

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Theoretical Description

This chapter provides various theories especially on reading comprehension which support the topic of the research. Each theory may be expressed by different experts in different ways, but the main goal is just about the same. A number of related studies with their findings are also included in the chapter which may match the findings of this study in some respects.

2.1.1 Reading Comprehension

It is already known that reading is one of the most important skills in learning language besides listening, writing, and speaking. The fundamental goal of any reading activity is to know enough scientific concepts and the language. Reading in the students' native language and reading in a second language learned are quite different matters. Reading in the target language is much more difficult for learners as they are required to have adequate knowledge of the language which has a different system, including vocabulary and structure.

Paris (2018) defined being a good in comprehending a text, a learner should know the five foundations of comprehension: conceptual knowledge, language skill, text features, strategies and fluent decoding. In other words, reading comprehension requires complex thinking and specific strategies. To monitor and improve comprehension, teachers can assess it using questions, tests,

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and discussions to diagnose the strengths and weaknesses of the learners' comprehension.

Reading is an active cognitive process of interacting with print and monitoring comprehension to establish meaning. Reading may be defined as the meaningful interpretation of printed or written verbal symbols. As proficiency in reading increases, individuals learn to adapt their reading strategies according to the purpose of tasks. Reading is not one skill but a large number of highly interrelated skills that develop gradually over the year (Harris :1984,5). The definition above explains that reading is the combination of words recognition, intellectual, and emotion related to prior knowledge to access the message being communicated.

Reading is beneficial not only for careers, study, and pleasure, but also for language acquisition. Harris further states that reading provides good models for English writing and offers opportunities to study the language: vocabulary, grammar, punctuation, and the way sentences are constructed, paragraphs, and texts (Haris : 1998,68).

The theory explains that reading is an activity to understand what the text contains. As one of the language skills, reading contributes to the success of language learning together with the other skills. Reading enables students to find out information from the texts, ranging from textbooks, newspapers, magazines, advertisements, and brochures. Reading also enables students to know how English is actually used in printed and written forms.

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In addition, it is also stated that reading is essential for success in our society. Reading is also central to a child's experiences in school and in everyday life. Thus, teaching children to read is a major task for reading teachers today. Since children arrive at schools at different reading developmental stages, reading teachers are faced with helping less capable readers improve their reading skills by providing the best reading instruction possible (Almuguer : 2005).

The theory above explains that reading is an important activity in the language classroom, reading is also central to a child's experiences. Reading is taught most compared to other language skills. Most English tests are therefore in the form of readings. Eventhough reading is dominant in English classrooms, the result of students' reading test is still unsatisfactory. An obvious evidence of this can be observed from the result of the National Examination. The questions in the National Examination are primarily related to reading in addition to grammar, language functions, and vocabulary in which the questions are mainly based on the reading texts. Dealing with the reading texts, still, a great number of students fail to achieve the expected minimum score set by the National Education Department for the English subject.

Reading comprehension is the process of understanding the message that the author is trying to convey. Khalid (2009) stated very simply, it is making meaning from the text. Furthermore, the readers can comprehend the text through reading process that includes the readers' background knowledge. Reading comprehension is crucial for the students to be able to get the meaning out of their reading. Reading with comprehension means understanding what has been read. It

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is an active thinking process that depends not only on comprehension skills but also on the students' experiences and prior knowledge. Comprehension involves understanding the vocabulary seeing the relationships among words and concept.

Furthermore, Burnes and Page (1991: 52) offers several levels of comprehension, four linguistic levels of comprehension and a traditional level of comprehension. In this theory four linguistic level of comprehension include comprehension at the word level, at the sentence level, at the paragraph, level and the whole text. The best known description of the traditional level of comprehension is probably the taxonomy of reading comprehension.

Another theory is proposed by Burnes and Page (1991: 52) reveals that there are several levels of comprehension; that is, literal, inference, evaluation, and appreciation. The first literal comprehension requires the recognition and the recall of ideas or information in the materials being read. Second inference or inferential comprehension requires that a reader combines elements from the text or make a prediction. A reader determines what is important when he or she is reading as the reader differentiates between the key ideas and less important information.

Third, evaluation is demonstrated by students when they make judgments about the content of reading selection. In evaluation, the students compare both two aspects, they are external criteria and internal criteria. External criteria, for example, deals with the information provided by the teacher on the subject, authorities on the subject. While the internal criteria is concerned with the reader's experiences, knowledge, or values related to the subject.

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Fourth, appreciation is accessing information and making meaning from a text. It is important to convey the meaning of a text. In appreciation the readers are able to use their attention and memory to create meaning.

From the theory above there are some aspects in comprehending texts. The readers need to prepare themselves by knowing some skills that they can apply while they are reading so that the goal of reading can be achieved.

Some specific comprehension skills that can help the reader in reading activity are understanding sequences, interpreting sentences, interpreting meanings through punctuation, recognizing the main idea in the paragraph, drawing logical conclusion, and obtaining the meaning of words through the text (Neil, 1980:130).

First, understanding sequences. Understanding sequences helps the reader to understand the text easier, because there are many advantages that they can get by understanding it. One of them is to help them determine which events come first and last so that they can understand the text well.

Second, interpreting sentence structures that cover semantics and syntax. Reading involves semantics and syntax. Both of them have close relationships because in a text, the reader will find sentence structure which is related to the word order in a sentence.

Third, interpreting meaning through punctuation. Punctuation in a text has crucial roles because it influences the meaning of the sentence. It is also a key to the interpretation of meaning.

Fourth, recognizing the main idea in the paragraphs. The main idea is the most important statement about the topic so that the reader should recognize it well in order to comprehend the text easier. It is important to find main ideas when reading. Main ideas help readers to remember important information.

Fifth, drawing conclusion. The readers need to know how to draw logical conclusion from their reading to sensitize them to words. It helps the readers to find the ideas that are to be presented.

Sixth, obtaining the meaning of words through context. In this case the reader should infer the meaning of an unfamiliar word by using context clues. It includes the new word is defined by using the sentence itself, comprehend an unknown word that is linked to a familiar term and understand an unknown word because they know the opposite.

The theory above explains how to comprehend the text in several ways. Reading comprehension is developing the habit of interacting with the text. If the students have been skilled in reading comprehension, they will be able to increase the pleasure and effectiveness of reading.

According to King, C.M., and Stanley, L.M. (2004: 8) Reading comprehension skill has five components contained in reading texts that may help the students in comprehending a text. They are finding factual information, finding main idea, finding the meaning of vocabulary in the context, identifying reference, and making inference.

First, finding factual information. Factual information requires the readers to find specific details. The factual information question is generally prepared for

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students and those which appear with WH question word. There are many types of questions: reason, purpose, result, time, comparison, etc in which of the answer can be found in the text.

Second, Finding main idea. Recognition of the main idea of a paragraph is really important because it helps the readers not only understand the paragraph on the first reading, but also helps the readers to remember the content. The main idea of a paragraph is what the paragraph develops. The main idea of a paragraph tells the topic of the paragraph. The topic tells what all or most of the sentences are about.

Third, finding the meaning of vocabulary in context. It means that the reader could develop his or her guessing ability to the word which is not familiar with him or her by relating the close meaning of unfamiliar words to the text and the topic of the text that is read. The words have closed meaning or nearly the same meaning as another word.

Fourth, identifying references. In English, as in other languages it would be boring to have and repeat the same word or phrase every time. Instead of repeating the same word or phrase several times, after it has been used we can usually refer to it than repeating it. For this purpose we use reference words. Recognizing reference words and being able to identify the word to which they refer to will help the reader understand the reading text. Reference words are rarely and very frequently pronoun such as: she, he, it, etc.

Fifth, making inferences. Inference is a skill where the reader has to be able to read between the conclusions of the text. A reader determines what is

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important when he or she is reading as the reader differentiates between the key ideas and less important information in the text.

In this research, the researcher adopted the indicators of reading comprehension from the theory of King and Stanley (2004:8), the researcher focused on the most five indicators are: Finding factual information, finding the meaning of difficult vocabularies, finding main idea, identifying references, and making inferences.

2.1.2 Factors in Reading Comprehension

Factors that affect learners' reading comprehension skill. Trehearne, M. P., & Doctorow, R. (2005) state the factors are learners' reading attitudes, useful teaching on comprehension methods, versatility, text form, and being aware of various reading comprehension strategies. The other factors that affect learners' reading comprehension skill are susceptibility to the text structure, the making of conclusion, and comprehension checking. Perfetti, Landi, & Oakhill, (2004) reveal that the deepness of vocabulary knowledge, syntactic consciousness, and metacognitive recognition are some of the important factors that can affect reading comprehension skills.

One of the factors that impacts learners' reading comprehension is the complexity of the texts. Nergis, A. (2013) claims that the factor of reading comprehension is influenced by the readers' strength and fluency in language and their comprehending of its applications and different meanings. Oral abilities have a significant part in identifying how skilled a reader can be because learners hear

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words and obtain a lot of vocabulary. A lot of vocabulary assists learners in explaining the unknown words through applying the opinions of context.

The second factor related to the environmental conditions that impacts the learners who try to read a passage. Readers may have a lot of problems to understand a text in an unorganized environment than those who read. If learners are in an unsafe place, they find it difficult to focus on their reading. When they are in safe environments, their reading comprehension ability will be better. Readers will lose their concentration in understanding a text when there are noises like televisions or radios

The third factor is pertinent to the anxiety during reading comprehension. Examinations, class work, or homework situations can put more pressure on readers' reading than reading for enjoyment. Some learners react positively to examinations while others are overwhelmed by the pressure to carry out a reading activity. Learners who experience this anxiety may not completely understand the instructions and this may lead to confusion and poor comprehension of the reading task.

The fourth factor is interest and motivation. Learners' interest and motivation are very important in developing reading comprehension skill. If readers find the reading material monotonous, they will have a lot of problems in concentrating on their comprehension. This can lead to a lowering of reading comprehension among readers. If the reading material is interesting for learners they can easily understand it and can remember it clearly. EFL teachers should

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motivate their learners through providing interesting reading materials during their class time.

The fifth factor is related to decoding or word recognition speed. Readers who have problems in decoding and recognizing words read slowly and find it more difficult to understand the meaning of passages than those without decoding problems. She expressed that vocabulary influences the reading comprehension skill because readers apply decoding skills to understand the pronunciation and meaning of words they have not seen before. Persons who have enough vocabulary can clarify the meaning or reading passages faster than those who should guess the meaning of unfamiliar words according to the clues of context.

The last factor is concerned with the medical problems. Poor reading comprehension skill may be related to the medical difficulty that does not get addressed until the child is older. This involves undiagnosed ADD (attention deficit disorder), speech problems, and hearing impairments. She emphasized that learners with speech and hearing difficulties are less likely to take part in oral reading and class discussions. These are the two activities that help learners improve their reading comprehension skills.

2.1.3 Reading Strategies

The use of reading strategies in language learning has a vital role to improve reading comprehension. Readers' language proficiency is related to the use of their reading strategies. Based on these researches, readers who have high proficiency try to use global strategies for understanding a text. Readers who have

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low proficiency, try to utilize particular techniques that are not beneficial to understand a text (Gan, Humphreys, & Hamp Lyons, 2004; Zhang & Wu, 2009).

Kletzien, S. B. (1991) Stated comprehension monitoring is linked to the use of the other four categories of strategies that relate to different aspects of comprehension processes. The first category includes strategies to prepare to read, including setting the goals of reading. The second category deals with strategies to interpret words, sentences, and ideas in text that help reader to develop a coherent text-base level of comprehension. The third category includes strategies to go beyond the text by connecting the text content with reader's prior knowledge that help reader to develop a situation model of text. The fourth category comprises strategies to organize, restructure, and synthesize the information from the text in order to facilitate global processing. In this research paper we focus on strategies which readers use during and after reading the text: paraphrasing, bridging inferences, elaborations, question generation, and summarizing.

Grellet (1998: 14-19) proposes the strategy of reading :

a. Sensitizing

The aim of this section is to provide exercises that will develop the strategies that students' need to cope with unfamiliar words and complex or apparently obscure sentences. It should ensure that they do not stumble on every difficulty or get discouraged from the outset.

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1) Inference

Inference means making use of syntactic, logical and cultural clues to discover the meaning of unknown elements. When dealing with a new text, it is better not to explain the difficult words to the learners beforehand.

2) Understanding relations within the sentence.

It is therefore important to train the students as early possible to look first for the core of the sentence. In order to do that, the learners can be asked to divide passages into sense groups and underline, box, or recognize in some other way the important elements of each sentence in a page.

3) Linking sentences and ideas

It is essential to prepare the students to recognize various devices used to create textual cohesion and more particularly the use of reference and link-words.

b. Predicting

It is the faculty of predicting or guessing what comes next, making use of grammatical, logical and cultural clues. This skill is at the core of techniques such as anticipation or skimming.

c. Previewing

Previewing is a very specific reading technique which involves using table of contents, preface; the chapter and paragraph headings in order to find out where the required information is likely to be.

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d. Skimming

Skimming is therefore a more through activity which requires an overall view of the text and implies a definite reading competence. Skimming means retrieving what information is relevant to our purpose. The reader's reading processes certainly use the techniques in reading. The techniques in reading are divided into several kinds, first is sensitizing. Sensitizing is the situation when the readers find some of new vocabulary that he/she does not know before. In sensitizing consists of inference, understanding relation with the sentences, and linking sentences with ideas. Besides sensitizing, predicting, skimming and previewing also include the techniques of reading. Predicting is some of action to predict what comes in the next. Skimming is also called fast reading, the reader just focus on their purpose in reading a text. And previewing is called detailed reading. The reader reads the text carefully and very detailed in the text reading.

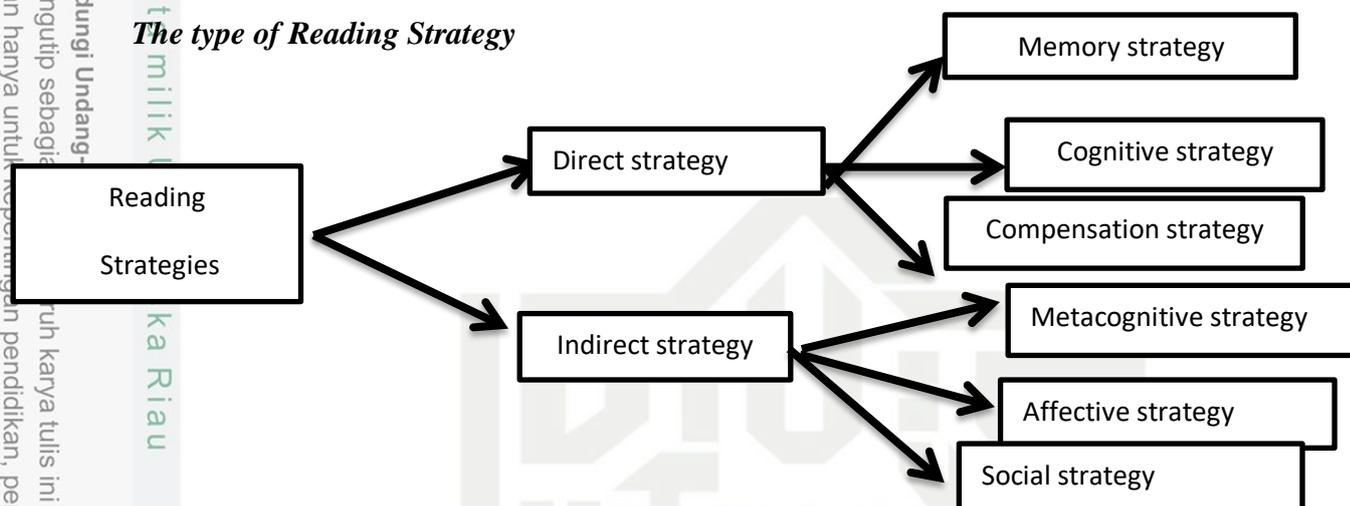
Reading strategies mean cognitive steps which readers can take into account in order to acquire, store and retrieve data. In reading comprehension, there exists four major categories of strategies: skimming, scanning, careful-reading and predicting. Anderson, T. H., & Armbruster, B. B. (1984:21) sated reading strategy are considered at the same time as the sub-skills of reading. In this sense, Koda (2007) states that: The strategies may involve skimming, scanning, guessing, recognizing cognates and word families, reading for meaning, predicting, activating general knowledge, making inferences, and separating main ideas from supporting ideas.

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According to Oxford (1990) there are two general types of reading strategies: *direct strategies* and *indirect strategies*.

The type of Reading Strategy



II.3.1.1 Direct Reading Strategies

Direct reading strategies are divided into three subcategories: Memory, Cognitive and Compensation Strategies.

II.3.1.1.1 Memory Strategies

Memory strategies help the learner store new information in memory and retrieve it later. They are particularly said to be useful in vocabulary learning which is “the most sizeable and unmanageable component in the learning of any language” (Oxford, 1990:39). Memory strategies help readers (i.e. students who are learning reading skills in a foreign language) by making them store verbal material and then retrieve it when needed for communication. Arranging things in order, making associations and reviewing are very simple principles of memory strategies. These principles all involve meaning. Creating mental linkage,

applying images and sounds, reviewing well and employing action are sole strategies which help learners store in memory the important things they hear in the new language, thus enlarging their knowledge base.

A. Creating mental linkage: Readers can use these strategies by grouping, associating / elaborating and using context strategy types.

- a. *Grouping*- Readers can use this memory strategy by classifying or reclassifying what is heard into meaningful groups. Thus the reader reduces the number of unrelated elements (Oxford, 1990).
- b. *Associating / elaborating*- This memory strategy involves associating new things with familiar concepts already known.
- c. *Placing new words into a context*- This strategy involves new words or expressions that have been heard into meaningful contexts, such as spoken or written sentences as a way of remembering them.

B. Applying images and sounds: The following four strategies for applying images is useful for remembering new expressions that have been read and heard.

- a. *Using imagery*- This strategy is a good way to remember what has been heard (in a foreign language) is to create a mental image of it.
- b. *Semantic mapping*- This memory strategy involves arranging concepts and relationships on paper to create a diagram in which the key concepts heard are highlighted and all are linked with related concepts via arrow or lines.
- c. *Using key words*- This strategy combines sounds and images so that learners can more easily remember what they read in the target language

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C. Representing sounds in memory- This strategy help learners remember what they hear by making auditory rather than visual representations of sounds. Rhymes are a well-known example of representing sounds in memory.

D. Reviewing well: Structured reviewing is useful to remember new ideas and concepts heard in the target language.

E. Employing action: It includes two memory strategies: physical response or sensation and using mechanical techniques.

F. Physical response or sensation- These strategies help learners to remember new words/phrases or expressions by physically acting out a new expression that has been read.

G. Using mechanical techniques- To remember what has been heard mechanical techniques are sometimes helpful. For example, flashcards, writing a new word (see in a reading text) and its meaning on different sides of it, is both familiar and useful.

II.3.1.1.2 Cognitive Strategies

The second groups of direct strategies are the cognitive strategies. According to research results (e.g., O'Malley et al., 1989; Oxford, 1990; Bacon,1992) cognitive strategies are the most common type of strategies used by learners. To Oxford (1990) cognitive reading strategies can be categorized under four sets: practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, and creating structure for input and output. Each set of strategy is further classified into different strategies.

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A. Practicing: Strategies for practicing are among the most important cognitive reading strategies. This set contains four reading strategies: repeating, formal practicing with word and writing systems, recognizing and using formulas and patterns, and practicing naturalistically.

a. Repeating- One use of this strategy is repeatedly reading to the text.

Repetition might involve reading or writing the same thing several times (Oxford, 1990).

b. Formal practicing with sounds and writing systems – This strategy, in reading, is usually used for perception of sounds (pronunciation and intonation) rather than on comprehension of meaning.

c. Recognizing and using formulas and patterns- Recognizing and using Routine formulas and patterns in the target language greatly enhance student's reading comprehension. If students use these routines properly, they will help them to build their self-confidence and increase their reading comprehension.

d. Practicing naturalistically- In reading, this learning strategy involves comprehending the meaning of the spoken language in as naturalistic context as much as possible.

B. Receiving and sending messages: This set consists of two strategies i.e. getting the idea quickly, and using resources for receiving and sending messages.

a. Getting the idea quickly- This reading strategy help learners to focus on what they want to understand from a reading text. The two techniques involved in this strategy are skimming and scanning. Skimming involves

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searching for the central idea the speaker wants to get across, whereas scanning means searching for specific details of interest to the reader

Using resources for receiving and sending messages- This strategy involves using resources to find out the meaning of what is heard in the target language. For better understanding of what is heard, printed resources such as dictionaries, grammar books, Encyclopedias etc. can provide important background information so that learners can better understand the spoken language. Non-printed resources like TV, tape, video cassettes and radio are among other resources.

C. Analyzing and reasoning: This set of strategies help learners (readers) to use logical thinking to understand and use the grammar rules and vocabulary to understand reading texts (in the target language) better.

This set of strategies is further divided into five reading strategies: reasoning deductively, analyzing expressions, analyzing contrastively, translating, and transferring (Oxford, 1990).

a. Reasoning deductively- This strategy help learners derive hypothesis (guesses) about the meaning of what is heard by means of general rules (of the target language) the learner already knows.

b. Analyzing expressions- This strategy helps readers to comprehend something spoken in the target language by breaking down a new word, phrase, sentence or even paragraph into its meaningful components.

c. *Analyzing contrastively*- This reading strategy involves analyzing elements (sounds, words, syntax) of the target language to determine similarities and differences in comparison with the learner's mother tongue .

d. *Translating* - As long as it is used with care, this strategy can be helpful in early language learning

e. *Transferring*-This strategy involves directly applying background knowledge to facilitate learning reading skills in the target language. Transferring can involve applying linguistic knowledge from the learner's mother tongue to the target language or conceptual knowledge from one field to another or from one skill to another.

D. Creating structure for input and output: This set consists of three strategies: taking notes, summarizing, and highlighting. These strategies help learners sort and organize information heard in the target language that comes their way. Besides, these strategies allow students to demonstrate their reading comprehension tangibly for using it for writing and speaking (Oxford, 1990).

a. *Taking notes*- This is a crucial strategy for reading. The focus of taking notes should be on understanding, not writing.

b. *Summarizing*- This is making condensed, short version of the original reading passage or text. It is the other strategy that helps readers new input and show they understand the reading text they read

c. *Highlighting*- This is the other strategy that benefit learners by supplementing notes and summaries. It focuses on showing the major or

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most important points heard in a dramatic way like through color, underlining, capital letters, initial capitals, bold writing, stars, circles, etc.

While Oxford provides a detailed description of all cognitive reading strategies, Bacon (1992) categorizes them under two main headings: top-down and bottom-up strategies.

Bottom-up Strategies: They are text based strategies because they depend on using clues or evidence from the existing text to understand new information. That includes strategies like repeating some words that the reader heard probably because they seem to be key words as long as they occur frequently than other words. Some readers used these strategies to acquire the meaning of the message based on the incoming language data from sounds, to words, to grammatical relationships, and ultimately to the meaning. Students build meaning from lower level sounds to words and then to grammatical relationships and finally to lexical meanings in order to arrive at the final message; learners use linguistic knowledge to understand the meaning of a message (Nunan, 2002; Rost, 2002). On the other hand, readers can get some information from the text through paying attention to intonation and pauses that help them recognize chunks of words as particular speech patterns, each of which carries one piece of information (Rixon, 1986).

Top-down strategies: Unlike bottom-up strategies, this type of strategy is thought to be a higher cognitive level in the sense that it deals with more

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abstract clues. Thus, to deduce the meaning from and interpret the message, readers use top-down strategies by relating what they hear with their schemata knowledge. Schemata knowledge includes learner's background knowledge and global understanding. Background knowledge can be knowledge of the topic, the reading context, the text-type, the culture or other information stored in long-term memory as schemata (typical sequences or common situations around which world knowledge is organized) (Nunan, 2002; Rost, 2002). Having such knowledge, readers can keep up with the reading text because they formulate some expectations and predictions before and while reading (Bacon, 1992).

However, since reading is an interactive and interpretive process where readers use both prior knowledge and linguistic knowledge to make sense of the incoming message, students are expected to use both strategies accordingly (Rost, 1994; Nunan, 2002). The degree to which readers use the one strategy or the other will depend on their knowledge of the language, familiarity with the topic or the purpose for reading. For example, reading for gist involves primarily top-down processing and strategies, whereas reading for specific information, as in a weather broadcast, involves primarily bottom-up strategies to comprehend all the desired details.

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II.3.1.1.3 Compensation Strategies

If used effectively, compensatory strategies can help learners to overcome knowledge limitations when they do not hear something clearly or cannot catch all the words. They are also useful when learners face with a situation in which the meaning is only implicit or intentionally vague. When learners are confronted with unknown expressions or words, they can make use a variety of clues so as to guess the meaning of those expressions or words. Therefore, Oxford (1990) considers these strategies as the tools for ‘guessing intelligently’ because readers do not have to recognize and understand every single word as long as they can guess ‘systematically’ through using clues such as:

A. *Using linguistic clues-* Learner’s background knowledge of the target language, her/his own language or some other languages can provide linguistic clues to the meaning of what is read (Oxford, 1990). Readers can use such clues like word order, word formation (e.g. identifying suffixes and prefixes) and word stress to facilitate their reading comprehension. Though some guesses can be based on partial knowledge of the target language, learners need to have sufficient grammatical Knowledge of the target language.

B. *Using other clues-* These are clues from other sources –excluding clues coming purely from knowledge of language. Hence, some of these clues are related to the type of vocabulary used that readers need to be familiar with in order to guess what is ‘beyond’ the language. For example, readers can make a good guess about the social status of certain

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participants (people in the reading text) from the way they addressed such as ‘Mrs.’ and ‘Miss’. In other words, “Forms of address, such as titles or nicknames, help learners guess the meaning of what they read.

2.3.1.2 Indirect Reading Strategies

The second group of strategies, that is, indirect reading strategies, consists of three subcategories: Metacognitive, Affective, and Social Strategies.

2.3.1.2.1. Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies involve the use of reading comprehension activities and utilize individual perceptions to help readers increase their levels of reading comprehension. Metacognitive strategies go beyond the cognitive devices and provide a way for learners to coordinate with their own learning process. In light of this (Oxford, 1990:135) argues that “Metacognitive strategies allow learners to control their own cognition-that is to coordinate the learning process by using functions such as centering, arranging, planning, and evaluating.” In other words, these strategies help readers (who are learning reading skills in a foreign language) coordinate their own learning process. They occur pre-reading, during reading and post-reading, and they increase readers’ levels of reading comprehension and better develop an awareness of reading (Bacon, 1992). Metacognitive strategies consist three sets: *centering one’s learning, arranging and planning one’s learning, and evaluating one’s learning.*

Centering one’s learning: Centering for learning or finding a focus is a crucial matter in learning reading skills in a foreign language (Oxford, 1990).

B. *Arranging and planning one's learning*: This set of metacognitive strategy focuses on investigating the nature of language learning, organizing to learn establishing aims, considering task purposes, planning for tasks ,and looking for chances to practice reading (Oxford, 1990)..

C. *Evaluating your learning*: Self-monitoring and self-evaluation are the two strategy types in this set of metacognitive reading strategy. They relate to monitoring one's own error and evaluating one's overall progress in learning reading skills (Oxford, 1990).

2.3.1.2.2 Affective Strategies

Though it is difficult to describe affective domain within definable limits, to Brown (2002), it encompasses such concepts as self-esteem, attitudes, motivation, anxiety, culture shock, inhibition, risk-taking, and tolerance of ambiguity. Oxford (1990:140) claims that “the affective side of the learner is probably one of the very biggest influences on language learning success or failure.” Knowing how to control one's emotions and attitudes about learning may influence the language learning process positively since it will make the learning more effective and enjoyable. It is also known that negative feelings can hinder progress. Good language learners often know how to control their emotions and attitudes about learning (ibid). There are many cases in which learners have no problems dealing with technical aspects of the language. For instance, students may perfectly understand a reading text, but they would not be able to perform the

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reading task successfully if the text is culturally offensive. The control over such factors is gained through the manipulation of affective strategies (Bacon, 1992).

According to Oxford (1990) there are three sets of affective strategies: lowering one's anxiety, encouraging oneself, and taking one's emotional temperature.

Lowering one's anxiety: Anxiety may have a debilitating effect in learning reading skills in a foreign language. Learners may have a feeling of being unable to perform reading tasks and activities in a foreign language classroom when foreign language anxiety emerges (Horwitz et al., 1986).

Encouraging oneself: In addition to other peoples' encouragement "the most potent encouragement—and the only available encouragement in many independent language learning situations -may come from inside the learner" (Oxford, 1990: 143). In most cases reading in a foreign language is a personal activity carried out by individual learners. Thus, self-encouragement strategies should be taken into account in learning reading skills because they are ways to keep learners spirits up and preserve as they try to comprehend reading texts. Self-encouragement reading strategies include saying positive statements to oneself, prodding oneself to take risks wisely, and providing rewards to oneself

Taking one's emotional temperature: According to Oxford (1990) this set of affective strategies involves getting in touch with feelings, attitudes and motivation through a variety of ways. Readers are expected to take into account these affective strategies so that they start to exert some control

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over them. This set includes specific affective reading strategies such as reading to your body, using a checklist, writing a language learning diary, and discussing your feelings with someone else.

2.3.1.2.3 Social

Since language is a form of social behavior, it involves communication between and among people. In learning situations, there are mixed ability groups within which learners can develop some appropriate strategies for sharing ideas and asking for help. Social reading strategies enable language learners to learn with others by making use of strategies such as asking questions (i.e. asking for clarification or verification), cooperating with others, and empathizing with others (Oxford,1990). Their appropriate use is extremely important since they determine the nature of communication in a learning context.

- a. *Asking for clarification or verification:* As readers, learners can ask for clarification when they read, who could be the teacher or other more person.
- b. *Cooperating with others:* As language in all aspects is a social activity, learners have the chance to learn from their peers. If they are put into groups to work on a particular reading task, there is a possibility that less successful readers make use of some of the strategies used by successful readers as they work together cooperatively and observe how their peers manage to succeed.
- c. *Empathizing with others:* Understanding a reading text involves empathy with other people, particularly with individuals from the target culture.

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Students' background knowledge of the new culture often help them for better understanding of what is heard in the new language. In addition, "becoming aware of fluctuations in thoughts, and feelings of particular people who use the new language help learners understand more clearly what is communicated (what is said and what is left unsaid)" (Oxford, 1990:173). This in turn help readers, as learners, to become more aware of the mind set of other people.

2.1.4. Reading Difficulties

The research about the student's difficulties in reading comprehension is exposed by many researchers. According to Mejadi (2015,1) the result of the reading researches found is the students had difficulties in ambiguous words and that they could not understand the whole text. Moreover, the students claimed that they faced problems with words that seemed to be confusing sometimes, such as some deceptive words. Than the problems came from reading aloud in the classroom, some of them said that while they were reading loudly some of their classmates laughed at them when they could not read perfectly, and for this reason they considered reading aloud as an obstacle. The reading problem also laid in pronunciation. The number of students that did not have the habit of reading in English added that they disliked learning this language as it did not interest them. More than that, some of them were not interested in the session of reading in which they claimed that they felt bored.

Cheng (2007, 1) states that reading difficulties is caused by limited vocabulary, low reading speed, limited semantic knowledge (professional terms), lack of reading efficiency, lack of syntactic knowledge, short attention span, unfamiliarity with the organization of the journal article, lack of sufficient prior knowledge, inability to use effective reading strategies, limited interest in reading, lack of patience, memory failure, do not know where to start reading, having a problem understanding the main points, do not understand the tables, and the last charts or statistics.

2.2 Academic Journals

According to Blake & Robert (1993,113), An academic or scholarly journal is a periodical publication in which scholarship relating to a particular academic discipline is published. Academic journals serve as permanent and transparent forums for the presentation, scrutiny, and discussion of research. They are usually peer-reviewed or refereed.

There are two types of research journals. The first type is an academic publication of peer reviewed articles in a given field, which presents research as a straightforward and clear process. The second type of research journal is usually kept by qualitative researchers and exhibits the messy business that research often is, showing the researcher's journey and contains the reasons why they made one decision instead of another (Deborah E. De Lange (2011).

Academic research journals are the sources to look for cutting-edge knowledge and research in a particular field. A working research journal is the way for a researcher to keep track of not only data and personal impressions, but

also research methodology and reasons the researcher chooses one path over another (Lange : 2011).

The term academic journal applies to scholarly publications in all fields; this article discusses the aspects common to all academic field journals. Scientific journals and journals of the quantitative social sciences vary in form and function from journals of the humanities and qualitative social sciences; their specific aspects are separately discussed Gregory : 2005).

Lange (2011) stated that content typically takes the form of articles presenting original research, review articles, and book reviews. The purpose of an academic journal, according to the first editor of the world's oldest academic journal Henry Oldenburg, is to give researchers a venue to "impart their knowledge to one another, and contribute what they can to the Grand design of improving natural knowledge, and perfecting all Philosophical Arts, and Sciences.

Murray (2009) said an academic journal's prestige is established over time, and can reflect many factors, some but not all of which are expressible quantitatively. In each academic discipline, there are dominant journals that receive the largest number of submissions, and therefore can be selective in choosing their contents; yet, not only the largest journals are of excellent quality.

In the natural sciences and in the social sciences, the impact factor is an established proxy, measuring the number of later articles citing articles already published in the journal. There are other quantitative measures of prestige, such as the overall number of citations, how quickly articles are cited, and the average "half-life" of articles. There is also the question of whether or not any quantitative

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factor can reflect true prestige. Clarivate Analytics' Journal Citation Reports, which among other features, computes an impact factor for academic journals, draws data for computation from the Science Citation Index Expanded (for natural science journals), and from the Social Sciences Citation Index (for social science journals). (Murray : 2009).

In the Anglo-American humanities, there is no tradition (as there is in the sciences) of giving impact-factors that could be used in establishing a journal's prestige. Recent moves have been made by the European Science Foundation (ESF) to change the situation, resulting in the publication of preliminary lists for the ranking of academic journals in the humanities. These rankings have been severely criticized, notably by history and sociology of science British journals that have published a common editorial entitled "Journals under Threat." Though it did not prevent ESF and some national organizations from proposing journal rankings, it largely prevented their use as evaluation tools. (Pontille, David; Torny, Didier : 2010)

2.2.1 Academic Journal Articles

Reading any college-level text can be challenging and time-consuming. The amount of reading assigned and the level of difficulty significantly increase from high school to college. Many students find that the skills they needed and used in high school are not as effective in college. Understanding and using effective active reading strategies can transform reading and study time from frustrating and confusing to meaningful, purposeful, and successful. Using active

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reading strategies can improve comprehension and ensure that you actually retain the information you read.

Journal articles are one of the main ways in which scientists communicate their most recent research to the scientific community and are a good source of information. At first reading journals can seem challenging; they are written for an expert audience in a formal style and follow a certain structure, which may be unfamiliar. It's worth spending the time learning how to read them though, as it's a skill that will come in handy whether you're writing up laboratory reports, literature reviews or project dissertations (Finlay, S & Faulkner, G 2010 :32-45).

Journal articles bring their own set of challenges. Since journal articles are usually significantly different from other texts, it's even more important to have a good understanding of active and effective reading strategies, especially ones that are specific to journal articles (Manning, M, 1999:89-91).

It has become essential for the clinicians, researchers, and students to read articles from scientific journals. This is not only to keep abreast of progress in the specialty concerned but also to be aware of current trends in providing optimum healthcare to the patients. Reading scientific literature is a must for students interested in research, for choosing their topics and carrying out their experiments. Scientific literature in that field will help one understand what has already been discovered and what questions remain unanswered and thus help in designing one's research project. (Med J, 198 :124)

Journal articles usually have a quite rigid structure that is determined by the particular journal in which they appear and by the type of research being

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reported; this makes extracting information from them sometimes easier than from less rigid text types. The reporting of empirical research will mostly follow the format of abstract, introduction, methods, results, discussion, and conclusion (Manning, M, 1999:89-91).

According to Dublin (2009:54) at first glance, a journal article might appear intimidating for some or confusing for others with its tables and graphs. Reading a research article can be a frustrating experience, especially for the one who has not mastered the art of reading scientific literature. Just like there is a method to extract a tooth or prepare a cavity, one can also learn to read research articles by following a systematic approach. Most scientific articles are organized as follows;

1. Title: Topic and information about the authors.
2. Abstract: Brief overview of the article.
3. Introduction: Background information and statement of the research hypothesis.
4. Methods: Details of how the study was conducted, procedures followed, instruments used and variables measured.
5. Results: All the data of the study along with figures, tables and/or graphs.
6. Discussion: The interpretation of the results and implications of the study.
7. References/Bibliography: Citations of sources from where the information was obtained.

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Academic journal articles do not usually follow the above pattern, unless they are systematic reviews or meta-analysis. The cardinal rule is: Never start reading an article from the beginning to the end. It is better to begin by identifying the conclusions of the study by reading the title and the abstract. If the article does not have an abstract, read the conclusions or the summary at the end of the article first. After reading the abstract or conclusions, if the reader deems it is interesting or useful, then the entire article can be read. (Peh, 2008:49)

Fountas (2001: 3-6) claims that the most important section of the article where the research questions are answered and the meaning of analysis and interpretation of the data are presented. Some of journal organizations consist of

1. Abstracts provide a complete overview of what the research is about, what it did, how it did it, what it found and what those results mean.
2. Introductions usually provide a brief review of previous research, a rationale or reason for the research and an outline of exactly what it is that the research is aiming to do.
3. Method sections do what their titles suggest: describe the methods used in the research.
4. Results sections also do what their titles suggest: describe the results found.
5. Discussion sections provide an interpretation of what the results actually mean in terms of the field and the original research question or hypothesis.
6. Conclusion or General Discussion section will be presented particularly in research papers where the results of several experiments have been

presented and discussed. This section provides a forum for a holistic discussion of the meaning and implications of the research. It also details the implications of the research and make recommendations about further research or policy and practice in the relevant area.

According to Fountas (2001: 3-6) Journal articles differ from other texts in many significant ways. It is important to understand the unique features of journal articles. The features are :

1. **Background Knowledge:** Both the author and the intended audience are likely to be experts on the subject. The author assumes readers are already familiar with basic ideas, terms, and background knowledge.
2. **Vocabulary:** The vocabulary is subject-specific and appropriate for advanced readers. Key terms are woven into the text, not highlighted with special formatting or referenced in a glossary. In some cases you can figure out the important information from context; in others, you may need to look up a word or two to understand the article.
3. **Purpose:** The author may make a claim, develop an argument, or share an opinion. Look for this in the article's title and abstract (the introductory summary paragraph).
4. **Research:** The focus is usually research—either the author's own or the work of other scholars on the subject. The text is likely to include many references to other researchers.
5. **Specificity:** The author may explore a narrow, highly specific topic or perspective within a larger subject.

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6. Formatting: Contents may be presented in standardized sections. These include Abstract, Background or Literature Review, Methods, Results, Discussion, Conclusion, and Reference sections.
7. Lack of Visuals: The text may include few or no visual aids (graphs, illustrations, charts), only text. There may be few or no subheadings or other content delineations.

Ernis (1985) reveals that articles in academic journals usually follow a standard format and are divided into various sections. The name and order of these sections can vary from journal to journal and across subject disciplines, but understanding how an article is constructed. The construct consists of the Author and Institution, Abstract, Introduction, Results and Discussion, Experimental, Conclusion and references.

1. Author and institution: Tells the reader how many authors there are, who they are and where they work. From this the reader finds out if any of them are known experts in the field and if their institution is internationally recognized.
2. Abstract: A short summary which will often include why the study was conducted, the methods used and the key results or findings.
3. Introduction: Provides some context and background information about the topic, including details of other research in this area with references to other relevant articles. The aims and goals of the study should also be outlined; what questions will it answer, how do the findings contribute to

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the understanding or advancement of knowledge of the subject. Overall the introduction should fully justify why the research was conducted.

4. Results and Discussion: A presentation of the findings and the authors' interpretation of their significance and how they relate to existing research in this field. Data are often presented as graphs, spectra, equations, tables, plots, structures and reaction schemes.
5. Experimental: Describes the experimental techniques and procedures used. These descriptions should be detailed enough to allow other researchers to replicate them. In some journals this section may be called Materials and Methods.
6. Conclusion: Often summaries the details from the Results and Discussion that the authors wish to highlight, or feel are the most important. Some journals may incorporate the Conclusions in the Discussion section.
7. References: Lists details of the sources cited in the article. Helpful for finding related literature on the subject. When reading journal articles readers may find references to something called Supplementary information or Data. If the readers found the article online there will be a link which will take you to this material. If readers are reading a printed copy there should be a note in the text which tells them that Supplementary information is available. This can be hard to spot as, depending on which journal they are reading, details may be found in different sections such as a footnote or at the end of the article after the references.

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2.2.2 Types of Academic Journal Articles

Academic journal articles are considered as scholarly literature. There are different types of scholarly literature, some of which require original research (categorized as primary literature) and some that are based on other published work (secondary literature). It is important to have a clear idea about the different types of articles that can be published in journals.

According to Manning (1999:89-91) although it may appear there are a large number of types of articles published due to the wide variety of names, most articles published are one of the following types; *Original Research, Review Articles, Short reports or Letters, Case Studies, Methodologies*.

1. **Original Research:** This is the most common type of journal manuscript used to publish full reports of data from research. It may be called an *Original Article, Research Article, Research*, or just *Article*, depending on the journal. The Original Research format is suitable for many different fields and different types of studies. It includes full Introduction, Methods, Results, and Discussion sections.
2. **Short reports or Letter:** These papers communicate brief reports of data from original research that editors believe will be interesting to many researchers, and that will likely stimulate further research in the field. As they are relatively short the format is useful for scientists with results that are time sensitive (for example, those in highly competitive or quickly-changing disciplines). This format often has strict length limits, so some experimental details may not be published until the authors write a

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full *Original Research* manuscript. These papers are also sometimes called *Brief communications*.

3. **Review Articles:** Review Articles provide a comprehensive summary of research on a certain topic, and a perspective on the state of the field and where it is heading. They are often written by leaders in a particular discipline after invitation from the editors of a journal. Reviews are often widely read (for example, by researchers looking for a full introduction to a field) and highly cited. Reviews commonly cite approximately 100 primary research articles.
4. **Case Studies:** These articles report specific instances of interesting phenomena. The goal of Case Studies is to make other researchers aware of the possibility that a specific phenomenon might occur. This type of study is often used in medicine to report the occurrence of previously unknown or emerging pathologies.
5. **Methodologies or Methods:** These articles present a new experimental method, test or procedure. The method described may either be completely new, or may offer a better version of an existing method. The article should describe a demonstrable advance on what is currently available.

Manning (1999:89-91) divides the publication based on the types. The types of publications are different in various fields. For instance, a clinical trial is possible only in the field of medicine, while an empirical study is more common in the field of social sciences. It is important to remember that not all journals publish every kind of article. Therefore, most journal publishers provide

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prospective authors with accurate and specific guidelines for the different articles they publish. Specifications about the types of articles published can be found under the guidelines to authors section on a journal's website.

Some of the possible types of scientific publications are:

1. **Original research:** These are detailed studies reporting original research and are classified as primary literature. They include hypothesis, background study, methods, results, interpretation of findings, and a discussion of possible implications. Original research articles are long, with the word limit ranging from 3000 to 6000, and can even go up to 12,000 words for some journals. These require a significant investment of time.
2. **Review article:** provide a critical and constructive analysis of existing published literature in a field, through summary, analysis, and comparison, often identifying specific gaps or problems and providing recommendations for future research. These are considered as secondary literature since they generally do not present new data from the author's experimental work. Review articles can be of three types, broadly speaking: literature reviews, systematic reviews, and metaanalyses. Review articles can be of varying lengths depending upon the journal and subject area. For narrative reviews or literature reviews, the length could range anywhere between 8000 to 40,000 words while systematic reviews are usually less than 10,000 words long. However, some journals also publish shorter reviews, around 3000-5000 words long.

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3. **Clinical case study:** Clinical case studies present the details of real patient cases from medical or clinical practice. The cases presented are usually those that contribute significantly to the existing knowledge on the field. The study is expected to discuss the signs, symptoms, diagnosis, and treatment of a disease. These are considered as primary literature and usually have a word count similar to that of an original article. Clinical case studies require a lot of practical experience and may not be a suitable publication format for early career researchers.
4. **Clinical trial:** Once again, specific to the field of medicine, clinical trials describe the methodology, implementation, and results of controlled studies, usually undertaken with large patient groups. Clinical trial articles are also long, usually of about the same length as an original research article. Clinical trials also require practical work experience, as well as, high standards of ethics and reliability. So this format is more useful for experienced researchers.
5. **Perspective, opinion, and commentary:** Perspective pieces are scholarly reviews of fundamental concepts or prevalent ideas in a field. These are usually essays that present a personal point of view criticizing widespread notions pertaining to a field. A perspective piece can be a review of a single concept or a few related concepts. These are considered as secondary literature and are usually short articles, around 2000 words.
6. **Book review:** Book reviews are published in most academic journals. The aim of a book review is to provide insight and opinion on recently

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published scholarly books. They are also relatively short articles and less time-consuming. Book reviews are a good publication option for early career researchers as it allows the researcher to stay abreast of new literature in the field, while at the same time, adding to his publication list.

2.3. The Operational Concept

A. Questionnaire

1. Reading Difficulties

- a. Students have no interest in reading academic journal articles
- b. Students don't have any background knowledge of academic journal articles that they read.
- c. Students cannot concentrate while reading academic journal articles
- d. Students have limited vocabularies
- e. Students have limited knowledge about grammar structures of the texts

2. Reading Strategies

1.1 Memory Strategy: Store new information and retrieve it later

- a. The students create the mental linkages by associating, grouping, etc.
- b. The students apply images and sounds.
- c. The students review the structure well
- d. The students employ action such as physical response or sensation.

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1.2 Cognitive Strategy: Manipulate the language Material in Direct ways

- a. The students practice the target language such as sounds and writing system, formula and pattern.
- b. The students receive and send the message.
- c. The students do analysis and reasoning deductively, contrastively
- d. The students create structure for input and output such as taking notes, summarizing, etc.

1.3 Compensation Strategy : Help the learners to complete the missing knowledge

- a. The students use guessing strategies.
- b. The students overcome the limitations in speaking and writing such as switching to mother tongue, using gestures or mime, etc.

1.4 Metacognitive strategy: Manage the language learning

- a. The students center their learning by overviewing and linking with already known material, paying attention, etc
- b. The students arrange and plan the learning such as organizing, setting the goal, etc.
- c. The students evaluate the learning by using self-monitoring and self-evaluating

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1.5 Affective strategy :Identify one's mood and anxiety and control emotion

- a. The students make the anxiety lower by taking deep breathing, using music, etc.
- b. The students encourage themselves with positive statements, etc
- c. The students take their emotional temperature by writing a language learning diary, discussion about feeling, etc.

1.6 Social Strategy: Develop strategy for sharing ideas, asking for help and working in groups.

- a. The students ask questions for verification and correction.
- b. The students cooperate with others of proficient users' new language.
- c. The students emphasize with others' cultures, thoughts and feelings.

3. Reading academic journal articles test

- a. The students are able to determine the major ideas addressed in the article.
- b. Students are able to identify the participants the articles.
- c. Students are able to identify the method of the research.
- d. Students are able to identify research instrument of the articles.
- e. The students are able to determine the variables of the articles.
- f. The students are able to identify research the findings.
- g. The students are able to identify the data analysis.

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B. Interviews

1. The lecturer

- a. The lecturer explains about her teaching academic reading technique subject.
- b. The lecturer explains about the teaching goals of academic reading subject.
- c. The lecturer explains about how to assess academic reading subject.
- d. The lecturer explains about material used in academic reading subject.
- e. The lecturer explains about the material of academic reading subject.
- f. The lecturer explains about the ways to help the students to comprehend the text.
- g. The lecturer explains about English education journals that can have an effect on the students' reading comprehension achievement.
- h. The lecturer explains about the goal of reading academic journal articles in academic reading.
- i. The lecturer explains about whether the students achieve the academic journal articles goal in academic reading.
- j. The lecturer explains about the students' most frequent strategies on reading academic journal articles.
- k. The lecturer explains about the ways she helps her students when they do not understand while reading academic journal articles.

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- l.* The lecturer explains about the difficulties that her students face when reading academic journal articles.
- m.* The lecturer explains about reading difficulties that affect students' performances.
- n.* The lecturer explains about the root of reading difficulties.
- o.* The lecturer explains about her suggestions for improving the students' reading comprehension achievement in reading academic journal articles.
- p.* The lecturer explains about her suggestions for improving reading skills and overcoming any difficulty in reading academic journal articles.

2. Students

- a.* The students explain about their purpose of reading an academic journal article text.
- b.* The students explain about their strategies in reading an academic journal article text in English
- c.* The students describe any difficulties they meet while reading an academic journal article text.
- d.* The students explain about how they solve each of these reading problems.

2.4 The Previous Studies

The related studies were taken from some researches which were done by some researchers around the world.

1. **Menik Winiharti; Agnes Herawati; Esti Rahayu** (2014) carried out the research entailed “**reading journal as a way to improve students’ comprehension toward a textbook reading material**” This study was conducted to find out the students’ level of reading comprehension through some notes written in the reading journal, the extent to which the activity of writing reading journals improved students’ reading comprehension, whether the students got benefits from reading journals. There were 104 respondents coming from four different departments in Bina Nusantara University were asked to read a text related to the subject they learned in a certain session. Then they were assigned to write a journal that records the things they had read. When this task was finished, the lecturer ran a quiz containing related questions to check whether they really understood the content of the text. Afterwards, students were to fill in a questionnaire regarding their opinion on the impact of the reading journal toward their reading comprehension. The findings indicated that more than half of the participants appear to understand the material well, and the task played a certain role in improving students’ understanding. The most crucial thing was that most students think they get benefit by writing the reading journal when they read it.

2. **Chen (2017)** carried out a research entitled “**An exploratory study of NNES graduate students’ reading comprehension of English journal articles**” The purpose of this study was to identify NNES graduate students’ comprehension difficulties and reading strategies when reading EJA. In addition, the study explored how the relationship between reading difficulties and reading strategies are characterized. The study participants were 456 graduate students undertaking various majors in Taiwan. Both survey and interview methods were employed. The results of the study revealed that the participating students had medium-to-high levels of reading comprehension difficulties and that they tried to use various reading strategies. There was a significantly negative correlation between EJA reading difficulties and reading strategies.
3. **Fujimoto (2014)** carried out the research entitled “**Helping university students to ‘read’ scholarly journal articles: the benefits of a structured and collaborative approach**” This paper described an initiative aimed at supporting students in reading academic articles in preparation for completing an essay for an assessment task. This initiative involved a structured and collaborative two-week tutorial exercise that provided students with practice in using a framework to extract the main ideas from academic readings. Students were surveyed after this exercise, and their reflections of its value are described in this paper. The findings of this study informed further stages of the project which aim to develop and

investigate practical ways to develop student's academic literacy across several business disciplines.

Fotavian & Shokrpour (2007) carried out the research entailed “**Comparison of the Efficiency of Reading Comprehension Strategies on Iranian University Students' Comprehension**” In this study, 31 Iranian undergraduate students enrolled in Reading Comprehension 2 at Shiraz University took part. During the course, the students were familiarized with all of the reading strategies in which they were later surveyed about. The students were assigned to two groups based on their grades from Reading Comprehension I: good readers and poor readers (the mid-scoring students were excluded from the study). Data were collected using a questionnaire based on Block (1986) and O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) reading strategy taxonomies. The results of the study shows as (1) good readers used a significantly higher frequency of metacognitive reading strategies than poor readers; (2) good readers used most frequently elaborating, note-taking, directing attention, recognizing text structure, and rereading; (3) poor readers used most frequently rereading, questioning for clarification, simplifying, looking up all the new words, and translating; (4) according the Chi-square analysis used by the researchers, the most helpful (effective) reading strategies were elaborating, rereading, note-taking, recognizing text structure, and directing attention; (5) the least helpful according to their analysis are paying attention to single words, inducing, translating, simplifying, and looking up all the new words.

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Lauree M. Buus(2005) carried out the research entailed “**Using Reading Response Journals for Reading Comprehension**” This action research study was aimed at addressing the memory issues that were seen daily in the classroom. Students in a literature-based reading program used reading response journals to assist in their reading comprehension. Anecdotal observations, journal writing, conferencing, interest surveys, and knowledge-based comprehension tests were used to determine the effectiveness of this approach. Memory has three components: sensory memory storage, short-term memory storage, and long-term memory storage. It is desirable for students to get major concepts into long-term memory and back out when needed. This process included the steps of encoding, storage, retrieval, and reporting. Many factors could influence these steps. Teaching memory strategies could help improve a student's memory ability. In this study, keeping a reading response journal was the strategy used to reach this goal and subsequently to improve reading comprehension.

Svjetlana Kolic Vehovec, Igor Bajanski And Barbara Roncevic Zubkovic (2011) carried out the research entailed “**The role of reading strategies in scientific text comprehension and academic achievement of university students**”. This paper explored the relations between comprehension strategies engaged in different aspects of comprehension processing, and to examine the relationship of these strategies and text

comprehension to academic achievement. The participants in the study were 112 undergraduate psychology students (10 male and 102 female). Text comprehension was assessed on three short scientific paragraphs on topics from cognitive psychology. A self-explanatory task was applied for assessing the use of three reading strategies: paraphrasing, bridging inferences. In general, the results obtained in the study supported the initial hypotheses. Specifically, strategies fostering similar comprehension processes were correlated, students used more text-based strategies than strategies that help build global text representation, good comprehenders produced more strategies that go beyond the text on self-explanation tasks than poor comprehenders, and the use of reading strategies indirectly, through reading comprehension, predicted academic achievement. The hypothesis that strategies that tapped multiple comprehension processes would be better predictors of text comprehension was partially confirmed, i.e., summarizing was a better predictor of text comprehension than elaboration, but the same result for the question generation strategy was not obtained and elaborations. Additionally, question generation and summarizing tasks were administered. Grade point average (GPA) was used as an indicator of academic achievement. Relations between reading strategies indicated grouping of the strategies that foster different aspects of comprehension processing from the text-base level to the situation model of the text. Students typically used paraphrases, regardless of their reading comprehension level; however,

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good readers used more strategies that help them to build global representation of the text compared to poor readers. The use of elaboration strategies and the use of summarizing strategy were the best predictors of text comprehension. The effects of reading strategies on GPA were mediated by reading comprehension.

Jun xiu (2011) carried out the research entailed “ **The Application of Critical Thinking in Teaching English Reading**”. He explored about Examining different critical thinking definitions, one thing is agreed upon by most researchers: that is critical thinking includes not only critical thinking skills (containing both a process of thinking and thinking ability), involving analysis, interpretation, inference, explanation, evaluation and self-regulation but also critical thinking dispositions including clarity, accuracy, precision, consistency, relevance, sound evidence, good reasons, depth, breadth, fairness. So a new way to teach English reading focusing on developing students’ critical thinking should be proposed. Students should be trained to be critical readers who can “question, organize, interpret, synthesize, and digest what they read”. After comprehending and evaluating of the text, students will be required to write summaries, commentaries, reading journals, create similar stories or composing similar style argument of their own. This step trains the students’ higher level of thinking skills--synthesis and application.

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8. **Progressio** (2000) carried out the research entitled” **Reading and the Unisa student: is academic performance related to reading ability?”**

He examined the relationship between reading ability and academic performance amongst undergraduate students at Unisa. The findings formed part of a larger study involving doctoral research into inference abilities of students during the reading of expository texts. Inferential processing is central to reading comprehension because it involves the ability to perceive connections or relationships between entities in a text. The results indicated that undergraduate students at Unisa generally had distressingly low reading levels and slow reading speeds, and that the ability to infer during reading is strongly related to academic performance: the better students were at making inferences while they were reading, the better they performed academically. These results strongly suggest that urgent attention needs to be given to improving the reading ability of students at tertiary level, for reading constitutes the very process whereby learning occurs. The undergraduate students at Unisa should, minimally, be reading at between 140 and 160 words per minute. However, the average reading speed of the 24 students who were tested at the Thuthong Centre was 96,9 words per minute, while the average comprehension rate was 40,4 percent. The reading speed of these students ranged between a maximum reading speed of 151 words per minute, with a 70 percent comprehension level, and a minimum speed of 53 words per minute, with a minimum comprehension rate of 20 percent. The obtained average

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reading speed indicated that the students were reading well below recommended speeds, and with disquietingly low comprehension levels.

Chi-An Tung and Shu-Ying Chang (2009) carried out the research entitled “**Developing Critical Thinking through Literature Reading**”. The research focused on the process of reading to develop the students’ critical thinking skills. Developing critical thinking skills and critical thinking disposition in college students has been set as a primary goal in higher education for decades. Recently it has become more urgent in implementing this goal to enhance students’ employability in the fast-changing workplace. This study investigated the efficacy of developing critical thinking through literature reading. A few strategies are incorporated into the course design: reading comprehension pop quizzes, learning log, group presentations, guided in-class discussion with Socratic questioning skills and individual essay-question reports. Students took a pretest a posttest (California Critical Thinking Skills Test) and a self-assessed questionnaire and then scheduled an individual interview with the teacher. Finally, a few findings were located: 1) literature reading helped those who scored low in the pretest improve their overall critical thinking skills, particularly those in analysis; 2) students’ English proficiency did not relate to their performance in both the pretest and posttest; 3) some students were assertive that they tended to show more disposition toward critical thinking than ever but this needs a follow-up longitudinal study with a standardized measure to assess the efficacy in this respect; 4)

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Students found guided in-class discussion more effective than other student-directed activities in developing critical thinking.

Chen & Intaraprasert (2014) carried out the research entailed “**Reading Strategies Employed by University Business English Majors with Different Levels of Reading Proficiency.**” In this study, 926 Chinese students from three universities studying Business English took part. The researchers used two instruments for data collection: a questionnaire (Strategy Questionnaire for Business English Reading or SQBER, which contained items for Pre-reading Strategies (PRS), While-reading strategies (WHS) and Post-reading Strategies (POS); and a reading comprehension test (Business English Reading Comprehension Test or BERCT) to check their proficiency of business English. There was no indication in the study of the order that the questionnaire and test were given to the students. The data were analyzed by an SPSS program using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The results of the study show (1) students with good reading proficiency used a significantly higher frequency of reading strategies than the students with fair or poor reading proficiency; (2) students with good reading proficiency used a higher frequency of Strategies for Comprehending the Text (SCT) than students with fair or poor reading proficiency, but no significant difference in Strategies for Coping with Difficulties (SCD), both sub-categories of WHS; (3) the highest frequency of reading strategies reported by students with good reading proficiency are ‘Guess the meanings of the words or sentences from the text’, ‘Adjust

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the reading rate accordingly’, ‘Pay attention to the key words in the text’, ‘Read the questions about the text’, and ‘Do fast reading first and peruse later’; (4) the highest frequency of reading strategies reported by students with poor reading proficiency are ‘Guess the meanings of the words or sentences from the text’, ‘Pay attention to the key words in the text’, ‘Read or check the new word list’, ‘Reread the difficult parts’, ‘Consult the dictionary for new words’; (5) students with good reading proficiency had a tendency to use strategies related to guessing, seeking key information, regulating the reading process, and using linguistic knowledge; (6) students with poor reading proficiency had a tendency to use strategies related to coping with new words and seeking help from others.

11. *Nancy Gómez Torres, Jhon Jairo Ávila Constain (2009)* carried out the research entitled **“Improving Reading Comprehension Skills through Reading Strategies Used by a Group of Foreign Language Learners”** *The study included the examination and implementation of a variety of strategies in order to improve students’ reading comprehension skills in a foreign language. Reading is the process of identification, interpretation and perception of written or printed material. Comprehension is the understanding of the meaning of written material and involves the conscious strategies that lead to understanding. The reading strategies are conscious techniques or unconscious processes employed by readers in their attempt to make sense of the written text (Barnett as cited by Gascoigne, 2005). Thus, the main goal of this piece of research was to*

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implement some reading strategies in two elementary courses in EFL in order to obtain better results in the middle and long term in class and on ECAES, MICHIGAN, MELICET and PET tests. Although the students' affective filter was not taken into consideration in the research planning, it is necessary to highlight the participants' positive attitudes during their English language lessons towards both the professor and the subject since, as they said earlier, they became confident in the use of the reading comprehension strategies, which let them reduce their anxiety. Furthermore, in the development of the different tasks, they had an active participation due to the fact that they were at the center of the learning process.

12. **Vasogi, gulami, varjetest** (2014) carried out the research entailed **"Critical Thinking: An Influential Factor in Developing English Reading Comprehension Performance"** This research was conducted considering the substantial roles of EFL/ESL reading comprehension and critical thinking skills, it can be noted that these two variables are required for students to succeed in academic English settings. This study aimed at reviewing the various pedagogical approaches and theories in critical thinking, reading comprehension and critical reading. It also highlighted the significance of critical thinking in reading instruction by describing the major aspects of critical thinking that could be most effective for learners' comprehension performances. It examined the related theoretical and empirical studies in line with the goal of this study.

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This paper examined various approaches and theories in critical thinking and reading comprehension. It is evident that critical thinking is necessary in all aspects of daily living. One of the important educational goals is that all students use critical thinking in their educational pursuits. The EFL/ESL teachers are attempting to align themselves with those educational goals; it is working to insure that learners utilize critical thinking in performance of their courses, especially in reading course. Many strategies have been developed to help teach students to think critically and to read critically, but the literature review revealed that there is no single, widely accepted definition for critical thinking. In fact, critical thinking is complex and difficult to define. The obvious problem in teaching critical thinking is that teachers themselves do not fully understand the concept of critical thinking. Therefore, they are unable to effectively teach it.

13. **Karimi & Shabani (2013)** did research entitle “**Comparing the Strategic Behavior of More Successful vs. Less Successful Readers of Multiple Technical Reading Texts**”. In this study, 30 Iranian freshman Midwifery undergraduate students studying at an Iranian university took part. The students were selected based on their scores on a multiple text comprehension test and assigned to one of two groups: Fifteen Successful Readers (SR) and fifteen Less Successful Readers (LSR). The data were collected using the MARSII questionnaire developed by Mokhtari and

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Reichard (2002) – for reading strategies used. Think-aloud Protocol using notes that the students made regarding every step, strategy, or action they used when reading the text for the multiple text comprehension test. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics for the questionnaire and scores on the comprehension test and coding of strategies from the TAP notes.

14. **Al-Ghazo** (2016) carried out the research entailed “**The Effect of Explicit Instruction of Meta Cognitive Learning Strategies on Promoting Jordanian Language Learners’ Reading Competence.**” In this study, 60 Jordanian undergraduate students studying at Ajoun National University took part. The students were all considered to have a low proficiency in English language based on their placement tests at the beginning of the academic year. The students were assigned to one of two groups randomly: a control group and an experimental group. The experimental received explicit training in reading strategies based on the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA). The data were analyzed using a *t*-test to analyze variance in reading comprehension between the two groups. The results of the study show (1) there was a significant difference in post-test scores between the control group and the experimental group; (2) the experimental group scored significantly higher on the post-test than the control group; (3) explicit instruction of the CALLA has a significant impact on reading comprehension test.

15. **Zhong (2015)** carried out the research entailed “**Changes in two migrant learners' beliefs, learning strategy use and language achievements in a New Zealand context**” This longitudinal case study investigated changes in two Chinese migrant learners' beliefs and learning strategy use, and gains in their achieved proficiency in New Zealand. This study revealed both learners changed the beliefs they held to varying degrees. Common to both learners were changes in their beliefs about approaches to language learning from an initial analytical approach to a later more experiential one. Although both learners' language did improve, there was a noticeable variation in the extent to which their language proficiency was achieved. The results suggested the complex relationship between learners' beliefs and learning strategies and challenged the linear relationship between the two variables as suggested by previous quantitative studies.
16. **Mattarese (2013)** carried out the research entailed “**Using strategic, critical reading of research papers to teach scientific writing: the reading–research–writing continuum**” describes the effect of a course that uses strategic, critical reading to teach research writing to doctoral candidates. The course, ‘Effective Biomedical Reading and Writing’, was designed by an authors’ editor with scientific qualifications. In the course, students were guided through the independent writing of a research paper using their own data, according to a scheme in which a paper is built up around the results. Through reading and critical discussion of published papers representing a range of qualities and topics,

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students develop a framework of knowledge that helped them assess the effectiveness of their own writing. The students got significant improvement in their writing ability.

17. **Akkakoson** (2013) carried out the research entailed “**The relationship between strategic reading instruction, student learning of L2-based reading strategies and L2 reading achievement.**” In this study, 164 second to fourth year Thai undergraduate students majoring in mechanical engineering (ME), electrical engineering (EE), civil engineering (CE), industrial management (IM), computer science (CS), and information technology (IT) from a science and technology university in Thailand took part. The classes were assigned to one of two groups: a control group and an experimental group. The experimental group received explicit reading strategies training, while the control group did not receive explicit instruction in reading strategies. The data were analyzed using correlation analysis (RCT, questionnaires, and portfolios) and qualitative analysis (portfolios). Results of the study show (1) EG English reading proficiency improved slightly according to post-instruction RCT; (2) CG English reading proficiency showed no significant difference according to post-instruction RCT; (3) there was a significant difference in English reading proficiency between EG and CG according to post-instruction RCT; (4) explicit RS instruction has slight correlation with increase in RCT scores; (5) according to portfolio analysis HRP and MRP showed a greater understanding of purpose and merit of using RS than LPR; (6) HPR and

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MPR had a better understanding of when and how to use RS than LPR; (7) HPR used RS more frequently and more effectively than MPR and LPR.

Endley (2016) carried out the research entailed **”Proficiency as a Variable in Gulf EFL Students’ Employment of Reading Strategies.”**

In this study, 12 Arabic-speaking undergraduate students from United Arab Emirates University were assigned to one of two groups: five in the Higher Proficiency Reading (HPR) group and seven in the Lower Proficiency Reading (LPR) group (the mid-scoring students were excluded from the study). The students were identified with their particular group by the results of an IELTS reading test administered for the purpose of this study. Data were collected using two think-aloud protocols (TAP) while the students read texts from two IELTS practice tests. The results of the study showed (1) in general, the LPR group had difficulty with word recognition and constructing meaning from the text as whole; (2) HPRs reported used 274 reading strategies and LPRs reported used 305 reading strategies; (3) HPRs used most frequently rereading, reading slowly and carefully, paraphrasing, underlining/circling, paying closer attention (See Endley, 2016, Appendix C); (4) LPRs used most frequently underlining/circling, paying closer attention, reading slowly and carefully, rereading, and paraphrasing; HPRs tended to infer the meaning of unknown words while LPRs did not employ this strategy much; (5) LPRs had a tendency to underline and mark the text more indiscriminately; (6) HPRs reported a much higher frequency of using prior knowledge.

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Habibian (2015) carried out the research entailed “**The Impact of Training Metacognitive Strategies on Reading Comprehension among ESL Learners.**” In this study, 48 Malaysian undergraduate students studying English at the University Putra Malaysia took part. The students were considered to be of approximately the same level of English proficiency and were enrolled in first level of reading. The students were assigned to one of two groups randomly: a control group and an experimental group. The experimental group received explicit reading strategies instruction based on Wade *et al.* (1990), while the control group did not receive explicit instruction in reading strategies. The data were collected by using pre-test (taken from Longman Introductory Course for TOEFL) and post-tests (unclear if same test or from same source) in reading comprehension in relation to instruction of the courses which lasted over a period of twelve weeks. The participants were given a reading strategy questionnaire adapted from Beyer (1987). In addition, semi-structured interviews were carried out with the participants following the completion of the reading strategies questionnaire. Data were analyzed using a *t*-test for variance in various variables and interviews were transcribed for further analysis. The results of the study showed (1) there was a significant improvement in the pre- and post-test reading comprehension scores of the experimental group; (2) the control group’s scores decreased on the post-test compared to the pre-test; (3) the

experimental group's use of monitoring and assessment reading strategies increased significantly after reading strategies instruction but planning decreased.

20. **Karimi & Shabani (2013)** carried out the research entailed “**Comparing the Strategic Behavior of More Successful vs. Less Successful Readers of Multiple Technical Reading Texts**” In this study, 30 Iranian freshman Midwifery undergraduate students studying at an Iranian university took part. The students were selected based on their scores on a multiple text comprehension test and assigned to one of two groups: fifteen Successful Readers (SR) and fifteen Less Successful Readers (LSR). Data were collected using the MARSII questionnaire developed by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002). Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics for the questionnaire and scores on the comprehension test and coding of strategies from the TAP notes. The results of the study showed (1) SR appeared to be active, purposeful, and goal-oriented; (2) SR used extra-linguistic clues such as pictures, tables, figures, and contextual information to understand text better; (3) SR previewed the text before reading; (4) SR decided what was important within the text and what was not; (5) SR identified key information by using boldfaced, italic, and underlined segments of text; (6) SR often engaged in periodic self-monitoring of their comprehension; (7) SR used context to guess meanings of unknown words; (8) SR adjust reading speed, get back on track when concentration lost, and visualize information; (9) SR employed strategies such as

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summarizing, note-taking, highlighting, underlining, reading aloud, self-questioning to help them remember and understand texts better; (10) SR connected parts of text with other parts.



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