Intensive Reading Impact on EFL Learner's comprehension
A Case Study: of Basic Schools in Madani –, Gezira State, Sudan (2017).

Mona Hamadnallah Albadawi Ebrahim

February / 2018
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Mona Hamadnallah Albadawi Ebrahim

B.A in (ELT)
Open University of Sudan – Faculty of Education (2012)

B.E in (ELT)
Gezira University - Faculty of Education - Hantoub(2014)

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Faculty of Education – EL-Hassahiesa

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Supervision Committee:

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<td>Main Supervisor</td>
<td>...............</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dr. Amna Osman Ahmed Alnoor</td>
<td>Co-Supervisor</td>
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Examination Committee:

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<td>Dr. Shawgi Abd Albagi Ali Musa</td>
<td>External Examiner</td>
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Dedication

This work is dedicated to: My parents, husband and my family members
Acknowledgements

I would like to give special thanks to the department of English language and to my supervisor Dr. Abdul Gader Mohamed Ali who helped me with different advices and my co-supervisor Dr. Amna Osman Ahmed Alnour
Abstract

Reading consists of many different processes at different levels that need to be coordinated, including abilities, strategies and knowledge. The study aimed to investigate reading comprehension problems at basic schools, to draw the attention of teachers of English, learners and officials to the importance of reading skills, to explore the extent of English reading skills in Sudanese schools, to introduce the features of English reading skills, which can be taught via intensive reading activities, and to draw the attention of teachers of English to the influence of the intensive reading activities on teaching reading skill.

The study followed the descriptive analytical method. A questionnaire was used as a tool for data collection; the collected data were analyzed by using the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS). The study reached many results; some of which are that most of reading skill difficulties can be solved by teaching reading skill through effective ways such as intensive reading comprehension, the extent to which learners succeed in producing accurate target utterances depended mainly on more practice using effective ways, It is obvious that intensive reading comprehension has significant importance for learners. Therefore, the study recommends that teachers and learners of English should pay special attention to reading skills. intensive reading comprehension should be given special attention in teaching English reading skills, English books should include
intensive reading comprehension should be given special attention in teaching English reading skills. English books should include intensive reading comprehension passages.
أنثر قراءة الفهم المكثفة على مهارة القراءة لدى دارسي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية
منى حمدنا الله البدوي إبراهيم

ملخص الدراسة

تتضمن القراءة العديد من العناصر المختلفة على مستويات مختلفة تحتاج إلى تنسيق، بما في ذلك القدرات والاستراتيجيات والمعرفة. هدفت الدراسة إلى التعرف على مشاكل الفهم القرائي في المدارس الأساسية، لفت انتباه معلمي اللغة الإنجليزية والمتعلمين والمسؤولين إلى أهمية مهارات القراءة، واستكشاف مدى مهارات القراءة باللغة الإنجليزية في المدارس السودانية، لإدخال ملامح اللغة الإنجليزية مهارات القراءة، التي يمكن تدريسها من خلال تحسين القراءة المكثفة، ورغبت انتباه معلمي اللغة الإنجليزية إلى تأثير أنشطة القراءة المكثفة على تعليم مهارة القراءة. اتبعت الدراسة المنهج الوصفي التحليلي. تم استخدام الاستبانة كأداة لجمع البيانات، وتم تحليل البيانات التي تم جمعها باستخدام الحزم الإحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعية (SPSS). وتحمل الدراسة على العديد من النتائج من بينها: أنه يمكن حل معظم صعوبات مهارة القراءة من خلال تعليم مهارة القراءة من خلال طرق فعالة مثل الفهم المكثف للقراءة، ومدى نجاح المتعلمين في إنتاج كلمات مستهدفة دقيقة تعتمد أساساً على ممارسة أكثر باستخدام طرق فعالة، فمن الواضح أن القراءة والفهم بشكل مكثف له أهمية كبيرة للمتعلمين. لذلك يوصي الباحث بما يلي: يجب أن يولي المعلميون والمتعلمون للغة الإنجليزية اهتماماً خاصاً لمهارات القراءة، وينبغي أن يعطي الفهم المكثف للقراءة اهتماماً خاصاً في تعليم مهارات القراءة باللغة الإنجليزية، وينبغي أن تكون الكتب الإنجليزية مجهزة بمفردات مكثفة للقراءة.
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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.0 Background

Reading is essential in today’s society, and teaching pupils to become proficient readers is one of the main goals of basic level. Reading consists of many different processes at different levels that need to be coordinated, including abilities, strategies and knowledge. Many pupils do not become avid readers and they struggle with reading throughout school. An important aim of research in reading has been to determine how pupils at risk for reading difficulties may be identified as early as possible. If the pupils are discovered early, chances are that with appropriate intervention strategies educators can reduce or even prevent future difficulties. For this positive trend to occur, descriptions of the cognitive and language profile of readers with different types of difficulties across time are required.

The purpose of this study has been to investigate reading comprehension problems at basic schools. The study has especially focused on reading comprehension difficulties in children with adequate decoding skills, 8th class.

1-1 Statement of the Problem

It is the urgent complaint of the learners at 8th classes that they face difficulties in reading comprehension. This complaint becomes an obsession for both teachers and learners. This is one of the causes, which encouraged the research in this area to investigate the reasons behind these difficulties. There are many causes behind these difficulties. One of these causes is lack of reading comprehension at basic schools. This lack may hinder learners from tackling better
reading comprehension. The research also will investigate into the inability of using intensive reading comprehension and see how this affected EFL learners’ reading comprehension.

**1-2 Objectives of the study**

The study aims:

a- To investigate reading comprehension problems at basic schools

b- To draw the attention of teachers of English, learners and officials to the importance of reading skills.

c- To explore the extent of English reading skills in Sudanese schools.

d. To introduce the features of English reading skills, which can be taught via intensive reading activities.

e. To draw the attention of teachers of English to the influence of the intensive reading activities on teaching reading skill.

**1-3 Questions of the study**

This research will find answers to the following questions:

a. What are the effective ways of teaching reading comprehension via intensive reading comprehension?

b. What are the different kinds of reading activities that are more suitable for classroom teaching?

c. Why do not Sudanese basic schools use intensive reading activities?

d. What are the features of reading skills, which should be taught at basic level?

e. How far do intensive reading activities affect teaching reading comprehension?

**1.4 Hypotheses of the study**

a. Preparing books with intensive reading comprehension activities lead to master better English reading skills
b. Reading activities are not applied in Sudanese schools.

c. EFL teachers ignore using intensive reading activities

d. Sudanese EFL learners’ level of performance reading skills is very low.

e. Learners of English who use intensive reading activities are better than those who do not.

1.5 Significance of the Study

This research is proposed to investigate reading comprehension problems at basic schools. The study is also supposed to show the importance of using intensive reading activities in teaching English reading skills at basic schools. It is ought that this study will answer the questions that learners have, concerning the relation between intensive reading activities and better reading skills. It is also ought that the study will encourage researchers to further investigation in the problems of reading comprehension at basic level. There for, this study will be helpful for teachers, school authorities and material designers, as well as Sudanese pupils.

1.6 Methodology of the study

The researcher will adopt the descriptive analytical method. questionnaire will be used as a tool for data collection. then will be analyzed. The primary source of information is 30 teachers from different basic schools in Madani locality. the questionnaire enhance the descriptive and analysis of data. The reliability and validity of questionnaire are going to be used for the sake of consistent answer.

1.7 limits of the study

This study is limited to:

Teachers from different basic schools in Medani locality in Gezira state 2017-2018.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter will discuss the reviewed literature, and other writing under many subtitles.

2.1 The Concept of reading

In the 1970s there was a lively debate concerning the focus of reading instruction, phonics or whole language. The simple view of reading could be seen as a first attempt to describe what later became “balanced literacy”. (Gough 1996)

The model explains reading comprehension as a product of decoding and linguistic comprehension, $R = D \times L$. Each component can vary between 0 (inability) and 1 (perfection). Thus, both components are necessary to explain variance in reading performance. The decoding component is often operationalized as word reading accuracy. (Kirby 2006). However, the simple view states that it should measure efficiency, and therefore, a speeded measure may be more appropriate (Hoover 1990).

As for the linguistic comprehension component, it is often operationalized using listening comprehension tasks. Several studies have shown that decoding and linguistic comprehension account for more than 70% of the variance in reading comprehension (Catts 2005).

In addition, Gough (1996) have suggested that the relative importance of the two components change as word decoding gradually becomes automatized in most readers. For example, Catts and colleagues (2005) examined unique and shared variance of listening comprehension and word decoding on reading comprehension.
They found that word recognition accounted for considerable unique variance in grade 3, whereas most of the variance in reading comprehension in grade 8 was explained by listening comprehension. Thus, as children get older, reading comprehension becomes more constrained by oral language comprehension rather than basic word-level decoding skill (Stanovich 1984). The Simple View of Reading does not suggest that the process of reading is simple, rather it states that the complexities associated with reading can be divided into two parts that are relatively independent (Hoover 1990). Linguistic comprehension can be seen as a construct, which comprises a number of different language-related skills such as listening comprehension, vocabulary, grammar and morphology. It is not clear whether these skills can each individually serve as proxies for the linguistic comprehension component to the same degree (Farnia 2013). In fact, a number of studies suggest that other oral language skills such as vocabulary and grammar explain variance beyond the influence of listening comprehension on reading comprehension (Farnia 2009). In this thesis, linguistic comprehension is seen as an umbrella term for a number of oral language processes such as listening comprehension, grammar, morphology, vocabulary and verbal memory. The two subcomponents of the Simple View of Reading will be presented in the following two sections. First, there is a description of word reading which contains a report of what word reading is and how the development of word reading can be described in different phases.

2.1.1 Word reading

According to Ehri (1991) there are four different ways to read words; decoding, reading by analogy, reading by prediction made from context and sight word reading. Decoding is also called phonological recoding; with this procedure graphemes are translated to phonemes that are blended together, either one by one, or
as larger chunk units which make up the words (Ehri 2005). Words can also be read with analogy to other words (Goswami 1986). This strategy can be used when a word is very similar to a familiar word, for example *bike* and *hike*. Another strategy of reading is to make predictions based on the context of the text. Basically, the reader guesses what the next word will be with reference to the content in the text and letter cues (Goodman 1970).

Decoding, reading by analogy and prediction from context can be used when reading unfamiliar words. However, with sight word reading, only familiar words can be read. This happens spontaneously without any conscious effort. Sight word reading, also called orthographic reading, is the most precise and efficient way to read. Essentially, words are read automatically from memory. Learning to read words by sight is a matter of forming connections between graphemes and phonemes. With practice and repeated exposure of common spelling patterns within words, the grapheme-phoneme correspondences becomes consolidated into larger units that are easily activated when they are read (Ehri 2005). Strong connections between the words or part of words and the phonological representation of the word are created; therefore, they are consolidated and easily remembered. In sight word reading, words are read without pausing between different units within words (unitization) (Ehri 2005). While the less sophisticated methods of reading explained above may temporarily disrupt the focus of the text to the word unit, when using sight word reading all resources can be allocated to reading comprehension. However, how do children go from preliterate to being able to decode words efficiently through sight word reading? The next section describes an influential way to look at phases of decoding development.
2.2 Phases of decoding development

Ehri (1991) described the process of becoming a skilled decoder using four different developmental phases. Ehri describes the type of alphabetic knowledge that is predominant at different time points in the development. The phases are not distinct; rather children can apply alphabetic knowledge of different kinds as they gradually learn to read fluently. The phases are called pre alphabetic, partial alphabetic, full alphabetic and consolidated alphabetic. In the pre-alphabetic phase, children know very little about the alphabetic system and do not apply the principle of grapheme phoneme correspondences when they read. If they do read at all, they use evident visual features of some words as cues. Their ability to recognize words are often tied to correspondences and they take advantage of this knowledge as they read. As an example, children in this phase may read JRF as giraffe.

The knowledge of the alphabetic system is still incomplete and the children are unable to segment the words into all of its corresponding phonemes and can subsequently not read unfamiliar words. Ehri (1985) termed this reading “phonetic cue reading” as the names of the letters are often used as cues. It is important to distinguish between the phonetic cue reading where the reader does not have a full account of the alphabetic system, and sight word reading that emerges later. If children acquire knowledge of the alphabetic system quickly, they may exhibit the behavior associated with the partial alphabetic phase for a very brief period of time. Decoding development is initiated by phonological awareness (PA) in combination with letter knowledge (Stuart 1988). When children have complete knowledge of the alphabetic system and how the letters correspond to the sounds, they exhibit full alphabetic phase behavior. According to Ehri and Wilce (1979) the grapheme phoneme correspondences are the mnemonic system that ties pronunciations with their spellings in memory, and thus
enhances memory for words. In this phase, children can read new words that they have never encountered before. Initially, even very short and simple words are sounded out letter by letter, but eventually common words are read effortlessly (Ehri 2005). Decoding works as a self-teaching strategy for sight words, such that new words are read, then coded into memory (Share, 1995).

In the consolidated alphabetic phase, the alphabetic units that are primarily used are chunks of letters. These chunks consist of morphemes, onsets and rhymes, short monosyllabic words and frequent spellings of words (Ehri 2005). Reading words in different chunks instead of decoding words letter by letter decrease the burden on the memory system. The consolidated alphabetic phase is characterized by fast and efficient reading of words by sight.

2.3 Comprehension

Comprehension of language entails understanding of individual words but also active engagement with the content to create a mental representation. Successful comprehension requires coordination of skills at many levels to extract and construct meaning. The section on comprehension consists of four parts. In the first part, a simple example is used to introduce a few commonly used concepts associated with comprehension. In the second part, some important distinctions in comprehension in different formats are suggested. In the third part, a brief description of a comprehension model, the CI-model is presented (Kintsch 2005). The CI-model describes how comprehension can be obtained using different levels of processing. The purpose of these sections is to suggest complexities associated with reading comprehension, which are important when considering children with reading comprehension difficulties. The last section is called “Assessment of reading comprehension”. Given the complexity of reading comprehension, it is not surprising
that the skill is not easily assessed. Differences between tests potentially influence selection of groups with compromised results (Keenan 2014).

**2.3.1 A comprehension example**

An example of a simple text is presented below. This text will be used to demonstrate some important concepts of comprehension. An hour before the guests arrived, Henry went downstairs to get started on the frosting for the cake. He was mystified. The cake was nowhere to be seen. Looking down, he saw crumbs on the floor and Molly, his German Shepard, was lying in her basket licking her mouth. Henry bit his tongue and started taking out the ingredients. To understand a text the individual words have to be decoded and the meaning of the individual words accessed. Some words may be unknown to the reader which will disturb reading flow. In addition, words, which are not pronounced in accordance with pronunciation rules, may introduce challenges in mapping to the correct word. Often, understanding of a sentence or a clause does not entail merely adding up the meanings of the individual words. An example in the text above is the idiomatic expression “to bite his tongue” which is to be interpreted not by the literal meaning but rather the figurative meaning, (to struggle not to say something you really want to say). This is true for a number of different text elements in literate language including metaphors and analogies (Westby 2012).

To understand texts you also have to make inferences. Making inferences refers to filling in information, which is not stated explicitly in the text. In the text above you need to make the inference that Molly ate the cake and that Henry intended to bake a new cake for the guests. These inferences require readers to integrate information across sentences. Without the inferred meanings, the text does not make much sense. Several different classification systems have been suggested for
inferences (Graesser, 1994). A common type of inferences in expository texts is causal inferences, which are necessary to identify actions, which are consequences of other actions (Westby, 2012). The importance of knowledge in comprehension cannot be emphasized enough (Elbro 2010). For example, knowledge of the world is necessary to make text connections such as inferences. A common way to conceptualize the knowledge necessary in reading is by using the concept schema. According to Mandler (1984) schema is a hierarchical organization of knowledge about an event or object. Thus, schema is a way to conceptualize the existent knowledge structures that we use to understand. The hierarchical organization helps us to prioritize what to focus on in complex situations. The schema enable us to behave appropriately in situations previously experienced and also to be able to make the connections that are necessary to comprehend written or spoken discourse. In the example above, knowledge about how dogs behave and the fact that many dogs eat all types of food can help you make the inference that the dog ate the cake.

2.3.2 Different types of comprehension

The processes involved in comprehension in oral and written language share many features. For example, inferences are made in comprehension of oral language as well as when reading. However, it is still beneficial to make two distinctions concerning usage of language; academic vs everyday language, and written vs spoken language.

The level of difficulty associated with comprehension of certain content depends on the complexity of the language used. There are important differences between the language that we use in every day conversations and the language used in school (Westby, 2012). Everyday conversations are primarily used to achieve daily tasks and share personal
information. Academic language, on the other hand, includes a different set of words, more complex grammatical structures and different text organization to express content, which describe complex relationships (Zwiers 2008). In addition, academic language is much more lexicalized; each clause has a higher density of words, which carry the meaning of the text compared to everyday language (Westby, 2012). Other language constructs associated with academic texts are nominalizations, that is verbs or adjectives are used to form nouns. An example of a nominalization is conclusion, which stems from the verb conclude. Passive voice is also commonly used in academic language.

Although, written and spoken language come in many different forms there are some general differences between languages in the two modalities. Whereas speech is temporary, written language is permanent. This means that the reader has opportunities to recover from comprehension failure by going back to the text. However, written language stands without many of the contextual cues that help convey the message in oral language (Cain 2010). Gestures and intonation patterns are quite helpful in getting the message across in spoken language. However, most important is the social context of the message in the spoken form. Spoken language is interactive and used in a conversational context, therefore the content is often negotiated and the shared situation provides additional help in interpreting the spoken message. In this sense, texts are decontextualized. Time is a factor when considering differences between written and spoken language. Chafe and Danielewicz (1987) showed that the vocabulary used in spoken language was less varied compared to text. This was not only the case in every day conversations but also in academic lectures. Normally writers spend a lot of time searching for the exact word that will best deliver the content. However, in spoken language, words are chosen on the fly;
therefore, the content is often less elaborated, and not formulated with the same precision. Some words that are common in writing are rarely used in spoken language, for example *thus* and *accordingly*. Whereas written language is quite traditional, it has been suggested that oral language favors new vocabulary (Chafe 1987). Some general differences should also be mentioned with regard to syntax of discourse in the two different modalities. Speakers are more likely to use simple chain clauses, whereas writers use more elaborate clause structures (Cain 2010). This difference inevitably makes written language more complicated to understand. In addition, spoken language is full of repetition and rephrasing, and a relatively high number of words are often used to present a small amount of information compared to written texts (Kahmi 2012).

To sum up, written language, especially in an academic context, is associated with a number of complexities. The language used in texts use more rare vocabulary and sentence structures, which are complex compared to spoken language. In addition, texts stand without the context given by a shared situation in oral conversations. Given these differences, it is not surprising that some children exhibit difficulties in reading comprehension.

2.3.3 A comprehension model

A number of different models have been proposed to account for the complex process of understanding text (Gernsbacher 1990). These models include bottom-up models, top-down models and parallel models. In bottom-up models, the process of reading for understanding starts with the written words and comprehension is constructed by building the representation stepwise from the individual phoneme to understanding of the entire text. Top-down models emphasize the importance of inference making and schemas used to predict the content of the texts. In parallel
models, it is suggested that these two processes work in parallel, simultaneously (Kahmi 2012).

The Construction Integration (CI) Model by Kintsch and colleagues (Kintsch & Rawson, 2005) has been highly influential in the field. Early versions of the CI-model described reading comprehension in terms of a parallel processing model, but in later versions the CI-model would qualify as bottom-up (Kintsch, 1998). The ultimate goal of reading is to obtain a coherent mental representation of the meaning of the text. By testing what people remember of a text, we can try to understand what this representation consists of. In general, individuals do not exhibit good verbatim recollection of a text. Thus, the process of understanding does not entail memorizing of words but rather integrating and constructing a model (Kintsch 2005). In the model, integration of information from different sentences and segments of text are linked and combined with the reader’s knowledge. The CI-model proposes two separate processes within a connectionist framework; constructing and integrating (Kintsch 2005). During the construction phase, a word is read and the meaning of that word is activated. For words with multiple meanings, all semantic representations are activated along with words associated with the target word. Understanding is built based on simple statements (propositions) that form a network of associations called microstructure. To establish this microstructure, the reader has to make connections between the different propositions. Making a causal-based inference is one example of such a connection. At this stage a literal version of the text, text-base, is constructed based on decoding, vocabulary and background knowledge. In the construction phase, all word meanings are activated, even incorrect ones, therefore the representation in text-base is not yet coherent. In the integration phase, activations are spread in the network, through inference processing. This results in a stable activation
pattern, such that meanings can be inferred. The integration process is a slow and sometimes effortful process. At the next level text segments are related to each other and at this level the macrostructure of the text is built. Building of macro structure includes identification of key themes and their relationship to each other. This can be done by using signaling devises such as headings, repetition of words and first line information.

To establish a situation model, background knowledge is used to form connections between nodes from long-term memory, to make inferences and to interpret the content of the text. The situation model is not restricted to the verbal domain; it can also include imagery, emotions and personal experiences. The rich representation of the content that the situation model comprises is stable and robust and more persistent in memory compared to content that only includes text base knowledge.

2.3.4 Assessment of reading comprehension

Tests assessing reading comprehension have often been used interchangeably, suggesting an implicit assumption that they all measure the same thing (Keenan 2008). As reading comprehension relies on both word decoding and linguistic comprehension, a valid assessment of reading comprehension should tap both skills. A few studies have examined the amount of variance in reading comprehension which can be explained by different components underlying reading comprehension. These studies have suggested large variations between tests (Cutting 2006).

Different response formats have been used in tests to assess reading comprehension. Common formats include cloze tests, multiple choice tests and tests with open ended questions (Cain 2010). In a cloze test, each item contains a sentence or paragraph with a word missing. The reader is instructed to find a word that fits the
context. Two studies have suggested that cloze tasks show a stronger relationship with decoding compared to other formats (Francis 2005). In the study by Nation and Snowling (1997), the results for the cloze test suggested that listening comprehension did not account for any additional variance in reading comprehension once decoding was included in the statistical model.

In a more recent study by Keenan (2008), it was suggested that passage length rather than response format determined how closely related the tests were to decoding skill. That is, short passages are more dependent on decoding skills compared to longer passages. The authors argue that when children read passages with few sentences, successful reading comprehension is dependent on correct decoding of each individual word. In longer passages, the events are given a richer description, which makes it easier for children to use the context for comprehension. Thus, it may be easier to recover from unsuccessful decoding in longer passages.

This pattern was especially apparent in younger children. Another type of reading comprehension tests applies open-ended questions. The Neale Analysis of Reading ability NARA(1997) applies a procedure with long passages and open-ended questions. Performance with this type of task has been suggested to be more dependent on listening comprehension and inference making compared to other formats (Cain 1999) but also to be influenced by metacognitive aspects, expressive speech and self-confidence (Spooner 2004). Multiple-choice tests have been used to assess comprehension of figurative language such as idiomatic expressions (Cain, 2010). With a multiple choice procedure, literal as well as figurative meanings can be used as response alternatives. However, a disadvantage of this procedure is that the inferences have to be spelled out. If the correct choice is most closely associated with the text itself, the correct choice can be made even though the reader did not make the
target inference.

Another potential problem, associated with reading comprehension assessment is whether the questions could be answered using general knowledge instead of knowledge achieved from reading the text (Keenan 2006). Keenan and Betjemann (2006) found that in a commonly used reading comprehension test, many of the questions were passage independent; if you had the appropriate background knowledge, you did not have to read the text.

To sum up, reading comprehension tests cannot be used interchangeably. Rather, there are advantages and disadvantages with different formats, and the results of the tests show differential patterns of explained variance in terms of underlying constructs. The pattern can also vary across age.

2.4 Early predictors of reading

During the last 30 years many studies have shown longitudinal relationships between cognitive and language skills and later reading skills in the normal range as well as in populations with reading difficulties. These studies have shown that when children have been exposed to reading instruction, the prediction of future levels of decoding skills can be done with relatively high accuracy. The reason for this is that children who make a good start in reading development often continue to show a positive trend. On the other hand, children who struggle early on often do so continually (Scarborough, 1998). Prediction of reading skills starting in preschool or kindergarten, when very few children have any reading ability, is much more difficult. In an influential meta-analysis, Scarborough (1998) examined early prediction studies that were conducted between 1976 and 1996. More than 60 prediction studies examining prediction of individual differences in decoding were included in the analysis. The results showed that more than 20 different skills
predicted future decoding performance, and that the three most important predictors were letter identification, PA and rapid automatized naming (RAN). Other variables often used to predict reading performance such as vocabulary, verbal memory and grammar, are more closely related to reading comprehension than to decoding (Roth 2002). However, when reading performance in the first years of school is examined, the division between predictors of decoding and reading comprehension is not straightforward. For instance, some studies have suggested that early levels of PA and print knowledge predict later reading comprehension (Aarnoutse 2005).

Even when controlling for word reading performance (Parrila, 2004). In addition, vocabulary and knowledge of grammatical structures have been found to predict later decoding skills (Muter 2004). Six different skills have been used to predict reading in this thesis and they are commonly used within the field; these are PA, RAN, print knowledge, vocabulary, grammatical skills and verbal memory. The sections presented below will explain the six different constructs and the types of tasks that are often used to assess them. In addition, previous prediction studies of decoding and reading comprehension will be presented.

As the focus of this thesis is on preschool predictors, the studies reviewed will mainly involve studies from preschool and kindergarten age. The relationship between these predictors and subtypes of poor readers such as poor decoders and poor comprehenders will be described in the section “Reading difficulties”.

2.5 Phonological awareness

Three different skills that make use of the sound structure of language have been associated with word reading; PA, RAN and verbal working emery (Wagner 1987). These three skills have been termed phonological processing skills. The most widely recognized skill associated with early reading is PA. Massive evidence support
PA as an important predictor of early reading performance (Frost 2005).

Scarborough (1998) have reported mean correlations of $r = .45$ between preschool/kindergarten performance of PA and early decoding skills. PA can be defined as “the conceptual understanding and explicit awareness that spoken words consist of individual speech sounds (phonemes) and combinations of speech sounds (syllables, onset-rime units)” (Vellutino 2004). Tests of PA are assumed to capture underlying phonological representations of lexical items in the mental lexicon (Elbro 1998). It has been suggested that distinct phonological representations help in the development of PA and the development of reading and spelling skills (Snowling, 2000). PA is assessed at different complexity levels.

A simple task of PA involves recognition of units bigger than the phoneme, such as parts of words or syllables. A more difficult task involves manipulation of phonemes (for example blending or substitution). The related term phonemic awareness refers to identification and manipulation at the phoneme level, whereas PA can entail larger chunks of sounds as well.

Why is phonemic awareness important in learning to read? Al Otaiba and Torgesen (2012) have proposed three reasons, first, it helps children understand the alphabetic principle and develop alphabetic knowledge. Second, it helps children notice the regular ways that letters represent sounds of words. Third, it helps children to become flexible readers, such that they can decode even irregular words. For instance, if a word is difficult to decode, as it is irregular, children can search their lexicon for words beginning with a certain sound, which has been successfully decoded. However, another line of research suggests that PA can be seen as a secondary consequence of reading instruction itself and thus is not causally related to reading (Goswami 1990).
It has also been suggested that the relationship between PA and early decoding is reciprocal (Perfetti 1987). Evidence for this line of arguing can be found in studies showing that phonemic awareness tasks are too difficult for many pre-readers (de Jong 1974). Also, Ehri (1989) has pointed out that the majority of 5 year olds who show phonemic weaknesses at age 5 do not end up as poor readers later in development. A third predictor that has been attributed great importance in early reading prediction is the speed at which children can name well known symbols or objects; RAN.

2.6 Vocabulary

Although many agree that vocabulary is important for successful reading, there is no consensus about the nature of the relationship between oral language and reading. Often, studies control for vocabulary knowledge and verbal IQ and thus ignore the contribution from an important area of language (Nation, 2005). Measurements of vocabulary are often divided into expressive or receptive. Receptive vocabulary refers to the words that are understood by an individual when he/she hears or reads them.

Expressive vocabulary is the words that are used when he/she speaks. Another distinction is breadth and depth. Vocabulary breadth is the number of entities in the mental lexicon and vocabulary depth refers to the extent of semantic representation for the words in the lexicon (Ouellette, 2006). In this perspective vocabulary growth consists of both adding more entities to the mental lexicon and refining word meaning over time. Breadth and depth of vocabulary have also been shown to have partly different prediction patterns in reading. For example, Ouellette (2006) found that vocabulary breadth was a significant predictor of decoding, whereas vocabulary depth was more closely associated with reading comprehension for children in grade 4.
Numerous studies have suggested that vocabulary has a close relationship with reading comprehension (Anderson 1981).

Preschool vocabulary has been shown to be an important predictor of later reading comprehension (Muter 2004). Vocabulary also continues to influence reading comprehension when word reading skills are automatized in most readers (Ouellette 2006). In addition, vocabulary interventions have shown significant effects on reading comprehension in population samples (Elleman 2009).

Two different positions can be identified with regard to the predictive relationship between vocabulary and reading comprehension. It has been suggested that vocabulary (or oral language skills) influence reading comprehension only after decoding skills have been established (Speece 1999). However, some studies suggest that oral language skills are essential in early reading comprehension (Bishop 1990). Compared the influence of early decoding-related skills and oral language skills on reading comprehension in grade 2. They found that both types of skills made important unique contributions to reading comprehension. They also found that the decoding-related skills and oral language skills were closely related to each other in preschool but became more independent after a few years of school.

2.7 Verbal memory

Verbal memory is conceptualized as the ability to store verbal information in temporary storage. A division can be made between working memory tasks, which involve simultaneous storage and processing, and short term memory tasks, which comprise passive storage and retrieval (Baddeley 1974). Assessment can involve many different types of tasks commonly using words or sentences. As have been described previously, verbal working memory has been operationalized as one of three phonological processing skills (Wagner & Torgesen, 1987). As such, verbal
memory would be expected to show strong relationships with decoding development. However, the results are mixed. Some studies suggest a strong relationship between early verbal working memory and later reading development (Swanson 1997). Other studies indicate that verbal memory may play a minor role in prediction of reading when considered together with PA and/or RAN (Bowers 1995).

Separating memory skills from language skills is not an easy task, thus it is complicated to achieve valid measurements on the influence of memory on reading. Based on her meta-analysis, Scarborough (1998) suggested that verbal memory tasks that involve both memory and sentence processing abilities, such as repetition of sentences or recall of a brief orally presented story, were more strongly related to children’s future reading achievement compared to tasks such as digit span, word span and pseudo-word repetition measures.

2.8 Grammar

Grammar constitutes a set of rules governing the composition of clauses, phrases and words in a language. Although grammatical knowledge has been shown to be related to different aspects of reading, the nature of the relationship has not been easy to describe. Two different aspects of grammar are morphology and syntax. Morphology refers to the internal structure of words and how words relate to each other (Akmajian 1997).

Simply put morphology deals with morphemes, the smallest grammatical unit of the language. Syntax refers to the internal structure of sentences and relationships between words within a sentence (Akmajian et al., 1997). Tasks that are often used to assess syntax include word order correction tasks or grammatical correction tasks (Cain, 2007). In these types of tasks, individuals are given clauses that contain grammatical errors and are asked to provide the correct clause. To access
morphology, morphological generation tasks are commonly used. When given a picture and a stem sentence, the child is required to produce a variation of the target word using a different morphological ending. For example, “Here is a tree, here are two ...”. This type of task can also be done using non-words. Grammatical knowledge has been found to influence both word reading and reading comprehension; however, it is likely that the association is stronger with reading comprehension (Storch 2002).

It has been suggested that syntax influences word reading if readers can use the constraints provided by syntax to decode an unknown word (Rego 1993). In a sense, the syntax of the sentence provides a grammatical context that supports decoding. Studies have found important influence from early grammatical skills to later reading comprehension. In a longitudinal study, Muter and colleagues (Muter et al., 2004) examined children for two years starting when the children were approaching their 5th birthday.

Reading comprehension was explained by previous word reading ability, vocabulary and grammatical skills. For reading comprehension in the later grades, grammatical knowledge may influence by facilitating text level integration and monitoring of reading (Bowey, 1986). Bowey (1986) found that syntactic awareness tasks were correlated with reading comprehension and monitoring skills in less skilled readers in grades 4 and 5. These relationships remained significant when controlling for vocabulary. However, the predictive power of grammatical knowledge and in particular syntactic awareness has been questioned. Cain (2007) examined prediction of reading in 8-10 year olds. She found that syntactic awareness explained unique variance in word reading but not in reading comprehension. Based on her results, she suggested that the relationship between reading comprehension and syntactic
awareness might exist because of shared underlying constructs of memory and vocabulary that influences both skills.

2.9 Reading Difficulties

Reading comprehension deficits can be found in many different types of populations, both developmentally and in adults. Based on the Simple View of Reading, a deficit in reading comprehension is the result of a specific problem in one of the two skills involved in reading comprehension (i.e., decoding or linguistic comprehension) or a combination of deficits in both skills (Aaron1999). In this thesis, two subtypes of poor readers will be examined, children with poor decoding on the one hand and poor comprehension on the other. Different sorts of selection procedures will be used to identify these subtypes of reading difficulties.

2.10 Decoding difficulties

Reading and writing difficulties have been the focus of many studies since the beginning of the 1960s (Vellutino et al., 2004). These studies have mainly focused on children with poor decoding skills, often defined as dyslexic reading problems, and the literature on its causes and consequences as well as remediation is extensive (Ehri 2000). Individuals with dyslexia have unexpectedly poor decoding skills based on their general ability despite adequate teaching. Dyslexia can be defined as in the following:

Dyslexia is a specific learning disability that is neurobiological in origin. It is characterized by difficulties with accurate and/or fluent word recognition and by poor spelling and decoding abilities. These difficulties typically results from a deficit in the phonological component of language that is often unexpected in relation to other cognitive abilities and the provision of effective classroom instruction. Secondary consequences may include problems in reading comprehension and reduced
reading experience that can impede growth of vocabulary and background knowledge. (Lyon 2003). Individuals with dyslexia have problems establishing the grapheme-phoneme correspondences that are the basis of decoding, and hence they struggle immensely with their reading. The most typical manifestation of dyslexia is failure to reach automatic decoding (Snowling, 2000). Although children with dyslexia with time often learn to decode words correctly, the process continues to be effortful and slow into adulthood (Bruck, 1990).

The decoding deficit is sometimes most clearly apparent in reading of non-words (Snowling, 1986). When reading non-words, contextual cues cannot be used to determine the word in question; instead, the word has to be decoded. Relatedly, the ability to correctly spell familiar words is often compromised (Vellutino 2004). For a long time researchers have been trying to find the underlying causal mechanisms of developmental dyslexia. There is now converging evidence that weak phonological coding is the underlying cause of reading difficulties (Ehri 1988).

Individuals with dyslexia exhibit specific impairments in representation, storage and/or retrieval of speech sounds. If the sounds are poorly represented this affects learning grapheme-phoneme correspondences which are the basis of early reading acquisition. This has lead researchers to suggest that individuals with dyslexia may have poorly specified phonological representations (Elbro 1998). Individuals with dyslexic reading problems commonly exhibit poor PA, compromised verbal short-term memory and slow RAN (Cardoso 2004). Despite the distinguishing pattern of RAN in different groups of readers, no clear causal link has been established between RAN and early reading skills (de Jong & Vrielink 2004). Despite abundant support for the phonological deficit theory, causal paths of dyslexia continue to be debated. The alternative theories regard the phonological processing deficit found in
children with dyslexia as merely a manifestation of much more widespread deficit stemming from impairments in general cognitive and motor functions. The three most widely recognized alternative theories are the auditory theory (Tallal 1980) the visual theory and the cerebellar theory (Nicolson 1990).

These theories propose that dyslexic reading problems are caused by auditory deficits, visual deficits and motor functions respectively. In a multiple case study of dyslexic college students, Ramus and colleagues (2003) examined the extent to which their subjects exhibited deficits in line with the four main theories of dyslexia.

All individuals exhibited phonological deficits. Although quite a few (10 out of 16) exhibited auditory deficits, the type of auditory deficits varied between individuals. None of the participant exhibited difficulties with rapid auditory processing or had problems that were specific to speech, which is the core of the auditory theory (Tallal 1980). The auditory deficits did however have an impact on phonological processing, explaining 30% of the variation. Only 4 of the individuals exhibited motor problems and 2 exhibited visual problems. Along with many other studies these results give support to the phonological deficit theory and suggest that other sensory and motor disorders may be present in certain individuals (Elbro 1998).

Practitioners of different sorts, such as psychologists, speech and language pathologists or medical doctors, can be involved in diagnosing dyslexia. Often diagnosing involves a thorough examination of different cognitive and language skills. However, the common way in research today is selection of children whose performance is in the low tail on decoding tests. This approach has been used in the present study.
2.11 The double deficit hypothesis

As presented above there is a consensus that phonological deficits underlie reading difficulties in many children. RAN has been described as a phonological processing skill (Wagner 1987). However, there is considerable heterogeneity concerning deficits exhibited by groups of children with reading disabilities. The double deficit hypothesis proposes that “phonological deficits and the processes underlying RAN are separate sources of reading dysfunction, and their combined presence leads to profound reading impairment” (Wolf 1999).

The theory suggest that there are three different profiles of difficulties associated with reading disability; selective phonological deficits, selective RAN deficits and combined deficits (Wolf 1999). According to the theory, the phonological subtype should show compromised PA, word attack and reading comprehension, whereas the RAN subtype would show compromised RAN, reading fluency and reading comprehension. The combined subtype is expected to show both types of deficits and are compromised on all tasks associated with reading. Wolf and Bowers (1999) emphasized that the double deficit theory should have extensive influence on identification and remediation.

Support for the double deficit hypothesis is extensive and has been found in cross sectional and longitudinal studies (Papadopoulos 2009). However, some studies also fail to find important characteristics of the theory (Schatschneider 2002). Comparisons between studies are complicated by statistical artifacts such as differences in tests used and cut points applied (Vukovic 2006).

2.12 Decoding deficits and reading comprehension

Decoding deficits often affect reading comprehension ability. Perfetti (1985) outlined a comprehensible explanation in the bottleneck theory of automaticity. It
states that within a limited capacity system, decoding skills have to be automatized such that capacity can be allocated to higher-order-level processes necessary for successful reading comprehension. In 1986, Stanovich suggested that poor readers might spend less time reading and will therefore fall behind typical readers on vocabulary and general knowledge. He called this phenomenon “the Mathew effect of reading”. Though this may be true for some, it is not true for all readers (Scarborough 2003). It has also been suggested that individuals with decoding deficits often use compensatory strategies, such as reliance on context, to achieve successful comprehension of written text (Kirby 2008).

2.13 Reading comprehension difficulties

Reading comprehension and decoding are typically highly correlated in the early grades (Florit 1996). However, some individuals are exceptions to this general pattern of highly correlated results for these skills. The last 25 years of research in reading comprehension has shown that a relatively large group of readers show problems with reading comprehension despite fluent word decoding. The group of readers are often called poor comprehenders and it has been suggested that as many as 10-15% of children aged 7-10 may show this profile of reading difficulties (Yuill 1991). However, the prevalence varies between studies. The problems exhibited by this group are not specific to reading comprehension, but rather involve comprehension of oral language in general.

The group of poor comprehenders was initially described by a few British research groups (Nation 1998). In these studies, roughly the same strategy for selecting poor comprehenders has been applied. At 8 or 9 years of age, children were tested on reading accuracy and reading comprehension using the Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (Neale, 1997). In this task, the children are asked to read short text
passages aloud and answer questions afterwards. The procedure used in the Neale provides a score of the child’s reading accuracy, as the tester marks any reading mistakes as they occur.

The Neale also provides a score for reading comprehension, based on the scores of literal and inference questions that the children answer after having read the passage. Poor comprehenders are typically identified if they show age adequate reading accuracy and below average reading comprehension skill. For example, Cain and Oakhill (1999) identified a group of poor comprehenders that showed normal word reading accuracy for their age group, but whose performance were at least 6 months below their age group in reading comprehension (19 months on average).

Variations of this selection procedure have been used; for example Catts and colleagues (2003) included oral language comprehension in their selection procedure. Most studies examining poor comprehenders have used crosssectional designs. Thus, relatively few studies have examined precursors of the reading comprehension deficits, especially in the preschool age. In this thesis, that type of study is called retrospective because they go back in time to look for cognitive profiles that might account for subsequent reading comprehension difficulties.

In addition, only a handful of studies have examined this group of children a couple of years after the problems were first manifested. These studies are called prospective studies as they go forward in time. I will start by describing the cognitive profile of this type of readers from the crosssectional perspective. The cognitive profile includes both difficulties at the word and sentence level and higher-level processes that are needed to create a situation model.

2.13. 1 Vocabulary

As was described earlier in this thesis, studies find a close link between
vocabulary and reading comprehension (Ouellette 2009). As expected, deficits in vocabulary have been repeatedly found in the group of poor comprehenders (Cain 2003). Nation and colleagues have found differences between poor comprehenders and typical readers on various aspects of semantic knowledge (Nation 2004). For example, they found that a group of 8-9 year old poor comprehenders performed at lower levels on both receptive and expressive vocabulary tasks when compared to a group of typical readers (Nation & Snowling, 1998b). In the receptive vocabulary tasks the children had to determine which words were synonyms and to understand sayings like “a pat on the back”. The expressive vocabulary tasks consisted of defining words and giving multiple contexts of a given word such as bat, which means both an animal and an object used for hitting a ball.

Another aspect of vocabulary concerns the ability to learn new words from text. Cain et al. (2003) compared poor comprehenders to typical readers on the ability to learn new words through reading. They used non-words where the meaning of the words could be inferred from the texts. No differences were found between skilled and less skilled readers when the explanation of the word was immediately following the target word. However, when the explanation and the target word was separated by a number of filler sentences, individuals with reading comprehension problems did significantly worse than the typical readers in defining the words afterwards.

2.13.2 Grammar and morphology

In addition to vocabulary differences, several studies report further deficits at the word or sentence level for the group of poor comprehenders, namely deficits in grammar and morphology (Catts 2006). For example, poor comprehenders and typical readers have been differentiated using the test for reception of grammar (Bishop 1983). TROG applies a picture- sentence matching task to examine receptive
grammatical understanding. Morphological awareness refers to the awareness of morphemic structure of words, and the ability to manipulate words to form new words. It has been suggested that the importance of morphological awareness increases over time as the children are exposed to more complex words (Wolter 2009).

Several aspects of morphological awareness have been found to be depressed in poor comprehenders. These aspects include weaknesses in inflection of irregular verbs, particularly past tense constructions and difficulties in recalling complex sentences (Nation et al., 2004). Tong and colleagues (2011) found that poor comprehenders had particular weaknesses in understanding derived words but not necessarily inflected words. A derived word is formed based on an existing word; for example unhappy and happiness are derived from happy. An inflected word is a modification of a word to express a different grammatical category such as tense; for example write – wrote.

Furthermore, Tong and colleagues (2011) suggested that morphological weaknesses emerge over time in the group of poor comprehenders, as differences were found at grade 5 but not two years earlier. As the language used becomes more complex, the poor comprehenders start having problems.

2.13.3 Verbal Memory

Early work on poor comprehenders has indicated a general working memory deficit (Yuill 1991). For example, Yuill and colleagues (1989) used a span task where they presented numbers 2, 3 or 4 at a time. The children were asked to read the row of digits aloud and memorize the last digit. The results showed systematic differences between a group of poor comprehenders and typical readers. However, another possibility regarding poor comprehenders and memory skills is that the deficits are restricted to tasks involving semantic aspects of language. If this were the case, poor
comprehenders would be more vulnerable in tasks where high demands are put on oral language skills. Nation, Adams, Bowyer-Crane and Snowling (1999) examined memory skills in poor comprehenders and used simple and complex tasks on verbal as well as non-verbal material. They found no evidence that poor comprehenders showed lower results compared to typical readers on tasks tapping general working memory. However, differences were found in verbal working memory tasks. For instance, poor comprehenders recalled fewer abstract words in a serial recall task. They also did less well on a listening span task. To sum up, there is not enough evidence to suggest a general working memory deficit in poor comprehenders.

2.14 Inferences and other text-related processes

In order to create a rich representation of a text, a situation model, the reader has to integrate each sentence with the situation model and infer information that is not explicitly expressed in the text (Cain, 2010). The links that establish local coherence are inferences that connect sentences with each other to form a network of relations between propositions. This type of inferences is referred to as text-connecting. In addition, inferences also have to be made from text information to general knowledge of the reader to establish global coherence, so-called gap-filling inferences (Cain, 2010).

Several studies have suggested that poor comprehenders make fewer inferences compared to typical readers (Cain & Oakhill, 1999). Cain and Oakhill (1999) used a comprehension-age match design, and they found that a group of poor comprehenders performed significantly worse than a younger group of readers matched on reading comprehension ability on text connecting inferences but not on gap-filling inferences. This pattern suggests that the inference problems exist prior to the reading comprehension problems and is not an effect of the low level of reading
comprehension exhibited by the poor comprehenders. Another complex process involved in creating a situation model is comprehension monitoring. Comprehension monitoring refers to a person’s ability to evaluate their comprehension (Cain, 2010). For example, this can entail checking whether a text makes sense and taking actions such as re-reading and generating an inference to recover from comprehension failure. Comprehension monitoring can be assessed by error detection tasks. Not surprisingly, poor comprehenders are often compromised on comprehension monitoring tasks (Cain & Oakhill, 2003). Relatedly, several studies have found that poor comprehenders have limited knowledge of different text structures. When assessed in narrative tasks, poor comprehenders often produced list-like stories with no obvious goals (Cain 1996).

2.15 Poor comprehenders across time

Now we turn to the retrospective and prospective studies, which have examined poor comprehenders over time. A couple of retrospective studies have examined poor comprehenders prior to any reading instruction (Justice 2013). The children are just beginning their reading development (Catts 2010).

While oral language skills appear to be somewhat lower in poor comprehenders at the beginning of language development, differences between typical readers and poor comprehenders were not significant until age 4-5. Catts and colleagues (2003) compared poor comprehenders selected in grade 3 or 8 to poor decoders and typical readers. They found depressed results in the poor comprehension group compared to the other groups in kindergarten on a composite of vocabulary, grammar and story comprehension. In addition, these differences showed stability across grades. Similar results were obtained in the Nation et al., (2010) study such that the poor comprehenders, selected at age 8, showed poor performance on oral
language skills in kindergarten. In the prospective perspective, Cain and Oakhill (2006) showed that all but 1 out of 23 poor comprehenders selected at age 8, showed poor reading comprehension performance three years later. At age 11, the poor comprehenders also exhibited depressed results in science and math, which indicated a negative educational trend for this group over time.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH

3.0 Introduction

For collecting data, the researcher used descriptive analytical approaches. These are a sampling population, subject and instruments as a direct method to collect and analyze data. For the sake of applying these methods, some functional procedures were used. At the same time, reliability and validity of the instrument "questionnaires" were measured to examine the ability to provide constant answers. Questionnaire is used to achieve the goals. To obtain statistical results, the researcher used simple comparison between results by using simple percentages.

3.1 Population of the study:

Those who answered the questionnaire are a group of teachers of English in Gezira state, Madani locality the year 2017-2018.

3.2 Sample of the study:

The researcher chooses 30 teachers of English from different basic schools randomly. Most of them have been teaching English as a foreign language for more than 5 years. All of them were male with different age.

3.3 Tools for data collection:

The questionnaire was designed to collect data about the impact of intensive reading comprehension on EFL learners at basic school. The researcher used a simple manual statistics (percentages) to gain valuable results, to show the variation between positive and negative variables.
3.4 Reliability and validity of the Questionnaire

As for reliability of the questionnaire, it means that if the same questionnaire is administered to the same teachers to extent that it produced same results then it is reliability. to achieve the ultimate goal of this study, content, construct and concurrent validity were given special attention in preparing the instruments of the study (questionnaire)
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

In this part, the researcher used tables to illustrate results, the questionnaire was measured using percent for positive variables and negative variables.

4.1 The Questionnaire

A group of teachers of English language did it from different schools. It was intended to explain the responses of the teachers towards three main topics: Difficulties of Sudanese students with reading skills.

Table (4.1.1) The difficulties of reading skills in Sudan Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentages</th>
<th>Negative Variables</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Positive Variables</th>
<th>Question No</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>S.D</td>
<td>N</td>
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<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>6 %</td>
<td>2 %</td>
<td>2 %</td>
<td>50 %</td>
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<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>15 %</td>
<td>5 %</td>
<td>10 %</td>
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<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>3 %</td>
<td>2 %</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50 %</td>
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<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>15 %</td>
<td>8 %</td>
<td>5 %</td>
<td>40 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table explains teachers' attitudes towards the topics of the questionnaire. According to results learners face difficulties in reading the above skills.
Table (4.1.2) The importance of effective ways of teaching reading skills in Sudan Schools

S.A = Strongly Agree .  A = Agree .  N = Neutral
S.D = Strongly Disagree  D = Disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Negative Variables</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Positive Variables</th>
<th>Question No</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>S.D</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>A</td>
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<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>45%</td>
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<td>100%</td>
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<td>3%</td>
<td>7%</td>
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<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table explains the difference between teacher' attitudes towards the topics of the questionnaire. It proved the importance of effective ways of teaching reading comprehension.

Table (4.1.3) the effect of lack of teaching intensive reading comprehension on learning reading skills in 8th class at basic schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Negative Variables</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Positive Variables</th>
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4.2 Discussion:

The results displayed the fact that, in all cases the experimental group has progress in learning. The experimental group that learned English by using intensive reading comprehension faced less reading problems and was able to more accurate and fluent utterances. These were shown by the results provided by subjects as well as the improvement in their performance.

To sum up, the study achieved the researcher objectives, answered its questions and proved its hypotheses. The findings succeeded in drawing attention to the reading problems. This influence because teaching intensive reading comprehension increased learners’ phonological knowledge as well as phonological competence. The result of this increase was the ability to master the target reading skills.
CHAPTER FIVE
CONCLUSIONS, FINDINGS AND
RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter will discuss the conclusion, findings and recommendations.

5.1 Conclusion

To extract the research results, the researcher conducted his investigation under the following categories:

- The impact of using intensive reading comprehension on learning reading skills.
- The results were compared to examine the achievements of the research hypotheses at the level of the existence of Students reading skills difficulties, less reading skills difficulties of learners who use intensive reading comprehension.
- Tables in chapter four displayed the fact that, in all cases the experimental group has progress in learning. The experimental group that learned reading skill by using intensive reading comprehension faced less reading skills problems and was able to read more accurate and fluent utterances.

5.2 Findings

This study emphasized that:

- Most of reading skill difficulties can be solved by teaching reading skill through effective ways such as intensive reading comprehension.
• The extent to which learners succeed in producing accurate target utterances depended mainly on more practice using effective ways.

• Obtaining better features of reading skill from comprehension passages previously prepared by qualified teachers.

• Reading comprehension increased learners’ phonological knowledge as well as phonological competence.

• Reading comprehension passages have a very important role in teaching English in general and reading skills in particular.

• Intensive reading comprehension raise students' motivation and interest.

• Intensive reading comprehension affect teaching of English reading skills positively.

• Students who read comprehension intensively are better than those who do not.

5.3 Recommendations:

According to the obtained results of findings, it is obvious that reading comprehension intensively has significant importance for learners. Therefore, the researcher recommends that:

• Teachers and learners of English should pay special attention to reading skills.

• Intensive reading comprehension should be given special attention in teaching English reading skills.

• English books should be equipped with intensive reading comprehension.

• Short training courses for teachers regarding reading comprehension.
5.4 Suggestions for further Studies

This study explored some of the reading skill difficulties that face learners at 8th class. It succeeded in providing reasonable answers to important questions. For the sake of the above-mentioned reasons, the researcher suggests that:

- More studies in the field of reading skill especially psychologically. In other words, teachers and researchers should find out the psychological attitudes of students towards reading skill.
- Because of the integration of the four skills, the researcher hopes that other studies should be done in the influence of reading comprehension on other language skills.
References


Ehri, L. (1991). Development of the ability to read words. In R. Barr, M.


Stanovich, K. E., Cunningham, A. E., & Freeman, D. J. (1984).


## Appendix

<table>
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<td>3- Teaching reading skills using effective ways like intensive reading increasing learners' linguistic knowledge</td>
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Part No(3) enhancing EFL learners reading skills through intensive reading

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<td>Lack of intensive reading may hinder learners from tackling better features of reading skill</td>
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<td>Learners of English who don’t use intensive reading in learning may face more reading difficulties than those who don’t use intensive reading</td>
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<td>Lack of using intensive reading for teaching English in Sudan schools hinder learners from reading fluently</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>Schools with intensive reading help both teachers and learners to teach and learn reading</td>
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