS correlates with the strategies selected by learners?

As a quantitative data collection instruments, the self-report questionnaires for learners and teachers were applied. Classroom observation was the instrument for gathering qualitative data. The questionnaires aimed to determine RCS's currently taught by the EFL teachers and practised by English learners. The objective was to answer the research questions and compare the data with the studies on EFL reading comprehension.

OUTLINE OF THE DIPLOMA THESIS

The thesis consists of six chapters. The introduction presents the study's background and introduces the research problem, research aims, and questions. The theoretical part contains three chapters, and the practical part also has three chapters.

The first chapter discusses the context of the study. It reviews the literature that underpins the thesis. First, reading in EFL classrooms is explored. The factors influencing reading are named, and the schema theory model is presented as a method suitable for teaching RC. Next, approaches to teaching reading comprehension are mentioned.

The second chapter presents reading comprehension strategies according to the stage of reading. For each stage, pre-reading, during reading, and post-reading, strategies recommended by experts are detailed. Each strategy is described, and its aim explained.

The third chapter tackles the position of reading comprehension in the Czech educational system at the lower-secondary school. It reviews the reading skills in the Framework Educational Programme and their implementation in the school syllabus. Two syllabuses are compared: a syllabus of the ZŠ Karla staršího ze Žerotína Bludov and ZŠ Hrušovany nad Jevišovkou. Afterwards, three reading texts of English coursebooks for each school are examined. The RCS instruction for both coursebooks is compared. Lastly, a summary of reading at lower-secondary school is presented, naming the emphasised strategies and overall attitude towards reading comprehension development.

Chapter 4 focuses on the research methodology. The objectives of the study and research questions are stated, followed by the research design and the instruments used to gather the qualitative and quantitative data. The mixed-method research approach was chosen. Student/teacher self-report questionnaires were selected to gather quantitative data, and classroom observation served to collect the qualitative data. The last section describes the study participants and the steps in data collection.

The fifth chapter presents the data analyses. The findings from classroom observations are analysed and compared to the teacher self-questionnaire. A table with RSC taught during classroom observation gives an overview of the strategies frequency. The student self-questionnaire is examined in three aspects. The high-use and low-use strategies are compared and explained based on classroom observations. The Top 10 strategies chosen by learners for each year of study are investigated and compared. Next, the strategies are correlated between the gender. The last part of the data analyses discusses the percentages of the three reading stages. The chapter concludes with the findings from the teacher self-report questionnaire.

Chapter six discusses the overview of the investigation and answers the research questions. The connection between the findings and the literature review is determined. Based on the research and its finding, six strategies for the development of reading comprehension are presented. The chapter closes with the research limitations and suggests further investigation.

THEORETICAL PART

The theoretical part of the study is divided into four chapters. First, the literature written on the topic of reading comprehension is reviewed. The factors influencing the reading process, both in L1 (Czech) and L2 (English), are discussed. Reading comprehension (henceforth RCS) is defined together with RC schema theory that explains how readers use prior knowledge to comprehend and learn from the text (Rumelhart, 1980). Next, the study presents some of the recommended approaches to teaching reading and sets the stages in reading. The second chapter deals in details with the reading comprehension strategies recommended by the experts. The strategies are categorised according to the reading stages.

Chapter three discusses reading and reading comprehension and the importance of teaching reading comprehension strategies (RCS) in general and in the Czech educational system. It reviews the reading strategies mentioned in the Framework Educational System (henceforth FES) and the overall significance of implementing reading comprehension. The FES forms a setting for the school curriculum and instructs the schools on how to outline reading. Two syllabuses of different schools are examined and compared regarding their reading comprehension instructions. As a part of the review on reading comprehension, the thesis compares two English coursebooks used at lower-secondary schools in the Czech Republic. It investigates the skills taught and the instruction on RCS. At the end of the section, methods and strategies mentioned in the FES and the coursebooks taught at lower-secondary schools in Czech are compared to the experts' RCS. Chapter four briefly introduces the implications for the research.

1 Reading in EFL classrooms

Iqbal (2015), in his work *Factors responsible for poor English comprehension at secondary level*, indicates that low levels of learners' reading ability are due to inadequate vocabulary knowledge, setting learning goals to pass the exam instead of developing reading skills. Another factor is the lack of teaching various reading strategies or rigid use of coursebook materials. Instead, the reading materials should be added with different authentic texts. In 2000 a National Reading Panel analysed 203 studies on text comprehension instruction only to conclude on the scientific basis that the reading strategies "appear to be effective and most promising for classroom instruction" (2000, chapter 4, p. 5). The study aimed to prove that reading comprehension can be improved by teaching learners to use

cognitive strategies to achieve self-regulated reading. Independent reading is essential not only for school carrier but mainly for learners' successful future life.

1.1 Factors influencing reading in L1 and L2

The process of reading is unique for each person. Readers come from all sorts of backgrounds with different experiences. These factors that influence reading comprehension must be considered when making decisions about teaching reading comprehension to learners. Clarke & Silberstein profess that “more information is contributed by the reader than by the print on the page “(Clarke and Silberstein, 1977, p. 136-7, in Richards, 1997, p. 6). Richards names the five most common influences on reading: the family influence, the community influence, the school influence, the cultural influence and the influence of individual characteristics (Richards, 1997, p. 6-8). In his book *Assessing Reading*, Alderson goes to more details and adds other impacts such as background knowledge, linguistic knowledge of the language, metalinguistic knowledge, knowledge of the world, and reader purpose in reading and motivation. English also influences Czech learners as a second language. Other factors affecting them are their reading performance and competence in Czech, as L1, the degree of difference between L1 and L2, cognitive development and metacognitive knowledge. A significant role also plays the culture of English speaking countries (ibid. p. 34).

1.1.1 The family and community influence

The family members are the models for forming reading habits. Richards (1997) highlights that for children growing in homes filled with books, reading becomes “a powerful activity that confers knowledge, insight, and perspective on readers” (p. 6). The community also shapes the reader by incorporating its values. Depending on where the learners grow up, be it a city, suburb or a quiet village, they are provided with varied life experiences that enrich the readers' background knowledge.

1.1.2 The school and cultural influence

After family, a school is a place where learners experience common ground, and even within one school, their reading experience may differ considerably. Different social and economic groups have cultural values that influence the attitude towards reading. In a society where reading is valued, teaching reading will be highly supported (Richards, 1997, p. 7-8). Alderson (2000) looks at cultural influence as differences among nations. Reading texts can be set in a culture unfamiliar to the learner resulting in difficulty to process the text and cause misunderstanding.

1.1.3 The factors of age, L1 and L2, metacognition

The teachers must take into consideration the age of the learners concerning their cognitive development. Hutch (1983) emphasises that reading strategies adjusted according to age influence the success of language learning. The competence in L1 appears to influence the reading in L2 because of a transfer of reading skills. The better skills the learner has in L1, the more likely he/she will facilitate the reading process in L2 (Royer and Carlo, 1991 in Richards, 1997, p. 25). On the other hand, a transfer, especially with younger learners, can have a negative impact. If the two language systems are diverse, “no generalisation from the first to the target language is possible” (Wallace, 1992, p. 21-2 in Richards, 1997, p. 28). The metacognitive skills signify readers own awareness of reading strategies in L1. Research (Duffy *et al.*, 1987 in Alderson, 2000) on the effect of metacognitive reading revealed that poor readers are often unaware of how and when to use reading strategies and have difficulty infer meaning or evaluate a text.

1.1.4 Schemata, vocabulary

Alderson (2000) extends the factors influencing reading with schemata that he divides into background knowledge and language knowledge. In an attempt to understand a text, readers consistently search for what they already know and understand. They integrate their previous information with a new one. The pre-existing schemata influence the way reading is processed. Alderson agrees with Richards that learner’s linguistic knowledge develops with age and adds that “vocabulary knowledge has long been recognised to be crucial in first language reading.....measures of reader’s vocabulary knowledge routinely correlate highly with measures of reading comprehension “(Alderson, 2000, p. 35).

Overall, research carried by Segalowitz *et al.* (1991, in Alderson 2000) revealed that even advanced L2 learners did not read at the same speed as in L1. The reason is that learners lower-level processes, such as linking propositions, making inferences and incorporating new knowledge with pre-existing, are not automated.

1.1.5 Summary

To sum up, the factors that influence reading comprehension are many. A significant impact has learners’ family because it serves as a model for creating reading habits. No less important are the social and cultural factors. The family’s income and cultural setting may lead to a disadvantage in the reading process because they affect the learner’s background knowledge and the pre-existing schemata.

Therefore, the teacher should consider the learners' background in his/her teaching of reading comprehension.

1.2 Reading comprehension

Comprehension is a complex process about which only little is known. Durkin (1993) explains that comprehension instruction is concerned not with the process but with its products. Despite this fact, he considers comprehension as the essence of reading. His definition of reading comprehension is: *Comprehension is the fulfilment of a particular purpose through the use of appropriate material that is read in a particular way* (Durkin, 1993, p. 422). Grellet's understanding of comprehension is somewhat less complicated: *Understanding a written text means extracting the required information from it as efficiently as possible* (1981, p. 3). Another interpretation of comprehension by Harris & Hodges states that: *Reading comprehension is the construction of the meaning of a written text through a reciprocal interchange of ideas between the reader and the message in a particular text* (1995, p. 39).

A National Reading Panel (2000) summarises comprehension more straightforwardly: *A reader reads a text to understand what is read and to put this understanding to use* (p. 4-5). The learners apply their world knowledge to make meaning of the text and form a memory representation. According to the text type, a competent reader practices different reading strategies, rejects irrelevant information, and identifies what he/she is looking for. Reading strategies, also called reading skills, are *the mental activities that readers use to construct meaning from a text* (Richards, 1997, p. 15). Anderson's study (1991) concluded that successful readers come to a similar meaning of the exact text as the teacher or researcher does. Based on the results, Richards compiled a list of strategies that successful readers use to comprehend the text. To name a few:

1. Using world knowledge;
2. Using the title to infer what information might follow;
3. Analysing unfamiliar words and guessing their meaning;
4. Monitoring comprehension;
5. Adjusting strategies to the purpose of reading;
6. Understanding the relationships between the parts of a text;
7. Distinguishing main ideas from minor ones;
8. Using context to build meaning. (Richards, 1997, p. 16)

Which strategy is more important depends on the reader and can change as the learner progresses with his/her reading skills.

Maroof (2016) argues whether comprehension consists of subskills or a holistic process that cannot divide reading into reading for gist, scanning, skimming and other strategies. The traditional approach separates reading into subskills, while the holistic approach looks at the reading skills as interlinked (Alderson & Urquhart, 1984, in Maroof, 2016). Alderson and Urquhart (1984) stress individual reader's understanding because, according to them, different readers using similar processes reach different results.

Reading comprehension is essential for beginners, as well as advanced learners. Those who have not developed these skills may lack critical thinking, which is necessary for understanding the writer's meaning of a text and their interpretation. It is a teacher's job to teach and model RCS with the help of activities that entertain and give the learner a purpose.

1.3. Reading comprehension schema theory and models of reading

1.3.1 Schema theory

The schema theory (Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983 in Hadley, 1993) claims that text does not carry meaning independently but provides clues for the readers to construct a meaning based on their background knowledge. This knowledge forms structures called schemata. The learner needs to select the correct schema for comprehension to occur. Rumelhart (1977, in Hadley, 1993) asserts that misunderstanding happens when the wrong schema for a concept is generated. Therefore, comprehending a text means not only understanding its words, but it entails activating the schema that fits the text message. Concerning schemata, Smith (1971, in Alderson, 2000) talks about non-visual information in the text, such as readers' experience with the reading process, context knowledge, cognition of structures, patterns or text types. Richards (1997) distinguishes several types of schemata:

1. **content schema** is the foundation for comparison with a general pattern;
2. **formal schema** concerns text structure, vocabulary, grammar or register;
3. **linguistic schema** concerns the decoding of words and how they fit in a sentence.

Depending on how the readers interact with a text, they refer to a particular schema. Hudley (1993) mentions the hierarchical organisation of schemata. The most abstract and general are at the top and the most specific at the bottom. This division outlines two separate information processing

systems: bottom-up processing and top-down (Rumelhart, 1980). They are known as reading models. Schema theorists, such as Rumelhart, indicate that both models occur at the same time. This interaction between the models set a third category: an interactive model.

1.3.2 The reading models

The **Bottom-up model** is data-driven and depends on the text information. To get meaning from a text, the reader proceeds from decoding letters and words before comprehending sentences and text discourse. The text is approached from its parts to the whole concept (Rumelhart, 1980). Richards (1997) adds that the process eventually becomes automated, and the reader is not aware of it. Anderson (1999) highlights that the bottom-up model emphasises lower-level reading processes such as letter identification, word recognition, the association of words to their semantic representations, the identification of basic syntactic structures of the text (Segalowitz, Poulsen & Komoda, 1991, p. 17 in Anderson, 1999).

The **Top-down model**, as opposed to the bottom-up, is conceptually driven. The reader uses higher-level processes, such as integrating textual information, linking words with their co-referents, generating and updating a schema and integrating textual information with prior knowledge (Segalowitz, Poulsen & Komoda, 1991, p. 17 in Anderson, 1999). The text is looked at as a unit and moves from the whole to the parts. Richards (1997) summarises the top-down process as the reader's fitting the text into his/her knowledge, be it cultural, syntactic or linguistic. When new information appears, the learner checks back with these schemata. He/she is not trying to use all the information in the text but select only relevant information.

As mentioned before, Rumelhart (1980) holds that both processes occur at the same time. This reciprocal model is called the **Interactive model**. It is currently accepted as the most comprehensive because it combines elements from both models. Stanovich (1980, p. 35 in Anderson 1999, p. 2) assumes "that a pattern is synthesised based on information provided simultaneously from several knowledge sources", meaning that the interactive model uses both processes to compensate for deficiencies during reading. Grabe (1991) looks at the model as being two concepts. The first concept is the interaction between the reader and the text. The reader's background knowledge aids text comprehension. The second concept is the interaction between the bottom-up and top-down reading models. Carell (1988 in Hadley, 1993) assumes that skilled readers shift between the models according to their needs, while the poor readers use either the bottom-up or top-down models. He names five possible causes:

1. Lack of relevant background knowledge;

2. Failure to activate available schemata;
3. Linguistic or reading skills deficiencies;
4. Misconceptions about reading in a foreign language;
5. Individual differences in cognitive style (Carell, 1988, p. 103).

In summary, the bottom-up model focuses on the reader's decoding of a text involving lower-level processes. In opposition stands the top-down model, where the reader uses his/her previous knowledge to comprehend the text. The upper-level processes are employed. The Interactive model utilises both models because "the decoding and sampling from the textual features happen simultaneously and in a cyclical fashion" (Hadley, 1993, p. 195). Hadley further adds that it is crucial to see learners as individuals with different background knowledge, interests, motivation and skills (1993).

1.3.3 Summary

In brief, there are many definitions of reading comprehension. The experts agree that successful readers use a variety of strategies to comprehend a text. Schemata, which form from background knowledge, are essential for text understanding. Their hierarchical organisation led to the construction of three reading models: Bottom-up, Top-down and Interactive model.

1.4 The approaches to and methods of teaching reading

1.4.1 The approaches to teaching reading

According to Richards & Rodgers, the approach "refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the sources of practices and principles in language teaching" (1989, p. 16 in Richards, 1997). The two best-known approaches are an extensive approach and an intensive approach.

An **extensive approach** refers to reading long texts for general comprehension. It presupposes that reading many texts of the reader's own choice improves the ability to read. Richards (1997) emphasises that extensive reading is a means to an end. Its purpose is to achieve some other goal than reading, such as writing a summary or report. Unlike intensive reading, extensive reading is performed primarily outside of the classroom with the teacher as a supporter and facilitator. The learners read for comprehension of main ideas and are not required to know details or understand each word. Hadley (1993) asserts that speed and reading for gist are crucial. He further adds that understanding the main ideas and having a personal reaction is also part of the reading goals.

Richards (1997) asserts that an **intensive reading approach** is currently being taught in most EFL classrooms. The reading text is an end to itself. The aim is reading for maximum comprehension, and the teachers instruct the learners before, during and after the reading. A wide range of activities is practised to teach reading skills. Learners must use text within their proficiency level and understand most of it without a dictionary search. Munby (1979 in Hadley, 1993) specifies that the learner must comprehend the text linguistically and semantically. He identifies four types of understanding:

1. Understanding the plain sense or factual meanings in the text;
2. Understanding implications, which involves making inferences;
3. Understanding the relationship of ideas in the text;
4. Being able to relate the reading text to own knowledge or experience (p. 144).

These two reading approaches imply the use of different reading strategies, and therefore, it would be in the best learner's interest that both were included in the school reading syllabus.

1.4.2 The methods of teaching reading

Harmer (1988) defines the method as "the practical realisation of an approach". According to him, the method consists of various procedures. Procedures are "an ordered sequence of techniques" (p. 62). The technique, in other words, a strategy, is viewed as a single activity that is part of a procedure.

Barnitz (1985), in his research on *Reading Development of Nonnative Speakers of English*, presents a variety of methods for learners reading development. He urges that prior knowledge and readers schemata must be regarded. Hudson (1982, in Barnitz, 1984) holds that induced schemata can facilitate reading comprehension, especially at lower proficiency levels. Overall, Barnitz (1985) emphasises that reading should not be taught as a set of isolated skills but instead developed as a whole reading process with comprehension as the primary goal.

Barnitz names methods that comprise sets of reading strategies that have a specific order. For low-level readers is suited the **Language experience Approach**. It is founded on familiar readers' experience. Learners dictate a story to the teacher. The produced text matches the readers' knowledge and language and becomes a beginning point for teaching reading skills. This method helps the learners identify words and sentence patterns and serves as a basis for the teacher to expand.

The **Directed Reading-Thinking Activity** method aims to develop comprehension by readers' thinking about what they are reading. Learners predict the text's purpose and make hypotheses. After reading, they prove or refuse text purpose and hypotheses. The teacher asks questions to activate

readers' thoughts to explain their hypotheses. This method is best used with readers who have sufficient knowledge of the second language.

The **Experience-Text-Relationship Method** is based on prior knowledge and cross-cultural schemata. In three steps, the learners share their experiences related to the story; next, they read the text guided by comprehension question; and finally, with the teacher's guidance, the learners relate the content in the story to their prior knowledge or experience. Barnitz (1985) adds that the method is suitable for any age.

Collins & Smith (1980) mention that reading comprehension is usually taught in schools in two methods. In the first method, learners read a text and answer questions about the text. The reading comprehension is emphasised, however, only as interpretations of the text. The second method consists of creating reading groups. The learners take turns reading aloud while the teacher acts as a facilitator or commentator and asks questions about the text. Again this method aims only to interpret the text but does not teach the learners how to construct and revise hypotheses.

Collins & Smith (1980) propose a method that incorporates the standard methods and includes **comprehension monitoring** and **hypothesis formation and evaluation**. They explain that comprehension monitoring enables readers to evaluate their ongoing processes while reading the text. When they fail to understand a text, they can remedy the reading process with an action. The hypotheses formation consists of two hypotheses: making predictions about what will happen and interpretations about what is happening. Collins & Smith (1980) conclude that creating and testing hypotheses leads to fewer comprehension failures.

Grellet (1981) developed a **Global approach to the text**. This method is composed of several reading techniques. He describes them in seven steps. First, the learners study the text layout. Based on the text's title, pictures, and length, they make hypotheses about the text contents and function. As a next step, the readers anticipate and look for confirmation of the hypotheses. This is done by skimming through the text, followed by proof or revision of learners' guesses and further predictions. The final step is the second reading for more detail.

Reading approaches and methods listed here have in common the need to activate learners and teach them how to control their reading. The trend of past decades is that passive reading with only answering comprehension questions is insufficient and undesirable. The stress is given to teaching learners how to become independent readers. The metacognitive – higher-order thinking strategies such as comprehension monitoring or hypothesis formation enable learners to understand better, analyse and control their reading processes.

1.4.3. Summary

In short, approaches to reading are two: extensive and intensive. The extensive approach refers to reading a long text for general comprehension and is usually done outside the classroom. The intensive approach aims at reading for maximum comprehension in the classroom. Methods used for the realisation of an approach comprise sets of reading strategies in a specific order. Barnitz (1985) names several methods, such as the Language experience Approach, Directed Reading-Thinking Activity method, Experience-Text-Relationship Method or Global approach to the text developed by Grellet (1981).

1.5. Experts recommendations regarding reading

1.5.1 Françoise Grellet

In her book, *Developing reading skills* (1981), Grellet goes into depth in the description of reading techniques. She makes assumptions to consider before teaching reading strategies:

1. She insists that if reading is to be efficient, the reading material must consist of a longer structure, such as a paragraph.
2. With reading lengthier texts, the readers move from global understanding towards detailed understanding. Comprehension exercises should start with overall text meaning, and the work on specific ideas or vocabulary come afterwards.
3. It is important to use authentic texts. Simplifying a text may result in increased difficulty because “the system of references, repetition and redundancy, as well as the discourse indicators one relies on when reading, are often removed or at least significantly altered” (p. 7).
4. Standardised presentations of coursebook texts reduce interest and motivations and the reading difficulty because of its unauthenticity.
5. Reading comprehension should not be separated from other reading skills, but it is preferable to combine reading, writing, listening and speaking.
6. To develop learners’ ability to infer a text, a teacher should introduce questions or exercises that do not have a straightforward answer and are meaningful. (p. 6-9)

1.5.2. Dona Spangler and John Alex Mayyante

Using Reading to Teach a World Language is a book written for foreign language teachers. Its aim is for learners to become strategic readers. Their definition of a strategic reader is “a reader who

understands when and how to use a strategy to help him or her comprehend a text” (Spangler & Mayyante, 2015). The teachers should:

1. Teach learners how to think during reading actively;
2. Carefully scaffold and monitor learners interactions with various text;
3. Design lesson moving from literal text level to the inferential level and metacognitive level. Learners advance from what is directly stated in the text to what is implied. In the last phase, they reflect on their thinking and learning;
4. Construct reading activities around a purpose;
5. Select text at the appropriate learners level;
6. Determine the instruction goals for the activities. (2015, p. 12)

1.5.3 Jack C. Richards

Richards’ book *From Reader to Reading Teacher* (1997) addresses both novice teachers and experienced ones. Richards (1997) provides practical information about methods, strategies and issues related to teaching reading. Some of his advice on designing the reading course is:

1. The teachers need to formulate goals based on learners abilities, needs and interests;
2. The choice of text is within learners proficiency range so they can understand without extensive use of a dictionary;
3. The selected materials must be appropriate. The teachers must be aware of what type of text the reading material is. Recommended is the mix of informational texts with story-centred text and authentic or modified texts;
4. For beginners and intermediate learners are the most suitable textbooks with integrated skills. (p. 46-53).

1.5.4 Summary of chapter 1

To conclude, experts on reading such as Françoise Grellet, Dona Spangler and John Alex Mayyante or Jack C. Richards advise on the methods and strategies that should be considered before teaching reading comprehension. Their recommendations are goal formulation, authentic text use, appropriate material selection according to the learners’ level, scaffolding, and monitoring learners during reading.

2 Reading comprehension strategies

Reading comprehension strategies (RCS) are part of language learning strategies (LLS). LLS aim to “contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs” (Rubin, 1987, p.22). Oxford (1992/93, p. 18) details LLS as “specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills.....Strategies are tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing communicative ability”. Rubin (1987) classifies strategies into three groups:

1. **Cognitive learning strategies:** clarification/verification; guessing/inductive inferencing; deductive reasoning; practice; memorisation; monitoring;
2. **Metacognitive learning strategies:** choosing; prioritisation; planning; preparation; selective attention;
3. **Communication strategies:** circumlocution/paraphrase; formulae use; avoidance, and clarification strategies (p. 20).

Adler (2001) interprets RCS as “conscious plans – sets of steps that good readers use to make sense of the text”. He further adds that these strategy instructions “help students become purposeful, active readers who are in control of their own reading comprehension” (p. 41).

RCS are essential for learners to become good readers. They are an active and complex process and act as a facilitating tool in reading comprehension. Various experts compiled lists of strategies. All of them divide RCS into three main sections: pre-reading strategies, during reading strategies, and post-reading strategies. The most important aspect of teaching RCS is the teacher and how he or she instructs the learners.

2.1 Pre-reading strategies

2.1.1 Prior knowledge activation

Murtagh (1989 in Anderson, 1999) argues that activating the reader’s background knowledge by inducing appropriate schemata through suitable pre-reading activities influences comprehension. The prior experience can be activated by setting goals, asking questions, and making predictions. Richard (1997) suggests that activating background knowledge increases learners opportunity to make sense of the text information, and thinking about the topic increases their motivation. Anderson (1999) remarks that some readers may not have prior knowledge or their knowledge may cause misconceptions and interfere with reading. The teacher’s role is to correct it through pre-reading activities such as **pre-reading discussion** or **semantic maps**.

2.1.2 Semantic maps

Semantic maps fall into the category of a graphic or visual organiser and help learners structure information. Anderson (1999) compares the technique to brainstorming. The readers have a keyword or concept that is part of the text. They generate words or ideas associated with the keyword. Mapping allows learners to link what they already know with the new concept. Similar to semantic maps are **content maps**. Learners write down any information that comes to their mind on the given topic. Later, they mark the sentences in the text with similar content that they wrote in the content map (Richards, 1997).

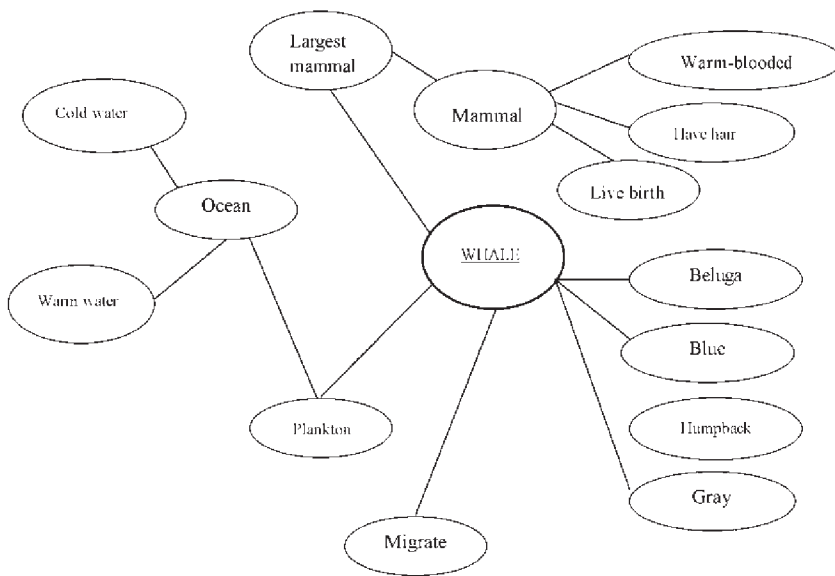


Figure 1: *Semantic map* (Second Grade Teacher Reading Academy by The University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts, 2002, Austin, TX: UT System, Texas Education Agency).

2.1.3 Previewing the text to build expectations

Previewing the text serves as an orientation. Learners make expectations about the information and organisation of the text. Richards (1997) adds that it helps them predict what they will read, gives them a framework to make sense of the information. When previewing a text, these are the parts to look for: the title, the author, subtitles, subheading, photographs, drawings, graphs, charts, tables, print, darkness or style.

2.1.4 Sampling and predicting

Sampling consists of either reading one sentence from each paragraph or reading the first and last paragraph from the text. The purpose is to get an overview of the information. By reading the introductory paragraph, readers identify the key issues. Both the initial and concluding paragraph give learners valuable clues about the main ideas (Richards, 1997). Following this strategy is **predicting**. Readers apply the clues they gathered from sampling the text and guess what it is about. Grellet (1981) defines prediction as “an activity involving constant guesses that are later rejected or confirmed” (p.

56). Readers should not read all the sentences but rely on cues to get an idea of what is likely to follow in the text. To teach prediction, Grellet (1981) suggests removing punctuation from the text and let learners predict where the sentences stop. As another option, she advises that learners read unfinished passages and propose an ending. Spangler (2015) mentions an activity called **Vocabulary Prediction Chart**. Learners write in a chart set of words and predict the meaning of each word. After reading a text, they formulate a new meaning of each word based on its clues. This technique teaches learners to use clue words in the text and to explain their guesses.

2.1.5 Scanning and Skimming

A general definition of scanning is “quick, superficial reading of a text in order to get the gist of it (Richards, 1997, p. 75). Richards (1997) defines scanning as “looking quickly through the text for a specific piece of information” (p. 76). According to experts (Barnett, 1989; Grellet 1984; Hosenfeld et al., 1981 in Richards, 1997), when learners scan, they are getting clues to the main ideas, points or steps in an argument. Scanning involves these steps:

1. Determine what keywords to look for;
2. Glance through the text for those words;
3. When you find the keywords, read the sentences around to see if they provide information;
4. If they do, stop reading. If they do not, scan further (Richards, 1997, p. 76).

Hadley (1993) suggests other scanning activities such as identifying topic sentences or central ideas in a paragraph. Learners may select the best subtitles for paragraphs or create their headlines and subtitles. Grellet (1981) identifies these activities as skimming. She defines its aim as “asking learners to recognise the key sentences of a passage” (p. 67). The skimming skills distinguish the main idea from supporting details by identifying the text’s key sentences. The readers learn to identify the text’s context by skimming/scanning, searching for information. Overall the significance is to teach the learners not to read each sentence, but rather “run our eyes over the text, reading a few sentences here and there and recognising certain words or expressions as clues to the function and ideas of what follows” (Grellet, 1981, p. 74). The distinction between skimming and scanning is, in general, what information we are looking for. With skimming, it is a general idea, and with scanning, it is specific information.

2.2 During reading strategies

The aim of reading is comprehension. During the reading, learners consciously control and monitor a variety of processes. They are using top-down and bottom-up strategies, check the text for

understanding if it agrees with their previous knowledge and predict what they expect to read. They formulate the main ideas of each paragraph and the whole text. According to Richards (1997), skilled readers perform these strategies automatically. Less capable readers need to improve these strategies and learn to practice them independently. It is the teacher's job to teach these processes to the learners and make them aware.

2.2.1 Building comprehension of the text

Guiding questions during reading improve learner's text understanding. They can be on sentence-level information focusing more on language or on the discourse level where the aim is to build whole-text comprehension. Richards (1997) argues that hearing guided questions help learners to apply them themselves during the monitoring. Another activity to build understanding is to have readers mark the text by either highlighting or writing comments on the side. With textbooks, learners use view foils to write on. For example, they highlight the transition sentence and recognise a change in the topic. They may also highlight by different colours essential and irrelevant information.

As per Hadley (1993), decoding strategy is most necessary with lower-level proficiency learners. **Decoding** is "guessing from content the meaning of unknown words or phrases and may be needed at the word, intrasentential, intersentential, or discourse level" (Hadley, 1993, p. 200). He advises that teachers instruct learners to guess the meaning of content words and establish relationships among sentences. Grellet (1981) specifies strategies on how to approach unknown words:

1. Figuring out what part of speech the word must be, using the surrounding context;
2. Seeing if the word is used elsewhere in the context;
3. Using one's knowledge of the world or the text's specific context to deduce the word's possible meaning (p. 42).

2.2.2 Non-linguistic response to the text

2.2.2.1 Ordering a sequence of pictures

Grellet (1981) recommends using pictures or photographs accompanying the text to help the learners understand the chronological chain of events. She suggests that comprehension is improved when the readers visualise the text information.

2.2.2.2 Comparing and matching text and pictures

Another activity aiding comprehension compares the text's information to that in the picture, photograph or drawing. The learners extract relevant information from a story and relate it to the picture. It encourages the readers to refer to similarities or differences in the text. Another option to understand the primary information in the text is by matching it to a corresponding picture. The activity forces the learners to re-read parts of the text to find the match (Grellet, 1981).

2.2.2.3 Picture details, story map, mapping it out

The purpose of this strategy is to learn reading comprehension through a hand-made drawing. The learners respond to a selected part of the text by drawing a scene, adding as many details as possible (Spangler, 2015). A **story map** teaches learners to develop understanding relations between parts of a text. They draw the story to be precise and comprehensive so others can re-tell it. Another non-linguistic strategy is **tracing a route on a map** in line with a text. The aim is for learners to understand important information in the text and transcode it into a map route. The activity forces learners to read with accuracy and referring back to the texts, such as trip or expedition description (Grellet, 1981).

2.2.3 Linguistic response to the text

2.2.3.1 Reorganising the information and text comparing

Reorganising the information can be done by reordering events, using tables or graphic organisers. In **reordering events**, learners get a text with jumbled events and reorder them chronologically. The aim is to draw learners attention to the sequence stated in the text. The readers are expected to make inferences and get some coherent sequence to understand the story. Using tables help learners to extract desired information by filling an empty or partly filled table. To fill in the table, readers must first read the text for getting a general idea, and during the second reading, they look for specific information while taking notes. To teach the understanding and evaluation of a text, learners compare several texts on the same subject. They must relate common information in the texts and do the systematisation of ideas by finding differences and contradictions (Grellet, 1981).

2.2.3.2 Annotating the text

The strategy promotes critical thinking and involves active engagement with the text. The learners improve their comprehension by annotating the text content with their own words. They create

short summaries and briefly write key points about each paragraph of the text. Its construction gives the reader a purpose for reading. The annotation may have varied objectives, such as identifying the author's most important points, how they fit together, and the readers' response. The learners can create a system. By using different colours, they mark the main points or new claims: the asterisk (*) represents pieces of evidence, the question mark (?) means unclear information, and the exclamation mark (!) marks the reader's strong positive or negative reaction to a passage. The learners can also add their notes to the text, summing each paragraph, writing questions, or circling unknown or confusing words (Spangler, 2015).

2.2.3.3 Interactive read aloud

Routman (2003) proposes an interactive read-aloud strategy. This method involves active learners and teacher reading aloud a text. It creates a scaffold through the teacher becoming a model for various techniques such as making inferences, providing explanations, teaching vocabulary and concepts. The teacher invites the listeners to talk about the text during the reading making predictions, describing the characters' behaviour or the possible story ending. He or she may also teach monitoring by thinking aloud. This strategy plays a crucial part in learning comprehension. After the second reading, the readers reconstruct the story by recounting information. The technique may be used with fiction as well as nonfiction. This strategy is suitable for native young learners, but it is even more beneficial to second language learners. The teacher becomes a model of the reading strategies and a model of language pronunciation and fluency. The effect is also in vocabulary development, recognising the linguistic and organisational structure of the text.

2.2.3.4 Self-monitoring

Richards (1997) refers to monitoring comprehension as the readers' constant checking of their strategies and how these strategies assist in understanding the text. The learners compare the text with their thoughts, predict by reading the first sentence of a paragraph, look for the main idea and foreshadow the rest of the passage. They stop at the end of each paragraph and check their predictions. Next, they identify if the strategy worked and choose a different one if it did not. Richards (1997) makes a list of useful questions the reader can apply during self-monitoring:

1. Did I accurately identify the main idea of the paragraph?
2. Does the information in this paragraph make sense according to the information given in earlier paragraphs?
3. Did I correctly identify possible transition sentences at the end of the previous paragraph?

4. Does the information make sense given what I have read in this text and given what I know of the topic (p. 107-108)?

Lower level learners may not be able to do self-monitoring. However, the teacher can scaffold by asking questions during reading about a particular point, idea or event in the text and ask learners to predict what will come next. To ease this process, the teacher should choose a familiar text within the learners' proficiency range. Self-monitoring and self-correction build and expand comprehension and are essential to learners' success (Anderson, 1999).

2.2.4 Post-reading strategies

Post-reading strategies aim at reviewing the information from the text. It should be a common practice for teachers to do activities that make the learners think about the text, react to it and evaluate it (Richards, 1997). National Reading Panel (2000) found that in most studies on reading comprehension, the often practised post-reading strategies were Question answering and Question generation.

2.2.4.1 Question answering and question generation

During question answering, the learners react to the teacher's questions, and in return, the teacher gives feedback on the correctness of the answers (National Reading Panel, 2000). Question generation requires the learner's active involvement by asking themselves about what, when, where, why, how something happened. After investigating 27 studies, the National Reading Panel (2000) found question generation more effective. The goal of the strategies and reading comprehension is to teach learners to become independent, active readers. Question answering requires the reader's comprehension and active cooperation to answer the teacher's questions. However, question generation demands making inferences and queries to construct the self-questions. According to National Reading Panel (2000), there is "strong empirical and scientific evidence that instruction of question generation during reading benefits reading comprehension in terms of memory and answering questions based on the text" (p. 4-88). The Panel further states that integration and identification of main ideas have improved. The teacher's role is to teach these strategies and assist learners with generating questions and providing feedback.

2.2.4.2 Bloom's taxonomy

Richards (1997) advises using Benjamin Bloom's taxonomy. It gives teachers a tool for distinguishing comprehension questions. By using different cognitive processes, the learners distinguish questions according to knowledge, comprehension, application, analyses, synthesis and evaluation. On the **knowledge** level, readers recall specific information; the **comprehension** questions target what the individual knows about what is being communicated. The **application** means the comparison of information in one text to another. The **analysis** questions teach learners to see a relationship between ideas, while **synthesis** instructs them to put pieces together to see a structure. The last level, **evaluation**, aims at higher-level cognitive processes and involves the text's judgment in a given context for a specific purpose (Richards, 1997, p. 118).

2.2.4.3 Summaries

This post-reading activity asks learners to write a quick summary of a text selection by focusing on the gist, keywords and main ideas. Spangler (2015) appoints the strategy's aim to pull out main ideas and focus on crucial details by breaking down larger ideas. With closed books, the readers mentally review the information in an informal and unstructured way. Summaries are tools for teachers to assess learners' comprehension informally. Richards (1997) mentions another way to approach writing summaries – writing a journal entry. Learners are building comprehension of a particular text or a book. The teacher has to model summarising and practice it with learners many times over to be effective. Spangler (2015) suggests beginning with selective underlining and focusing on “who, what, when, where, why, and how”. The learners write their summary preserving the essential information. She also recommends setting a word limit.

2.2.4.4 Hypothesis confirmation, rejection, generation

This technique teaches learners to distinguish between what a text says and what they can infer from the text. The teacher prepares summary statements of a text that are correct or incorrect. The learners must determine which statement is true and false by finding the supporting information in the text. They must learn to infer meaning from the text and select sentences supporting the true statement (Spangler, 2015). Collins & Smith (1980) stress that it is essential to have a teacher model the strategy. They suggest that the teacher reads a text aloud, generating hypotheses while reading. While doing so, he/she should mention the reasons for these statements by pointing out the evidence in the text. If the hypothesis turns out to be incorrect, the teacher should identify it and explain. Collin & Smith (1980) explain, “Initially, the teacher asks the students about things they may find confusing. Later, the teacher should serve mainly a corrective function” (p. 26). The readers read silently, monitoring

comprehension and generating hypotheses and confirming or rejecting them independently in the final stage.

2.2.4.5 Evaluation

Richards (1997) mentions evaluation as another post-reading strategy. Learners compare and question the text information with their prior knowledge of the given topic. They make judgments based on their cultural values and the purpose of reading and question whether the text is presented consistently and logically. The goal is for the readers to recognise relevant and valid information, interpret it and evaluate it. The learners choose the ten most essential words from the text to learn this strategy and explain their choice by evaluation. Richards (1997) presents a list of strategies for evaluative reading:

1. Identify the author's purpose in writing the text;
2. Distinguish fact from opinion;
3. Establish the assumptions underlying the text;
4. Note the author's use of language to set tone and register;
5. Are the arguments structured in a step-by-step manner (p. 130-131)?

2.2.4.6 Multiple-strategy

The National Reading Panel concluded that "teaching of a variety of reading comprehension strategies leads to a specific transfer of learning, increased retention and understanding of new passages, and in some cases, to general improvements in comprehension" (2000, p. 4-6). A common aspect was the active involvement of learners who read more due to multiple-strategy use. Multiple-strategy teaching is very effective when the learner and the teacher practise the strategies correctly. The National Reading Panel reviewed 11 studies. The main combinations of strategies were: question generation, summarization, clarification, and prediction of what might occur (2000, p. 4-46).

Skilled reading involves the use of several reading strategies simultaneously. Readers learn these strategies separately, but they should combine predicting and inferencing word meaning and activating schemata for better comprehension when reading a text. Anderson (1999) suggests the following techniques when teaching reading:

1. The teacher reads aloud and thinks aloud, reporting what is going on in his/her mind. Learners follow the text silently, adding their thoughts at the end of the reading.
2. Learners work in groups practising thinking aloud. They verbalise their thoughts and strategies used during the reading.

3. Learners read silently, monitoring the reading. Subsequently, they work with a partner and express their thoughts (p. 77)

This process teaches learners to be aware of what they are doing while reading and comparing their thoughts with others.

Routman (2003) sees a different group of strategies as the key to reading comprehension. She specifies seven techniques that have a significant influence on reading:

1. Making connections within the text, to another text, from known information to new information, to previous knowledge;
2. Monitoring reading for meaning;
3. Determining what is most important and distinguishing main ideas from details;
4. Visualise, create images of the text;
5. Ask questions of yourself, of the author, of the text;
6. Make inferences, predict, assess what is happening in the text;
7. Synthesise by applying new knowledge to familiar information and generate new ideas (Route, 2003, p. 118).

Hosengeld, Arnold, Kirchofer, Laciura, and Wison (1980 in Hadley, 1993) describe a sequence of seven steps for developing reading strategies:

1. Reader's self-report while reading and attach meaning to an L2 text via a think-aloud strategy.
2. With the help of the reading strategies checklist, learners identify their reading skills.
3. Learners recognise that some strategies are more successful than others by comparing and contrasting them to various reading problems;
4. Learners identify strategies when reading text in L1.
5. Learners parallel the identification of strategies in the L2 text.
6. The teacher provides instruction and practice for specific reading strategies.
7. Learners repeat step 2 and identify their reading strategies (p. 221-222).

Grellet (1981) describes general classroom procedures that are helpful with most texts:

1. Learners read the text as a whole. They make guesses (hypotheses) about the text, who wrote it, who is it for, where it appeared.
2. Learners skim through the text to verify hypotheses. Next, they question themselves about the contents of the text.

3. Learners re-read the text more carefully for better understanding and answering their questions (p. 10-11).

Thomson (1987, in Alderson, 2000, p. 311) lists similar reading strategies to improve reading comprehension. He expands the strategies by generating story-specific schema from the general problem-solving schema for short stories.

2.3 Summary of Chapter 2

To summarise, reading comprehension strategies belong to language learning strategies. They serve as a facilitating tool in reading and help learners to make sense of a text. Typically, comprehension strategies are divided into pre-reading, during reading and post-reading according to reading stages. Pre-reading strategies are prior knowledge activation, semantic maps production, previewing the text to build expectations, sampling and predicting, scanning and skimming. During-reading strategies include building comprehension of the text, non-linguistic responses such as ordering or matching pictures, writing or drawing a story map and linguistic responses to the text. To name a few, reorganising the information and text comparing, annotating the text, interactive read aloud, or self-monitoring are some of the linguistic during-reading strategies. The category of post-reading activities comprises question answering and question generation as the most frequent strategies. The higher-level cognitive strategies are summarising, hypotheses formation and evaluation. Experts agree on using several reading strategies simultaneously in a specific order to improve reading comprehension.

The experts emphasise monitoring and predicting strategies as a tool for learners' independence in reading. The goal is the use of comprehension strategies independently. For learners to read well, it is essential to develop reading skills in stages. The teacher aims to design strategies that meet the purpose of reading with reflection on the reader. Learners' level of L2 proficiency, age, background and prior knowledge must be considered. The teacher should gradually move the learners from observing the teacher modelling the strategy to the teacher guiding and supporting the readers as they practice comprehension reading. The last stage is the learners' independent application of the reading strategies. Routman (2003) concluded that the teachers should "make the strategy a part of our unconscious reading process so that students are able to combine any number of strategies to problem solve before, during, and after they read" (p. 129)

3 Reading comprehension at lower-secondary schools in the Czech Republic

English is getting more important year by year in the Czech Republic. Even though English has been taught as a second language for over three decades, it is spoken mainly in EFL classrooms. The language of instruction stays; in the majority, the Czech and learners seldom get the opportunity to converse in English outside of school. The same is true for English teachers. English is their second language for most of them, and they speak it during their English lessons only. On the other hand, more companies require knowledge of English, at least at the conversational level. The study considers this an appeal to bring forward new, attractive solutions to implement English reading into learners' lives during their lessons and outside the school environment.

3.1 The significance of reading comprehension at lower-secondary school

English is taught in Czech schools three times per week for 45 minutes as a foreign language. When compared to teaching Czech, it is two hours per week less. The English classes do not have separate literature lessons, and therefore reading is not given considerable attention. Experts on second language reading, such as Anderson, Grellet, Alderson, and Krashen, all agree that “reading is the most important skill to master for EFL learners” (Anderson, 1999, p. 1). Krashen adds that reading “is one of the best things a second language acquirer can do to bridge the gap from beginning level to truly advanced levels of language proficiency” (Krashen, 2004, p. x).

Czech classrooms heavily rely on coursebooks, where only a fragment of the time is devoted to reading. With not many opportunities to speak English, reading should be a primary source of learning English. With step-by-step reading guides, learners can become independent readers and increase their chances of reaching language proficiency. The teacher should guide and teach learners how to use reading skills correctly until reading becomes an integrated part of their lives.

3.2 Reading skills in the Czech Framework Educational Programme

The Framework Educational Programme (FEP) centralises the Czech Republic system of education. It is issued by the Ministry of Education and defines initial education as a whole. The educational norms are set for pre-school, primary and secondary education. It serves as an educational basis for the School Education Programme (SEP). Each school has individual schools syllabus. The teacher has his/her autonomy to choose teaching methods as long as the FEP's output is observed.

English is filed in the FEP under the section of Foreign Language and is divided into two sections. The first section specifies the receptive, productive and interactive language skills for elementary school. The second section, for lower-secondary school, has the same division. For each skill, the FEP specifies expected outcomes. Reading is a part of receptive language skills. The strategies named are:

1. Read aloud text of appropriate length and fluency while respecting the pronunciation rules;
2. Understanding the context of a simple text and authentic materials with the use of visual aids;
3. Finding familiar expressions, phrases and answering questions in the text;
4. Inferring the meaning of new words from a context;
5. Using a bilingual and monolingual dictionary to look up the meaning of a word (FEP, 2007, www.msmt.cz).

FES does not specify the coursebooks that are to be used at lower-secondary schools; neither does it mention specific themes for teaching English. The schools decide about choosing the textbooks, the approaches to teaching English and the strategies taught. The teacher has a fundamental role in teaching reading comprehension and responsibility to learners in becoming effective readers.

3.3 Reading skills in the syllabus (SEP) of ZŠ Karla staršího ze Žerotína Bludov and ZŠ Hrušovany nad Jevišovkou

3.3.1 ZŠ Karla staršího ze Žerotína Bludov syllabus

The English course aims to reach level A2 according to the Common European Framework. The subject is taught four times per week for grade 6, and grades 7 to 9 have the frequency of three lessons per week. The syllabus aim is for learners to be able to communicate in English in everyday situations. It stresses the development of communicative skills with correct grammar use. The syllabus names a list of learners' competencies that are supported during the English course. The reading strategies are not specified; however, the school adopts the syllabus for the coursebook Project. Reading comprehension includes these strategies:

1. The learner understands short, simple text from everyday life related to the coursebook topics;
2. Understands the themes and the text's summary;
3. Scans the text for specific information;
4. Understands descriptions of people and places.

3.3.2 ZŠ Hrušovany nad Jevišovkou syllabus

English is taught three times per week, from grade 6 to 9. The English course syllabus follows FEP's division, and it breaks the language skills into receptive, productive, and interactive. It is oriented to learners' communicative skills in everyday situations and their ability to converse with a foreigner on simple topics. The learners are expected to achieve proficiency level A2. Learning English is emphasized as a tool for a successful future carrier. The focus of reading is on text comprehension that is appropriate according to learners' language ability. The strategies employed are detailed in the coursebook syllabus, Bloggers 2 (2019). The learner:

1. Reads aloud with correct phonetics;
2. Scans simple, authentic texts of various topics for specific information;
3. Infers likely meaning of new words for the text context;
4. Understands everyday titles and signs in public places, warnings, prohibitions.

3.4 Reading comprehension in English coursebooks

In general, The Czech lower-secondary schools use coursebooks as an outline for the English syllabus. The research that was done by Bacíková (2016) examined the use of coursebooks at lower-secondary and secondary schools in Pilsen. 76 out of 85 respondents mentioned Project as the coursebook used by their school. The other coursebooks were More!, No Idea, New Challenges. These learning materials aim to appeal to the broadest audience and are therefore designed in a neutral style. The general coursebooks must fit the content of very disparate school syllabuses with varied backgrounds. They share cultural neutrality and social neutrality. The topics should attract learners from countries all over the world and be also gender and class neutral. The methodology must be suitable for the communicative approach and structural, task-based, and lexical. The coursebooks are written with general aims, with language skills balanced accordingly. The designers create a long and broadly based content list to attract learners and teachers. Last but not least, the materials must be easy to use, so even novice or under-skilled teachers can use them (eltconcourse.com).

The downside of such commercially produced coursebooks is that they are predictable, unimpressive, unrealistic, scattered, and irrelevant to the social group. Despite the Projects extensive usage in the Czech Republic, it belongs to commercially produced materials. On the other hand, as a material produced by British Oxford University Press, Project is more suitable for western users, therefore Czech learners. Bloggers, a coursebook series published by the German Klett Gruppe

publishing house, belongs to the same kind of general coursebooks and claims to be a unique project of educational materials adapted for English teaching in agreement with the Czech FEP (klett.cz/bloggers).

3.4.1 Project

Project is a series of monolingual coursebooks written by Tom Hutchinson (2014). According to Oxford University Press, the latest edition, Project fourth edition, offers a full link-up between all levels. Its syllabus is extended to digital form, and learners can practice learning skills online. Short videos, interviews and animated comics are part of the digital version as well. The textbook uses a mixed syllabus design. It includes six chapters with four subchapters and a realia with cultural curiosities at the end of each chapter. Each chapter has a central theme with subthemes or notions included. Different colours mark the four language skills and grammar, which are taught both inductively and deductively. Either pictures or photographs accompany the texts, and new vocabulary is introduced with the help of pictures. At the end of each lesson, a section called *English Across the Curriculum* presents British realia, and the final part revises the chapter and suggests learners project.

Two intensive reading texts are included in one chapter, accompanied by images, comprehension questions, and reading activities such as ordering the sentences according to the story or matching new vocabulary to their meanings. In the back of the book are stories for extensive reading.

Three texts (see Appendices) from Project 2 Fourth edition were chosen to list RCS from the coursebook. These were identified according to Anderson (1999), Grabe (2009), and Grellet (1981).

Text 1: Project 2, Fourth edition, lesson 1, section 1B, page 11, reading and writing.

A picture of a Birthday celebration accompanies the text.

Title: Birthdays in Britain

Instructions:

1. See these dates. Which of the dates is closest to your birthday?
2. When is your birthday? How many people have got a birthday in the same month as you?
3. Read and listen. Find these things in the picture.

4. Read the text again. Answer the questions.
5. Write about how people celebrate birthdays in your country.

Reading comprehension strategies:

1. Activating prior knowledge;
2. Making associations;
3. Reading for gist, picturing the scene;
4. Re-reading, answering questions;
5. Rewriting.

Text 2: Project 2, fourth edition, lesson 2, section 2D, page 26, reading and speaking.

Two photos of meerkats are next to the text.

Title: Meerkats

Instructions:

1. Read the text. What are Azra's favourite animals? Where do they live?
2. Are the statements true or false?
3. Work with a partner. Tell him/her about your favourite animal.

Reading Comprehension Strategies:

1. Reading for gist, scanning the text for information;
2. Distinguishing between opinions and facts;
3. Cooperative work and discussing information not in the text.

Text 3: Project 2, lesson 3, section Culture, page 41.

The text includes four photographs of holiday places from different countries.

Title: Holidays

Instructions:

1. Read and listen to the text. Match these topics to the correct paragraphs.
2. Find these places in the text. Make a list.
3. Look at your list of places. Why do people go to each one?

4. Listen. Find this information about each speaker for summer and winter.
5. Write about holidays in your country. Use the topics from the text.

Strategies:

1. Reading for gist; skimming the text;
2. Scanning the text; note-taking,
3. Understanding the main ideas put forth in the text; inference,
4. Scanning the text; relying on previous knowledge,
5. Rewriting the text; identifying the topic of reading.

3.4.2 Bloggers

Bloggers are a set of coursebooks newly introduced in the Czech market. It fully corresponds to Czech FEP for the teaching of English as a second language. The practical realization of education in Czech schools is considered. The textbooks support authentic materials and a wide range of didactic videos, listening activities, mind maps, picture dictionaries and other playful projects (klett.cz/bloggers). Similarly to Project, the coursebooks comprise six lessons; each is divided into four sections. The chapters have a central theme with subthemes for each section. The colour design focuses on themes and does not distinguish reading skills and systems such as grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. Grammar is taught deductively in the form of tables with grammatical structures. At the end of the chapter, there is a big challenge quiz in which learners assess the language learned. Cultural topics such as traditions and holidays are included last and are not part of the chapters.

Each chapter provides one intensive reading text with photos, pre-reading and post-reading comprehension questions. Further reading texts are added at the end of the coursebook and can be read at any time.

Texts from Bloggers 2 (2019) lesson 0, 1 and 2 were selected for reviewing the RCS.

Text 1: Bloggers 2, lesson 0, section 0D, page 20, reading a leaflet.

The text includes three photos.

Title: An Alternative School

Instructions:

1. Work in pairs. Look at the photos (a-c). Ask and answer the questions.
2. Look up the meaning of the words in a box in the dictionary.

3. Listen to the text. Then read the leaflet in pairs.
4. Work in pairs. Ask and answer the questions.

Strategies:

1. Predicting the content of a text;
2. Expanding the vocabulary;
3. Reading for gist; cooperative work;
4. Cooperative work; answering comprehension questions; scanning the text for specific information.

Text 2: Bloggers 2, lesson 1, section 1D, page 34, read a leaflet. The text is in the form of a flyer.

Title: Sports Day Invitation

Instructions:

1. Work in pairs. Student A: Think of a sport and describe the sport to student B. Don't say the name of the sport! Student B: Guess what the sport is.
2. Listen and then read the text.
3. Work in pairs. Cover the text and correct the sentences below.
4. Work in pairs. Look at the text about Sports Day again. Say the sentences with the correct word. Use the clues.

Strategies:

1. Activating prior knowledge – schemata; Cooperative work;
2. Reading for gist; scanning the text;
3. Completing a document; cooperative work;
4. Re-reading the text; reorganizing the information; completing a document.

Text 3: Bloggers 2, lesson 2, section 2D, page 48, read a recipe.

Title: Breakfast burrito

Instructions:

1. Read a part of the recipe for a burrito. Look up the new vocabulary in a dictionary.

2. Work in pairs. Chris and Tom are making a burrito. Look at their dialogue. Guess the words in the gaps. Write them in your exercise book.
3. Watch the video. Check your guesses from exercise 2.
4. Read the dialogue in pairs.

Strategies:

1. Reading for gist; expanding the vocabulary;
2. Previewing the text to build expectations; inference; cooperative work,
3. Evaluating/repair understanding;
4. Re-reading; cooperative work.

3.4.3 Project 2 and Bloggers 2

Project and Bloggers as a general coursebook follow a similar syllabus structure. The language of instruction is English. Both have a colourful, appealing design, with plenty of pictures, drawings, and photographs. Pictures are used as a vocabulary bank and serve to practice grammar structures learnt. The Project uses pictures and photograph comics to teach language skills, while Bloggers stresses video, mind maps and group discussions. Both coursebooks practice reading skills with various strategies, but their main focus is on pre-reading and during-reading activities. In Project, however, reading skills are implied more systematically due to more reading texts. Two longer intensive texts are in each lesson, with shorter texts, dialogues or comics in four subsections. On the other hand, despite having fewer and shorter texts, Bloggers uses various RCS and readings. It integrates cooperative work with evaluation, but the reading texts are less frequent and shorter.

3.5 RCS in the coursebooks review

RCS used by both coursebooks use a limited range of activities and have a repetitive design. Stressed is reading for gist, scanning, answering comprehension questions, or re-reading the text to reach for information. The post-reading activities include inferencing, rewriting the text or speaking about the text. The coursebooks give more importance to the reading and post-reading part and use activities such as identifying topics, phrases, ordering sentences, matching pictures to paragraphs. Vocabulary is usually pre-taught separately but concerning the text. Only Bloggers includes a dictionary use but does not specify if monolingual or bilingual.

Authorities on second language reading such as Grellet (1981), Richards (1997) or Alderson (2000) stress the importance of teaching the learners to employ their world knowledge and schemata before reading. From post-reading strategies, metacognition occupies a prominent place. The teacher's task is to set a purpose for reading and teach the learners how to preview a text, find keywords and phrases, look for the main ideas, or use context clues. To help learners become independent readers, teachers integrate monitoring reading. By asking questions throughout the reading process and evaluate learners' understanding, they become the scaffold for a successful autonomous reader.

Independent reader who has automated reading skills should become the teachers' goal. To do that, they must teach a diverse range of RCS. To rely only on the coursebook texts strategies is not sufficient. These strategies serve as the base, but additional techniques, mainly higher-level cognitive skills and metacognitive reading skills, are essential.

3.6 Summary of Chapter 3

To summarize, lower-secondary schools ZŠ Karla staršího ze Žerotína Bludov and ZŠ Hrušovany nad Jevišovkou closely follow the Framework Educational Programme. The stress is given to comprehending short text, scanning the text for specific information, reading aloud with correct phonetics, and inferring new words' meaning. Coursebooks used by both schools fall under the category of commercially produced coursebooks. Because they are written for the broadest audience, they comply with social, cultural, gender and class neutrality and are well balanced regarding language skills, grammar and topics. However, the reading strategies employed develop mainly cognitive reading strategies, with almost no importance given to metacognitive skills. The most frequently instructed strategies were reading for gist, skimming, scanning, re-reading, predicting, answering questions and inferring. The experts on reading set as the primary goal on independent reader monitoring his/her reading comprehension. Therefore, they advise teaching higher-level cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

3.7 Implications for the research

Reading is a fundamental skill, and reading in a foreign language is essential to learn that language. Native readers automatically apply a vast amount of reading skills. L2 readers need to learn these skills to become proficient in a foreign language. In Czech, English has been taught for over three decades, and its importance is growing. More stress is given to reaching proficiency level, and

therefore the importance of teaching English is constantly increasing. Reading plays a primary role in learning a language, and reading strategies are a part of mastering it. There are multiple factors influencing reading, such as learners' age, gender, background and culture.

RCS are the study's focus, as they are one of the keys in the reading process and language learning in general. The literature review has provided information on reading comprehension, factors influencing reading comprehension and strategies employed during the three reading stages. This information was needed to get a deeper understanding of the complex reading process. The research aims to investigate the teaching and learning of RCS among Czech teachers and learners at lower-secondary schools. It attempts to provide evidence of the significance and benefit of RCS on reading comprehension among EFL learners. Comparing two coursebooks used at Czech lower-secondary schools pointed to practising numerous reading strategies, focusing on lower-level cognitive reading skills. Nonetheless, Hogan (2011) indicates that "the language skills inferencing, comprehension monitoring, and use of text structure knowledge are critical to successful comprehension (p. 1). The study attempts to reveal what reading strategies are most frequently applied by teachers and learners and whether the lower-level or higher-level cognitive strategies outweighs the other or are in balance.

Summary of the Theoretical Part

The theoretical part aimed to present arguments for teaching reading comprehension with the help of reading strategies. The first chapter focused on factors influencing reading. The teacher should consider learners' social and cultural background, gender and age. Other, no less important factors are L1 reading skills and metacognitive skills. The learners' background knowledge and pre-existing schemata play a significant role in the reading process. The hierarchical schemata arrangement was the base for three reading models: Bottom-up, Top-down and Interactive model. Experts agree that Bottom-up and Top-down co-occur; therefore, the Interactive model process compensates for deficiencies during reading. Reading is approached extensively and intensively. Currently, the intensive approach is being taught in most EFL classrooms. The approach is realized through methods that consist of an ordered sequence reading strategies. Authorities determine different methods, according. For example, Barnitz (1985) presents a variety of methods, emphasizing prior knowledge and schemata. The chapter is concluded with expert's recommendations regarding developing reading skills.

The second chapter discussed the reading comprehension strategies. Rubin (1987) classifies learning strategies into cognitive, metacognitive and communicative. According to the reading stage, reading strategies' primary categorization is pre-reading, during reading, and post-reading. The number of strategies varies for each reading expert. The most critical aspect in teaching RCS is the teacher's instruction. Strategies listed in this study were chosen to develop learners' higher-level cognitive skills and metacognitive skills. The chapter's final part describes the multiple-strategy. The application of several RCS during reading is believed to improve reading comprehension by the authorities.

The third chapter discusses reading comprehension at lower-secondary schools in the Czech Republic. The reading skills mentioned in the Framework Educational Programme are detailed, followed by the reading skills of two School Educational Programmes. Both schools stress the development of communicative skills. The syllabuses come out of the coursebooks. Three coursebook texts for each school are analyzed, and reading strategies are compared. The chapter closes with expert's advice on teaching higher-level cognitive and metacognitive strategies, for they are a key to independent reading.

PRACTICAL PART

4 Research Methodology

The practical part of the thesis presents the study's objectives, followed by the research questions. Next, the choice of a research design and the methodology employed are explained. It is followed by the justification of the research instruments and the population selection. The final part offers the data analysis procedures with its findings.

4.1 Objectives of the study

This case study explores RCS's learning and teaching at Czech lower-secondary schools and investigates the relationship between the teachers' instruction on RCS and learners' application. The focus is on lower-level and higher-level cognitive skills. This paper intends to determine which skills are predominantly taught and learnt and what factors may hinder reading comprehension. Based on the research findings, reading strategies with activities to improve reading comprehension at Czech lower-secondary school are recommended. The research participants are learners and teachers among year 6 to 9 at two Czech lower-secondary schools. A mixed-method approach used in the study allowed comparing and integrating main findings on RCS instruction and application.

4.2 Research questions and assumptions

To better assess reading comprehension among Czech lower-secondary school learners, it is necessary to determine what RCS are being taught and learnt by the teachers and learners. Studies on RCS instructions (Rubin, 1971; Rumelhart, 1977) classified RCS as contributing directly or indirectly to language learning. The research questions intent to investigate the teachers' and learners' attitude towards instruction and practise of reading comprehension strategies.

The research questions:

1. What reading strategies are most frequent with learners at lower-secondary school?
2. How the year of study influences the choice of reading comprehension strategies among learners?
3. What role does gender play in the reading comprehension strategies selection?
4. How the RCS instructed by teachers correlate with the strategies selected by learners?

The learning and teaching of RCS are influenced by background factors such as culture, society, gender, reading abilities, teacher's approach to RCS instruction, and teacher qualification. The research examines the influence of learners' age and gender on reading comprehension and the teachers' approach to teaching RCS.

The research assumptions:

(a) Age, gender, and teacher's approach to teaching RCS affect learners' reading comprehension at Czech lower-secondary schools.

(b) Practising higher-level cognitive skills can improve learners' reading comprehension.

4.3 Research Approaches

There are three approaches to study research: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed (Creswell, 2014). The mixed-method approach was chosen because both qualitative and quantitative data were needed to answer the research questions. The research is primarily descriptive. The classroom observation served to collect qualitative data, and student/teacher questionnaires were utilized for the qualitative research.

Creswell (2014) explains that mixed-method procedures provide different information types: open-ended with the qualitative method and close-ended with the quantitative method. Both data types have its strength and limitation but, when blended, can yield a more robust understanding of the researched problem. This method allows comparing different perspectives of the problem "by first collecting and analyzing qualitative data and then administering the instruments to a sample" (Creswell, 2014, p. 267).

According to Creswell (2014), there are three basic mixed methods designs: convergent parallel, explanatory sequential and exploratory sequential mixed methods design.

In the **convergent parallel mixed method design**, qualitative and quantitative data are collected and analyzed separately. The results are then compared to see if the findings are in agreement or disagreement. The qualitative and quantitative data should provide different types of information. Both data types should use "the same or parallel variables, constructs, or concepts" (Creswell, 2014, p. 269).

The second design, **explanatory sequential mixed method design**, is a two-phase project. The quantitative data are collected in the first phase, and the analyzed data serve for building the second, qualitative phase. The design's aim is for the qualitative data to help explain the quantitative results. The quantitative instrument is usually a questionnaire, and interviews or observations explain the results of the questionnaire.

The **exploratory sequential mixed method design** stands in opposition to the explanatory sequential mixed method design. The qualitative phase precedes the quantitative one. The findings from the qualitative data analyses help to build the second, quantitative, phase. The aim is to develop better measurements and determine whether the qualitative data can be generalized to a larger population sample (Creswell, 2014).

4.4 Research design and instruments

The study adopted **the exploratory sequential mixed method design**: the qualitative data analysis helped build the quantitative instruments. The qualitative phase, classroom observations of learning and teaching of RCS at the Czech lower-secondary school, aided to form the questionnaires for the quantitative phase. The focus during the qualitative phase was on the RCS practised by teachers and learners and how the school environment influences learners. The data analyses became a tool for the second phase of the research carried out by self-report questionnaires. Learners and teachers reported on their use of RCS and their perception of the importance of reading comprehension in learning English.

The data were collected by two instruments. The qualitative phase of the study employed *classroom observation* as an instrument. English reading lessons were recorded in writing and analyzed. The quantitative phase consisted of *self-report questionnaires* for learners and teachers separate.

The self-report questionnaires were adapted from the research: *Learning strategies in reading and writing* (Baker and Boonkit, 2004) and extended with RCS according to Richards (1997), Grellet (1981) and Alderson (2000). The items for both learners and teachers were divided into pre-reading, while reading and post-reading strategies. The questionnaires intent was to find the frequency of learners' and teachers' RCS used at the Czech lower-secondary school. To ensure that the questionnaires' items were comprehensible, they were presented in Czech. Difficult words like scanning, context, deduction were explained in brackets in the student questionnaire.

1. *The student self-report questionnaire* includes two sections. The first section comprises general questions: age, gender, years of learning English and the importance of reading and reading strategies. For the last two questions, the answer is chosen from a scale. The second part inquires learners about their use of English reading comprehension strategies. The Likert scale was used to classify the 30 items on RCS. The learners responded on how true a statement is. The scale responses were: 1. *Never or seldom true of me*; 2. *Usually not true of me*; 3. *Somewhat true of me*; 4. *Usually true of me*; 5. *Always or almost always true of me*.

Items one to seven are related to pre-reading strategies, eight to 23 describe during-reading strategies, and items 24 to 30 contain post-reading strategies. All 30 items gather information on the usage of learning strategies by language learners. The study examines the most frequently used reading strategies for years six, seven, eight and nine at lower-secondary schools. It also compares preferred strategies by gender and differentiates which reading strategy dominates during each of the three reading stages. The student questionnaire is attached in Appendix G.

Oxford (1989), in her research on the use of language learning strategies, has developed a self-report questionnaire, the *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)*. It gathers information on the learners' language strategies use. She (1990) suggested dividing the language learning strategies according to three-level frequency criteria of mean scores. The same division was applied for this study. The reading comprehension strategies were split correspondingly (see Table 1). **High mean scores** refer to learners who always or almost always and usually use the strategy. **Medium mean scores** concerned learners who sometimes applied the strategy, and **low mean scores** related to learners who generally not used and never or rarely used the strategy. The frequency criteria of mean scores were employed for the analysis of the student questionnaire.

Table 1: Oxford (1989) *Criteria of Mean Scores for Language Learning Strategy Use*

Low use	Never or rarely ever used	1.0 to 1.4
	Generally not used	1.5 to 2.4
Medium use	Sometimes used	2.5 to 3.4
High use	Usually used	3.5 to 4.4
	Always or almost always used	4.5 to 5.0

The questionnaire's validity is deduced from Oxford's (1989) and Baker and Boonkit (2004) work. The SILL questionnaire has been used in many studies, with Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient usually ranking above 0.90. In her research, Oxford states that "the overall reliability for the survey is extremely high, 0.95" (1986, p. 32). The student questionnaire is found in appendices (see Appendix I) or as an online version [Student self-report questionnaire](#).

2. *The teacher self-report questionnaire* objective was to investigate the teachers' RCS instruction during English reading classes at the Czech lower-secondary school. The set of 36 questions were compiled partly according to the Baker and Boonkit (2004) and Oxford (1989) research. Based on the works of Richards (1997), Grellet (1981) and Alderson (2000), additional items were added. The questionnaire was written in Czech because English is not the medium of instruction in Czech schools.

There are 36 items on reading strategies using the Likert scale to express the level of agreement. The teachers ranked the reading strategies according to the frequency of their practice. The scale response was: 1. *Never or almost never true of me*; 2. *Usually not true of me*; 3. *Somewhat true of me*; 4. *Usually true of me*; 5. *Always or almost always true of me*.

The teacher questionnaire is classified into three subsections according to the reading strategies based on different reading stages. The pre-reading strategies are named in items one to nine. Items ten to 27 present the during-reading strategies, and 28 to 35 deal with post-reading strategies. Item 36 is an open-ended question. The teachers are asked to write reading strategies they consider best for reading development.

Oxford's (1989) three-level frequency criteria of mean scores division were applied (see Table 1). **High mean scores** refer to teachers who always or almost always and usually teach the strategy. **Medium mean scores** indicated that teachers sometimes practise the strategy, and **low mean scores** refer to teachers who do not use and never or rarely used the strategy.

The collected data provided information on the current trend in teaching RCS at Czech lower-secondary schools in the sample population. The most frequent strategies were determined and categorized according to the three reading stages and the use. The comparison between the RCS taught by teachers and applied by learners was investigated. The teacher questionnaire is available in the section appendices, under Appendix H or in an online version [Teacher self-report questionnaire](#)

3. *Classroom observation* was used as the source of qualitative data collection. Although Griffie (2012) does not consider ordinary observation a consistently reliable source of information,

classroom observation can be used to collect data. Griffiee (2012) defines classroom observation as “the systematic, intentional, and principled looking, recording, and analysis of the results of our observation for the purpose of research (p. 178). Creswell (2014) sees the advantage of classroom observation in recording information about participants’ behaviour or events as they occur.

The classroom observation was utilized in this study to collect data about RCS practice in the English classrooms during reading lessons. Special attention was given to teaching RCS to provide information on the types of RCS used by teachers. The non-participant observation was chosen because, as Creswell mentions (2014), the observer’s role is to visit the site and record notes without involvement in the participants’ activities. The process of observation was done from the broad to narrow perspective (Creswell, 2014). First, the observations noted the general information such as classroom environment, participants, activities, and were followed by noting the teacher’ practice of RCS during the English reading comprehension lessons. As a tool for gathering the classroom observation data, classroom observation field notes were used (see Appendix I).

4.5 Population

In selecting the population, Fowler (2009 in Creswell, 2014) states that “sample size determination relates to the analysis plan for a study” (p. 205). He also suggests estimating the sample percentage that will respond. The 50 per cent response is, according to Fowler (2009 in Creswell, 2014), the most conservative.

For the quantitative part of the research, the study population size needed to be defined. A convenience sample strategy was chosen. Creswell (2014) considers this a less desirable selection process because the participants are selected based on their convenience and availability. The research is limited by participants’ age and their cognitive and foreign language knowledge. Therefore the convenience sample strategy is most suitable. The sample consists of Czech lower-secondary school learners. Primary school learners did not acquire the knowledge of English necessary for successful questionnaire completion yet. The English teachers from addressed schools were part of the study’s quantitative phase and were included in the sample size.

4.6 Sample

The participants selected for the study were lower-secondary school learners and their English teachers. The participants were from two Czech elementary schools, namely ZŠ Karla staršího ze Žerotína Bludov and ZŠ Hrušovany nad Jevišovkou. Altogether, 113 learners took part in the study and eight teachers. Table 2 displays the distribution of learner participants.

Table 2: *Number of Learner Participants at lower-secondary schools*

School name	Year 6	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9	Total
ZŠ Karla staršího ze Žerotína Bludov	32	27	24	16	99
ZŠ Hrušovany nad Jevišovkou	1	0	5	8	14
Total	33	27	29	24	113

The researcher did not mention the participants' name in any part of the study. Before the data collection, permission was obtained from a person in authority to ensure that no ethical boundaries were crossed. The participants of the study were informed about the study's purpose.

4.7 Data collection

The data were collected in two phases. The first phase was qualitative, followed by the quantitative phase (see Table 3).

Table 3: *Phases of the Study*

Phases	Name of the phases	Data collection
Phase 1	Qualitative phase	Classroom observations (n=8)
Phase 2	Quantitative phase	Learner questionnaire (n=113) Teacher questionnaire (n=8)

a) Quantitative: Classroom observation

Four teachers were involved in the classroom observation. Three English reading lessons observations for every teacher were initially planned to make 12 in total, but due to Covid-19, only eight were completed. The observer sat in the back and recorded the lesson's course in writing into the classroom observation field notes (see Appendix I).

b) Qualitative phase: Learner/Teacher questionnaires

The administration of the **learner self-report questionnaire** took place in an online form owing to the pandemic Covid-19. Initially, the learner questionnaires were planned to be undertaken in school under the teachers' supervision. The teachers instructed the learners via the online communication media Zoom and Microsoft Teams under the current situation. The learners were informed about the study's purpose and how to answer the questions correctly. Part of the student self-report questionnaire asked questions regarding the learners' gender, year of study, and years of studying English. A total of 115 questionnaires were collected, and 113 were eligible for the data analysis.

English teachers of both schools were addressed by e-mail to participate in the study. The research was introduced, and the application of the questionnaire was explained. Eight teachers filled the **teacher self-report questionnaire**, and three agreed to instruct their learners and administer the student questionnaires. All teacher questionnaires were suitable for analysis.

4.8 Data analysis

The qualitative and quantitative data were analyzed separately and interlinked for the interpretation of the findings.

a) Classroom observations

The data were recorded in the classroom observation field notes during English lessons. Next, from the data were selected parts focusing on teaching reading comprehension. Reading strategies were identified and compared.

b) Learners self-report questionnaires

The data collected were analyzed in the Microsoft Excel programme. The Cronbach's alpha was calculated to measure the internal consistency of the scale reliability. The data analysis included

calculating descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations, frequency, percentage and ANOVA test to investigate the influence of gender on the RCS selection and the influence of years of study on the RCS use. The reading comprehension strategies were dependent variables, and gender and year of study were independent variables. The aim was to determine if there were significant differences in selecting reading strategies based on the year of study and whether gender played a role in the strategies choice.

c) Teacher self-report questionnaires

The data from the teacher's questionnaire were processed in the Microsoft Excel programme. The Cronbach's alpha was counted to estimate the internal consistency of the scale reliability. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, frequency) were calculated to examine the teachers' reported reading strategies.

4.9 Summary of Chapter 4

To summarise, the chapter discussed the chosen research methodology. First, the objective of the study was stated. It aims to present a set of reading strategies to improve reading comprehension based on the data analysis. The research adopted the exploratory sequential mixed method design, and as a research instrument, the classroom observations and teacher/learner self-report questionnaire were employed. The process of sample selection and data collection was detailed together with the ethical considerations. Lastly, the data analysis methods for each data set were explained.

5 Data findings

This chapter presents the findings from the analysis of the classroom observations and the teacher and student self-report questionnaires that investigated RCS use during the three reading stages: pre-reading, during reading and post-reading at the Czech lower-secondary schools. The classroom observations preceded the self-report questionnaires. The observations were undertaken at ZŠ Karla staršího ze Žerotína Bludov. Four teachers participated in the study. The data from the questionnaires were collected from ZŠ Karla staršího ze Žerotína Bludov and ZŠ Hrušovany nad Jevišovkou. Altogether eight teachers submitted the questionnaire and 113 learners. The self-report questionnaires aim was to investigate the reported frequency of reading strategies for teachers and learners.

5.1 Classroom observations

Classroom observations aim was to investigate the teaching practices regarding reading comprehension instruction during the lessons. The course of the lessons was recorded in the classroom observation field notes. Four teachers were observed twice during their lessons. Altogether eight observations were realized. The focus of the observation was on the reading strategies taught by lower-secondary teachers during English lessons.

From the observation analysis, it was noted that frontal teaching dominated. The most common was classwork, followed by pair work. The teaching was done by transmission. Johnson (2010) defines teaching by transmission as a teacher-centred approach in which “the teacher is the dispenser of knowledge, the arbitrator of truth, and the final evaluator of learning” (p. 1). The knowledge was transmitted in all aspects of teaching the language: the four skills: reading, listening, speaking, writing and also grammar and vocabulary.

The observations had a similar workflow. The teachers did not introduce the reading strategies taught; however, they used instructions to guide the learners before, during or after the reading. The teachers followed the coursebooks according to the year of study (Project 1 to 4). According to the textbook, the readings were carried out; therefore, the book’s reading strategies agreed with the coursebook instructions. Reading comprehension consisted mainly of short texts or dialogues and was accompanied by exercises in the student’s book or workbook.

The reading strategies taught during the reading tasks are presented in Table 4. During all observations, the teachers instructed the learners to read the text and listen to an audio recording simultaneously. The following commonly practised strategy was the topic introduction and reading

aloud. The learners were instructed to read one sentence each. In four out of five cases, reading aloud was accompanied by sentence translation. The teachers asked comprehension questions in three lessons. Pre-teaching key vocabulary, having visual aid (once in the form of pictures and the second time as a video), scanning the text for information and inferencing were used twice. Only once, setting a purpose for reading was provided.

Table 4: *Reading comprehension strategies instructed by teachers during classroom observations*

Strategies Classroom Observation	Pre-teaching key vocabulary	Setting a purpose for reading	Activating prior knowledge	Topic introduction	Visual aid – pictures/ video	Auditory aid - listening	Reading the text for gist	Read aloud	Text translation	Comprehen sion questions answering	Scanning for information	Inferencing
1			•			•	•	•		•		
2				•		•	•			•		
3	•			•		•	•	•	•			
4				•		•	•	•	•			•
5				•		•	•			•	•	
6			•		•	•	•	•	•			
7		•		•		•	•	•	•			
8	•		•		•	•	•				•	•

5.1.1 Activating prior knowledge

Activating prior knowledge strategy aims to access what the learners already know and helps with comprehension by relating the text. The most frequently observed pre-reading strategy was a brief topic introduction. The activating prior knowledge strategy was recorded three times. The teacher asked few questions related to the topic.

Teacher 1 activated prior knowledge for a text *Birthdays in Britain* by asking.

Where do you go to celebrate birthdays? What do you buy? What do you eat? What gifts do you buy?

Teacher 1 activated prior knowledge for a text about clothes.

What is your favourite piece of clothes? What are you wearing? What colour are your clothes?

5.1.2 Pre-teaching key vocabulary

The pre-teaching of key vocabulary facilitates reading by giving the meaning of the text keywords. This strategy was done twice. The reason for not teaching the key vocabulary before reading may have been that the learners already know the vocabulary needed.

Teacher 4 was pre-teaching a key vocabulary of the family members by playing a game.

We'll practice the family members. I'll say the male, and you'll say the female..... you will step on flashcards with the opposite family members.

Teacher 1 asked the learners to listen to the new vocabulary from an audio recording. Next, she pronounced the words, and the learners repeated them.

Open your book on page 12 and repeat after me.

5.1.3 Reading for gist, silent reading

During all observations, the teachers played the audio recording of the text and instructed the learners to follow the text by reading silently. Usually, the teachers played the recording twice. The aim was to read for the main idea and to answer post-reading comprehension questions. In none of the observations, the teacher asked questions before reading. Since the silent reading was done together with listening, the learners could not focus on deeper understanding and text monitoring.

5.1.4. Reading aloud, translation

Reading aloud was done by individual learners during four observations and was always followed by a text translation. The reading was practised with the Round Robin strategy: the learners read the text aloud one by one. The rest of the class followed the text reading silently. The learner reading aloud translated the sentence into L1. The translation L2 to L1 was used by all teachers, even though not for every reading. The translation was done to increase the text understanding, using the lower-level cognitive skills and leaving higher-level reading cognitive skills, such as visualization or text monitoring.

5.1.5 Comprehension questions answering

The most frequent post-reading practice was answering comprehension questions. The teachers asked learners questions about the text they have read to check learners understanding. Teacher 4 played an audio recording of the text in short paragraphs. After each paragraph, she paused the audio recording and asked comprehension question. The learners were answering questions about Chloe's grandfather.

What's his name? When was he born? When did he come to England? What did he do after school? Where did he meet Heather? Where did he work after they got married?

Following two readings about Robot Quasser, teacher 2 played the audio recording in short paragraphs asking comprehension questions after each paragraph.

What's the robot's name? What does the robot do at home? What's the robot's problem?

5.1.6 Scanning

The goal of scanning is to search a text to find specific information quickly and hence improve understanding. It is a post-reading activity and was exercised twice during the observations. Teacher 3 instructed the learners, after reading the text about Carl's life, to decide whether the statements following the text are true, false, or does not say. Learners quickly scanned the text to find the answers to the statements.

Decide if the statements are true, false, or it doesn't say.

Teacher 3 asks the learners to scan the text about jeans to determine for whom the first jeans were made.

Find out for whom the first jeans were made.

5.1.7 Inferencing

Inferencing or drawing the conclusion based on evidence is a higher-order thinking skill and develops a deeper understanding of the text. It was practised by completing the exercises following the text. Teacher 3 asked learners to *answer why did these things happen*. The learners had to infer the answers based on the text: *The story of jeans*. In other classroom observation, the learners read a text about times and places. The teacher asked the learners to match pictures with country names. The learners inferred the country names according to the text and pictures.

The transmission teaching in line with the coursebook limited reading strategies in the classroom. Mainly lower-level cognitive strategies were taught, apart from scanning and inferencing. All the reading activities and reading strategies the learners have done were based on the coursebooks: either the student's book or the workbook. A common practice in teaching reading comprehension was seen during all observations. The strategies applied during reading comprehension left the learners with limited opportunities to be active and control their reading.

5.1.8. Summary of Classroom observations

The analyses of the classroom observations revealed that teachers relied heavily upon the coursebooks. The teaching strictly followed the coursebook curriculum, which may have hindered the

teaching and learning of L2 reading strategies. The teaching was done by transmission between the teacher and the learners, where the teacher’s job is “to supply students with a designated body of knowledge in a predetermined order” (Johnson, 2010, p. 1). This teaching model limits teaching reading strategies in the classroom because mainly lower-level cognitive strategies, such as pre-teaching key vocabulary, reading aloud, or translation, were applied. The predominant strategy was silently reading for gist while listening to the audio recording, followed by comprehension questions and text translation. The higher-level cognitive skills “extract explicit and implicit information from the text and integrate this text-based information with prior knowledge” (Hannon, 2012, p. 125) were not sufficiently taught. Strategies such as inferencing, summarising, prediction, monitoring or linking to prior knowledge should be taught (Grabe, 2009).

5.2 Student self-report questionnaire analysis

5.2.1 General information

One hundred thirteen respondents participated in the study. All of the respondents attend lower-secondary school, grade 6 to 9. Out of the total number were 45 males and 67 females. The number of years the learners studied English corresponded to the year of study. The first year of learning English was in third grade. Therefore, for year 6, the learners have been studying English for three years, and for year 9, it was seven years. The learners answered general questions about reading before the inquiry of the use of RCS.

In reply to the question: *How important is reading?* Thirty-six per cent of all participants perceived reading as *very important* and 57 per cent as *important*. Seven per cent of respondents considered reading *less important*, and zero respondents chose the option *not important*. In general, the learners considered reading as essential to learning English. Table 5 and Figure 2 (see Appendix F) represent the percentages and number of learners who responded to the question: *How important is reading in English?*

Table 5: Learners’ response to the question: *How important is reading in English?*

	<i>Very Important</i>		<i>Important</i>		<i>Less Important</i>		<i>Not Important</i>		<i>Total</i>
All	41	36.28 %	64	56.64 %	8	7.08 %	0	0.00 %	113
Year 6	12	36.36 %	21	63.64 %	0	0.00 %	0	0.00 %	33

Year 7	11	40.74 %	12	44.44 %	4	14.81 %	0	0.00 %	27
Year 8	11	37.93 %	15	51.72 %	3	10.34 %	0	0.00 %	29
Year 9	7	29.17 %	16	66.67 %	1	4.17 %	0	0.00 %	24

The second questions targeted reading comprehension. The learners were asked to answer: *How do you value reading comprehension in English?* The responses varied according to the year of study. Overall, 14 per cent of respondents evaluated reading comprehension as *very easy*, almost 26 per cent as *easy*, nearly half participants evaluated reading as *moderate*, 11 and a half per cent as *difficult*, and less than one per cent as *very difficult*. For year 6, over half of the respondents saw reading comprehension as moderately difficult, which is almost equal to year 7 and 8. Ninth-grade learners seemed to have less trouble reading, for only 33.3 per cent responded to reading comprehension as *moderately difficult*, and 41.7 per cent chose *easy* for their answer. Table 6 and Figure 3 (see Appendix F) below represent the percentage and number of responses in total and separate for each year of study.

Table 6: Response to the question: *How do you rate reading comprehension in English?*

	Very easy		Easy		Medium		Difficult		Very Difficult		Total
All	16	14.16 %	29	25.66 %	54	47.79 %	13	11.50 %	1	0.88 %	113
Year 6	7	21.21 %	7	21.21 %	17	51.52 %	2	6.06 %	0	0.00 %	33
Year 7	3	11.11 %	6	22.22 %	14	51.85 %	3	11.11 %	1	3.70 %	27
Year 8	3	10.34 %	6	20.69 %	15	51.72 %	5	17.24 %	0	0.00 %	29
Year 9	3	12.50 %	10	41.67 %	8	33.33 %	3	12.50 %	0	0.00 %	24

5.2.2 Reading Comprehension Strategies

For the internal consistency measure of the reading comprehension strategy scales, Cronbach's alpha was calculated. The coefficient for all the items was 0.86, which fell into the category of internal consistency evaluated as *good*.

The learners' data were analyzed to evaluate the RCS used while reading English texts by calculating the means and standard deviation. The strategies were sectioned according to the means scores to high use, medium and low use. All 30 reading strategies were ranked according to the mean scores for all years of study, and each grade separate. The top 10 strategies for all years of study were organized into a table and graph compared to individual years. Next, the RCS were divided according to the part of the reading: pre-reading, during reading and post-reading. The percentages for each

reading part were calculated for all and each year of study. The data were compared between the years of study. Lastly, the study investigated the use of RCS based on gender. The relation to gender and RCS preference was analyzed.

5.2.2.1 Learners' reported RCS regardless of the year of study and gender

Table 7 (see Appendix F) displays the evaluation of RCS by learners' regardless of the year of study and gender. The strategies ranking was based on the means score of the Likert scale. Seven items were in the high-use category. Four items were pre-reading strategies, and three were during-reading. The first three strategies were for pre-reading. Number one item marked by the learners was: *I read the first sentence of the text*. This item was followed by *I look at the pictures of the text*, and as the third most frequent strategy, the learners selected: *I read the heading of the text*. Compared to the teacher self-report questionnaire (see Appendix G, Table 13), previewing the pictures and reading the heading of the text to predict the text content were not ranked that highly. The classroom observation showed that learners were not in most cases directly instructed to look at the pictures or read the heading of the text.

The following two during-reading items were *I use world knowledge for text comprehension*, and *I translate the text sentences for better understanding*. Using world knowledge to comprehend a text is a reading strategy recommended by many experts (Richards, 1997; Anderson, 1991). The learners ranked this strategy in fourth place. The high use of the world knowledge technique corresponds with the classroom observation findings. The strategy is based on the learners' using their world knowledge and schemata. The high ranking corresponds to the teachers' number four strategy: *I ask learners warm-up questions related to the text before reading*. The fifth top strategy, *I translate the text sentences for better understanding*, correlates to the second most frequently observed method - text translation. This item is related to item 12 (*I try to understand every word in the text for better comprehension*), ranked seventh. The high grading correlates to the learners' text translation. They are taught to translate each sentence of the text. Therefore they assume that for better understanding, it is necessary to translate each word. This finding also highlights that mostly lower-level cognitive skills are taught, leaving out strategies such as prediction (rank 19), taking notes (rank 30), deduction (17) and discussion (26), which aim to develop higher-order thinking skills.

Guessing the word meaning, also called inferencing, is categorized as during reading strategy. It has reached ninth place. The learners were asked if they *guess the meaning of the words from the text context*. Inferencing exercises were noted during two observations. Also, the analysis of texts (see chapter 3.5.1) showed that the inferencing technique was included in two activities. This finding is also

in agreement with the teacher questionnaire. The teachers rated the strategy (*I teach the learners how to guess the meaning of unknown words*) in fourth place, as well as setting a purpose for reading and asking pre-reading questions.

The scanning and skimming techniques reached 14th and 15th place in the questionnaire. Although both strategies were practised in the Project 2 coursebook, learners did not identify them as high-use. During the classroom observations, the teachers did not use specific instructions for scanning or skimming the text. Also, pre-setting questions before reading was not observed. Therefore the learners may not have fully understood the meaning of scanning and skimming. The teachers preferred post-reading comprehension questions followed by reading. However, scanning and skimming were comprised in the coursebook reading texts.

In the eighth place came a post-reading strategy: *I read the text twice for better understanding*. It corresponds to the teachers' item number 12: *I ask the learners to read the text more than once*. The teachers ranked the item as high use with the fourth highest mean score. In agreement are the observations because all texts were read twice together with audio recording. As the tenth strategy was evaluated: *I read the text slowly to answer questions*. The questions can be set before or after reading. Accordingly, the strategy is categorized as during or post-reading. Provided that the teachers' number two strategy was to *ask comprehension questions after reading*, the learners more likely identified the item as post-reading. Underneath, Table 8 and Figure 4 (see Appendix F) display the top ten RCS compared between individual years of study and years combined.

Table 8: Top ten RCS for all years of study in comparison to individual year

Subscale	Strategy Item	RCS Descriptor	Rank		Rank			
			All Years	Mean	Year 6	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9
Pre-reading	3	I read the first sentence of the text.	1	4.407	4	1	1	1
Pre-reading	2	I look at the pictures of the text.	2	4.336	1	2	2	2
Pre-reading	1	I read the heading of the text.	3	4.053	2	4	3	3
During reading	15	I use world knowledge for text comprehension.	4	3.929	6	5	4	4
During reading	9	I translate the text sentences for better understanding.	5	3.805	3	6	7	7

Pre-reading	4	I read the first sentence of each passage.	6	3681	11	3	8	6
During reading	12	I try to understand every word in the text for better comprehension.	7	3.681	5	7	9	8
Post-reading	27	I read the text twice for better understanding.	8	3.469	7	17	5	16
During reading	19	I guess the meaning of words from the text context.	9	3.425	15	10	6	5
During reading	17	I read the text slowly to answer questions.	10	3.372	10	8	10	19

5.2.2.2 Learners' reported RCS by year of study

The research investigated whether the year of study affected the choice of RCS. The data from the student self-report questionnaires were analyzed using the multivariate analysis of variance MANOVA (statistics-help-for-students.com). The independent variable was the learners' year of study, and the dependent variable was the learners' responses to the questionnaire. The result for P-Value was 0.64, meaning that the differences between the means of learners' responses and the means of the year of study were not statistically significant. Any difference between the means is likely due to chance.

However, the learners' choices of RCS between the four grades can be analyzed from the viewpoint of Piaget's theory of cognitive development. His theory suggests that children move through four different stages of mental development. The focus is on how children acquire knowledge and intelligence (Simatwa, 2010). Learners of lower-secondary school fall into two categories: The concrete operational stage (age 7-11) and the formal operational stage (age 12-15). Learners' thinking becomes more logical and organized during the concrete operational stage but is still very concrete and literal. They need concrete materials and the opportunity to speak. Sixth-grade learners belong to this stage. From the seventh grade, learners, now adolescents, begin to think abstractly, reason about hypothetical problems and use deductive reasoning (Simatwa, 2010).

In Table 8, the pre-reading strategy *I read the first sentence of the text* was number one for years 7, 8, and 9. However, sixth-grade ranked this strategy as fourth. Item number one was *I look at the pictures of the text*. It clearly shows that the sixth graders prefer a concrete picture over a sentence that may not evoke a specific image. The effect of cognitive development can be seen in item 15 (*I use world knowledge for text comprehension*). The sixth-grade learners rated the strategy as sixth, seventh grade as fifth and years 8 and 9 placed it in fourth place. Using world knowledge to comprehend a text

requires drawing on the learners' schemata, which is an abstract operation. While sixth-grade learners considered the strategy as significant, they preferred techniques *I look at the picture of the text* (first place), *I read the heading of the text* (second place), *I translate the text sentences for better understanding* (third place), *I read the first sentence of the text* (fourth place), and *I try to understand every word in the text for better comprehension* (fifth place). The literal thinking of the concrete operational stage is seen in all these strategies, especially the text sentences translation and the need to understand every word. In comparison, year 7 and 8 ranked the translation of text sentences as seventh, four ranks lower.

An example of a formal operational stage is item 19 (*I guess the meaning of words from the text content*). This strategy requires higher cognitive skills such as deductive reasoning. Sixth-grade learners do not have yet developed a deductive approach; instead, they reason inductively. Therefore they ranked this strategy in 15th place; the seventh-graders evaluated the strategy as tenth. The eighth-graders as sixth and the ninth-graders rated the strategy in fifth place. The questionnaire also pointed out that instead of quick scanning (rank 14), the learners preferred slowly reading the text to answer questions. Nevertheless, while years 6 to 8 rated the strategy tenth, eighth, and tenth, grade 9 evaluated it as 19th. The ability to make hypotheses and think deductively in the formal operational stage makes it easier for the ninth grade to scan or skim.

Items number four (*I read the first sentence of each passage*) and number 27 (*I read the text twice for better understanding*) appear inconsistent. However, other factors apart from learners' cognitive development may influence learning. Seventh grade rated highly item four (*I read the first sentence of each passage*) as a pre-reading strategy. Sixth grade marked this procedure in 11th place and seven-graders as eighth. The reason may be the beginning of adolescence, therefore giving preference to predicting the text context before reading. In accord with this statement goes the low ranking (rank 17) of the strategy: *I read the text twice for better understanding* in grade 7. Not surprisingly, the sixth grade placed the strategy in seventh place, proving that the deduction reasoning is still not operating. The high rating (rank 5) by eighth-grade learners stands out as an anomaly. Other factors, such as personality, the ratio of females to males, could have played a role.

Overall, the consistency of the student questionnaire rating is evident, having only a few dissimilarities. Piaget's theory of cognitive development has been widely implicated. This analysis verified the necessity to differentiate in the strategy use regarding the cognitive stages and the learners operating development.

5.2.2.3 Learners' reported RCS by gender

The study investigated whether the gender factor influences the use of RCS. The data from student self-report questionnaires were analyzed with the ANOVA one way variance test. The independent variable was the learners' gender, and the dependent variable was the RCS selection based on the Likert scale. The P-value reached 0.38, which is greater than the significant level ($\alpha = 0.05$), meaning that the means between the two values are not statistically significant. This finding verifies that the questionnaire has enough power to detect a practically significant difference (statistics-help-for-students.com).

Table 9: *Top ten RCS for all years of study in comparison to gender*

	Subscale	Strategy Item	RCS Descriptor	Rank	Mean	Man	Woman
High use	Pre-reading	3	I read the first sentence of the text.	1	4.407	1	2
High use	Pre-reading	2	I look at the pictures of the text.	2	4.336	2	1
High use	Pre-reading	1	I read the heading of the text.	3	4.053	3	3
High use	During reading	15	I use world knowledge for text comprehension.	4	3.929	5	4
High use	During reading	9	I translate the text sentences for better understanding.	5	3.805	6	5
High use	Pre-reading	4	I read the first sentence of each passage.	6	3.681	4	9
High use	During reading	12	I try to understand every word in the text for better comprehension.	7	3.681	7	7
Medium use	Post-reading	27	I read the text twice for better understanding.	8	3.469	17	6
Medium use	During reading	19	I guess the meaning of words from the text context.	9	3.425	14	8
Medium use	During reading	17	I read the text slowly to answer questions.	10	3.372	12	10

Table 9 and Figure 5 (see Appendix F) introduce the TOP 10 ranked RCS compared to male and female learners and overall rank for all years of study. The first five high-use RCS showed no significant difference between the genders. Item 1 (*I read the heading of the text*) and item 12 (*I try to*

understand every word in the text for better comprehension) are the same rank (third place and seventhth place, respectively) for both genders. On the contrary, the strategy *I read the text twice for better understanding* displayed a considerable difference between the genders. The female learners rated the strategy in sixth place, while the male learners in 14th place. This contrast can be explained by research on *Gender Differences in Reading and Writing Achievement* (Reilly, 2019). Reilly suggests that psychological factors, like girls' tendency to develop self-awareness and relationship skills earlier than boys, could play a role. He advises equipping school libraries with non-fiction or comics books that boys are drawn to. The coursebook reading texts are likely not attractive for the male learners, and therefore their effort to re-read the text is low. Research on gender differences in reading habits (Uusen, 2012) showed that boys read less classical literature voluntarily and spend less time reading. This finding supports the low strategy ranking. Re-reading a text may be uninteresting or unnecessary for male learners.

Another strategy with significant distinction was item 4 (*I read the first sentence of each passage*). It is used during the pre-reading stage and helps learners to focus their attention on what they can tell about the text and make predictions. While the female learners ranked the strategy in ninth place, the male learners evaluated it fourth. The explanation of the different usage of this strategy can lie in that female learners prefer to reassure themselves about their comprehension. In contrast, the male learners prioritize making predictions based on reading the initial paragraphs' sentence. Research on a *Gender difference in early learning strategies* (Price-Mohr, 2016) suggests that girls are more likely to perform well in passage comprehension regardless of the content, whilst boys are more likely to perform better if the passage is meaningful. The gender differences in learning strategies suggest that girls used synthetic-phonics strategies, thus doing word-reading more often than boys, who read a text for comprehension (Price-Mohr, 2016). The research findings also correspond with the practice of the female learners to read the text twice, contrary to male learners.

A surprising result had item 19 (*I guess the meaning of words from the text context*). The male learners rated the item in 14th place, whereas the female learners in eighth place. Based on the previous description of gender difference in reading strategies, the expected result for this strategy should be contrary. The male learners' preference for comprehension reading suggests their guessing words meaning from the context. Simultaneously, the females' assurance of the words' meaning indicates an inclination to look up the unknown word in the dictionary.

To summarise, the difference in RCS use between male and female learners is evident in three items in the top 10 strategies of the student questionnaire. Research on gender disparity shows that male learners need to read a meaningful text of their liking with the preference given to

comprehension. On the other hand, female learners are likely to perform well in passage comprehension regardless of context, doing word reading.

5.2.2.4 Reading stages reported by student/teacher self-report questionnaires

The three-phase approach to reading was analyzed by comparing the RCS according to the reading stage. The high-use RCS were sorted by the pre-reading, during-reading and post-reading stage for each year of study. The percentages for the three stages were compared between the years 6 to 9. Next, the reading stages were contrasted amid learners and teachers based on the RCS as high-use, medium and low-use. Table 10 and Figure 6 (see Appendix F) present the three reading stages.

Table 10: *The reading stages comparison for all years of study for top 10 strategies*

Year 6				Year 7			
Subscale	Number of responses	Percentage of grade 6 responses	Item	Subscale	Number of responses	Percentage of grade 6 responses	Item
Pre-reading	3	9.091	2, 1, 3,	Pre-reading	4	14.815	3, 2, 4, 1
During reading	3	9.091	9, 12, 15,	During reading	3	11.111	15, 9, 12
Post-reading	3	9.091	27, 29, 26,	Post-reading	0	0.000	
Year 8				Year 9			
Subscale	Number of responses	Percentage of grade 6 responses	Item	Subscale	Number of responses	Percentage of grade 6 responses	Item
Pre-reading	5	17.241	3, 2, 1, 4, 7	Pre-reading	4	16.667	3, 2, 1, 4
During reading	6	20.690	15, 19, 9, 12, 17, 16	During reading	4	16.667	15, 19, 9, 12
Post-reading	1	3.448	27	Post-reading	0	0.000	

The sixth-graders had reading stages equally balanced, making it nine per cent for each top ten reading stages. In comparison, stand the seventh and ninth grades. Both years of study had no post-reading strategies marked as high-use. However, the years varied in the percentages of pre-reading and during reading stages. The highest percentages of high-use strategies had the eighth grade. The class

reached 41.4 per cent for all three stages, while the sixth grade total was 27.3 per cent, the seventh grade was 25.9 per cent, and the ninth grade was 33.3 per cent. The high score of year eight can be caused by the learners moving into the next developmental stage. The border of adolescence is 12 years. Most eighth grade learners reach the age of 13. They have already partly adjusted to the abrupt changes in their bodies and thinking, and their cognitive and language abilities are well developed. Another aspect of this developmental period is egocentrism and emancipation. The learners seek to prove themselves, and their readiness to learn is high (Bastable & Dart, 2007).

Sixth graders ranked as high use only nine per cent for the pre-reading stage. For year seven, the percentages for pre-reading strategies were 14.8; the ninth grade reached 16.6 per cent. The eighth grade had the highest – 17.2 per cent. The pre-reading stage for the high-use strategies reached 57.8 per cent for all years of study. All four years of study selected items one, two, three and four, apart from the sixth grade, which did not select item four as high use. The item's order was different for each year. These strategies were; namely: *I read the heading of the text, I look at the text pictures, and I read the first sentence of the text, I read the first sentence of each passage.* Eighth grade had an additional item, item seven (*I read the text questions before reading the text*), named. Only the eighth grade seems to use the higher-level cognitive skills because the purpose of pre-reading the text questions is to scan the text instead of reading it word by word. The reasons for higher-level cognitive strategies selection may be the changes mentioned above in the learners' development or different teacher's instruction on reading from other years of study.

The during-reading stage reached for all years of study almost the exact percentages as the pre-reading stage (57.6 %). The lowest representation had the sixth grade – nine per cent. The seventh grade reached 11.1 per cent, the eighth grade was dominant with 20.7 per cent, and the ninth grade followed with 16.6 per cent. The eighth grade was again leading in the number of strategies. All years agreed on items 9, 12, and 15 (*I translate the text sentence for better understanding, I try to understand every word in the text for better comprehension, I use world knowledge for text comprehension*). The order of the items was different for each year. The sixth graders ranked as most important the translation of text sentences, while the seventh graders evaluated the use of world knowledge as crucial. The eighth and ninth grades agreed with year seven. Piaget's theory of cognitive development proves the selection choice of the sixth graders. They fall under the concrete operational stage, and therefore their need to translate sentences for better understanding is explained. The rest of the learners rely upon their world knowledge during reading for better comprehension.

The second item of the sixth graders was item 12 (*I try to understand every word in the text for better understanding*). The learners' need to decode the meaning of every word corresponds with the

concrete operational stage. Eighth and ninth graders further selected items 19, 17, and 16 (*I guess the meaning of words from the text context, I read the text slowly to answer questions, I scan the text to answer questions*). Guessing the meaning of words from the context belongs to the higher-level cognitive skills because the learners guess the word meaning by determining the part of the speech the word belongs to, the grammar and the surrounding context. Only the eighth graders picked item 16 as a high-use strategy. Scanning is rapid reading in order to find specific information. The item selection agrees with the pre-reading item seven (*I read the text questions before reading the text*). As explained above, the higher use of upper-cognitive skills can relate to the developmental learners' stage or the teacher's practice of teaching reading strategies.

The post-reading strategies were selected as high use the least among all years of study. Year six and eight specified the use of the post-reading stage with 12.5 per cent, and year seven and nine did not select any post-reading strategy. Six graders named items 27, 29, 26 (*I read the text twice for better understanding, I apply the knowledge from the text in my daily activities, I re-read the text parts I do not understand*) in respective order. The eighth-graders identified only item 27. Based on the classroom observations, this strategy was practised with all years of study during their readings. The reason why only sixth and eighth-graders marked this item implies that most learners were ranking the strategies according to the way they read a text independently of the teacher. Item 26 (*I re-read the text parts I do not understand*) chosen as a high-use strategy for year six correlates to the learner' selection of pre-reading and during reading strategies. It is an effective strategy to improve comprehension. By re-reading text parts, the learners become aware of new comprehension that did not occur before. The text can be looked at from different viewpoints depending on the purpose. The learners re-read part of the text to search for specific information or learn monitoring by comparing initial reading to re-reading (Bears, 2003).

The overall finding shows that year six identified as high-use reading strategies largely lower-level cognitive skills that depend on decoding words and sentences. The sixth graders had a balanced division between all reading stages in comparison to year seven and nine. As most effective in practising all three reading stages were the eighth graders. Higher-level cognitive skills were seen in all three reading stages, but the lower-level cognitive skills dominated. Although the number of learners for each year was proportioned, the eighth-graders have shown an increased practice of higher-level cognitive strategies.

Table 11 and 12 compare the high, medium and low use of the three reading stages between the learners and the teachers.

Table 11: *The percentages of reading stages according to the frequency for all four grades*

		<i>Pre-reading</i>	<i>During reading</i>	<i>Post-reading</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>High use</i>	<i>Items</i>	4	3	0	7
	<i>Percentage</i>	57.14	42.86	0.00	
<i>Medium use</i>	<i>Items</i>	2	11	4	17
	<i>Percentage</i>	11.76	64.71	23.53	
<i>Low use</i>	<i>Items</i>	1	2	3	6
	<i>Percentage</i>	16.67	33.33	50.00	

Table 12: *The percentages of reading stages according to the used for teachers*

		<i>Pre-reading</i>	<i>During reading</i>	<i>Post-reading</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>High use</i>	<i>Items</i>	5	9	6	20
	<i>Percentage</i>	25	45	30	
<i>Medium use</i>	<i>Items</i>	4	4	2	10
	<i>Percentage</i>	40	40	20	
<i>Low use</i>	<i>Items</i>	0	0	0	0
	<i>Percentage</i>	-	-	-	

The high use reading stages for learners were presented by pre-reading (57.14 %) and during reading (42.86 %) strategies. The post-reading strategies were not represented in the high use post-reading stage. Compared to the teachers' reported high use strategies, there is a substantial difference. Twenty-five per cent of teachers evaluated the pre-reading stage as high use. The during-reading stage was marked at 45 per cent, and the post-reading stage was estimated at 30 per cent. The discrepancy between the pre-reading and the post-reading stages was significant. While the teachers do not give the pre-reading strategies that much importance, the learners see the pre-reading stage as vital. Even bigger imbalance presented the post-reading stage. The learners ranked the post-reading strategies below the high use level, but the teachers prefer post-reading strategies over pre-reading ones.

All three reading stages were represented for the medium use reading strategies by learners. The pre-reading stage made up only 11.76 per cent, while the during-reading stage reached 64.71 per cent, making it the most often ranked reading stage. The post-reading strategies ended up with 23.53. Teachers' medium use of reading stages showed balanced pre-reading and during-reading stages, both ranked by 40 per cent. Post-reading made up 20 per cent only. This finding shows that teachers

consider post-reading strategies more significant than learners do. However, it is the overall least valued reading stage. The reason may be learners' struggle with the application of post-reading strategies to the text. Therefore for both the learners and the teachers post-reading stage appears to be the least meaningful. This finding points to the lack of development of higher-level cognitive skills and higher-order thinking skills. The reason may be that apart from scanning, skimming and monitoring, most higher-order thinking skills are post-reading strategies. The problem can be caused by teachers' difficulties teaching post-reading strategies. Summarising, graphic organizers, discussions and also monitoring require the teacher to model the strategy several times. It is a generally lengthy process until learners can practice the strategies independently.

The low use reading stages were evaluated only by the learners. The teachers selected no reading strategy as low use. The pre-reading strategies represented 16.67 per cent, the during-reading stage made up 33.3 per cent, and the post-reading stage was rated as low use by half of the learners. This supports the evidence that the learners prefer to use pre-reading strategies over reading strategies and the least used ones are the post-reading strategies. The post-reading strategies choice was not referring to higher-order thinking skills but was based on the items selection aiming to increase reading comprehension by re-reading the text or part of the text.

5.2.2.5 Summary of Reading Comprehension Strategies

The analysis of the student self-report questionnaires revealed the dominant use of lower-level cognitive strategies. As most frequently applied reading comprehension strategies were: *looking at pictures, reading the text heading, reading the first sentence of the text and the first sentence of each passage*. These strategies were followed by *translating the sentences, trying to understand each word, reading the text twice, and using key vocabulary for better understanding*. Only one higher-level cognitive strategy was categorized as high use – using the world knowledge. Guessing the meaning of the words, scanning, skimming, inference, summarising and prediction were rated as medium use. Among low-use strategies were lower-cognitive and higher-cognitive strategies such as dictionary use, discussion, setting the purpose, taking notes, underlining or highlighting.

The analysis comparing the RCS use between the grades uncovered a predominant use of lower-level cognitive strategies among sixth-graders. In contrast, older learners, especially eighth-graders, showed a significant increase in the higher-level cognitive strategies. When the gender was contrasted, regardless of the year of study, male learners appeared to comprehend a text as a whole, and female learners read the text based on decoding. The study compared the three reading stages between the learners and teachers. Pre-reading and during reading strategies were primarily selected by

the learners. Year seven and nine did not choose any post-reading strategy as high use. The teachers' selection of post-reading strategies was considerably higher.

5.3 Teachers' reported RCS

Table 13 (see Appendix G) analyses the teacher self-report questionnaires by counting the means score for each item and dividing the Likert scale into three sections based on the mean score as high use, medium use or low use. All items belonged to the three reading stages: pre-reading, during reading, post-reading. On account of a small sample, many items had equal means. Items seven, 14 and 34 received a mean score of 4. The mean score for items 10, 15 and 33 was 3.875. Reading strategies with numbers three and 21 had a mean score of 3.625. For items two, 11, 18, 19 and 29, it was 3.5. All of these items belonged according to the mean scores categorization to the high use strategies. The medium use strategies with equal mean score were items four, five, 23 and 32, with the mean value of 3.25. Lastly, the mean score of items six, eight and 26 was 3. The rest of the items' mean scores varied. There was no item in the low use strategies range.

The strategy with the highest mean score was item 35 (*I phrase the learners often and motivate them to independent reading*). Although the item is categorized under the post-reading stage, phrasing and motivating learners should be ongoing throughout the lesson. During the classroom observations, the learners were often praised with encouraging phrases *Good job! Well done! Excellent!* The teachers ranked second a post-reading strategy (*I ask the learners after reading comprehension questions*). Asking comprehension questions was the most commonly observed practice. Teachers usually asked comprehension questions about the text. The learners also answered questions from the coursebook as a post-reading exercise. This strategy relates to the student questionnaire item 17 (*I read the text slowly to answer questions*), which ranked tenth. The strategy was evaluated as a medium use because the learners selected high-use items predominantly lower-level cognitive strategies. Thus, answering comprehension questions was not as significant for the learners' text comprehension as it was for the teachers.

In third place with the mean score of 4 were four items: one, seven, 14 and 34 (*I set a purpose for reading, I ask the learners warm-up questions related to the text before reading, I teach the learners how to guess the meaning of unknown words, I ask the learners to interpret the text after reading*). Setting a purpose for reading is not in agreement with the classroom observations. The teachers used this strategy only once during eight observations. However, the topic introduction was

observed five times out of eight. The explanation for this disparity can be that the teachers mistook setting a purpose for reading with the topic introduction.

Asking learners warm-up questions related to the text before reading (item seven) ranked the same as item one. The strategy was observed in two teachers, although the questions were general, related more to the topic than asking specific questions to scan the text. The same mean score had item 14 (*I teach the learners how to guess the meaning of unknown words*). The strategy correlates to student questionnaire item 19 (*I guess the meaning of words from the text context*). Although the learners evaluated the strategy in ninth place, it was the first higher-level cognitive strategy selected by learners. The teachers ranked equally a post-reading strategy: *I ask the learners to interpret the text after reading*. Depending on how the text interpretation is practised, it can range from higher-level cognitive use to higher-order thinking skills. The level of the strategy depends on the individual teacher. The teachers did not use this strategy during the classroom observations.

Next, high use during reading strategy was selected item 10 (*During reading, learners can use a bilingual or monolingual dictionary*). Compared to the learners' item 20 and 21 (*I use a Czech-English bilingual dictionary, and I use a monolingual English dictionary if I do not know the word*), there was a considerable difference. The learners rated item 20 as medium use (21st place) and item 21 as low use (29th place). The discrepancy can be attributed to when the learners use the dictionary: at school, during English lessons or at home. Coursebook Bloggers 2 mentioned in two out of three analyzed texts a dictionary used as a pre-reading strategy to learn the key vocabulary. However, there was no use of a dictionary noted during the classroom observations.

Same as item 10 was ranked item 33, a post-reading strategy (*I instruct the learners on follow-up activities*). The follow-up activities found in the coursebook involved inferencing, summarising the text, drawing conclusions, and having a discussion with classmates. All strategies develop higher-level cognitive skills. Item 31 (*I ask the learners to summarise the text*) with a mean score of 3.75 and item 29 (*I ask the learners to draw conclusions about the text*) with a mean score of 3.5 were selected by the teachers as high use strategies. Both aim at developing higher-order thinking skills in the learners. The student questionnaire showed that the learners rated text summarising in 18th place, a medium-used strategy. Their lack of confidence to distinguish the main points from the less important ones may explain the learners' struggle with summarising. The analysis of the student questionnaire pointed to the learners' low ranking of higher-order thinking processes, such as prediction, summarising, discussion, or taking note.

Prediction as a pre-reading strategy is mentioned in items three and two (*I ask the learners to look at illustrations/pictures to guess the text content, I ask the learners to read the title and predict the text content*). Both rated as high use strategies, although item three reached the mean score of 3.625 and item two followed with the mean score of 3.5, which is the borderline between high use and medium use. The learners rating for pre-reading prediction (item 5: *I try to predict what the text is about*) reached the mean score of 3.035, rank 19, falling under the medium use strategy. Nevertheless, the other two prediction strategies were rated by learners in 23rd and 24th place, which points to low use of prediction during text monitoring. This finding corresponds to teachers' weak response to item 23 (*I ask the learners to visualize what they are reading*) with a mean score of 3.25. During visualization, the teacher guides the learners to create a mental picture based on the text read. The learners make connections and pay attention to details. As a result, text comprehension increases. As a higher-order thinking skill, this strategy requires teachers' modelling and teaching in steps with guidance. Much practice is needed until the learners can proceed with visualization successfully. The time required may be discouraging to teach this strategy.

Discussion and note-taking are other higher-order thinking strategies that show a disproportion between the teacher and student questionnaire. While the teachers rated item 30 (*I ask the learners to discuss the main text ideas after reading*) as a medium use, the learners rated item 25 (*I discuss text comprehension with my classmate*) as a low use, ranking in 26th place. The finding could be interpreted as learners' unwillingness to participate in the discussion or uneasiness during the activity. Discussion on text comprehension requires that the teacher monitors the learners working in pairs or small groups, and providing feedback is essential. If the learners do not receive enough guidance, they may lose interest in this activity.

The teachers evaluated note-taking (item 19) as a high use strategy (mean score of 3.5), while the learners ranked the strategy (item 14) in the last place. The disparity of the strategy is the largest among all. Possible interpretation can be a distinct understanding of the strategy's use. During the classroom observations, note-taking was not detected and neither in the coursebook texts. However, as another high-order thinking skills, note-taking is a strategic activity where the learner focuses on organizing information, distinguishing important and less important facts, focusing on detail, and monitoring thoughts. The implementation of the strategy is beneficial for learners' overall skills development.

Lastly, the dissimilarity between the teacher questionnaires analysis and the classroom observation has appeared in item 25 (*I have the learners read the text aloud one at a time*). Although the teachers rated the reading aloud strategy as medium with the mean score of 3, the second-lowest

mean, during the observations, reading aloud, one learner a time, was noted five times out of eight. As mentioned previously, the strategy was followed by the translation of the sentence read. Interestingly, item 6 (*I have the learners quickly look over the text before reading*), a pre-reading strategy with the purpose to quickly skim the text to get a general understanding, was evaluated better by the learners (item 8, *I skim the text to understand the main idea*). Even though both items were ranked as medium use, with a slight difference in the mean score, it was the second-lowest mean score for the teachers, while for the student questionnaire, the item ranked 15th place out of 30.

Item 36 was an open-ended question. The teachers were asked to describe what strategies they consider best and most suitable for reading comprehension. The responses varied. None of the eight teachers recommended the same strategy. One teacher did not fill out this item. Between the answers were:

- *Regular reading of short texts in order to get used to reading and working with the text;*
- *suitable and motivational reading;*
- *introducing the text content before reading;*
- *choosing suitable texts even out of the coursebook to be appealing to the learners;*
- *systematic strategies change such as quizzes, prediction, picture work, sequencing passages, discussion;*
- *critical methods;*
- *it depends; the teacher must choose according to the learners' ability and age.*

Motivational reading and choosing a text appealing to the learners require that teachers choose their texts or select relevant texts from the coursebook that fulfil the criteria. Before reading, the introduction of the text content is relevant for the learners to activate their previous knowledge and choose the corresponding schema. The critical methods mentioned are agreeing with the higher-order thinking skills because they both promote active thinking.

5.3.1 Summary of Teachers' reported RCS

The small number of participants aggravated the analysis of the teacher self-report questionnaire. Many items had equal mean scores, making the strategies' ranking not possible. The questionnaire items were compared to the classroom observations and the data from student self-report

questionnaires. From the higher-level cognitive skills, the guessing of the word meaning strategy had the second highest mean score. It was followed by text summarization, note-taking, discussion and visualization. Overall, the lower-level and higher-level cognitive strategies were more balanced than those recorded during classroom observations and those evaluated by the learners.

6 Discussion

This chapter discusses the key findings of the research. First, an overview of the investigation is given, followed by the answers to the research questions. The significance of the study details the most notable findings. Next, the chapter defines the study's limitations. The pedagogical implications suggest teaching practice for the development of RCS with a focus on higher-level cognitive skills. The chapter finishes with a proposition for further research.

6.1 Overview of the investigation

The study investigated the teaching and practice of RCS applied in reading English texts. Mainly, it explored the implementation of RCS by the learners and teachers of the lower-secondary school. In order to answer the research questions, the exploratory sequential mixed method design was adopted. The study involved 113 respondents among the learners from sixth to ninth grade and eight teachers.

The research was conducted in two phases. The first phase consisted of eight classroom observations which were recorded in the classroom observation field notes. During the second phase, the participants were asked to complete a student self-report questionnaire about RCS use. The learner respondents reported their use of RCS when reading English texts. The teachers evaluated their teaching of RCS.

The classroom observations have revealed the teachers' dependence on the English coursebook. The strategies taught agreed with the coursebooks instructions on reading. The dominant pre-reading strategy was the topic introduction, followed by activating prior knowledge. This finding reflected the analysis of the student questionnaires' data. Using world knowledge as a pre-reading strategy ranked in fourth place. The during-reading stage was in the exact order for all teachers. The learners were silently reading and listening to the text's audio recording. In five cases out of eight, it was followed by a read-aloud strategy and text translation. In three cases, the teacher asked comprehension questions after playing the audio recording in paragraphs. Higher-level cognitive strategies, such as inferencing or scanning, were instructed each twice. The overall analysis indicates the stress on lower-level cognitive skills, leaving out processes that develop critical thinking such as monitoring, evaluating and decision making.

Caine and Caine (1997) state that "reflection on one's own processes is the core of high-level thinking" (p. 21). However, by strictly following the coursebook instruction, the skill practice is

limited to having learners answer some questions on the text (Richards, 1997). In order to develop learners' higher-order thinking, the teachers need to extend the range of strategies and possibly alternate the coursebook texts with authentic texts because learners can relate them better to their lives. Authentic texts provide a purpose for reading, and implementing skimming and scanning strategies serves to activate learners' schemata (Berardo, 2006). The classroom observations manifested the lack of instruction and on RCS. Not demonstrating the strategies sufficiently may lead to learners' uneasiness and passivity. For this reason, the teachers need to model each strategy repeatedly until the learners are capable of reading independently.

Key findings of the research pointed to the prevalent use of lower-level cognitive strategies, especially in the sixth grade. The sixth graders identified as most frequently used strategies: looking at the pictures, reading the headings and text translation. Higher-level cognitive skills, such as scanning, skimming or summarising, were not identified as high use strategies. This conclusion agrees with the developmental stages of the learners. Bastable & Dart (2007) assert that learners' thinking remains literal with only a vague understanding of abstraction. The developmental process in transition between late childhood and adolescence and, therefore, to the higher-order level of reasoning is seen in the learners' gradual increase of higher-level cognitive skills. For example, the sixth-graders rated *guessing the meaning of words* in 15th place, the seventh-graders in tenth place, the eighth-graders in sixth place and the ninth-graders in fifth place. The result clearly shows the development of abstract thinking. Shang (2007) stresses that developing higher-order thinking skills, especially metacognition, help overcome learners' deficiency in reading English texts. Hence, the teacher's aim in reading comprehension should be to instruct learners on these skills because they teach the learners how to question their assumptions, analyze arguments and evaluate the quality of information (Bensley & Spero, 2014).

The results from the student questionnaire showed a lack of post-reading strategies. Among high use were only pre-reading (57%) and during-reading (43%). The learners rated post-reading strategies as medium use by 23.5 per cent and low use by 50 per cent. This finding correlates with the dominance of lower-level cognitive skills. Most post-reading strategies, such as summarising, visualizing, evaluation or discussion, require critical thinking. Since the RCS instruction aimed more at decoding a text than general comprehension, the learners did not learn how to monitor their thinking process and therefore evaluated these strategies among the least frequent.

The analysis of the teacher questionnaire resulted in a more balanced strategies usage. The teachers evaluated all strategies as either high use or medium use. Some disparity between teachers and learners on the use of RCS was found. Especially *note-taking* was rated by the teachers as high use

strategy, whilst the learners evaluated it in the last place. Many higher-level cognitive strategies were ranked as high use. The *guessing of the meaning of unknown words* was a number one strategy. It was followed by *summarization, skimming, prediction, discussion* and *note-taking*. From the selection, the significance of teaching higher-order cognitive skills is evident. However, this finding does not agree with the learners. No higher-level cognitive strategy was rated as high use. The answer to such discrepancy may be in the teachers' failure to instruct the learners on the strategies use and why reading strategies are essential for reading comprehension. Research by Iqbal and Noor (2015) on the *Factors responsible for poor reading* concluded that many teachers set their goal to pass the examination and not teaching reading skills. Another factor is the lack of reading habit from other materials than coursebooks and the absence of interest from both sides on reading skills development.

The uneven results on the use of RCS point to teachers' insufficient instruction. The learners seem not to understand why to use higher-order cognitive strategies entirely, hence preferring the lower-cognitive strategies, which are easier to comprehend.

6.2 Answering the research questions

The research questions

5. What reading strategies are most frequent with learners at lower-secondary school?
6. How the year of study influences the choice of reading comprehension strategies among learners?
7. What role does gender play in the reading comprehension strategies selection?
8. How the teachers' instruction on RCS correlates with the strategies selected by learners?

6.2.1 What reading strategies are most frequent with learners at lower-secondary school?

The findings from the student questionnaire data revealed that the most frequent are pre-reading and during reading strategies. Among the high use strategies were: *reading the first sentence of the text; looking at the pictures of the text; reading the heading of the text; using world knowledge for text comprehension; translating the sentences for better understanding; reading the first sentence of each passage; trying to understand every word for better comprehension.*

The choice selection may explain the way learners deal with text comprehension. They try to use their world knowledge by reading the heading, first sentence or by looking at the picture. These strategies help them to select the correct schemata. As a next step, they translate the text from L2 to L1

to increase their comprehension. The high use of *trying to understand every word for better comprehension* indicates the reliance on lower-level cognitive skills, mainly decoding.

6.2.2 How the year of study influences the choice of reading comprehension strategies among learners?

The research disclosed a link between strategy preference and learners' cognitive development. By comparing the top 10 rated strategies among the four years of study, the distinct selection of strategies proved the mental development in learners. The sixth-graders still go through the concrete operational stage, and their thinking is not yet abstractly oriented. The ability to make hypotheses and think deductively develops from the age of 12 onwards. The research findings agree with cognitive development. While *sentence translation* was ranked third by sixth-graders, it was rated as seventh by eighth and ninth-graders. Translation, as text decoding, is a lower-level cognitive strategy that does not require abstract thinking. Another lower-level cognitive strategy, *understanding every word of the text*, had the same response. The sixth-graders rated the strategy in fifth place, while the eighth-graders in ninth.

On the contrary, *guessing the meaning of words from the text content* had the highest ranking by ninth-graders (fifth place), but sixth-graders evaluated the strategy in 15th place. Guessing meaning is a higher-level cognitive strategy. The learners need to deduce the meaning based on the text context. Also, *using world knowledge* had an increasing importance tendency. Although this strategy does not require deduction or making hypothesis, the use of abstract thinking is crucial.

6.2.3 What role does gender play in reading comprehension strategies selection?

The choice of RCS did not appear to have a significant role for most strategies; however, there was a considerable disagreement in the three strategies. The *text re-reading for better understanding* was evaluated by the female learners in sixth place, while the male learners rated it in 17th. Previous research (Reilly, 2019; Uusen, 2012) indicated that psychological factors play its role in reading comprehension, such as early self-awareness in female learners. As a result, they are willing to read any text, though on the lower cognitive level, as word decoding. On the other hand, male learners need to be motivated by reading meaningful texts, focusing on comprehension. This finding is supported by the male learners' ranking of *reading the first sentence from each passage* as a pre-reading strategy in fourth place, compared to ninth place for female learners. Reading a sentence from each passage presupposes text prediction, intending to read for gist.

6.2.4 How the teachers' instruction on RCS correlates with the strategies selected by learners?

The relation between the teachers' instruction on RCS and learners' strategies usage indicates inconsistency. 20 out of 35 strategies were rated as high use by the teachers. Both higher-level and lower-level cognitive strategies were among the 20 items. The learners evaluated as high use only seven out of 30 strategies with only one higher-level cognitive strategy. This uneven order is evidence of learners' low ability to apply RCS to reading. *Asking comprehension questions* was marked as the most frequent post-reading strategy by teachers. The result corresponded with the classrooms observations; however, the learners rated the strategy as medium use. A high-use strategy for both learners and teachers was selected *guessing the meaning of an unknown word*. Surprisingly among the lowest-rated strategy was *quickly looking over the text before reading*, in other words reading for gist. This strategy makes the basis for comprehension reading and relates to other higher-level skills such as scanning or skimming. Classroom observations have shown the lack of teaching these strategies. The concentration was mainly on text translation and answering post-reading questions.

6.3 The significance of the study

The study investigated the frequency of RCS among lower-secondary learners. It also explored the influence of age and gender on the RCS selection. The findings pointed to the prevailing use of lower-level cognitive strategies. The classroom observations have suggested a repeating pattern in teaching reading comprehension. The learners' activity was restricted by the strategies selection, leaving no room for higher-level skills, mainly critical thinking. However, the analysis between the learners' age and the usage of lower-cognitive strategies revealed an increasing tendency of higher-cognitive strategies practice among older learners. The theory of cognitive development has explained the strategies selection based on the learners' age.

The influence of gender on the strategies choice did not appear significant. Nevertheless, the strategies' analysis revealed a preference for word reading and text re-reading by the female learners, contrary to reading for comprehension by male learners. Previous research explained the willingness of female learners to read any text; however, male learners need to be motivated by reading meaningful texts.

The overall findings provide evidence that the dominance of lower-level cognitive strategies restricts reading comprehension in learners at lower-secondary school. The implementation of higher-

level cognitive strategies, especially higher-order thinking skills such as monitoring, creating schemas and concept maps, visualization, problem-solving or critical thinking, will activate the learners and increase reading comprehension. Developing these skills leads to an independently thinking learner who can use repair mechanism during reading to overcome comprehension difficulties.

6.4 Limitations of the study

This study has analyzed data about the uses of RCS by the learners and the teachers of two lower-secondary schools. The data from the teacher self-report questionnaire was limited by the small number of teachers participating in the study. Although the number of learners' respondents was adequate, the balance between the two schools participants involved in the study was uneven. The majority of the learners' respondents were from the ZŠ Karla Staršího ze Žerotína Bludov. This disbalance could have had a role in the strategies selection. Nevertheless, the teachers predetermine the learners' strategies choice by their teaching and instruction on RCS.

Also, the respondents' answers to the strategies selection could have been influenced by the environment. Because of the pandemic Covid 19, the student and teacher self-report questionnaires were completed online; hence the learners' supervision was limited. The objectiveness of the learners' choices is thus disputed.

Further research limitations concern classroom observations. Out of 16 observations planned – four for each teacher –, only eight were carried out due to Covid 19. Lastly, the strategies selected for classroom teaching could not have been realized due to the same reason. Therefore their effectiveness could not have been studied.

6.5 Pedagogical implications

Considering the limitation on using higher-level cognitive strategies in Czech lower-secondary school learners and the importance of using complex thinking skills for the learners' overall development and success in real life, the study suggests the following recommendations for the lower-secondary school English teachers.

The overuse of lower-level cognitive strategies leads to learners' passivity and does not teach thinking skills. Therefore, the teachers should aim at increasing the use of higher-level cognitive strategies. They need to instruct the learners explicitly to increase the level of critical thinking among

the learners. To do so, strategies that improve critical thinking need to become part of the teaching process. The tasks that learners complete should involve high order thinking skills, such as analysis, synthesis, evaluation, monitoring or creating. A meaningful reading reflecting learners' lives allows them to focus on the text and make evaluations and judgments based on their previous experience (Cotrell, 2005 in Thamrin, 2018). The connection to previous knowledge, schemata and concepts the learners have allows for the higher-order thinking skills to develop. Nevertheless, it is the teacher who is essential for the learners to guide them in growing these skills. The teacher's role is to be a role model and guide. For the learners to become independent readers using critical thinking during reading, they need strong support from their teachers. Teaching higher-order thinking skills is a lengthy process that requires countless repetitions and patience from the learners' and teacher's side. However, the reward in the form of a successful independent reader is worthwhile.

Six reading comprehension strategies were selected, aiming at the learners' development of higher-level cognitive skills. While using these strategies, the learners work with facts and their knowledge, finding connections, reorganizing and applying them in a new way. They form relations between ideas and use the information from the text to form conclusions (www.k12reader.com). The following strategies were chosen to serve as a guide for teachers. Each strategy includes its description, the benefit the learners will gain, possible setbacks and recommendations that may prove helpful.

Selected strategies:

1. Concept Maps
2. Annotating the text
3. Comprehension Monitoring
4. Bloom's Taxonomy
5. Jigsaw Reading
6. Readers Theatre

6.5.1 Concept Maps

The first chosen higher-level cognitive strategy is a concept map. It is a reading comprehension strategy that falls into the category of graphic organizers. A concept map aims to deepen understanding and comprehension by making the learners think about a concept differently. Novak (2008) sees concept maps as "tools for organizing and representing knowledge" (p. 1). According to Novak (2008), concepts are represented in circles or boxes, and connecting lines between them express their relationship. Words written on the line are linking words or phrases and specify the relationship between two concepts. Novak (2008) suggests hierarchical organization, with the most general concept

at the top of the map and less general concepts below. A vital part of concept maps are cross-links which are links between concepts in different segments of a concept map. The best way to construct a concept map is by asking the learners focus questions related to some situation or event. These questions provide the context for the concept map.

Why the learners should practice concept maps:

Using concept maps in reading comprehension helps learners organize new information and make meaningful connections between the main idea and other information. They can also serve as an evaluation tool and effectively discover learners' valid and invalid ideas. Furthermore, learners' metacognitive skills and creativity are developed. Before creating concept maps, the teacher needs to introduce the learners to charts and diagrams. Novak (2008) names three conditions that are required for meaningful learning to take place:

1. The material must be conceptually clear and presented with language and examples that are understandable to the learner's prior knowledge;
2. The learner must possess relevant prior knowledge;
3. The learner must choose to learn meaningfully (p. 4).

When applying the concept maps in reading, it is essential to:

1. Identify the main ideas or concepts presented in the text.
2. With the teachers' help, learners group ideas into categories during reading.
3. Next, the lines between concepts are arranged to represent their relation to one another, different categories, or the central concept.
4. Especially with younger learners, the number of information on the map should be limited.
5. The learners use the concept map for summarising the text they have read (www.readingrockets.org).

The concept map can also be used as a pre-reading strategy. Learners brainstorm their ideas about a particular concept based on their previous knowledge. Especially effective with EFL readers is drawing a concept map on a board during the reading phase to provide a visual aid. Learners build upon their prior knowledge by adding new information from the text. Also, adding pictures to the concept maps improves comprehension and minimize confusion.

Possible setbacks:

The activity must be performed many times over by the teacher before the learners can work independently. It is also time-consuming for both learners and teachers. Plenty of time will be needed for the construction of the first concept map. The teacher will need time to assess and provide feedback for each concept map. Some learners, especially those with solid memorization skills, can be frightened to create a relationship between concepts or ideas.

Recommendations:

Before creating a concept map according to a text, learners can construct concept maps based on a list with related words. They will learn to distinguish between the primary and subordinate concepts and add cross-links with linking words or phrases. In groups, pairs or with the class, the learners explain the story of their concept map. The next step is a selection of a familiar short story. Learners should not have difficulty in identifying the key concepts. First, they will circle chosen concepts in the text, and after will make a list with the story concepts arranged from the most important to less important. The last phase is concept map construction. Concept maps can also serve as a tool for assessment. The teacher can compare concept maps constructed at the beginning of a given period with those at the end of the period. (provost.rpi.edu).

An example of a concept map is attached in Appendix H. Picture 1 presents a short text of the Cinderella story. The learners identify the keywords and arrange them from more important on the left to less important on the right. Picture 2 (see Appendix H) depicts the keywords organization. The concept map of the Cinderella story with cross-links and linking words is illustrated in picture 3 (see Appendix H).

6.5.2 Annotating the text

The second higher-order thinking strategy is text annotating, sometimes called “close reading”. It usually involves highlighting and underlining key points in the text or making notes in the margin (research.ewu.edu). Spangler (2015) identifies the strategy as during or post-reading. It practices mainly critical reading skills and demands learners’ active engagements with the text. Reading comprehension is improved by annotating the text and writing brief key points about text passages. The reader learns how to summarise and highlight important information. The strategy itself gives the learners purpose for reading and forces them to pay attention to the text.

There are many approaches to text annotating. The approach described below involves three steps:

1. **Surveying the text** – first reading: learners quickly go through the text; note the title and subheadings

2. **Skimming the text** – second reading: learners skim the text and identify the main ideas; next, they underline the main viewpoints and write them in their own words in the margin.
3. **Third reading** – learners look for more details; mark and write any questions they have in the margins; circle words they do not know; look them up in the dictionary and write their meaning in the margins (www.research.ewu.edu).

The teacher should create a notation system that will teach the learners how to annotate a text. An example of such a system, adapted from Spangler (2015) and education.com, is described below. If possible, the teacher hangs the notation system as a poster in the classroom or distributes it to learners as a chart to be available at any time.

Notation system

1. **Double underline** the author's explanation of the main points and write MP in the margin to denote "main point";
2. **Single underline** each major new claim or problem the author presents and write "claim 1" or "problem 1" in the margin;
3. **Asterisk (*)** marks important ideas, pieces of evidence like statistics or arguments. Note the evidence and its purpose in the margins;
4. **Question mark (?)** marks any points or parts of the text that are unclear;
5. **Exclamation mark (!)** marks a passage that invokes a strong negative or positive response or agreement or disagreement. Write the response in the margins;
6. **Circle** unknown words and look them up in the dictionary and write their meaning;
7. **Draw a heart** next to the favourite part of the text;
8. **Tick mark (✓)** next to the coherent passage;
9. Write "**conclusion**" in the margin next to the point where the author concludes.

Why should the learners use text annotation:

Annotating a text involves several reading strategies. First, the learners read the text to get a general idea. The second reading serves to identify the main points through skimming, and the third reading aims at detailed comprehension. By adding notes, learners practice higher cognitive skills, such as systematic decision making, evaluative thinking, generating ideas, critical reading and monitoring. They pay a lot more attention to what they are reading. The marking of important parts of the text helps answer comprehension questions and significantly improves text understanding (Spangler, 2015).

Possible setbacks:

The strategy may be complicated for the younger learners. However, the teacher can simplify the notation system, and with repeated demonstration, the learners may overcome early difficulties. The strategy will be time-consuming at first, and some learners may have troubles identifying the text's key points. Nonetheless, with practice, the learners will benefit in the long term because they will be able to apply this strategy to any reading text.

Recommendation:

The strategy can be adjusted according to the learners' age. Younger readers can learn to identify unknown words, surprising facts and main ideas only. Older learners should aim at critical thinking development, identifying major problems or learning how to draw conclusions from the text. Keeping a reading journal with annotated texts is an excellent way to see the learner's progress.

An example of notation systems is attached to Appendix I, picture 4 and 5. Both notation systems are suitable for young readers using simple marking. Picture 6 (see Appendix I) is an example of annotated text intended for older learners practising critical thinking.

6.5.3 Comprehension monitoring

Comprehension monitoring was chosen because it is “an active process of hypothesis testing or scheme building” (Baker, 1980, p. 7). During text monitoring, the readers make hypotheses that are the most likely interpretation of the text. If such a hypothesis is not found, the text's comprehension is disrupted. If the readers can determine the hypothesis's correctness, they can assess text comprehension. On the other hand, detecting a failure is an active way to understanding. Once the readers realize failure to comprehend a text part, they decide to take remedial action. During monitoring, learners notice their thinking as they read and listen to their inner voice, increasing their comprehension. (thecurriculumcorner.com). However, this skill is not natural for all readers. They must acquire it with the teachers' help. They must explicitly instruct the readers, model the monitoring process, and supervise learners' practice. The goal is for learners to determine whether they understand what they are reading (iris.peabody.vanderbilt.edu).

Teaching monitoring comprises several steps. These are:

1. The teacher determines the text and pre-selects points for learners to pause during reading.
2. Next, he/she introduces the text and provides examples of how to make predictions.

3. The teacher directs and activates learners' thinking by scanning the title, headings and illustrations to make predictions about the text content.
4. The learners read the text. The teacher stops them at each pre-selected point. He/she prompts with questions about specific information and asks to generate the main idea. Lastly, the learners evaluate their predictions.
5. At the end of the text, the students go again through the text and re-think their predictions. They either verify or modify their predictions by finding supporting statements in the text (www.readingrockets.org).

The teacher needs to teach learners how to proceed if monitoring comprehension fails. These five steps help to fix failed comprehension:

1. The learners re-read the passage silently or aloud;
2. They look up unknown words, phrases in the dictionary;
3. They reference back to the title, heading, picture;
4. They reconstruct information by making a mental image;
5. They search for upcoming headings for clarification.

The strategy's benefits:

Monitoring comprehension encourages learners to be active and thoughtful readers. Readers know when they understand what they read and when not. They build new schemata based on activating their prior knowledge. By monitoring, the learners strengthen reading and critical thinking skills. When they encounter comprehension difficulty, they know what strategies to use to resolve the comprehension problem. The learners can distinguish important ideas and omit redundant information.

Possible setbacks:

Learners as L2 readers can face difficulties when monitoring their reading because of the lack of reading skills in L1. Thinking in the native language while monitoring English text may become confusing. The learning process of monitoring is time-consuming, and the teacher's demonstration will be needed repeatedly. Although monitoring comprehension is taught even with pre-school children, it is more effective with older learners whose metacognitive skills are more mature.

Recommendation:

Depending on the learners' proficiency level, the text should be broken into shorter or longer segments and enough time for thinking and information processing provided. As a part of the

monitoring strategy, the writing down of the predictions can be included. The learners can discuss their guesses with partners or in groups. They may also write a summary of how their predictions agreed with the text.

When teaching monitoring comprehension, the monitoring questions are a helpful tool for the learners. The teacher can display the self-monitoring questions as a poster on the classroom wall. In Appendix I, picture 7 and 8 are examples of self-monitoring questions. Especially at the beginning of learning the monitoring process, the learners need to have self-monitoring questions on display. Another helpful tool to teach monitoring are self-monitoring bookmarks for fiction and non-fiction reading comprehension. Picture 9 (see Appending I) presents these bookmarks. Questions asked pre and during reading help the learners with text comprehension.

6.5.4 Bloom's Taxonomy Questioning

The fourth chosen strategy is Bloom's Taxonomy Questioning. The taxonomy levels begin with the lowest level of thinking skills and progress to the highest thinking skills level. The higher-level cognitive skills that are developed include evaluation, analysis, synthesis and creation. They aim to enable learners to "retain information and to apply problem-solving solutions to real-world problems" (Edinburgh Literacy Hub, 2021, p. 51). The development of these skills prepares learners for adult working, daily life, and future academic study. Picture 10 in Appendix K presents Bloom's Taxonomy with monitoring questions for each category. The teacher should present Bloom's categories in the order listed, from Remembering, Understanding, Applying, Analysing, Evaluating and Creating. The learners must muster the lower level before proceeding to the higher one.

The taxonomy is best applied by pre-planning questions before, during or after reading. Bloom's verb tables are a helpful tool for forming the questions because they are aligned with each cognitive level. The questions should be visually displayed and closely linked to the lesson's objectives. An effective way is to plan a sequence of questions to increase cognitive levels. This way, the learners develop thinking and learning at all cognitive levels (Wreggler & Brown, 2001). The strategy can be applied to any reading text, from non-fictional, fictional to poems and song lyrics.

Bloom's Taxonomy is best taught by following these steps:

1. The teacher explains and teaches Bloom's Taxonomy to the learners.
2. The teacher provides the learners with cue questions for each cognitive level.
3. The teacher asks the learners questions before reading to set the purpose for reading and active engagement with the text.

4. The teacher models the thinking that is needed to reach the desired response and provides examples.
5. The learners are divided into small groups or pairs to practice answering pre-set questions under the teacher's guidance.
6. Once the learners understand how to apply the six thinking skills, they can work independently of the teacher.
7. The final stage of the process is learners' creating questions from the chart (Gregory & Chapman, 2007).

The strategy's benefits:

Bloom's Taxonomy provides teachers with a verb list to prompt the learners to reach higher-level cognitive skills with ease. Asking higher-order thinking questions provide the teacher with inside into how the learners process information. The pre-reading question can help the readers to connect with the text and raise interest. Post-reading questions, on the other hand, help the learners to process new information. Skills such as problem-solving and decision making are developed (Nelson, 2011 in teachingreadingstrategies.weebly.com).

Possible setbacks:

It is not always possible to include all six levels in the reading comprehension task. There should, however, be an increase in difficulty in order from recognition to application. Other factors can influence the question's difficulty, such as complex vocabulary or the lack of text familiarity (Luebke & Lorié, 2013). Therefore the teacher must select appropriate text or adjust it according to the learners' proficiency level. Teachers depending on coursebooks may have difficulties with the practice of higher-level cognitive skills because, as research have shown (Luebke & Lorié, 2013), coursebooks' questions usually belong to the cognitive level for Remembering and Understanding.

Recommendations:

The teacher can create laminated cue questions for each cognitive level with a corresponding verb list. Also, an example of a finished activity for each level can be laminated to set the standard for the learners. Cooperative learning will be beneficial for the learners by sharing their answers and the explanation of their responses.

Picture 11 (see Appendix K) presents a chart with Bloom's verb list according to the six cognitive levels. It will serve as a cue for creating the questions and answers to selected text. Table 14 (see Appendix K) contains a list of cue questions based on Bloom's Taxonomy. They serve as a guide

during read-aloud strategy, monitoring reading or reading in groups. Activities suggested according to Bloom's Taxonomy are presented in Table 15 (see Appendix K). They will help the teacher to set up reading goals based on the cognitive levels.

6.5.5 Jigsaw activity

The jigsaw strategy was chosen because it emphasizes cooperative learning and, as such, promotes higher-order thinking skills. It allows learners to build comprehension collectively by helping each other. It also promotes speaking through reading because of the learners' active participation. Learners work in small groups, and every member fulfils his/her task. The strategy develops learners' critical and creative thinking. Among the strategies involved in the Jigsaw activity are analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating, identifying facts and opinion, or inferring meanings and making generalizations (Barbosa et al., 2020).

The strategy consists of creating heterogeneous groups of learners and dividing them into new groups of experts on a given topic. After mastering a topic, learners return to their home groups and teach their peers the newly gained knowledge. Each member of the homegroup serves as a piece of the topic's puzzle, and they work together on creating the whole. The learners gain skills to organize a text, read independently and learn from group members (eadwritethink.org).

The steps to carry out the activity are:

1. The teacher introduces the strategy. He/she explains that the learners will be working in different cooperative groups to learn information from a text. The homegroup comprises learners who have read different texts, and the expert group consists of learners with the same text.
2. The teacher models the strategy. He/she reads and thinks aloud the text to provide a framework for the learners. He/she asks key questions such as: How to put ideas from the text into own words; how to relate the text to previous knowledge; how to teach members of the homegroup the material?
3. The teacher informs the learners about the topic and encourages predictions about the text content. He/she pre-teaches critical vocabulary.
4. The teacher divides learners into homegroups and expert groups made of 3 to 5 members.
5. The teacher assigns the text selection to expert groups.
6. The teacher explains that each expert group is responsible for reading their part of the text and answering comprehension questions or writing a summary about their assigned section.
7. While the learners work in expert groups, the teacher monitors the class.

8. After completing the assigned task, learners return to their home groups. Each member presents his/her part of the text selection to other group members and discusses the comprehension questions or the text's summary.
9. The activity's goal is for the homegroup members to learn the answers to the comprehension questions or the summary from other homegroup members (readingrockets.org, literacymn.org).

The strategies benefits:

When learners read a longer text, they can become overwhelmed. Jigsaw reading breaks up the text into smaller chunks of one to two paragraph length, and by working in groups, members become experts on their text piece. The learners build cooperation, share responsibility, learn how to use critical thinking and social skills to complete the task. Also, their communication skills improve as well as reading comprehension, listening and problem-solving skills (jigsaw.org).

Possible setbacks:

The text content can be misunderstood and lower the group cooperation's efficiency or lead to learning different information. Some group members may not participate in the same fashion and not hold the same responsibility as the rest of the group. Lack of participation would lead to others having more work to complete the assignment, and productivity would suffer (sulandra89.wordpress.com).

Recommendations:

Jigsaw works well in multi-level classes. Learners of the same proficiency level are grouped, and the text is matched to their proficiency level. Another option is to select a text with varied paragraph length. Shorter and longer sections are assigned to groups according to their reading level. Comprehension questions that are part of the post-reading activity can vary from basic to more in-depth (www.literacymn.org).

Appendix L displays a text taken from Reading Adventures 1. The text was divided into three parts (see Appendix L, pictures 13 to 15). As a post-reading activity, the learners receive a Jigsaw Activity Graphic Organizer (see Appendix L, picture 16) to write information obtained from the text. After completing the organizer, they return to their homegroup to inform others what they have learned and complete the text puzzle.

6.5.6 Readers Theater

The last activity selected for the development of higher-level cognitive skills is Readers Theater. The learners retell a story through dramatization by reading dialogues of the story's characters. They activate higher-order thinking skills by using cooperation, discussion, employing senses and varied learning styles. They learn to understand abstract ideas by performing them concretely (McCaslin, 1990 in Coney & Kanel, 1997). The main focus of the activity is deep text analyses, creativity and oral reading fluency based on text comprehension. The learners have a natural motive for reading with a critical and evaluative attitude (Sloyer, 1982).

The teachers can utilize any reading material to teach learners how to respond dramatically. They are involved in scripting, casting, rehearsing, and active decision making. When they read and perform, a closer relationship with the text is established. The audience pays attention to specific story incidents to participate in a follow-up discussion, while the performers make an effort to receive the desired response (Sloyer, 1982). There are different styles of Readers Theater. Generally, a small group of readers read from a script aloud while using their voices, facial expressions, and gestures to perform the story. There is no need for costumes or special scene-setting. It is, therefore, much simpler and non-threatening to the learners (NWT Literacy Council).

Two familiar Readers Theatre styles are:

1. *Circle reading*: it gives everyone a chance to read. The learners sit in a circle and, one by one, read characters parts. The second reading can be done by changing the starting place of reading.
2. *Cooperative reading*: Class is divided into groups according to the number of characters. Learners practice reading the script in their groups several times, and after each group makes a presentation in front of the class (NWT Literacy Circle).

The instruction on how to perform Readers Theatre can be described in eight steps:

1. The teacher chooses a script. A ready script or a book from which the script is adapted.
2. Each participant receives the script.
3. The roles are assigned. Participants can try different parts and choose the role themselves.
4. The teacher gives instructional support for new vocabulary and for understanding different characters.
5. Learners highlight their dialogue.
6. Together with the teacher, the learners read the story once or twice aloud.
7. The teacher with the learners decides what Readers Theatre style they want to perform.

8. The participants perform the story (play) aloud for an audience (NW Literacy Circle).

The strategy's benefits:

Readers Theatre promotes cooperation and teamwork. It also develops learners' interest in reading. By reading aloud, oral language skills are also developed. The repeated reading practice improves fluency, listening skills and, at the same time, learners' reading confidence and self-esteem. Research has revealed that learners who read with expressions orally tend to have good comprehension when reading silently (Chase & Rasinski, 2009). Readers Theatre is suitable for all reading levels. The scripts can be of varying length and difficulty. Finally, many intelligence types are engaged, especially bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal and linguistic (ldstrategies.wordpress.com).

Possible setbacks:

The activity is not suitable for very shy learners because they could experience difficulties participating in the performance. It can be time-consuming to search for a suitable script that fits the reading abilities of all learners. The problem can be overcome by dividing the class into groups according to the proficiency level and provide them with the script's variations (ldstrategies.wordpress.com).

Recommendations:

It is best to rehearse the script until the learners are highly fluent. To reward their effort, they can perform for another class or parents. For young or struggling readers, the teacher can write the script according to their needs. An alternative can be dividing the class into groups and have each group read one character together. Advanced learners may write parts of the script, turning Readers Theater into a class project. The teacher should be sensitive to individuals, and depending on the personality, he/she assigns the roles accordingly (www.readingrockets.org).

Before practising Readers Theater, it is a good idea to set guidelines for fluent reading practice. The teacher can create a poster and place it on the noticeboard. Picture 17 (see Appendix M) is an example of possible Readers Theatre guidelines.

6.5.7 Summary

The research findings pointed to the imbalance between the lower-level and higher-level cognitive strategies. The lower-level cognitive strategies dominated during the classroom observations and were prevailing in RCS selected by the learners. However, higher-level cognitive skills are essential for the learners' successful future life. They enable them to form hypotheses, make decisions

based on deduction, analysis or synthesis. By learning to monitor their thinking processes, the learners can evaluate and be creative. The development of communication, collaboration, and social skills will benefit the learners in their lives. Therefore, higher-order thinking skills should become a primary goal in teaching reading comprehension at lower-secondary school. The six suggested activities aim at the development of these skills.

6.6 Suggestion for further research

The study's findings have indicated the need to implement higher-level cognitive strategies, such as prediction, inferencing, monitoring, analysis, and others in RCS teaching. The practical research on teaching these strategies would be a valuable addition to the study's findings on reading comprehension. As mentioned in the research limitations, the author intended to investigate the six activities described in the pedagogical implementations by teaching them to the learners of the lower-secondary school. However, due to Covid-19, this part of the research could not have been completed. It is therefore suggested to continue with the research on the benefit of reading comprehension. The investigation on the instruction and application of higher-level cognitive skills by teachers and learners at lower-secondary schools would help to confirm or reject the benefit of higher-order thinking strategies.

Because the questionnaires for this study were executed in an online form, the objectivity of the responses may not wholly agree with reality. Hence, a practical investigation in the form of an interview with learners and teachers could further explore RCS use. The research may investigate: How do higher-order thinking skills influence the learners' reading comprehension performance? What were the learners' improvements or setbacks in reading comprehension following the teaching of higher-order thinking strategies? What obstacles were encountered during the teaching of higher-level cognitive skills?

To conclude, the research on the teaching and learning of RCS with the focus on higher-level cognitive skills could bring results needed to confirm the strategies value in reading comprehension and the development of learners' overall personality.

CONCLUSION

The study aimed at providing an overview of the benefits of reading comprehension taught at lower-secondary school. The primary focus of the theoretical part was on the reading comprehension strategies instruction in reading. The practical part investigated the teaching and usage of RCS by teachers and learners.

The books' review of experts on reading comprehension tackled several areas of reading. The factors influencing reading were detailed. It was concluded that it is one of the teacher's responsibilities to consider these factors such as family background, community, social status or school environment.

Next, reading comprehension was explained, and the importance of forming schemata stressed. Approaches, methods and models of reading comprehension were specified, closing with specific RCS for the three reading stages: pre-reading, during reading and post-reading.

The second half of the theoretical part presented the reading comprehension in the Czech Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education. It outlined the RCS named and compared these with the Czech School Educational Programme of two lower-secondary schools. The final part analyzed three texts from the coursebooks used to teach English in these schools. The RCS were detailed and investigated.

The research aimed to investigate the frequency of RCS used by the teachers and learners. The mixed-method design was chosen due to the study's nature. The qualitative and quantitative data were needed to assess the use of RCS from different perspectives. As a qualitative data instrument, the classroom observations were recorded in the classroom observation field notes. The student and teacher online self-questionnaires served to collect the qualitative data. The findings from both instruments were analyzed using the Microsoft Excel Programme.

The classroom observations have revealed a repeated pattern in teaching RCS. The teachers' instruction on reading comprehension was consistent with the coursebooks. Hence, the use of RCS was similar. The lower-level cognitive skills, such as silent reading and listening to the text, text translation, or post-reading question answering, were recorded for all teachers. Inferencing and scanning as higher-level cognitive skills represented only a minority in the instruction on reading comprehension.

The research results revealed the prevalent use of lower-level cognitive strategies for reading comprehension among learners. Especially the sixth-graders have chosen as high use lower-level cognitive strategies. Nevertheless, older learners, particularly eighth-graders, have shown a significant increase in the use of higher-level cognitive strategies. The finding was explained by the relationship between the learners' age and the theory of cognitive development.

The influence of gender on RCS use among the learners was not significant, yet several distinctions in the strategies' choices pointed to gender impact. The female learners' preference of the text translation, looking up unknown words and re-reading the text indicated the preference of word-reading, whilst the male learners opted for comprehension reading. Previous research suggested that male learners require meaningful and enjoyable texts instead of female learners who will perform well regardless of the content.

Although the teachers marked most of the RCS as high use and zero strategies were selected as low use, the classroom observations have not confirmed the teaching of the majority of high-level cognitive strategies. The low number of classroom observations may have distorted the findings. For more objective results, the number of observations needed to be at least double, as intended; however, due to pandemic Covid-19, these could not have been executed.

The theoretical part of the study outlined the significance of the development of higher-level cognitive strategies in learners. The teachers' instruction on these strategies improves reading comprehension in learners and teaches them how to use their prior knowledge, make conclusions, think critically, and be better prepared for their future life.

Based on the literature review and the research findings, a set of six higher-level cognitive strategies were compiled for the learners' progress on reading comprehension and the development of higher-order thinking skills.

To conclude, the study tried to depict the value of reading comprehension for learners at lower-secondary school. Expert reviews and previous research justified the necessity to use various reading strategies for better text comprehension. The stress was given to the development of higher-level cognitive skills. The study findings, as well as previous research, showed insufficient instruction of these skills. Alvermann and Phelps (1998) say that "The curriculum must expand to include information and activities that explicitly support students in learning to think well. The emphasis is less on the mastery of information measured by a recall-based assessment and more on learning how to use one's mind well, to synthesize and analyze skilfully" (in Tankersley, 2005, p 69). Thus, the learners need to master complex thinking skills to succeed in reading comprehension and their lives.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EFL	English as a Foreign Language
L2	Second Language (foreign language)
L1	First Language (mother tongue)
FL	Foreign Language
FEP	Framework Educational Programme
SEP	School Educational Programme
RCS	Reading Comprehension Strategies
LLS	Language Learning Strategy
HOT	Higher Order Thinking

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Project 2 Fourth edition, Student's Book (Hutchinson, 2014)

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1B: Grammar • Present simple • ordinal numbers • Yes / No and Wh- questions • adverbs of frequency

1B

Grammar

Dates

5 a Look at the date. How do we say it?

We write

26 September

We say

the twenty-sixth
of September



b Say these dates.

- | | |
|---------------------------|--------------|
| 1 22 June | 5 15 January |
| the twenty-second of June | 6 30 October |
| 2 1 December | 7 9 July |
| 3 12 May | 8 3 February |
| 4 6 March | |

c Which of the dates is closest to your birthday?

Listening and speaking

6 Ask people in your class: When is your birthday? How many people have got a birthday in the same month as you?

7 a 1.14 Listen. Write the dates you hear.

3 December

b Talk about six important dates in your life.

- The first date on my list is the fifth of January.
- What is it?
- It's my birthday. What's your first date?



Reading and writing

8 a 1.15 Read and listen. Find these things in the picture.

- 1 birthday cards
- 2 a birthday cake
- 3 birthday presents
- 4 candles

b Read the text again. Answer the questions.

- 1 What do people give to someone on their birthday?
- 2 Does everyone have a party?
- 3 Where do some older children go on their birthday?
- 4 Do people in Britain have 'name days'?
- 5 Do people give flowers?

c Write about how people celebrate birthdays in your country.

Birthdays in Britain

On your birthday you get cards and presents from your family and friends. Parents often buy a big present like a bike or MP3 player. Other people give toys, sweets, books, clothes, CDs, DVDs and things like that.

People normally have a birthday party for their friends. There's usually a birthday cake with one candle for each year of your age. The person with the birthday blows out the candles and makes a wish. Then everybody sings *Happy Birthday!* People often have a party in their own home. Some older children don't have a party. They take their friends to the cinema, a bowling alley or somewhere like that.

My friend, Karl, in the Czech Republic, says that they have 'name days' in his country, but we don't have 'name days'. Karl also says that people in the Czech Republic give flowers on name days and birthdays. In Britain, we usually only give flowers to women. Alison and I give flowers to our mum on her birthday.

11

Grammar

5 a Copy and complete the table.

What tenses are the verbs in?
When do we use each tense?

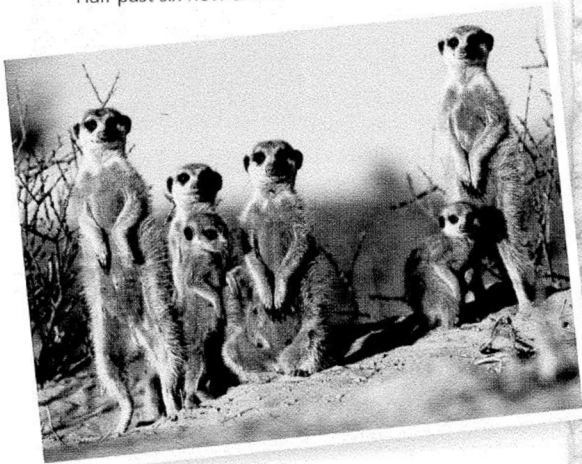


Present tenses

- 1 At the moment I _____ the penguins.
I _____ them every day.
- 2 Liam _____ one of the animal houses now.
He always _____ them in the afternoon.

b Complete the sentences with the verbs in the correct tense.

- 1 feed
I'm *feeding* the penguins at the moment. I *feed* the penguins at two o'clock every day.
- 2 clean
Liam _____ the animal houses in the afternoon.
Today, he _____ the elephants' house.
- 3 put
He _____ clean water in the elephants' house now.
He _____ clean water in their house every afternoon.
- 4 visit
We often _____ the wildlife park at the weekend.
We _____ the wildlife park now.
- 5 go
Liam _____ to work at half past six. It's Half past six now and he _____ to work.



Reading and speaking

6 a Read the text. What are Azra's favourite animals? Where do they live?

b Are the statements true or false?

- 1 Meerkats are black.
False. They are brown with grey stripes and black ears.
- 2 They've got a long tail.
- 3 They can stand on two legs.
- 4 They live in pairs.
- 5 They sleep in holes in the ground.
- 6 They eat fish.
- 7 They can eat scorpions.
- 8 Eagles eat meerkats.

7 Work with a partner. Tell him / her about your favourite animal.



My favourite animals are meerkats. They live in southern Africa in the Kalahari Desert.

Meerkats are brown with grey stripes and black ears. They're quite small – about the same size as a rabbit. They've got a long body and a long tail, but short legs. They can stand on two legs.

They live in groups. There are between five and thirty meerkats in a group.

They sleep in holes in the ground. Early in the morning, they leave their holes and look for food. They eat insects, plants, lizards, eggs and mice. They can even eat poisonous animals like scorpions and spiders. When meerkats eat, some of them stand on two legs and guard the others. That's because some other animals like to eat meerkats. When the guards see an eagle, a snake or a fox, they bark and all the meerkats run back to their holes.

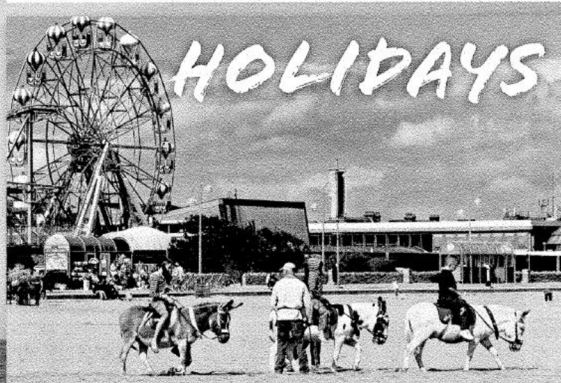
3



Culture

1 **2.2** Read and listen to the text. Match these topics to the correct paragraphs.

- winter holidays
- summer holidays in Britain
- holiday times
- visitors to Britain
- summer holidays abroad



- 1** Families in Britain usually go on holiday between the middle of July and the end of August, because the children aren't at school then. Most people go away for two weeks. A lot of people take a winter holiday, too. They usually go in the Christmas and Easter school holidays, or in the February half-term holiday.
- 2** Some people spend their summer holidays in Britain. You can go to the beach, but there are lots of other places to go, too. There are museums, castles, zoos and safari parks. One very popular place is The Eden Project. It's in Cornwall, in the south-west of England. You can learn all about the environment there. Alton Towers theme park is very popular, too. It has got lots of exciting rides.



2 a Find these places in the text. Make a list.

- popular places for families in Britain
- countries that British people go to
- popular places for visitors to Britain

b Look at your list of places. Why do people go to each one?

3 **2.3** Listen. Find this information about each speaker for summer and winter.

- 1 When do they usually go on holiday?
- 2 Where do they usually go?
- 3 Where did they go last year?

4 Write about holidays in your country. Use the topics in exercise 1.

A lot of people go abroad for their summer holidays, too. Spain, Italy and France are favourite places. People usually go to Spain for a beach holiday. They go by plane and they stay in hotels. When people go to France, they often go camping, so they usually go by car. You can take the ferry to France, but most people put their cars on the train to go through the Channel Tunnel.

People normally go abroad for a winter holiday. Some people go skiing in countries like Austria, Switzerland and Slovenia. A lot of schools organize a skiing trip for their pupils in the February half-term holiday. Other people like to go to hot places: the Canary Islands, Florida and Thailand are popular.

A lot of tourists from other countries come to Britain for their holidays. Most of them go to London to see all the famous sights there, like Tower Bridge and Buckingham Palace. Other popular places are the cities of York and Canterbury. They have got old cathedrals. Oxford and Cambridge have got famous universities.



An alternative school

Read a leaflet.

1 **Work in pairs.** Look at the photos (a-c). Ask and answer the questions.

- a What and who is in the photos? b What are they doing?

2 **Look up** the meaning of the words in the box in a dictionary.

to use time | to daydream | obligatory | to hang out | to amuse | to create

3 **Listen** to the text. Then **read** the leaflet in pairs.

SUMMERHILL

Summerhill is a boarding school where students decide each day how to use their time. They can play, they can be by themselves to read or daydream, or they can choose to attend lessons. Classes are not obligatory.

In Summerhill, there are also open areas where pupils hang out, amuse themselves, socialise, play games, etc.

a 

b 

Pupils learn how to do gardening, to make a video, and much more.

Adults are not there to create things for the children; they create things for themselves.

c 

4 **Work in pairs.** Ask and answer the questions.

- a What is different about Summerhill school?
b What do the pupils do in the open areas?
c Do you like this school? Why?

Sports Day invitation

Read a leaflet.

- 1 **Work in pairs.** Student A: Think of a sport and describe the sport to Student B. Don't say the name of the sport! Student B: Guess what the sport is.

Example: Student A: For this sport, you need a ball. You kick the ball...
Student B: I know, the sport is football!

- 2 **Listen and then read the text.**

SARAH'S SPORTS DAY

Every year, my school has a Sports Day. Other schools compete in our Sports Day. Our parents come to watch and cheer us on. We always do athletics, like running and high jump. There is always swimming and gymnastics. This year is different. We also have football, basketball and table tennis matches. You can even compete in skateboarding, dancing and parkour! I love all sports, so I'm really excited for Sports Day!

Come and Compete!

INVITATION TO HAPPY KIDS SCHOOL

Sports Day

This is an invitation to my School Sports Day, on **Friday the 15th of September!** Our Sports Day is at **Happy Kids School, 12 Kladenská Street, Prague 6.** It starts at 11 o'clock in the morning.

WHAT TO EXPECT:

- When you arrive, sign up for the sports you want to compete in.
- Your family and friends can come and cheer you on.
- First, second and third places get a medal!
- The school that gets the most medals wins a big prize!

Remember to bring some food and drink and the right clothes and shoes for your sports!
Please write 'yes' below to say you are coming or 'no' if you are not coming:

Are you ready? Come to our Sports Day to compete, have fun and cheer your friends on!



- 3 **Work in pairs.** Cover the text and correct the sentences below.

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------------|
| a Parents can compete in Sports Day. | d The Sports Day starts at 11 p.m. |
| b Every year, they have football matches. | e When you sign up, you get a prize. |
| c This year, there will be ice-skating and hockey. | f Everyone gets a medal. |

2D Make a burrito

Read a recipe.

- 1 Read a part of the recipe for a burrito. Look up the new vocabulary in a dictionary.

BREAKFAST BURRITO

Ingredients:

1 tortilla
 3 scrambled eggs
 2 tbsp of cheese
 1 tbsp of salsa
 ½ cup of beans
 ¼ pound of tomatoes
 salt
 pepper
 chilli



Quantities

½	half
¼	a quarter
tbsp	tablespoon
1 cup	225 grams
1 pound	450 grams

- 2 Work in pairs. Chris and Tom are making a burrito. Look at their dialogue. Guess the words in the gaps. Write them in your exercise book.

Chris: For a burrito we need... Some eggs. How 1) eggs have we got?

Tom: Three eggs.

Chris: It's enough. Then we need 2) grated cheese.

Tom: This one? How 3) cheese?

Chris: A half of it, I think. And some salsa.

Chris: Have we got 4) beans?

Tom: Yes, there is a can of beans over there.

Chris: Oh, great. And have we got 5) tomatoes?

Tom: Are there any in the fridge?

Chris: Yes, there are 6).

Chris: Where are the tomatoes?

Chris: This seems to be difficult... Oh, there are four 7). It's enough.

Chris: Now, we have got everything. Some 8), cheese, salsa, some 9) and tomatoes. Then some 10), pepper, and chilli ...

- 3 Watch the video. Check your guesses from exercise 2. Read the dialogue in pairs.

VIDEO

DVD: 13



Appendix C: Student Self-report Questionnaire

Student Questionnaire / dotazník pro studenty

Obecné informace

Postup: V této části dotazníku vyplníš obecné informace o Tobě. Prosím napiš informace do příslušného místa nebo označ křížkem v okénku vhodnou odpověď. Vyber jednu odpověď.

1. Věk/třída
2. Pohlaví: muž žena
3. Jak dlouho se učíš anglicky?
4. Jak důležité si myslíš, že je čtení v angličtině?

velmi důležité	<input type="checkbox"/>	důležité	<input type="checkbox"/>
méně důležité	<input type="checkbox"/>	nedůležité	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Jak hodnotíš ve výuce angličtiny čtení s porozuměním? (Číst s porozuměním znamená rozumět tomu, co je vyjádřeno souvislým textem, rozumět myšlenkám autora)

velmi snadné	<input type="checkbox"/>	snadné	<input type="checkbox"/>
střední	<input type="checkbox"/>	obtížné	<input type="checkbox"/>
velmi obtížné	<input type="checkbox"/>		

Dotazník užívání strategií při čtení s porozuměním v angličtině

Postup: V následující části dotazníku si přečteš seznam tvrzení o čtení textu v angličtině. Čti pozorně a vyber z možností 1 až 5. Odpovídající odpověď označ křížkem. Odpovídej podle pravdy. Dotazník má pomoci při zlepšení výuky čtení anglického textu s porozuměním.

Stupnice: 1 = nikdy nebo skoro nikdy 2 = obvykle ne 3 = někdy ano
 4 = obvykle ano 5 = vždycky nebo téměř vždycky

	Tvrzení	1	2	3	4	5
1.	Přečtu si nadpis textu.					
2.	Podívám se na obrázky k textu.					
3.	Přečtu si první větu textu.					
4.	Přečtu si první větu v každém odstavci.					
5.	Zkousím předpovědět o čem text je.					
6.	Ptám se sám sebe, co chtěl autor tímto textem vyjádřit.					
7.	Přečtu si otázky k textu před tím, než si přečtu text.					
8.	Přečtu si text rychle pro pochopení hlavní					

	myšlenky textu.						
9.	V duchu si překládám věty v textu, abych textu lépe porozuměl.						
10.	V průběhu čtení ověřuji své úvodní předpovědi o textu.						
11.	Využívám známá klíčová slova a fráze pro lepší porozumění textu.						
12.	Snažím se pochopit význam každého slova v textu pro lepší porozumění.						
13.	Rozdělují věty do frází či jednotlivých slov, abych text lépe pochopil.						
14.	Dělám si poznámky, zvýrazňuji nebo podtrhávám důležité myšlenky při čtení textu.						
15.	Používám své všeobecné znalosti k porozumění textu.						
16.	Pro odpovídání otázek text skenuji (text rychle přečtu pro vyhledání informací).						
17.	Pro odpovídání otázek čtu text pomalu detailně.						
18.	Přeskočím slova, u kterých neznám význam.						
19.	Hádám význam některých slov na základě vodítek z kontextu (souvislosti textu).						
20.	Kdykoliv narazím na neznámé slovo, vyhledám jej v česko-anglickém slovníku.						
21.	Kdykoliv narazím na neznámé slovo, vyhledám jej v anglickém významovém slovníku (význam slova je popsán anglicky)						
22.	Snažím se předpovědět, co se přihodí v textu jako další.						
23.	Při čtení textu používám dedukci (odvodím si souvislosti v textu) pro zlepšení porozumění.						
24.	Po přečtení textu si shrnu jeho obsah (pisemně či v duchu).						
25.	Diskutuji se spolužáky/kamarády o porozumění textu.						
26.	Vracím se zpět k částem textu, kterým nerozumím.						
27.	Pro lepší porozumění se přečtu text dvakrát.						
28.	Vyhledám si ve slovníku neznámá slova nebo fráze a zapíšu do slovníčku.						
29.	Nově nabyté znalosti ze čtení textů využiji v mém životě.						
30.	Odměním se za svůj pokrok při čtení s porozuměním.						

Právě jsi dokončil dotazník. Velmi Ti děkuji a přeji mnoho úspěchů ve studiu angličtiny a zejména čtení anglických textů pro radost.

Appendix D: Teacher self-report Questionnaire

Teacher Questionnaire / dotazník pro vyučující

Vyučování strategií pro čtení s porozuměním v anglickém jazyce / Teaching Reading Comprehension Strategies

Pokyny: Dotazník se sestává z tvrzení týkajících se výuky čtení s porozuměním ve vyučovací hodině angličtiny. Vyberte takové tvrzení, které nejlépe vypovídá o Vašem postoji při výuce čtení s porozuměním. Vhodnou odpověď označte křížkem.

Stupnice: 1 = nikdy nebo skoro nikdy 2 = obvykle ne 3 = někdy ano
4 = obvykle ano 5 = vždycky nebo téměř vždycky

	Tvrzení	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
1.	Stanovuji si cíl pro čtení.					
2.	Požádám žáky, aby si přečetli nadpis a pokusili se předpovědět, o čem text bude.					
3.	Požádám žáky, aby se podívali na ilustrace/obrázky a pokusili uhodnout, jak se vztahují k textu.					
4.	Než žáci začnou číst, nastíním jim kontext textu.					
5.	Pro stanovení kontextu používám pomůcky (reálie, hudba, video, předměty, atd.).					
6.	Nejdříve nechám žáky, aby si text před čtením rychle prohlédli.					
7.	Před čtením pokládám žákům motivační otázky vztahující se k textu.					
8.	Před čtením textu žáky učím všechna nová slovíčka.					
9.	Před čtením textu žáky učím klíčová slovíčka.					
10.	Při čtení textu žáci mohou používat česko-anglický slovník nebo anglický výkladový slovník.					
11.	Než s žáky vedu diskuzi k textu či jinou aktivitu, nechám žáky text přečíst.					
12.	Požádám žáky, aby obsah textu vztáhli k jejich osobní zkušenosti.					
13.	Pro čtení textu žákům stanovím časový limit.					
14.	Učím žáky, jak odhadnout význam neznámých slov.					
15.	Požádám žáky, aby odhadli význam neznámých slov.					
16.	Říkám žákům, aby neznámá slova v textu přeskočili.					
17.	Požádám žáky, aby neznámá slova v textu					

	podtrhli.					
18.	Požádám žáky, aby v textu podtrhli klíčová slova.					
19.	Požádám žáky, aby si psali při čtení textu poznámky (neznámá slova, fráze, klíčová slova).					
20.	Říkám žákům, aby četli každé slovo v textu.					
21.	Říkám žákům, aby se nesnažili číst každé slovo v textu, ale snažili se textu porozumět.					
22.	Požádám žáky, aby si text přečetli vícekrát, než jednou.					
23.	Požádám žáky, aby si představovali, co čtou.					
24.	Řeknu žákům, aby po přečtení odstavce zkusili odhadnout, jak bude text dále pokračovat.					
25.	Nechám žáky číst text nahlas po jednom.					
26.	Nechám žáky číst text nahlas hromadně.					
27.	Učím žáky, aby pečlivě četli první a poslední odstavec.					
28.	Po přečtení textu dávám žákům otázky k jeho porozumění.					
29.	Požádám žáky, aby vyvodili z textu závěr (hlavní myšlenky).					
30.	Požádám žáky, aby diskutovali (ve skupinách, ve dvojicích) hlavní myšlenky textu.					
31.	Požádám žáky, aby shrnuli obsah textu (ústně, písemně).					
32.	Po přečtení textu dám žákům kvíz orientovaný na čtení s porozuměním.					
33.	Po přečtení textu žákům zadám následné aktivity vztahující se k textu.					
34.	Po přečtení textu požádám žáky o jejich interpretaci textu.					
35.	Snažím se žáky často chválit a motivovat je k samostatnému čtení.					

36. Jaký postup (strategie) považujete za nejlepší (nejvhodnější) při rozvoji čtení s porozuměním u žáků druhého stupně?

.....

.....

.....

Dokončili jste dotazník. Velice Vám děkuji. Přeji mnoho úspěchů ve výuce anglického jazyka a Vaší kariéře pedagoga.

Appendix E: Classroom observation field notes

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION FIELD NOTES

General Information

1.	Date:	
2.	Teacher:	
3.	Year:	
4.	Number of learners:	
5.	Class duration:	
6.	Topic:	

Lesson Reading Activities

	What do teachers do?	Field Notes
1.	Pre-reading	
2	While reading	
3	Post-reading	

Appendix F: Overview of the data from Student self-report questionnaire

Learner's response to the question "How important is reading in English?"

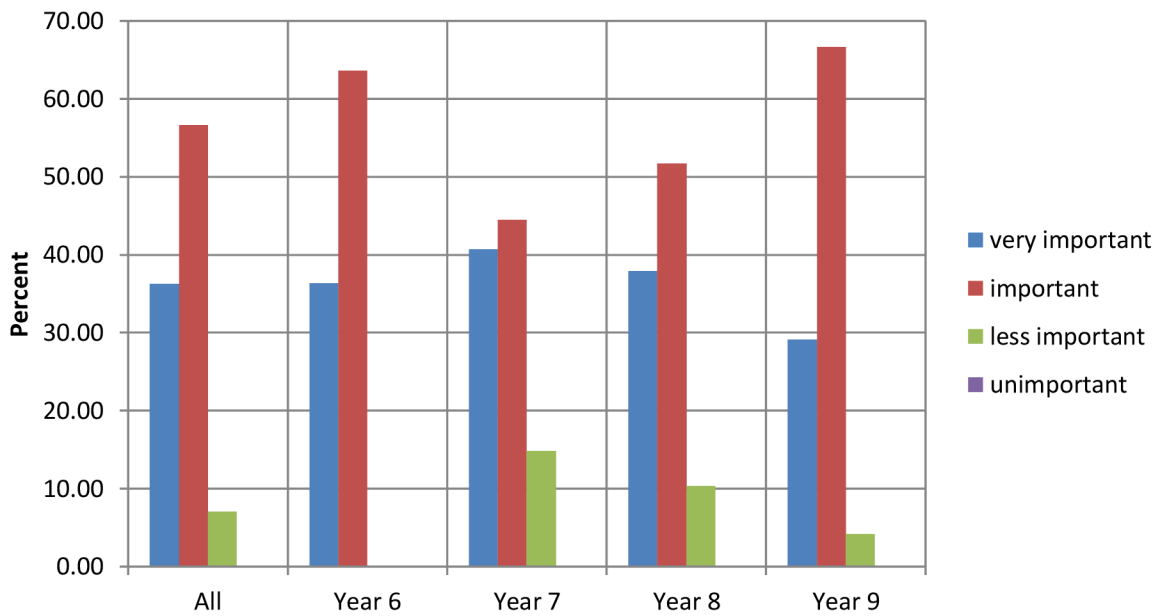


Figure 2: How important is reading in English?

Learner's response to the question "How do you rate reading comprehension in English?"

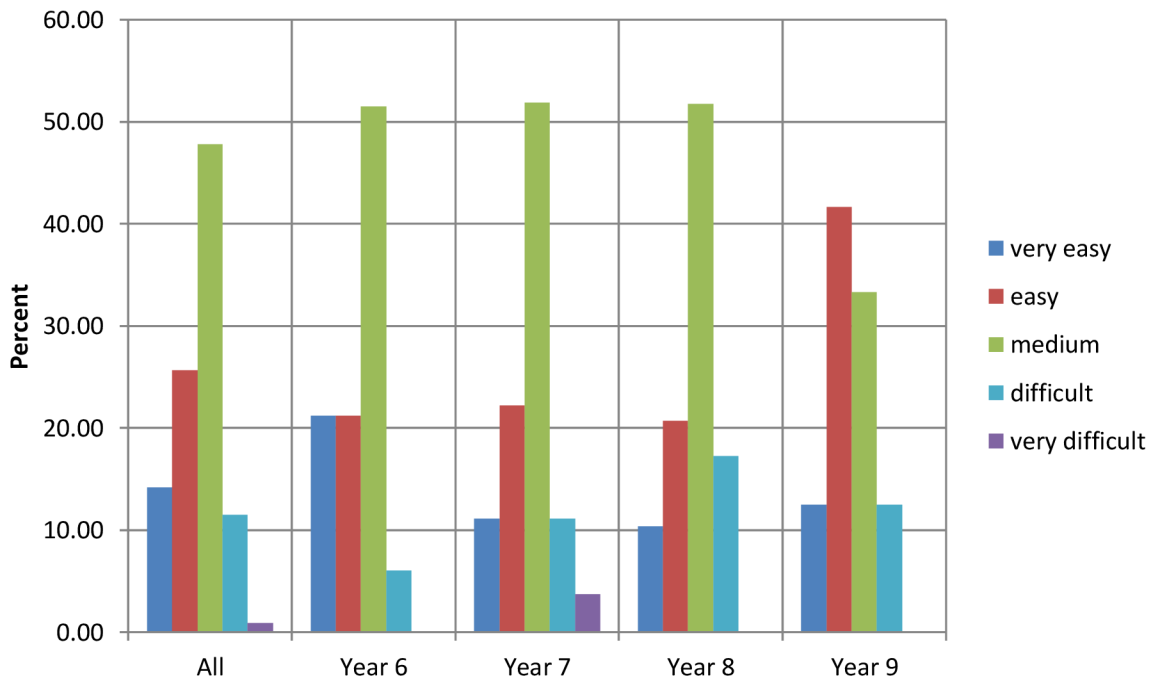


Figure 3: How do you rate reading comprehension in English?

Table 7: Learners' reported RCS regardless of the year of study and gender

<i>Use</i>	<i>Subscale</i>	<i>Strategy Item</i>	<i>RCS Descriptor</i>	<i>Rank</i>	<i>Mean</i>
High use	Pre-reading	3	I read the first sentence of the text.	1	4,407
High use	Pre-reading	2	I look at the pictures of the text.	2	4,336
High use	Pre-reading	1	I read the heading of the text.	3	4,053
High use	During reading	15	I use world knowledge for text comprehension.	4	3,929
High use	During reading	9	I translate the text sentences for better understanding.	5	3,805
High use	Pre-reading	4	I read the first sentence of each passage.	6	3,681
High use	During reading	12	I try to understand every word in the text for better comprehension.	7	3,681
Medium use	Post-reading	27	I read the text twice for better understanding.	8	3,469
Medium use	During reading	19	I guess the meaning of words from the text context.	9	3,425
Medium use	During reading	17	I read the text slowly to answer questions.	10	3,372
Medium use	Post-reading	29	I apply the knowledge from the text in my daily activities.	11	3,327
Medium use	During reading	11	I use key vocabulary and phrases for better text understanding.	12	3,301
Medium use	Post-reading	26	I re-read the text parts I do not understand.	13	3,283
Medium use	During reading	16	I scan the text to answer questions.	14	3,204
Medium use	During reading	8	I skim the text to understand the main idea.	15	3,177
Medium use	Pre-reading	7	I read the text questions before reading the text.	16	3,168
Medium use	During reading	23	During text reading, I use the deduction for better understanding.	17	3,133
Medium use	Post-reading	24	After reading, I summarize the text (by writing or in mind).	18	3,097
Medium use	Pre-reading	5	I try to predict what the text is about.	19	3,035
Medium use	During reading	18	I skip the words if I do not know the meaning.	20	3,035
Medium use	During reading	20	I use a Czech-English bilingual dictionary if I do not know the word.	21	2,770
Medium use	During reading	13	I split sentences into phrases or words for better text understanding.	22	2,708
Medium use	During reading	22	I try to predict what will happen next.	23	2,619
Medium use	During reading	10	I check my previous predictions while reading,	24	2,593
Low use	Post-reading	28	I look up unknown words or phrases in the dictionary and write them down.	25	2,389
Low use	Post-reading	25	I discuss text comprehension with my classmate.	26	2,248
Low use	Pre-reading	6	I ask myself about the author's purpose of the text.	27	2,168
Low use	Post-reading	30	I reward myself for improvements in reading comprehension.	28	2,097
Low use	During reading	21	I use a monolingual English dictionary if I do not know the word.	29	2,080
Low use	During reading	14	I take notes, underline or highlight important points while reading the text.	30	1,912

Top ten RCS for all grades in comparison to individual years

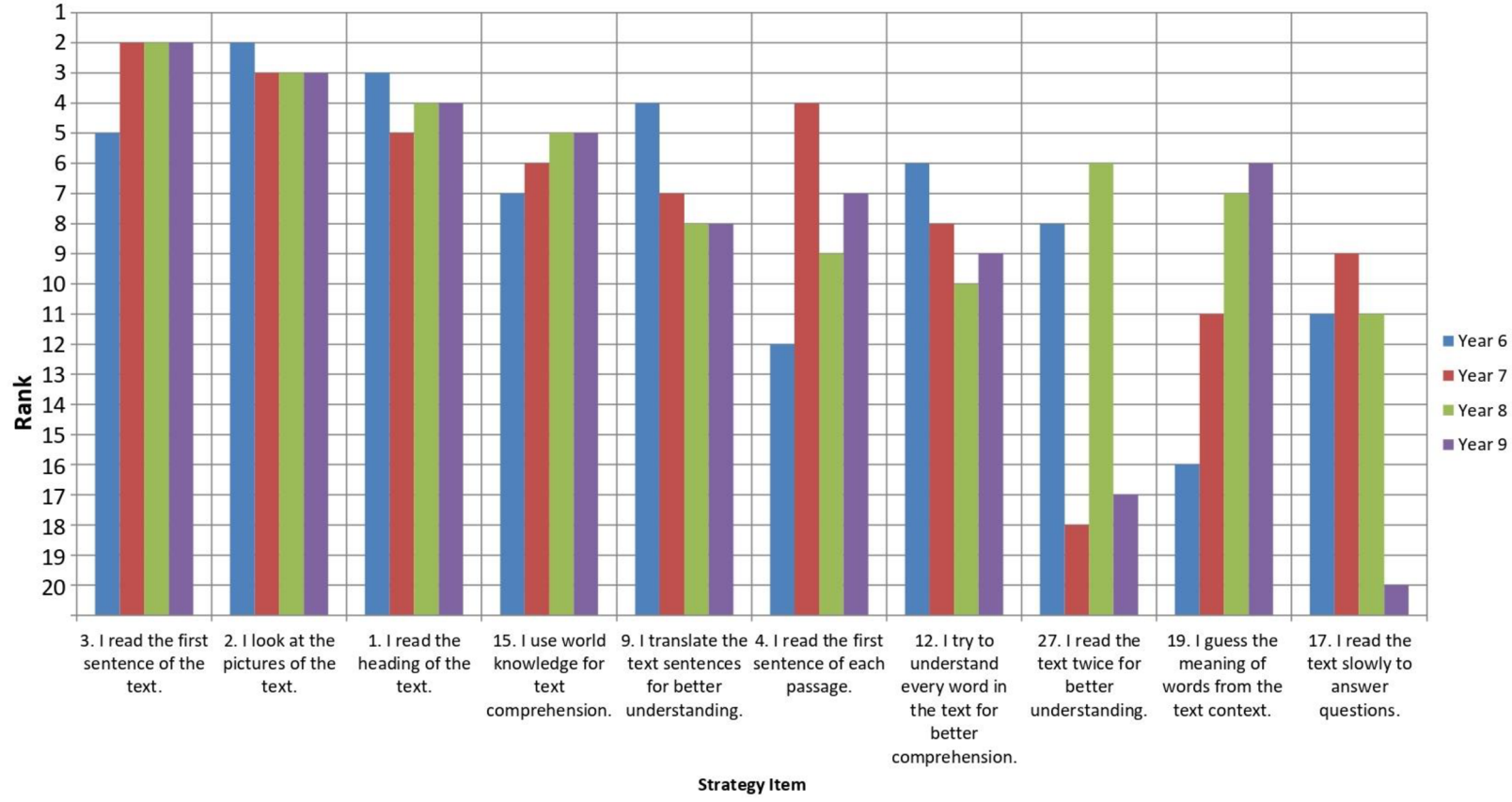


Figure 4: Top ten RCS for all grades in comparison to individual years

Top ten RCS for years of study in comparison to gender

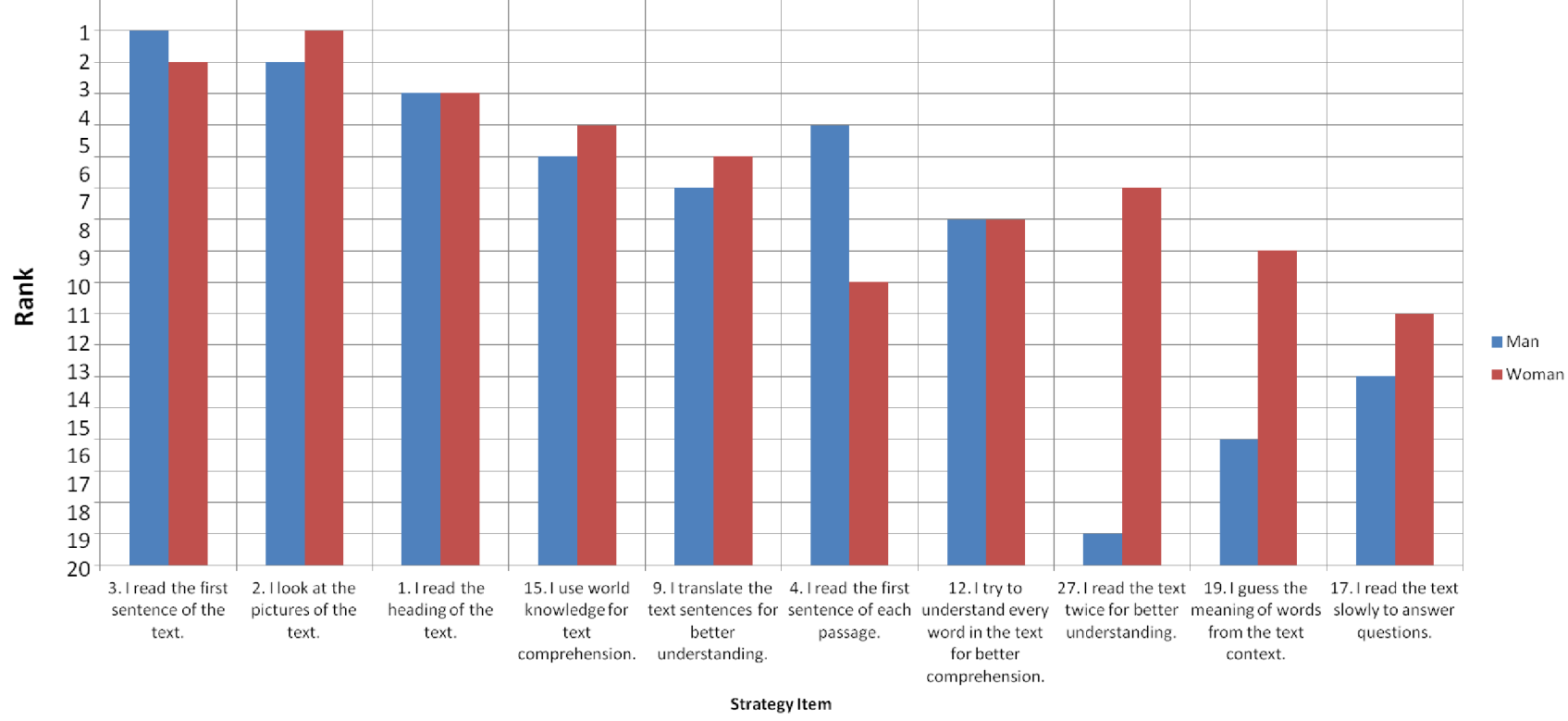


Figure 5: Top ten RCS for all years of study in comparison to gender

The reading stages comparison for all years of study for high-use strategies

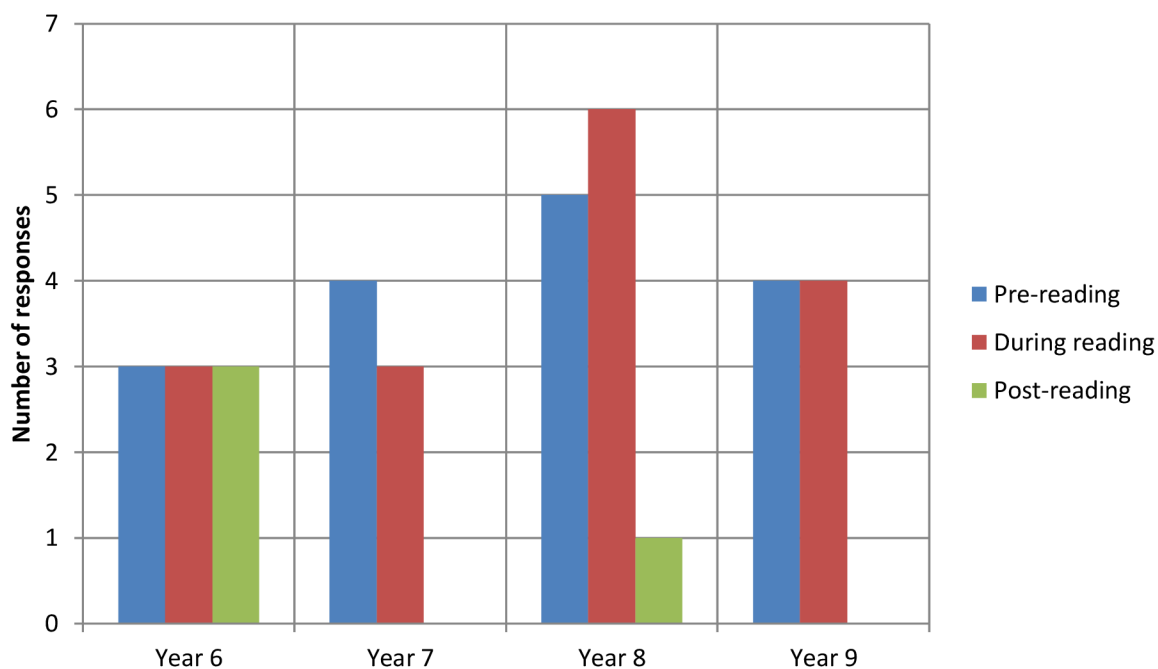


Figure 6: The reading stages comparison for all years of study for high-use strategies

Appendix G: Overview of the data from Teacher self-report questionnaire

Table 13: Teachers' reported RCS

Subscale	Subscale	Strategy Item	RCS Descriptor	Rank	Mean
High use	Post-reading	35	I phrase the learners often and motivate them to independent reading.	1	4,375
High use	Post-reading	28	After the reading, I ask the learners comprehension questions.	2	4,125
High use	Pre-reading	1	I set a purpose for reading.	3	4
High use	Pre-reading	7	I ask learners warm-up questions related to the text before reading.	4	4
High use	During reading	14	I teach the learners how to guess the meaning of unknown words.	5	4
High use	Post-reading	34	I ask the learners to interpret the text after reading.	6	4
High use	During reading	10	During reading, learners can use a bilingual or monolingual dictionary.	7	3,875

High use	During reading	15	I ask the learners to guess the meaning of unknown words.	8	3,875
High use	Post-reading	33	I instruct the learners on follow-up activities related to the text.	9	3,875
High use	Pre-reading	9	I teach keywords before learners read the text.	10	3,75
High use	During reading	17	I ask the learners to underline unknown words.	11	3,75
High use	During reading	22	I ask the learners to read the text more than once.	12	3,75
High use	Post-reading	31	I ask the learners to summarize the text (orally, in writing).	13	3,75
High use	Pre-reading	3	I ask the learners to look at illustrations/pictures and guess the text content.	14	3,625
High use	During reading	21	I tell the learners not to read every word in the text but to comprehend the meaning.	15	3,625
High use	Pre-reading	2	I ask the learners to read the title and predict the text content.	16	3,5
High use	During reading	11	Before having a discussion or other activity related to the text, I let learners read the text.	17	3,5
High use	During reading	18	I ask the learners to underline keywords.	18	3,5
High use	During reading	19	I ask the learners to take notes while reading (unknown words, phrases, keywords).	19	3,5
High use	Post-reading	29	I ask the learners to draw conclusions about the text they have read (main ideas).	20	3,5
Medium use	Post-reading	30	I ask the learners to discuss the main text ideas after reading (in groups, pairs).	21	3,375
Medium use	Pre-reading	4	I set a context before learners begin reading	22	3,25
Medium use	Pre-reading	5	I use instructional aids (realia, music, video, subjects) to set the context.	23	3,25
Medium use	During reading	23	I ask the learners to visualize what they are reading.	24	3,25
Medium use	Post-reading	32	I give the learners a quiz aimed at reading comprehension after reading.	25	3,25
Medium use	During reading	25	I have the learners read the text aloud individually	26	3,125
Medium use	Pre-reading	6	I have the learners quickly look over the text before reading.	27	3
Medium use	Pre-reading	8	I teach all new vocabulary before learners read the text.	28	3
Medium use	During reading	26	I have all the learners read the text aloud.	29	3
Medium use	During reading	13	I set a time limit for reading the text.	30	2,875

Appendix H: Concept Maps

Once upon a time there was an unhappy girl who lived with her father, stepmother and two step sisters.

She was made to work hard by day and sleep on the cold floor near the floor by night and that is how she came to be known as Cinderella.

One day an invitation arrived inviting everyone to a grand ball held in honour of the prince. Then off they went leaving Cinderella behind, sad and all alone.

Suddenly a fairy appeared. She dressed Cinderella in a beautiful gown, changed a pumpkin into a coach, and mice into horses.

So off went Cinderella to the palace. As soon as the prince saw her he asked her to dance and would dance with no other all night.

However, at midnight, Cinderella ran from the prince but she lost one of her shoes. The prince searched for the owner of the shoe.

Finally he found Cinderella and they lived happily ever after.

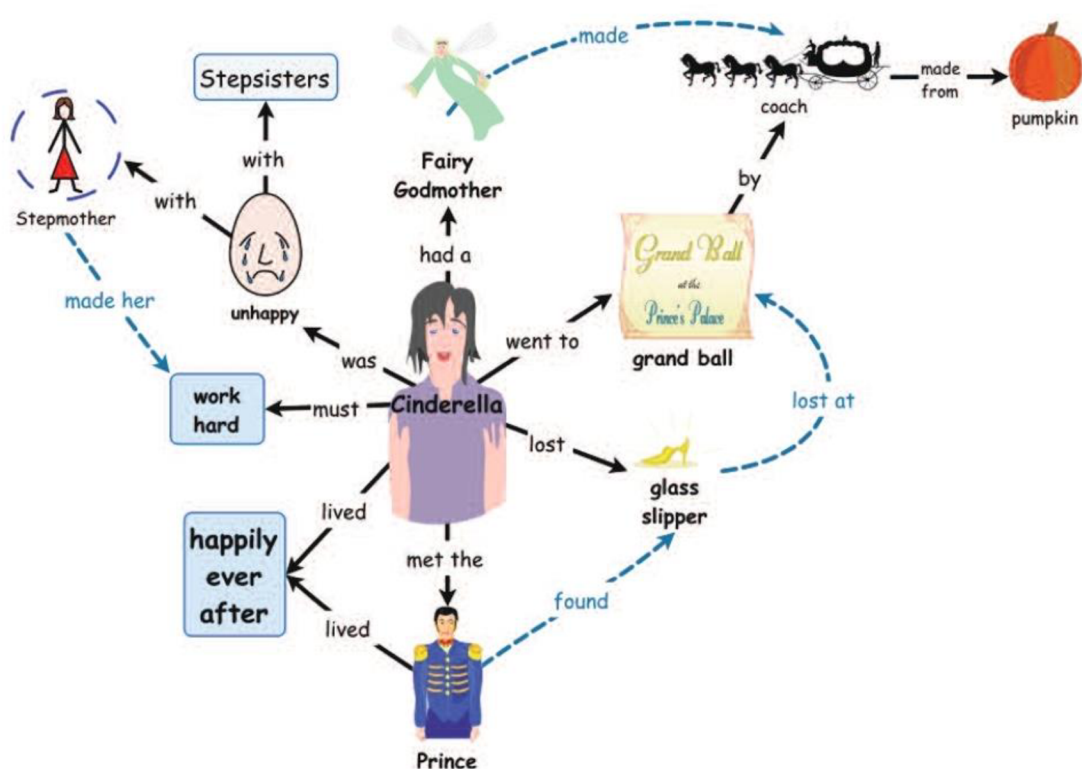


Picture 1: Text of the Cinderella story

Picture 2: A list of concepts from the story

(reprinted from www.readingrockets.org).

(reprinted from www.readingrockets.org).



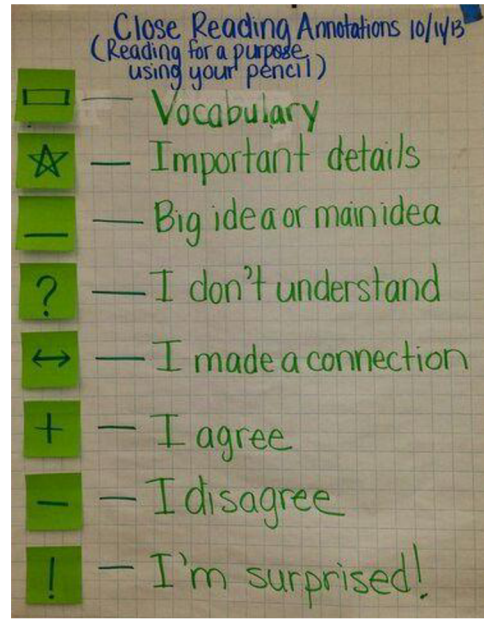
Picture 3: Concept map of the story Cinderella (printed from www.readingrockets.org).

Appendix I: Annotating the text



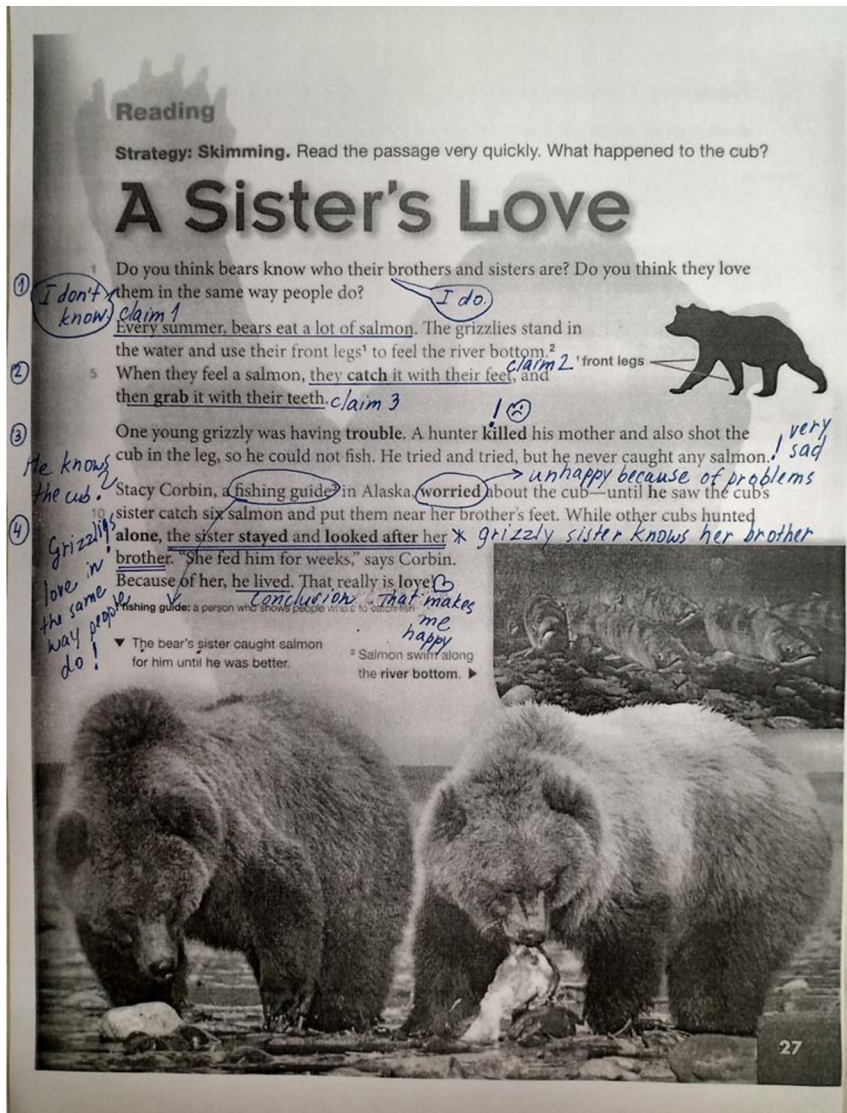
Picture 4: Notating system 1

(reprinted from weareteachers.com)



Picture 5: Notating system 2

(reprinted from weareteachers.com)



Picture 6: author's notation (reprinted from Lieske and Menking, 2011).

Appendix J: Comprehension monitoring

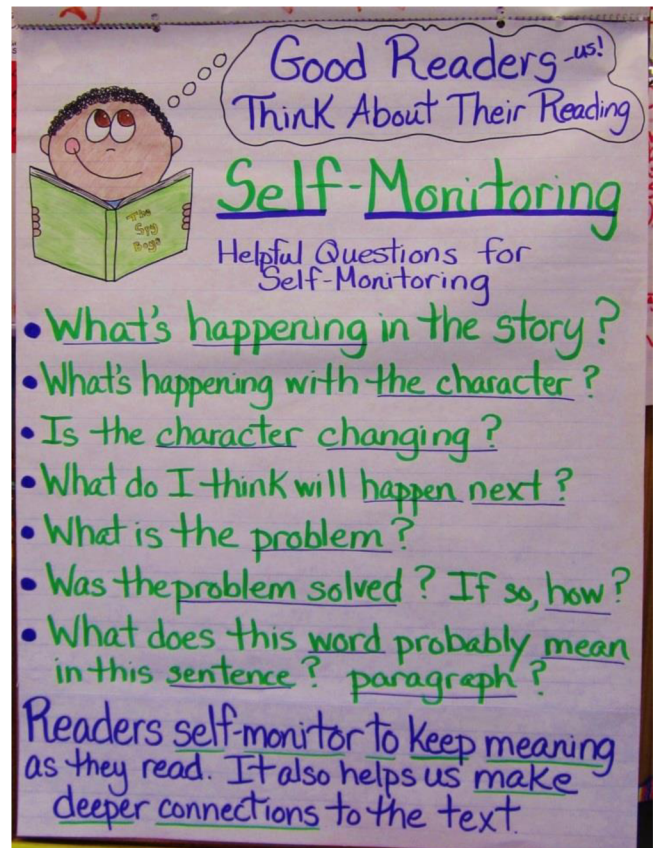
Good readers Monitor for Meaning while they read!

- I will ask questions as I read.
- I will stop reading and think.
- I will pause at the end of the passage and think:
Does what I read make sense?
- I will take a guess if I don't understand a word.
- I will skip a word if I can't figure it out and then come back to it.
 - I will slow down.
 - I will reread.
- I will make connections to help me remember.

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Picture 7: Monitoring questions

(reprinted from thecurriculumcorner.com)



Picture 8: Self-Monitoring questions

(reprinted from thecurriculumcorner.com)

Reading for Meaning:

NONFICTION

What can I do to help myself understand?

Before I read...

Scan 

- Titles and Subtitles
- Boldface Words
- Pictures and Captions
- Diagrams, Charts, and Maps

Think: 

- What do I already know?
- What questions do I have?
- What will I probably learn?

As I read...

Think: 

- What have I learned so far?
- Have any of my questions been answered?
- Do I understand?

Reread  the confusing parts.

After I read...

Think: 


- What did I learn?
- Were my questions answered?
- What questions do I still have?

Reading for Meaning:


FICTION

What can I do to help myself understand?

Before I read...


Scan 

- Title/Author
- Illustrations


Think: 

- What do I know?
- What do I predict will happen?


As I read...

Think: 

- What do I visualize?
- Were my predictions correct?
- I wonder why _____.
- I'm not sure about _____.

Reread  the confusing parts.

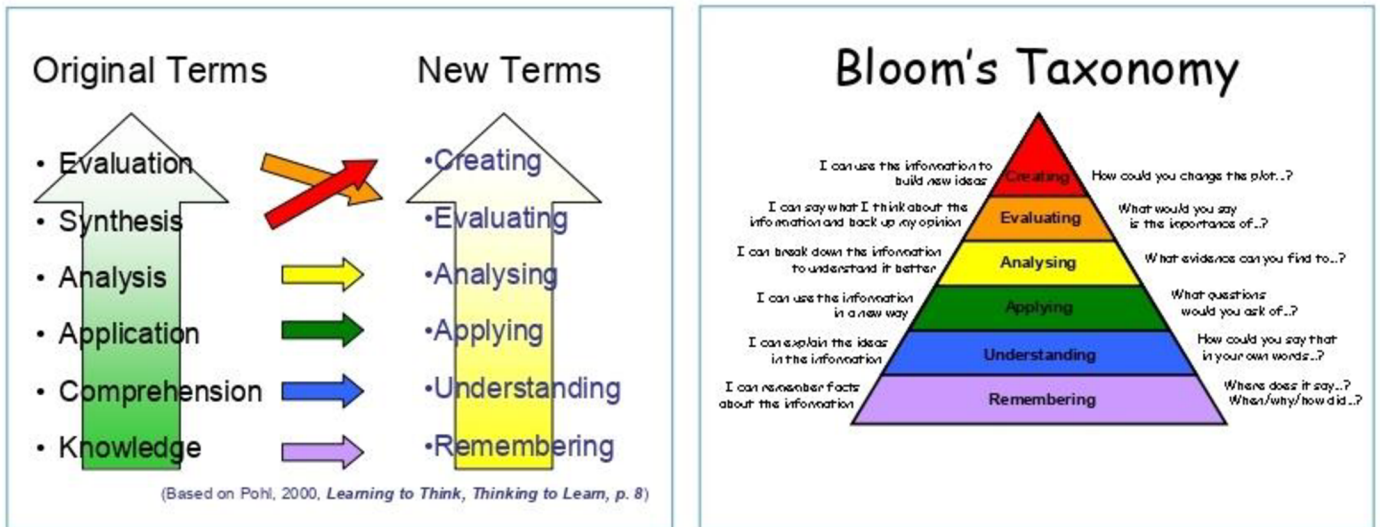
After I read...

Think: 

- This is what happened...
- This reminds of...
- I liked/didn't like...
- I would/wouldn't recommend this book because...

Picture 9: Self-monitoring bookmarks (reprinted from teacherspayteachers.com)

Appendix K: Using Bloom's Taxonomy in reading comprehension



Picture 10: Bloom's Taxonomy (reprinted from Teaching Reading Comprehension, 2021).

Knowledge	Comprehension	Application	Analysis	Synthesis	Evaluation
duplicate	classify	apply	break down	assemble	argue
identify	describe	construct	classify	categorize	conclude
know	discuss	dramatize	differentiate	compose	criticize
list	explain	interpret	compare	design	defend
match	give examples	practice	contrast	modify	estimate
memorize	paraphrase	produce	distinguish	reconstruct	justify
recite	restate	solve	outline	revise	predict
repeat	reword	use	separate	summarize	support

Picture 11: Bloom's verb list (reprinted from manelsonportfolio.blogspot.com).

Table 14: Cue Questions based on Bloom’s Taxonomy (adapted from Gregory & Chapman, 2007).

Suggested Activities for Bloom’s Taxonomy

<p>1. Knowledge</p> <p>Describe the ____.</p> <p>Make a timeline of events.</p> <p>Make a facts chart.</p> <p>Write a list of ____ or facts about ____.</p> <p>List all the people in the story.</p> <p>Make a chart showing ____.</p> <p>Make an acrostic.</p> <p>Recite a poem.</p>	<p>4. Analysis</p> <p>Design a questionnaire about ____.</p> <p>Conduct an investigation to produce ____.</p> <p>Make a flow chart to show ____.</p> <p>Construct a graph to show ____.</p> <p>Put on a play about ____.</p> <p>Review ____ in terms of identified criteria.</p> <p>Prepare a report about the area of study.</p>
<p>2. Comprehension</p> <p>Cut out or draw pictures to show an event.</p> <p>Illustrate what you think the main idea was.</p> <p>Make a cartoon strip showing the sequence of ____.</p> <p>Write and perform a play based on the ____.</p> <p>Compare this ____ with ____.</p> <p>Construct a model of ____.</p> <p>Write a news report.</p> <p>Prepare a flow chart to show the sequence.</p>	<p>5. Evaluation</p> <p>Prepare a list of criteria you would use to judge a ____.</p> <p>Indicate priority ratings you would give.</p> <p>Conduct a debate about an issue.</p> <p>Prepare an annotated bibliography.</p> <p>Form a discussion panel on the topic of ____.</p> <p>Prepare a case to present you opinions about ____.</p> <p>List some common assumptions about ____.</p> <p>Rationalize your reactions.</p>
<p>3. Application</p> <p>Construct a model to demonstrate using it.</p> <p>Make a display to illustrate one event.</p> <p>Make a collection about ____.</p> <p>Design a relief map to include relevant information about an event.</p> <p>Scan a collection of photographs to illustrate a particular aspect of the study.</p> <p>Create a mural to depict ____.</p>	<p>6. Synthesis</p> <p>Create a model that shows your new ideas.</p> <p>Devise an original plan or experiment for ____.</p> <p>Finish the incomplete ____.</p> <p>Make a hypothesis about ____.</p> <p>Change ____ so that it will ____.</p> <p>Propose a method to ____.</p> <p>Prescribe a way to ____.</p> <p>Give the book a new title.</p>

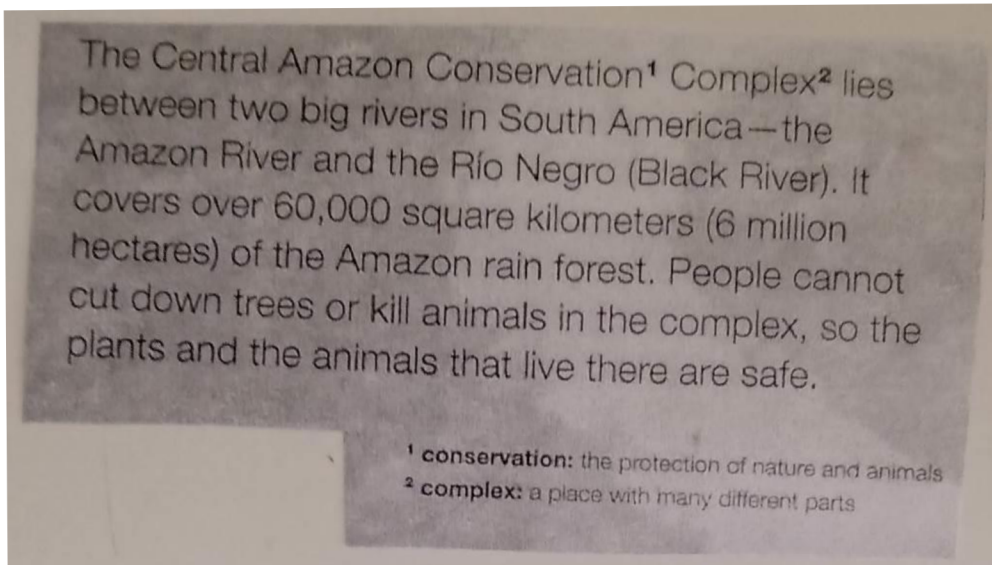
Table 15: Suggested Activities for Bloom’s Taxonomy (adapted from Gregory & Chapman, 2007).

Suggested Activities for Bloom’s Taxonomy

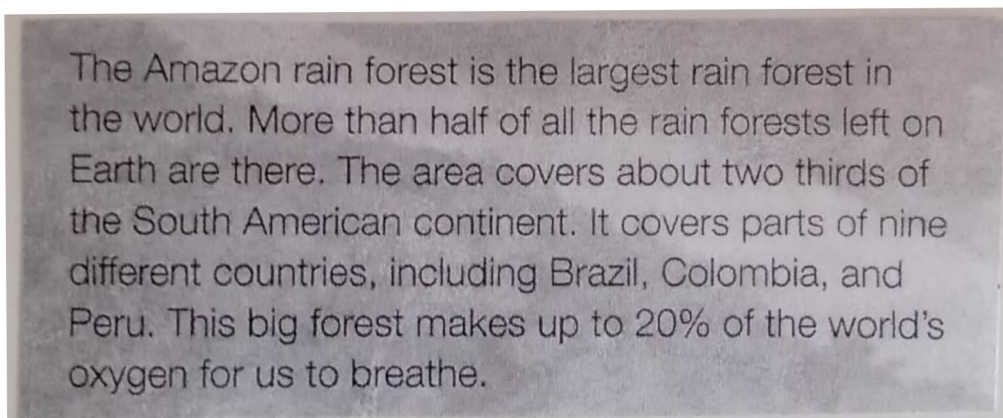
<p>1. Knowledge</p> <p>Describe the ____.</p> <p>Make a timeline of events.</p> <p>Make a facts chart.</p> <p>Write a list of ____ or facts about ____.</p> <p>List all the people in the story.</p> <p>Make a chart showing ____.</p> <p>Make an acrostic.</p> <p>Recite a poem.</p>	<p>4. Analysis</p> <p>Design a questionnaire about ____.</p> <p>Conduct an investigation to produce ____.</p> <p>Make a flow chart to show ____.</p> <p>Construct a graph to show ____.</p> <p>Put on a play about ____.</p> <p>Review ____ in terms of identified criteria.</p> <p>Prepare a report about the area of study.</p>
<p>2. Comprehension</p> <p>Cut out or draw pictures to show an event.</p> <p>Illustrate what you think the main idea was.</p> <p>Make a cartoon strip showing the sequence of ____.</p> <p>Write and perform a play based on the ____.</p> <p>Compare this ____ with ____.</p> <p>Construct a model of ____.</p> <p>Write a news report.</p> <p>Prepare a flow chart to show the sequence.</p>	<p>5. Evaluation</p> <p>Prepare a list of criteria you would use to judge a ____.</p> <p>Indicate priority ratings you would give.</p> <p>Conduct a debate about an issue.</p> <p>Prepare an annotated bibliography.</p> <p>Form a discussion panel on the topic of ____.</p> <p>Prepare a case to present you opinions about ____.</p> <p>List some common assumptions about ____.</p> <p>Rationalize your reactions.</p>
<p>3. Application</p> <p>Construct a model to demonstrate using it.</p> <p>Make a display to illustrate one event.</p> <p>Make a collection about ____.</p> <p>Design a relief map to include relevant information about an event.</p> <p>Scan a collection of photographs to illustrate a particular aspect of the study.</p> <p>Create a mural to depict ____.</p>	<p>6. Synthesis</p> <p>Create a model that shows your new ideas.</p> <p>Devise an original plan or experiment for ____.</p> <p>Finish the incomplete ____.</p> <p>Make a hypothesis about ____.</p> <p>Change ____ so that it will ____.</p> <p>Propose a method to ____.</p> <p>Prescribe a way to ____.</p> <p>Give the book a new title.</p>

Appendix L: Jigsaw Activity

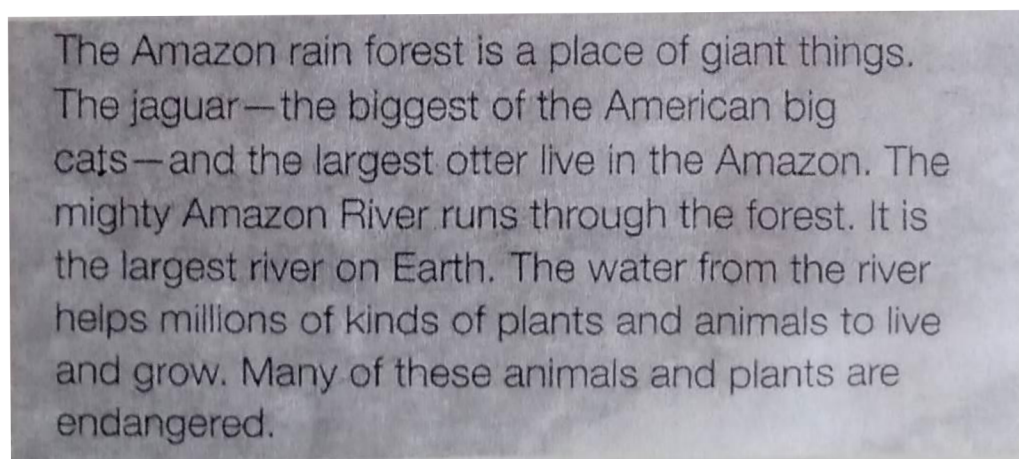
The text for the activity from Reading Adventures 1, written by Lieske and Menking (2011)



Picture 13: Text 1 (reprinted from Lieske and Menking, 2011, p. 84).



Picture 14: Text 2 (reprinted from Lieske and Menking, 2011, p. 84).



Picture 15: Text 3 (reprinted from Lieske and Menking, 2011, p. 84).

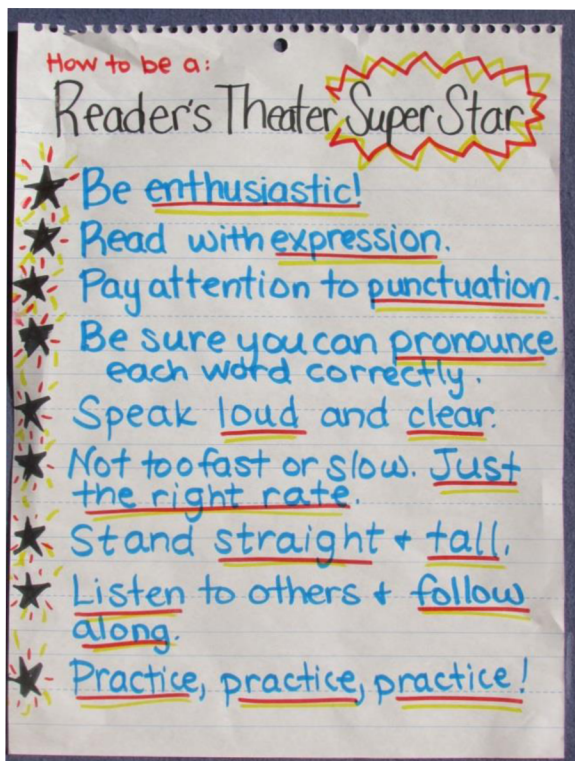
Name _____ Date _____ Pd. _____

Jigsaw Activity Graphic Organizer

My "Expert" Group	My "Home" Group
Central ideas I am an Expert on: <i>Amazon rain forest</i>	Central ideas shared by members of my Home Group: <i>The water from Amazon River helps millions of kinds of plants and animals to live.</i>
Two of the <u>most important things</u> I learned that I want to share with my Home group: 1. <i>Covers two thirds of the South American continent.</i> 2. <i>Covers parts of 9 countries</i> oxygen. 3. <i>It makes up to 20% of the world's</i>	At least two things that I learned in my Home group: 1. <i>The Amazon river is the largest river in the world.</i> 2. <i>The Amazon rain forest is protected by the Central Amazon Conservation Complex.</i>
Something new that I learned from my Expert group: (Write a few sentences or draw a visual representation) <i>The Amazon rain forest is part of 9 countries, including Brazil, Colombia, and Peru.</i>	How does each topic from my Home group connect to my Expert group/topic? 1. <i>The Amazon rain forest is the largest and produces 20% of the world's oxygen.</i> 2. <i>In the rainforest is the Amazon river</i> 3. <i>The water from the river helps plants and animals to live and grow.</i>
At least two questions that I have after completing the activity: 1. <i>Where are other rain forests in the world?</i> 2. <i>Where is the river Rio Negro?</i>	

Picture 16: Filled Jigsaw Activity Graphic Organizer (reprinted from teacherspayteachers.com; notes by the author).

Appendix M: Readers Theatre



Picture 17: Guideline for Readers Theatre (reprinted from www.lauracandler.com).

RESUMÉ

Diplomová práce se zabývá výukou čtení s porozuměním v anglickém jazyce na druhém stupni základní školy. Teoretická část práce pojednává o přístupech, metodách a strategiích užívaných pro výuku čtení v angličtině, jako cizího jazyka. Praktická část se věnuje výzkumu strategií vyučovaných učiteli druhého stupně a strategií užívaných žáky druhého stupně. Jako metody výzkumu byly aplikovány náslechy hodin anglického jazyka a dotazníky pro učitele a žáky. Výsledky šetření poukázaly na stereotypní užívání strategií zaměřených na rozvoj dovedností nižší kognitivní náročnosti, které však nejsou dostačující pro žákovu samostatné čtení s porozuměním. Proto byly navrženy strategie vedoucí k rozvoji dovedností jako analýza, syntéza, dedukce, tvorba hypotéz, monitorování textu. Tyto strategie vedou k samostatnému a komplexnímu myšlení žáků, vybavující je dovednostmi nezbytnými pro úspěšný život.

ANOTACE

Jméno a příjmení:	Petra Kostková
Katedra nebo ústav:	Ústav cizích jazyků
Vedoucí práce:	Mgr. Josef Nevařil, Ph.D
Rok obhajoby:	2021

Název práce:	Přínos praktikování čtení s porozuměním na druhém stupni základní školy
Název v angličtině:	The benefits of practising reading comprehension at Lower-Secondary School
Anotace práce:	Diplomová práce se zabývá strategiemi používanými při čtení s porozuměním ve výuce anglického jazyka na druhém stupni základní školy v České Republice. Cílem diplomové práce je porovnat žáky používané strategie čtení s porozuměním na druhém stupni ŽŠ. Je zkoumána souvislost mezi četností užití strategií na nižší a vyšší kognitivní úrovni a věkem žáků. V závislosti na výsledcích jsou navrženy strategie s aktivitami vhodnými pro rozvoj čtení s porozuměním u žáků druhého stupně.
Klíčová slova:	Čtení s porozuměním, strategie pro čtení s porozuměním, nižší a vyšší kognitivní dovednosti, cizí jazyk, výuka angličtiny.
Anotace v angličtině:	The Diploma Thesis addresses reading comprehension strategies in English classrooms at lower-secondary schools in the Czech Republic. The thesis aims to compare learners' usage of reading comprehension strategies at lower-secondary school. The relation between the frequency of lower and higher cognitive strategies and the learners' age is investigated. Based on previous research, reading comprehension strategies with activities suitable for the learners' development are recommended.
Klíčová slova v angličtině:	Reading comprehension, reading comprehension strategies, lower-level and higher-level cognitive skills, foreign language, teaching English.
Přílohy vázané v práci:	Příloha A: Project 2 Fourth edition, Student's Book (Hutchinson, 2014), texty ze stran 12, 26, 41 Příloha B: Bloggers 2, Student's Book (Malkovská a Hrabětová, 2019), texty ze stran 20, 34, 48 Příloha C: Dotazník pro studenty Příloha D: Dotazník pro učitele Příloha E: Záznamník náslechnů Příloha F: Přehled dat z dotazníku pro studenty Příloha G: Přehled dat z dotazníku pro učitele Příloha H: Pojmové mapy Příloha I: Anotace textu Příloha J: Monitorování porozumění

	Příloha K: Bloomova taxonomie ve čtení s porozuměním Příloha L: Jigsaw aktivita Příloha M: Čtenářské divadlo
Rozsah práce:	88 stran práce, 25 stran příloh
Jazyk práce:	Angličtina