A Comparative Analysis of English and Chinese Reading: Phonetics, Vocabulary and Grammar

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Abstract
The article covers the issues related to the development of reading skills of the students majoring/minoring in English and Chinese (as non-native languages). In the backdrop of linguistic differences between English and Chinese, this action research was conducted to investigate the components of the reading skills, which are to be developed within the Bachelor programs. The primary purpose of the article is to analyze the methodological background for teaching Ukrainian students to perceive information from authentic texts. The methods of induction and deduction enabled us to analyze and generalize the theoretical bases for the investigated topic, to systemize the results of the study (the reading tactics and strategies, classification of reading activities). The study was based on focused observation using the register as a tool for data collecting for two semesters each in three groups of third-year students at Ushynsky University. The total sample size was 54. The article presents an analysis of difficulties in reading English and Chinese texts: 1) phonological level – differences in sound pronunciation (English: /T/, /D/ /w/, /N/, /x/, etc.; Chinese: the alveolo-palatal consonants j, q, x; affricates zh, z; consonant r, etc.), the phonetic phenomena (English: nasal plosion, lateral plosion, loss of plosion, assimilation, reduction/elision, etc.; Chinese: tone, erization); 2) lexical level – conversion (in English) and transposition (in Chinese), homonymy, polysemy; 3) grammatical level – the division of lexicon into parts of speech, different word order in English and Chinese sentences, (non)segmentation of English and Chinese syntagms/clauses/compound sentences, use of tenses, etc. The article contains some recommendations for English and Chinese reading classrooms.

Keywords: Chinese, English, reading skills, reading tactics and strategies, teaching tools

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Introduction
Teaching mastery and innovations in the world educational systems are the vectors of the development and integration of the modern academic society, which is, to a great extent, oriented towards international activities in different spheres like socio-political, industrial, economic, cultural, educational and scientific. Collaboration across countries is subjecting our society to certain transformations into a harmonious “existence” within today's world space. That is why the pedagogical component plays a prominent role in training future specialists who can communicate constructively in social and professional areas using a foreign language.

A rapid flow of information, which is continually being renewed, makes it necessary to adapt to modern changing requirements and contents of the professional field. It should be noted that most information support is given in English (an international language). In contrast, the world areas of technology, industry, and economy are connected with the Chinese language since they are highly developed in the People’s Republic of China, and their products are disseminated worldwide. On the other hand, a new generation of higher school students, who are “technically intelligent”, quickly find and scan the information they need. A foreign language, being a bridge between interlocutors, functions as an instrument for obtaining and exchanging information, which seems to be impossible without reading skills and abilities. Reading skills alongside writing, speaking/interacting, and listening skills constitute the communicative competence, which enables interaction in all formats. To develop and master the mentioned competence and to facilitate students’ language acquisitions in compliance with modern demands, we are to recognize the fact that we deal with linguistic signs – units of two dimensions: semantic and acoustic images. They are perceived visually in the form of symbols and figures in writing, which are to be deciphered consciously. Therefore, the related useful methodological background should be used, especially reading tactics, strategies, and teaching tools aimed at developing reading skills.

The issue of language learning has been under the focus of many scholars (West, 1955; Alderson & Urquhart, 1984; Davies, 1995; Nuttall, 1996; Graesser, McNamara & Louwerse, 2003; Mirolyubov, 2003; Nikolayeva, 2004; Perfetti, 2007; Srisunakrua & Chumworatayee, 2019; Bilonozhko & Syzenko, 2020 and others) for almost two centuries. Alderson, Bilonozhko, Chumworatayee, Davies, Graesser, Louwerse, McNamara, Mirolyubov, Nikolayeva, Nuttall, Perfetti, Srisunakrua, Syzenkohave Urquhart, West, and others have studied the essence of reading as a speech activity and developed teaching techniques on its better mastering. M. West (1955) correlates reading with “getting ideas from a printed text, not making noise” (p. 26). The author gives a psychological explanation for reading and puts forward the following provisions:

1. Students can master reading separately from speaking, in any case, not based on speaking.
2. Reading is a more accessible activity than speaking.
3. Reading at any proficiency level is of practical value, and hence the associated feeling of success increases students’ interest in a foreign language.
4. Reading is the primary way of engaging non-native speakers in the culture of native speakers.

Michael West views reading as a goal and a means of learning because, in his opinion, reading creates possibilities for a significant increase in language practice in the process of mastering a
foreign language and establishing direct links between the concept and the word. That is the reason why it is advisable to start learning a foreign language with reading (West, 1955). Mirolyubov (2003) supports M. West’s method “read then say” in different modes: teacher–student(s), student–student(s). The educator recognized the ties between a book and brain, which enable reproducing speech in compliance with the content of a book (a text), its further rephrasing and producing. Nikolayeva (2004) associates reading with the process of audio decoding of “content-loaded” graphic characters, which constitute words, phrases, and sentences. Pentyliuk (2003) agrees with the proposed definition, emphasizes the vital role of reading in the formation of speech skills and specifies the essence of reading: “it consists in the decoding of graphic symbols, that is, the translation of a letter code into a mental image, which is implemented in outer or inner speech” (p. 143). We might assume that the content-related aspect of reading presupposes the understanding of information by the reader through decoding graphic characters and semantic links of the text.

The features of the reading given above prove its significance in learning foreign languages; however, the differences in linguistic characteristics of foreign languages that are studied simultaneously are not considered. It should be mentioned that in the framework of the recent studies initiated by the Council of Europe, the concept of plurilingualism has grown in importance in language learning. The members of the Council of Europe (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment, 2001) are convinced that plurilingualism differs from multilingualism, which is the knowledge of several languages, or the co-existence of different languages in a given society. Plurilingualism enables a person to “build up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contribute and in which languages interrelate and interact” (pp. 4–5). In Anderson’s (Anderson, 2010) opinion, “the nature of what we read must have some relation to how we read, then text analysis must be relevant to theories of reading and to research into reading” (p. 1). Following the suggested viewpoint, we strive for a person to call flexibly upon different parts of the designated competence to achieve effective communication with a particular interlocutor in different situations.

Therefore, the purpose of this article is to analyze efficient teaching tools aimed at developing reading skills of the students majoring/minoring in English and Chinese (as non-native languages) while using texts belonging to different functional styles. Correspondingly, we intend to review the pedagogical standpoints on reading tactics and strategies in the framework of particular reading activities. Then, we find it feasible to explore the characteristics of reading skills to be developed within the Bachelor programs and profession-oriented assignments alongside the teaching tools upon their development. We present some difficulties in reading/decoding English and Chinese and give solutions to how to overcome pedagogical implications.

**Literature Review**

There exist different classifications of reading activities. In compliance with the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment, 2001), a reader obtains and processes written texts created by one or more authors, which explains the diversity of text composition, linguistic and extralinguistic content, functional orientation, etc. We can assume that the language user reads: 1) for gist; 2) for specific information; 3) for detailed understanding; 4) for implications, etc.
Therefore, they propose these reading types: 1) overall reading comprehension; 2) reading correspondence; 3) reading for orientation; 4) reading for information and argument; 5) reading instructions.

Taking the proposed types of reading into consideration, the reader is supposed to obtain the skills as follows: to perceive the written text (visual skills); to recognize the script (orthographic skills); to identify the verbal message (linguistic skills); to understand the verbal message (semantic skills); to interpret the verbal message (cognitive skills). We can take these skills as the basic ones for teaching English and Chinese reading, transforming the reading strategies and tactics as well as teaching tools in a due direction.

The analysis of literature demonstrates a vast classification spectrum of reading types. Thus, Barnett (1988) indicates that reading types involve: skimming, scanning, guessing, recognizing cognates and word families, reading for meaning, predicting, activating general knowledge, making inferences, following references, and separating main ideas from supporting ones.

The Merriam-Webster’s Thesaurus (Merriam-Webster’s Thesaurus, 1828) gives a series of words related to reading: browsing, dipping (into), leafing (through), scanning, skimming, speed-reading, thumbing (through), turning over, devouring, gobbling (up), etc.

Brown (1994) suggested several types of reading for a language classroom according to the criteria “oral” and “silent”: A. Oral; B. Silent (I. Intensive: a) linguistic, b) content-centered; II. Extensive: a) skimming, b) scanning, c) global). The category of silent reading comprises intensive and extensive reading. Intensive reading (or narrow reading) is needed to develop and practice specific reading skills or strategies. Extensive reading involves the reading of large amounts of material and includes reading for pleasure, or reading technical, scientific, or profession-oriented articles. The latter type of extensive reading is considered more academic, and it may involve two specific types of reading – scanning for key details or skimming for the essential meaning. After scanning or skimming, a reader is likely to get a global (or general) sense. Skimming is associated with rapid-survey reading, scanning – with search reading.

Long and Richards (1987) called intensive reading a “detailed in-class” analysis, led by the teacher, of vocabulary and grammar points, in a short passage. Palmer (as cited in Khadidja, 2017, p. 58) in Britain and West in India initiated the theory of extensive reading as an approach to foreign language teaching and reading, in particular. It is believed that both intensive and extensive reading can be practiced in the same class for collective discussions of the topic and developing other skills, for example, writing an outline, a review, an essay, etc.

Bilonozhko and Syzenko (2020) correlate the effectiveness of reading (in second language learning) with text comprehension. Srisunakrua and Chumworatayee (2019) highlight that two linguistic characteristics, syntactic simplicity, and verb cohesion, are to be taken into account for better text comprehension.

Transforming the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages and the results of literature analysis into the framework of our research, we confirm the Ukrainian scholars’
classification of the reading types (Nikolayeva, 2002) and single out these: 1) overall reading comprehension (for orientation); 2) for detailed understanding (comprehensive); 3) for specific information (selective, skimming, scanning).

The mode of overall reading comprehension is the most widespread in all spheres of life. It is based on authentic texts that contain information on the ethnic socio-cultural aspects of the language non-native speakers learn. The reading to oneself (or silent reading) is characterized by a high rate of familiarization with the whole text, by an accurate and detailed understanding of the main content. The purpose of the comprehensive reading is to achieve the most complete and accurate understanding of text information and to make critical digestion of this information (thoughtful reading). This mode involves purposeful content analysis based on complex linguistic phenomena and logical links, accompanied by a large number of regressions to gain the most accurate understanding. The purpose of the selective reading is to develop the ability to quickly review printed material (newspapers, magazine articles, various programs, reference books, and other pragmatically relevant material), to find specific information, concentrate on it for a complete/basic understanding of the content depending on the communicative tasks. The designated reading mode requires the skills you need to navigate the logical structure of the text, to identify and select new or specified information, and to integrate the information obtained from different sources into a coherent whole according to a specific problem.

The results received allowed us to compare the components of the perception process while reading authentic English and Chinese texts (see Table 1). As it is marked in Table 1, enormous implications arise when deciphering hieroglyphs (similar in writing) and desegregating Chinese clauses/sentences.

Thus, linguistic differences between English and Chinese as second/third languages should be studied and considered when elaborating on methodological platforms for their efficient teaching/learning. It is desirable that teachers of English and Chinese should take into consideration the development of corresponding skills and the proper use of aids to make their teaching methods effective (see Table 1, Appendix A).

Research Methodology and Design
Based on the premise that English and Chinese are non-related languages and their linguistic differences stipulate different approaches to teaching/learning them since there is no one-for-one correspondence between their phonological systems (differences in the pronunciation of particular sounds due to some phonetic phenomena (English: nasal plosion, lateral plosion, loss of plosion, assimilation, reduction/elision, etc.; Chinese: tone, erization), lexical features (alphabetic and non-alphabetic writing, conversion and transposition), grammatical characteristics (word order, (non)division into parts of speech, (non)segmentation of English and Chinese syntagms/clauses/compound sentences, use of tenses, etc.); this action research was initiated.

The methods of induction and deduction enabled us to analyze and generalize the theoretical bases on the investigated topic, to systemize the results of the study (the reading tactics and strategies, classification of reading activities). The study was based on focused observation using the register as a tool for data collecting for two semesters each in one (1) group of the third-year
students majoring in Chinese Translation Studies (15 students), one (1) group of the third-year students minoring in Chinese Translation Studies (15 students), and two (2) groups of the third-year students majoring in Chinese Language and Literature (24 students) at the State institution “South Ukrainian National Pedagogical University named after K D. Ushynsky” in the period of 2018‒2019 (academic year). The total sample size was 54.

To see students’ educational outcomes while reading English and Chinese texts, we employed the method of observation in view of the research insights as follows: As Basit (2010) has argued, “Observing the behavior of others is a natural phenomenon” (p. 118). Edgar and Manz (2017) regard observational methods as a broad category of research that cover the inductive observation of phenomena; they are used to understand the outcomes of experiments better. Portell, Anguera, Chacón-Moscoso, Sanduvete-Chaves (2015) consider that observational methods help establish a link between the expected outcomes and the specific measures that will be obtained with the observational study, which will contribute to the processing of the data under analysis. Observation allows the researchers to actually see what people do rather than what they say they do (Caldwell & Atwal, 2005; Mulhall, 2003; Walshe et al., 2012). Therefore, in this experimental study, we adopted a simple observation method to collect data. The students’ academic outcomes were documented in a register throughout this study. The students were taught how to comprehensively read Chinese and English texts belonging to different functional styles (both silent reading and reading aloud). In practical classes, they demonstrated their achievements and failures. Based on the observed results, the authors propose some remedial measures (recommendations) to overcome the frequently encountered linguistic problems.

In the following sections, linguistic differences between English and Chinese, which cause difficulty in reading authentic texts, are presented; some reading tactics and strategies, as well as educational assignments, are discussed.

**Linguistic Differences between English and Chinese**

It is known that English and Chinese are non-related languages. Therefore, there exist many differences at all linguistic levels: phonetic/phonological, lexical, and grammatical. The orthography of Chinese linguistics has its specificity in teaching students to read non-alphabetic phonemes.

**A. Phonetic/phonological level**

Germanic and Slavonic models of word reading are based on alphabetic writing. In contrast, a single Chinese character can function as a word and join with other characters to form a multicharacter word. Chinese characters, in their turn, can consist of radicals (smaller units/components) that have their pronunciation and meaning, like in the example. The character 物 (wù) meaning “thing” contains a radical 牛 (niú / “a cow,” “an ox”) on the left and the radical 勿 (wù / “must not,” “do not”) on the right (it has two semantic components). A semantic radical suggests some aspect of the overall meaning. This phenomenon is widespread in Chinese. Regarding our example, the Chinese think that an ox can be called a thing.
On the contrary, in English, all morphemes are readable (like in Ukrainian and Russian). Ukrainians who learn Chinese as their second language encounter difficulty in identifying semantic radicals and the general meaning of characters when dealing with Chinese compound characters.

As for the English language, the phonetic pronunciation of morphemes/words has formed historically; pronunciation quality and quantity of some letter combinations differ from their letter components taken separately. For example, \((s/t)ion\) is pronounced \([S(q)n]\) (demonstration), \(ture\) \([Cq]\) (picture), etc. Therefore, Ukrainian learners make phonetic errors, when articulating the words, which do not obey the general phonetic rules.

Other reasons why it is difficult for Ukrainians to pronounce words correctly are connected with the peculiarities of the English and Chinese sound systems and phonetic phenomena.

1. The sounds that differ in their articulation/pronunciation or do not exist in the system of Ukrainian phonetics. For example:
   - English: /T/, /D/, /w/, /N/, /x/, etc.;
   - Chinese: the alveolo-palatal consonants \(j, q, x\); affricates \(zh, z\); consonant \(r\), etc.

   We agree upon Thakur’s (2020) assumption that “if one wants to talk naturally and effectively, he/she should learn to recognize and avoid phonological errors” (p. 32). No doubt, if one’s pronunciation is defective, the listener will not listen to her/his ideas, and careless pronunciation will annoy or amuse the listeners (Thakur, 2020).

2. These phonetic phenomena are not typical of the Ukrainian language (but for assimilation, reduction/elision, accommodation):
   - nasal plosion, lateral plosion, loss of plosion, assimilation, reduction/elision, accommodation, etc. (in English);
   - tone, erization (in Chinese).

   Let us observe some examples:
   - English – feet \([J]\) and fit \([I]\), place \([s]\) and plays \([z]\); mat \([x]\) and met \([e]\);
   - Chinese – 水 \((shuí / water)\) and 誰 \((shuí / who)\);

   八 \((bā / eight)\), 拔 \((bá / pull out)\), 疤 \((bā / a scar)\), 晕 \((bà / to stop, cease, dismiss someone)\).

   Mispronunciation of English and Chinese words can lead to phonological misbalance. Ukrainian students are apt to make these phonological mistakes: they neglect nasal plosion \((didn’t, downtown)\), lateral plosion (should learn), loss of plosion (would defend), assimilation (at the corner) at the suprasegmental level. Learners pronounce “phonetically transformed” English sounds as their alphabetic invariants (allophones) – \(/dId^b(q)n(q)t/, /SVd^bI\Wn/, /wVd^bI'fend/, /et^bDq/\).

When dealing with Chinese reading, Ukrainian learners are prone to cross-linguistic interference. They read Chinese words that undergo erization in the English manner (塔尖儿
/tājiān(r) – they pronounce the suffix “儿/r” like the English sound /r/), or they may over-aspirate Chinese non-aspirate consonants /d/, /g/, /b/, or disregard the rules of 变调 (biàndiào) – tonal modification/modified tones (e.g., 展览馆/zhǎnlǎnguǎn is to be pronounced zhǎn lǎng guǎn, the third tone in the first two phonemes is transformed into the second one). The described errors break the phonetic harmony at the suprasegmental level, within the speech continuum.

3. Stress, rhythm, and intonation

We can also observe many phonetic deviations when it concerns stress, rhythm, and intonation in the speech of Ukrainian students who learn English as a foreign language (EFL) and Chinese as a foreign language (CFL). It should be mentioned that children at the age of five, on average, start learning English in Ukrainian. They are familiar with the English intonation contour to a certain degree. As for the Chinese intonation, it differs from the English one due to the tonality of the Chinese language. Therefore, Ukrainian learners tend to transfer the English patterns into the Chinese models and keep to descending or stepping heads followed by the Low-Fall when uttering affirmative sentences and special questions, or pronounce general questions adopting ascending heads followed by the Fall Rise. They are observed not to stress (to pronounce with the neutral tone) some final components of multicharacter hieroglyphs, or to violate the rules of tonal modification, which disturbs the rhythm of the Chinese language.

Thus, we may assume that phonetic-phonological level functions as a potential starting mechanism for further decoding of authentic texts.

B. Lexical level

One of the most specific features in the Chinese lexicology is the ability of words representing different classes of words to subdue to conversion (transposition), in other words – to belong to the classes of nouns and verbs simultaneously, for example, the word “跑/pǎo” (to run) can be translated like “a run” or “running,” “旅行/lǚxíng” – “to travel” (a verb) and “a travel” (a noun), “光/guāng” – “light” (a noun, an adjective, an adverb), “骄傲/jiāo’ào” – “pride” (a noun) and “proud” (an adjective), “谦虚/qiānxū” – “modest” (an adjective) and “modesty” (a noun), etc. In English, this phenomenon is not so widespread as in Chinese: “to warm” (a verb) and “warm” (an adjective), “to turn” (a verb) and “a turn” (a noun), “to drive” (a verb) and “a drive” (a noun), etc. We can hardly encounter this phenomenon in Ukrainian (or Russian).

Another factor that might affect the comprehensive understanding of authentic texts is connected with homonymy and polysemy of the English and Chinese words. Ukrainian learners fail to determine spheres of their use. Study the examples below.

The term “仪表板/yíbiǎobǎn” in electronics engineering means “a switchboard,” and in the telecommunications industry, it means “a control board.” The word “学/xué” has three interconnected meanings: 学技术/xué jìshù (to study: to study technique), 孩子学大人的样子
Furthermore, some hieroglyphs are hard to identify since there are many Chinese characters that look alike. For example, 成 / chéng (to be a success), 戍 / wù (the fifth), 戍 / shù (border guard service), 戎 / róng (weapon), 戍 / xū (the eleventh terrestrial branch). This makes students fail to define (or guess) their meaning by the context. We recommend that Ukrainian EFL and CFL learners should be trained in reading (mini)texts, which contain similar hieroglyphs.

Polysemy is widespread in the English language throughout diverse spheres: to dress – to bandage a wound (medical terminology); to dress – to prepare the earth for sowing (terminology of agriculture); to dress – to decorate with flags (naval terminology). The word “right” has several homonymous representations: morally good, justified, or acceptable (an adjective; I hope we’re doing the right thing); a moral or legal entitlement to have or do something (a noun; She had every right to undertake those measures); to restore to a standard or correct state (a verb; Righting the economy demanded significant cuts in defense spending), etc.

It is significant to differentiate lexicon in compliance with the branch they belong to.

C. Grammatical level

Morphology

It is believed that words in Chinese in most cases do not differ morphologically. The phenomenon “parts of speech” is typical of Western (European) languages, English in particular. Let us consider some examples. The Chinese adjectives “骄傲 / jiāo’ào” (proud) and “谦虚 / qiānxū” (modest), when fulfilling the role of a subject, are translated into Ukrainian (and Russian) and English as nouns or the Infinitive and the Gerund into English:

1. 骄傲不好.
   Ukrainian: Гордість – погано. (Compare: Гордій – це погано.)
   Russian: Гордость – плохо. (Compare: Гордый – это плохо.)
   English: Pride is bad. (Or To be/being proud is bad.)

2. 谦虚是好品德.
   Ukrainian: Скромність – це хороша моральна якість. (Compare: Бути скоромним – це хороша моральна якість.)
   Russian: Скромность – это хорошее моральное качество. (Compare: Быть скромным – это хорошее моральное качество.)

   English: Modesty is good moral quality. (Or: To be/being modest is good moral quality.)

It should be mentioned that the division of lexicon into parts of speech in Chinese might have a relative character since Chinese words-hieroglyphs may perform different syntactic roles, which abstracts their morphological functions from the syntactic ones; in other words, in Chinese, the same word can fulfill different syntactical functions. For example, the word “多 / duō” (much, many, a lot) can be used as a predicate, an adverbial modifier, an attribute, a verbal object, etc.
1. 工作多，人少 – There is a lot of work, but there are few people (a predicate).
2. 多看书 – To read much (an adverbial modifier).
3. 来了很多 – A lot of people have come (an attribute).
4. 他总是吃得很多 – He eats a lot (a verbal object).

Another Chinese word “all”/“都/dōu” is usually positioned after the subject in contradistinction with the English and Ukrainian languages where the word “all” is put before the subject. However, in Ukrainian (and Russian), it may have a relatively free position in a syntactical construction. Compare four sentences (in English, Chinese, Russian, and Ukrainian):

1. 父母都望子成龙.
2. All parents want their children to achieve success (to be/become successful).
3. Усі батьки хочуть, щоб їхні діти досягли успіху (Ukrainian).
4. Все родители хотят, чтобы их дети добились успеха (Russian).

Thus, one can hardly observe any “part-of-speech-dividing” or a flexible transfer from one part of speech to the other one in Chinese. In English and Ukrainian, there is a strict division into parts of speech, which are represented by certain morphological features like the categories of number, gender, tense/time, voice, aspect, etc. Ukrainian EFL and CFL learners are to take into consideration the rules mentioned above. They should fulfill corresponding exercises.

Special attention is focused on the use of particles in Chinese, including aspect-related issues. In English, for example, the problems of the category of aspect (when dealing with verbs) are usually manifested through using particular tenses. Let us study the use of the Chinese particle “了/le.”

The use of the particle “了/le” after a verb or an adjective means completion of an action or change of a state (creation of a new situation):

1. 我写完这本书了. – I have written this book (completion of an action).
2. 下雪了 – It has started snowing (change of a state). (Or: It is snowing.)

To render actions which regularly take place and are taking place at the moment of speech or have been taking place for a definite period (started in the past), it is expedient to use the Present Simple Tense and the Present Progressive tense or the Present Perfect (Continuous tense), correspondingly, in English. In Chinese and Ukrainian, the designated actions are rendered using the verb in the present tense. In Ukrainian, the adverb “now” may be used to specify the time of an action.

English: I do homework (regularly). I am doing my homework (now). I have been doing my homework (for two hours).

Chinese: 我写作业.

Ukrainian: Я роблю домашнє завдання (зараз, регулярно, протягом двох годин).
The non-differentiation of the time aspects in Chinese and English texts causes distortions in reproducing the sequence of actions in the target language.

**Syntax**

It is known that there is strict word order in English and Chinese sentences, in contradistinction to Ukrainian. It depends upon a communicative type of a sentence (affirmative/statements, interrogative, imperative sentences, exclamations), types of clauses (Relative, Noun, Adverbial, Object clauses in English), constructions (constructions with the Infinitive, the Gerund, the Participle, the Absolute constructions – in English; Noun phrases, Prepositional phrases, etc. – in Chinese). Chinese syntactical structures subdue to many linguistic phenomena, which provide expressing diverse relations like these: location and distance, cause and effect (or reason and result), duration and frequency, which are to be taken into consideration.

While reading, for example, Chinese sentences with the inversed subject or adverbial modifiers, Ukrainian learners misuse intonation patterns; they substitute them by the ones typical of the sentences with standard word order Subject–Predicate–Object. Ukrainian learners often neglect to make a pause before the functional words “来/lái”, “去/qù”, and “而/ér” in sentences belonging to the Subject–把/bǎ (or Preposition)–Object–Predicate type. Some difficulties arise when students translate sentences containing the verb “有/yǒu.” They give a word-for-word translation. For example, 我有一个朋友会唱戏/wǒ yǒu yī gè péngyou huì chàng xì. Students translate it in this way: I have a friend, he can sing at the stage (instead of: My friend can sing at the stage).

A large number of complex and compound sentences in Chinese are built with the help of correlative conjunctions like 不但/bùdàn,..., 而且/érqiě; 不仅/bùjǐn,..., 而且/érqiě, 非但/běifēidàn...，而且/érqiě (not only...but also), 不是/bùshì...，就是/jiùshì (if not...then), 不是/bùshì...，而且/érqiě, 不仅/bùjǐn...，而且/érqiě, 亦/yì (if not...then), 既/jì...，又/yòu (and again), 才/cái, 方/fáng (and only then), 却/què (however), etc.: repeated particles 又/yòu... 又/yòu, 也/yě... 也/yě (and...and); correlative particles 又/yòu... 也/yě, 既/jì... 又/yòu, 既/jì... 也/yě (and... and), etc. Ukrainian learners sometimes fail to differentiate the meaning and position of some connective words, for example, 不是/bùshì..., 就是/jiùshì (if not...then), 不是/bùshì..., 而是/érshì (not...but). These errors distort logical sense in the process of text comprehension.

Ukrainian students fail to detect and translate the sentences containing Absolute constructions while reading English texts. For example, they choose the wrong connective words, or misplace the clauses in sentences like “Two days having elapsed, the economists launched their financial project.” Ukrainian learners also make errors when translating compound and complex sentences with extended subjects and constructions with the Infinitive.

When Ukrainian EFL and CFL learners switch their codes from Chinese into English, they are apt to reserve the Chinese word order in their translation, on the one hand; on the other hand, they start stressing all the words regardless of the English phonetic rules.
To summarise, there are still a lot of linguistic issues to be mentioned when comparing English and Chinese against the background of a mother tongue (in our case, it is Ukrainian or Russian). The interference of Ukrainian (or Russian) hinders the better mastering of a second foreign language (foreign languages). Much practice in English and Chinese is sure to facilitate students’ academic success in foreign languages on condition that they are good at their mother tongue.

**Reading Tactics and Strategies: English vs. Chinese**

According to lexicographic sources, “a strategy” is associated with any organized, purposeful, and regulated line of actions chosen by an individual to carry out a task set or confronted.

In normative documents on teaching/learning foreign languages (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment, 2001), the authors correlate strategies with “a means the language user exploits to mobilize and balance his or her resources, to activate skills and procedures, in order to fulfill the demands of communication in context and successfully complete the task in question most comprehensively or economically feasible depending on his or her precise purpose.” Thus, we can equate “a strategy” with the adoption of a particular series of actions to be undertaken in order to achieve maximum efficiency/effectiveness. The performance of communication and learning tasks seems very important in this respect as they involve certain language activities, which are accompanied by the use of strategies in communicating and learning. They (language activities) necessitate the processing of oral and/or written texts (through reception, production, interaction, or mediation).

Traditionally, speech activities include receptive – listening and reading (according to the channel of obtaining information) and productive ones – speaking and writing (according to the means and form of (re)producing information. That is why students’ educational speech activities should be planned and organized, taking into account the structural and functional peculiarities of each activity.

No doubt, the crucial role in reading is performed by the visual sensations that arise when receiving information and stimulate the action of the internal motor analyzer/speech and motor analyzer. The auditory sensations are also elements of reading since reading is accompanied by an internal speech that becomes a complete, expanded speech when reading aloud. A person who reads to himself/herself is sure to hear what he or she is reading. These sensations allow the reader to control the correctness of his/her reading.

It is expedient to mention that psychological aspects of reading (perception and comprehension) are directly linked to thinking and memory (both logical and mechanical): a reader, while perceiving a text, singles out essential links and synthesizes them into an integrated whole. A character and a comprehension level of a text, its completeness, depth, and preciseness influence the quality of its perception. We should mark that we deal with language/linguistic signs when reading texts; it presupposes a combination of the two starting points – a meaning-oriented one and an acoustic image. A language sign is perceived in the form of graphic symbols in writing.

Onyschenko (2002) tends to differentiate two main levels of text comprehension: a level of meaning (establishment of meanings of perceived language units and their direct links) and a level...
of content (comprehension of text content as a holistic language unit). Therefore, the author determines two groups of skills that involve text comprehension based on these simultaneous processes – perceiving and comprehending. Hence, the scholar proposes to use the corresponding strategies to develop the skills as follows: 1) skills related to the technical aspect of reading (providing a direct act of perceiving graphic characters and correlating them with relevant meanings); 2) skills that provide a meaningful aspect of reading: the establishment of semantic correlations between the linguistic (language) units of the text, comprehension of the text as a complete work of speech. The recipient focuses his/her attention on the semantic processing of the text to comprehend its content. On the other hand, Onyschenko (2002) describes the act of reading as “leap-frogging” movements of eyes along a row: a stop (for fixing the perceived information) – a leap – a stop – a leap. In this regard, the reading strategy aims at gradual perceiving of information – perceiving a word as a minimal semantically loaded graphical unit and correlating it with a particular meaning due to the reproduction of its audial and motor image kept in long-term memory (visual perception of a text is always accompanied by inner articulating); a word meaning is correlated with the meanings of other words, a character of links between words and contextual meaning is established; words are united into syntagms, syntagms – into a sentence; sentences are united into bigger semantic units, the latter – into a holistic work of speech. Thus, in reading, a syntagm is associated with the smallest semantic unit, which renders certain cognitive and semantic links alongside with lexical and semantic meanings. We can affirm that the regressive movements of eyes follow the progressive ones as the reader turns back to specify some details, to make sure if the perceived information is correctly understood or to handle lexical and grammatical complications, etc.

Perfetti and Liu (2006) pose stress upon the fact that “phonology is automatically activated in reading words, whether it is “before” or “after” some moment of lexical access and whether it is instrumental in retrieving the meaning of the word” (p. 225). Zhang, Yang, et al. (1999) suggested a Universal Phonological Principle (UPP) stating that the pronunciations are activated while reading at the earliest moment; in alphabetic systems, pronunciations of phonemes and phoneme sequences are activated by letters; whereas in Chinese, pronunciations are activated by characters (p. 858). However, Tan and Perfetti (1998) assumed that Chinese reading involves phonology both at the word and text levels. Having analyzed the studied theoretical material, we share Perfetti’s (2006) and Ying’s conception related to the Lexical Constituency Model (pp. 228–229), which implements the assumption that orthographic, phonological and semantic constituents jointly specify Chinese word identity. The authors highlight the principle that form-form relations are more deterministic than form-meaning relations; the scholars are convinced that phonological form will be retrieved more quickly than meaning given a graphic form input.

To enhance reading comprehension and to overcome comprehension failures, Oxford (1990) offers a comprehensive classification of various strategies used by learners:

1) cognitive (include note-taking, formal practice with the specific aspects of the target language such as sounds and sentence structure, summarizing, paraphrasing, predicting, analyzing, and using context clues);
2) memory (include creating mental images through grouping and associating, semantic mapping, using keywords, employing word associations, and placing new words into a context);
3) *compensation* (include skills such as making inferences, guessing while reading, or using reference materials such as dictionaries);
4) *metacognitive* (are related to behaviors undertaken by the learners to plan, arrange, and evaluate their learning and include directed attention and self-evaluation, organization, setting goals and objectives, seeking practice opportunities, self-monitoring, etc.);
5) *affective* (are used to lower anxiety and encourage learning, self-encouraging behavior in particular);
6) *social* (involve other individuals in the learning process and refer to cooperation with peers, questioning, asking for the correction, interaction, and feedback).

Bilonozhko and Syzenko (2020) transformed some of the reading strategies mentioned above into the ones suitable for the Generation Z (the generation of digital natives) learners: long-term practice; a clear connection with real-life contexts and situations; the use of authentic texts and life-related, meaningful tasks; a balance between extensive and intensive reading; the use of collaborative tasks and tasks promoting interaction and communication between learners.

In the line of the above, we single out four stages in text comprehension: 1) the understanding (perception) of a printed text: character and word recognition (italicized and printed letters/words/hieroglyphs); 2) the identification of the text, complete or partial, as relevant; 3) the semantic and cognitive understanding of the text as a linguistic entity; 4) the interpretation of the message in context (see Table 1, Appendix A).

At the first stage, Ukrainian learners focus on visual perception of a printed text (both English and Chinese): character and word recognition (font: italicized and printed letters/words/hieroglyphs); space between words, clauses, sentences, and (sub)paragraphs; indents at the beginning of (sub)paragraphs; non-linguistic units (numerals, figures, units of measurement, formulae, equations, etc.). This stage is a starting point for further semantic and cognitive understanding of the content.

The second stage is closely interrelated with the first one since learners choose their translation strategies and tactics judging by the title (if any) of a text and text composition (introductory part, main part, conclusion).

The third stage is associated with the semantic and cognitive understanding of the text as a linguistic entity. Ukrainian students usually cope with the deciphering of the English sentence segments since all words are written separately, and there are punctuation marks, which helps identify the logical and semantic boundaries within linguistic units. When dealing with Chinese texts, in contrast, Ukrainian learners encounter difficulty in “desegmenting” Chinese sentences, for Chinese sentences are segmented into clauses, even not into word combinations. Punctuation marks are the only markers, which facilitate marking the logical and semantic syntactical boundaries. Ukrainian learners happen to make errors connected with the desegmenting of word combinations and clauses, which causes semantic and logical distortions.

The title of a text predetermines its discursive orientation and linguistic peculiarities such as vocabulary (including word combinations and phraseology), vocabulary levels words belong to;
grammar; stylistics (expressive means, stylistic devices), etc. The knowledge of the before mentioned aspects enables students to navigate in a particular discourse and translate it adequately. The students’ most common mistake is the wrong translation means used to render the contents of authentic texts into the target language: 1) the substitution of the scientific style by the everyday one; 2) the misuse of grammatical structures; the non-recognition of expressive means and stylistic devices; 3) the failure to identify the meaning and etymology of homonymous and polysemantic words/terms depending upon a sphere of their use, etc. The keynote attention must be paid to the morphological background for combining radicals and into hieroglyphs in the process of reading Chinese texts to avoid phonological and semantic errors.

The fourth stage pre-empts the results of interpreting the message in context. The correct understanding of the specificity of the context and the meaning of the message within the context covers two planes: 1) the semantic and cognitive content of the message; 2) its implicit background. The linguacultural background is one of the factors that facilitates the holistic understanding of any text. Scientific, journalistic, and official (documentary) English texts contain specific terms of the Latin and Greek origin, most of them being international. Students may guess their meaning by their morphological markers and etymology. However, learners make semantic mistakes due to their ignorance of terminology and/or historical background. When reading Chinese texts, it is difficult to identify specific (or international) terms according to their etymological markers since the designated terms are subordinated to solely Chinese morphology and philosophic background. Therefore, Ukrainian learners are apt to miscode their semantics. We support Day’s (2015) opinion concerning the efficiency of blending the extensive and intensive types of reading. Ukrainian EFL and CFL learners have an opportunity to analyze and synthesize linguistic and extralinguistic aspects, to identify the necessary information, and to use (electronic) dictionaries and other programs of computer-aided translation.

The initiated study enabled us to elaborate on the strategic and tactical support to be acknowledged while teaching Ukrainian students to read Chinese/English texts. One should differentiate between the two notions – “a strategy” and “a tactic.” We associate a strategy with the top of a hierarchical system subordinated to the primary goal. In contrast, tactics are the tools-actions aimed at fulfilling intermediate tasks to contribute to the achievement of the set goal. By a reading strategy, we understand a general plan involving a corpus of specific means the language learner exploits to activate and manage his/her visual-perceptive, comprehensive, linguistic and extralinguistic resources, to mobilize reading skills and procedures, to successfully fulfill the goal in the most rational way within a particular discourse. A reading tactic is a tool enabling the realization of a reading strategy in compliance with the primary goal, a set of concrete intermediate reading activities-operations used to reach the set goal. We have correlated the requirements of the European Commission to the learning outcomes, the reading skills to be developed in particular, with the proposed stages of text comprehension and types of reading so that we could adopt corresponding reading strategies and tactics (see Table 2).

It should be mentioned that the higher personal resources are the more effective results a reader may achieve.
Overall, we can assume that to implement any reading tactics within a particular reading strategy a reader needs a set of developed reading skills (see table 1), background knowledge and personal qualities as follows: cognitive abilities, good memory, compensation skills, metacognitive abilities, abilities to lower anxiety in affect-related situations, social experience, etc.

Educational Texts and Assignments
In view of the above considerations, communication can be considered the motive for reading as a communicative activity, and the main task of reading is an active and independent receipt of information. The amount of information received per unit of time is much more than the amount that can be “processed” during listening. This fact is explained by the higher “bandwidth” of the visual channel of perception and the individual reading rate. The understanding of the text/discourse content is facilitated by the mechanism of “guesswork”; prediction of plot unfolding; the mechanism of logical understanding based on logical-semantic, lexical-grammatical and situational-semantic analysis which is formed and mastered in the process of reading aloud; the mechanism of inner speech hearing, that is, the inner speaking of the text.

The issue of teaching reading techniques occupies an essential place in the sphere of teaching/learning native and foreign languages. We define reading technologies as a comprehensive set of mechanical skills for the rapid perception of graphic images of words, their automatic correlation with the sound pattern and meanings of these words. The specificity of developing reading skills depends on the individual psychophysiological and age characteristics of a person, his/her level of command of native and foreign languages, a functional and stylistic orientation of the text, specialist’s proficiency, a type of reading, etc.

Having studied major linguistic problems of Ukrainian learners, it is expedient to summarize the above findings and offer some remedial measures that might guarantee favorable academic outcomes. We suggest specific pedagogically significant recommendations in the field of reading Chinese and English texts.

Suggested corrective measures as solutions to Ukrainian EFL and CFL learners’ problems encountered in the process of reading (and comprehending) English and Chinese texts

The following corrective measures, implemented with the Ukrainian EFL and CFL learners (the third-year students majoring/minoring in Chinese/English Translation Studies and the third-year students majoring in Chinese Language and Literature), facilitated the improvement of the participants’ reading skills.

1. Pre-reading exercises are useful; they help overcome phonetic, lexical, and grammatical problems. We can recommend that both EFL and CFL learners fulfill the assignments involving consonant/vowel oppositions/alternations to avoid the cross-interfering of their mother tongue and a foreign language. It is efficient to do these groups of exercises: 1) to analyze the morphemic structure of words; to transcribe the words containing “difficult” affixes; to fill in missing sounds in transcriptions; to read tongue twisters and reproduce them (English and Chinese reading); 2) to analyze the structure of multicharacter words (hieroglyphs); to differentiate hieroglyphs, which are similar in writing; to make up word combinations and sentences with multicharacter words
We can recommend that learners fulfill the assignments, which facilitate the improvement of students’ pronunciation skills, especially when it concerns reading the sounds, which are not typical of learners’ mother tongue. Consider for illustration the following examples of specific sounds.

### Instruction: Read the terms. Let your groupmate read the terms, listen to him/her. Swap your roles and analyze phonetic errors, if any.

| English | Chinese |
|---------|---------|
| A. Thermometer, therapy, tether, theragnosis, ethnicity, ethacridine, whither, theralite, aethanolum, thesauri. | A. 躍 (qiàn)– 機 (jiān), 楓 (qiáng)– 漱 (jiāng), 魃 (qǔ)– 繖 (jù), 瘾 (qún)– ㄏ (jūn). |
| B. Ward–vortex, wormer–vortex, perwick–believe, wind–COVID, waterproof–voltage, widthways–vidpic. | B. 縄 (xún)– 筇 (sūn), 碓 (xíng)– 司南 (sīnán), 髓 (suǐ)– 穴 (suì), 湧澯 (míngxìng)– 名学 (míngxué). |
| C. Big Bang–banned, stalk–leaking, cracking–beacon, tranching–chainage, crank–ranking, mang–menials, tankage–densing. | C. 诏令 (zhàolìng)– 造兵 (zàobīng), 造令 (zhàolìng)– 租赁 (zūlìn), 舟次 (zhōucì)– 左次 (zuōcì), 草拟 (cǎonǐ)– 造逆 (zàonì). |

2. An audio-visual perception is an effective means of teaching learners to read (as a speech activity) when the user simultaneously receives an “audio support” and reads a text (perceives it visually): he/she monitors the text while listening to it; watches a TV program, a movie, a subtitled video; uses the latest technologies (media, CD ROM, etc.). It is advised that learners should listen to authentic records to prevent them from making phonetic and phonological mistakes. Listening to authentic texts provides for better imitating a foreign speech and avoiding these errors: the negligence of nasal plosion, lateral plosion, loss of plosion, assimilation at the suprasegmental level; the misuse of authentic intonation patterns (English reading); the negligence of erization, tonal modification; the over-aspiration of non-aspirate consonants (Chinese reading). Another assignment, which is recommended, is intoning phonopassages and recording the learner’s reading to analyze his/her phonetic and phonological errors.

3. Pre-text exercises related to the use of vocabulary should be fulfilled before reading authentic texts. Vocabulary is the style-marker; therefore, it is desirable to consider the lexical component before the comprehensive reading and translating of authentic texts: to specify the scientific and/or non-scientific spheres of word usage; to analyze word combinations and grammatical structures within certain functional styles, etc.

It is also feasible to train students in differentiating the meanings of homonymous and polysemantic words. See the examples below.
**Instruction:** Read the sentences. Analyze the types of terminological homonymy. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.

| English                                                                 | Chinese                                                                 |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. If the four impedances are diodes, altering current applied to the *bridge* is rectified into direct current. | 1. 用工农业制成品和半制成品的出口来替代传统的初级产品的出口,以增加外汇收入,带动国内工业体系的建立和经济的持续增长。 |
| 2. This type of air-driven artificial heart was approved in 1990 by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration for being used as a *bridge* to transplantation, but not for permanent use. | 2. 中国已经开始用**带动力装置的人造卫星**。 |
| 3. The rotor creates a *bridge* between the central terminal and each outer terminal, which is connected to its spark plug with thick wire. | 3. 整个切割、脱粒部件的传动系统采用一台收割用发动机,经各部件中的传动轴及皮带、皮带轮,**带动各部件工作**。 |

4. Pre-text grammar exercises activate learners’ concentration on the correlation of lexical and grammatical aspects as an integral unity. At the morphological level, learners can be offered to determine parts of speech in English sentences and to determine syntactical functions of words in Chinese texts. As the category of time is actualized differently in English, Chinese, and Ukrainian, we would propose that Ukrainian learners should do a series of exercises covering the issues of the tense/time aspect and analyze differences of the tense use in the languages under study.

At the syntactical level, it is advised to identify and translate the constructions with The Infinitive, The Gerund, the Participle, and the Absolute constructions in English texts; to detect and translate Noun phrases and Prepositional phrases in Chinese texts. Compound and complex sentences in English and Chinese texts should be analyzed in reading classes.

5. To become a qualified Sinologist or a Germanist, Ukrainian EFL and CFL learners are encouraged to be practiced in reading diverse texts belonging to different functional styles and genres. They gain background knowledge and master their linguistic skills. Thus, we can recommend these functional styles to be used while selecting educational texts: literary (fiction, poetry, drama), documentary, scientific, technical, and sociopolitical journalism.

In the opinion of psychologists, the efficiency of assimilation and memorization of the read information is provided on condition that reading and other speech activities are combined, that is, listening to audio texts, recording the read information, reproducing the read information in the written form (summarizing, annotating, abstracting, etc.) and orally (making up dialogues, roleplaying, reporting, interviewing, etc.). The proposed learning activities contribute to the development of compressing skills and increase productivity.
6. To generate the proposed reading strategies (see Table 2, Appendix B), involving the above recommendations, we used the corresponding reading tactics. We selected texts of different functional styles and genres. These teaching tools were useful: interactive discussions, roleplaying, the use of information technologies, teamwork, project-based activities, profession-centered assignments, etc.

Let us consider some tasks aimed at developing reading skills in English and Chinese.

**Strategy 1.** To understand the main content of a text

| Exercise 1. Culture: Universal and Specific Issues |
|--------------------------------------------------|
| **Chinese**                                      | **English**                                      |
| A. Read the Chinese text “文化的力量” and fulfill these assignments: | B. Read the English text “Culture of Great Britain” and fulfill these assignments: |
| 1. Look through the text and identify key radicals, italicized, and printed hieroglyphs. Analyze the text structure and its segmentation into word combinations, clauses, sentences, and (sub)paragraphs. Find out if there are any numerals, figures, units of measurement, formulae, equations, etc. in it. | 1. Look through the text and identify keywords, italicized, and printed words. Analyze the text structure and its segmentation into word combinations, clauses, sentences, and (sub)paragraphs. Find out if there are any numerals, figures, units of measurement, formulae, equations, etc. in it. |
| 2. Correlate the meaning of the key radicals and multicharacter words (hieroglyphs) with the main idea of the text. | 2. Correlate the meaning of the keywords (word combinations) with the main idea of the text. |
| 3. Identify culture-marked elements (historical events and “colorful” figures, interesting geographic locations, cultural monuments, mythological figures, literary heroes, etc.), analyze and explain their content and specifics. Find their equivalents in the target language (Ukrainian). | 3. Identify culture-marked elements (historical events and “colorful” figures, interesting geographic locations, cultural monuments, mythological figures, literary heroes, etc.), analyze and explain their content and specifics. Find their equivalents in the target language (Ukrainian). |
| 4. Write a retelling of the text. | 4. Write a retelling of the text. |
| 5. Make up a dialogue with your groupmate on the proposed topic (in Chinese). | 5. Make up a dialogue with your groupmate on the proposed topic (in English). |
| C. Organize a round-table discussion regarding the cultural heritage of China and Great Britain versus the Ukrainian one (in Chinese and English). |

**Strategy 2.** To comprehend the whole text (in details): the most complete and accurate understanding

| Exercise 2. In the World of Science |
|-------------------------------------|
| **Chinese**                        | **English**                                    |
| A. Read the Chinese text “三維照相定量評価義齿修復前后面部軟組織変化的研究” and fulfill these assignments: | B. Read the English text “The Smartphone” and fulfill these assignments: |
| 1. Study the logical structure of a text, detect the information regarding the main functioning principles of the gadgets described | 1. Study the logical structure of a text, detect the information regarding the main functioning principles of the gadgets described |
C. Group work: make up a presentation of a modern gadget (in Chinese and English).

**Strategy 3.** To promptly and quickly review printed material: searching for specific information

| **Exercise 3. The Literary Contest** | **Chinese** | **English** |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|
| A. Make up two groups of students. Read the authentic poetry: “Changgan xing” («The River-Merchant’s Wife: A Letter» by 李 白 / Lǐ Bó). |  | A. Make up two groups of students. Read the authentic poetry: Sonnets 151 and 152 ("the Dark Lady of the Sonnets" by W. Shakespeare). |
| B. Study all the text constituents at the linguistic (taking into consideration the functional style of the Chinese text, morphological background for combining radicals and/into hieroglyphs, vocabulary, grammar, stylistic devices, and expressive means) and non-linguistic levels. |  | B. Study all the text constituents at the linguistic (taking into consideration the functional style of the English text, vocabulary, grammar, stylistic devices, and expressive means) and non-linguistic levels. |
| C. Decode and interpret the semantic loading of the perceived information in correlation with the implicit background of each concrete word/word combination and situation. |  |  |
| D. Recite the poems artistically in Chinese. |  | D. Recite the poems artistically in English. |
| E. Translate the proposed poetry into Ukrainian in rhymes. |  |  |

We hope that the above-represented pedagogical remedial measures and assignments will be of use both to teachers and students.
Conclusions
This paper has traced the development of reading skills of the third-year students majoring/minoring in English and Chinese (as non-native languages) at a Ukrainian institution of higher education and underlined the linguistic differences between English and Chinese, which caused particular difficulties. The recurrent problems were observed at the phonetic/phonological, lexical, and grammatical levels. At the phonetic/phonological level, the learners mispronounced the sounds, which do not exist in the Ukrainian Language (English: /T/, /D/ /w/, /N/, /x/, etc.; Chinese: the alveolo-palatal consonants j, q, x; affricates zh, z; consonant r, etc.); they neglected the phonetic phenomena (English: nasal plosion, lateral plosion, loss of plosion, assimilation, reduction/elision, etc.; Chinese: tone, erization); they transferred the English intonation patterns into the Chinese ones and failed to use the tonal modification, and vice versa, they accented English words, which are not supposed to be stressed. At the lexical level, the Ukrainian EFL and CFL learners had difficulty in deciphering the semantic meaning of some homonymous and polysemic words belonging to different branches. At the grammatical level, the Ukrainian students faced challenges in detecting parts of speech, reproducing the sequence of actions in the target language because of their ignorance of the time aspect in English and Chinese; the learners could not detect the syntactic boundaries between word combinations and clauses (Chinese reading); they failed to differentiate the meaning and position of some connective words, for example, 不是/ bùshì…, 就是/ jiùshì, 不是/ bùshì…, 而是/ érshì (Chinese reading); they made errors when translating compound and complex sentences with extended subjects, the constructions with the Infinitive, and the Absolute constructions (English reading). The university instructors collected the examples of the students’ academic failures through personal interaction with the students during English and Chinese reading classroom activities and fixed their data in the registers. Subsequently, some pedagogically essential recommendations have been suggested in order to improve the Ukrainian students’ reading skills and prevent emerging further linguistic deviations.

To contribute to the students’ academic success, we have correlated the reading strategies (to understand the main content of a text; to comprehend the whole text (in details): the most complete and accurate understanding; to promptly and quickly review printed material: searching for specific information) with the reading tactics and these teaching tools: interactive discussions, roleplaying, the use of information technologies, teamwork, project-based activities, profession-centered assignments, etc. The educational texts representing different functional styles and genres have enabled the Ukrainian learners to widen their worldview in terms of their background knowledge. The audial perception of authentic texts has proved to be an effective means of teaching the learners to pronounce specific sounds correctly, to imitate English and Chinese intonation patterns, and to read.

We have observed the requirements of the European Commission to the learning outcomes (the reading skills) with the types of reading and stages of text comprehension: 1) the understanding (perception) of a printed text: character and word recognition (italicized and printed letters); 2) the identification of the text, complete or partial, as relevant; 3) the semantic and cognitive understanding of the text as a linguistic entity; 4) the interpretation of the message in context.
Finally, we may resume that this paper sets a background for further development of a system of activities and tasks, which could facilitate the integrated learning of foreign languages.

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### Appendix A

#### Table 1. The perception process while reading authentic texts: a comparative analysis

| Components | According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages | Perception process while reading authentic English texts | Perception process while reading authentic Chinese texts |
|------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------|
| Stages     | 1) the understanding (perception) of a printed text:               | 1) the understanding (perception) of a printed text:   | 1) the understanding (perception) of a printed text: |
|            | • character and word recognition (font: italicized and printed letters); | • radical and Chinese character (hieroglyph-symbol) recognition (font: italicized and printed hieroglyphs); | • radical and Chinese character (hieroglyph-symbol) recognition (font: italicized and printed hieroglyphs); |
|            | • space between words and (sub)paragraphs; | • space between words and (sub)paragraphs; | • space between word combinations / clauses / sentences and (sub)paragraphs; |
|            | • indents at the beginning of (sub)paragraphs; | • indents at the beginning of (sub)paragraphs; | • indents at the beginning of (sub)paragraphs; |
|            | • non-linguistic units (numerals, figures, units of measurement, formulae, equations, etc.) | • non-linguistic units (numerals, figures, units of measurement, formulae, equations, etc.) | • non-linguistic units (numerals, figures, units of measurement, formulae, equations, etc.) |
|            | 2) the identification of the text, complete or partial, as relevant | 2) the identification of the text: | 2) the identification of the text: |
|            | • title (if any); | • title (if any); | • title (if any); |
|            | • text composition (introductory part, main part, conclusion) | • text composition (introductory part, main part, conclusion) | • text composition (introductory part, main part, conclusion) |
|            | 3) the semantic and cognitive understanding of the text as a linguistic entity: | 3) the semantic and cognitive understanding of the text as a linguistic entity: | 3) the semantic and cognitive understanding of the text as a linguistic entity: |
| The text as a linguistic entity | the segmentation of sentences; adequate logical correlation of all text constituents representing different linguistic levels: vocabulary (including word combinations and phraseology), vocabulary levels words belong to, the etymology of words; grammar; stylistics (functional style of a text, expressive means, stylistic devices) | the segmentation of clauses/sentences; adequate logical correlation of all text constituents representing different linguistic levels: morphological background for combining radicals and/or hieroglyphs; vocabulary (including word combinations and phraseology), vocabulary levels words belong to, the etymology of words; grammar; stylistics (functional style of a text, expressive means, stylistic devices) |
|---|---|---|
| 4) the interpretation of the message in context | 4) the interpretation of the message in context: correlation of the semantic and cognitive content of the message with its implicit background; understanding of the specificity of the context and the meaning of the message within the context | 4) the interpretation of the message in context: correlation of the semantic and cognitive content of the message with its implicit background; understanding of the specificity of the context and the meaning of the message within the context |
| The skills involved | • perceptual skills; memory; decoding skills; inferencing; predicting; imagination; rapid scanning; referring back and forth. | • perceptual skills; memory; decoding skills; inferencing; predicting; imagination; rapid scanning; referring back and forth; navigating in the logical structure of a text; orientating (in a text) skills; background knowledge. |
| The proper use of aids | • dictionaries (monolingual and bilingual); thesauruses; pronunciation dictionaries; electronic dictionaries, grammars, spell-checkers, and other aids; reference grammars. | • dictionaries (monolingual and bilingual) with pinyin-decoding; thesauruses; electronic dictionaries, grammars, spell-checkers, text editors; programs of computer-aided translation; reference grammars. |

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A Comparative Analysis of English and Chinese Reading  
Bogush, Korolova & Popova
### Appendix B

Table 2. Reading tactics and strategies: English vs. Chinese

| №  | English strategies | English tactics | №  | Chinese strategies | Chinese tactics |
|----|--------------------|----------------|----|-------------------|-----------------|
| 1  | To understand the main content of a text | 1*. To perceive a printed text: italicized and printed letters/words; the beginning and the end of (sub)paragraphs; numerals, figures, units of measurement, formulae, equations, etc. | 1  | To comprehend the main content of a text | 1*. To perceive a printed text: radicals; italicized and printed hieroglyphs; the beginning and the end of word combinations, clauses, sentences, and (sub)paragraphs; numerals, figures, units of measurement, formulae, equations, etc. |
|    |                    | 2. To detect keywords and word combinations related to the main idea of a text within non-complicated grammatical structures. |    |                    | 2. To detect key radicals and multicharacter words (hieroglyphs) related to the main idea of a text within non-complicated grammatical structures. |
|    |                    | 3. To interpret the semantic loading of the perceived message in correlation with the implicit background of the context. |    |                    | 3. To interpret the semantic loading of the perceived information in correlation with the implicit background of the context. |
| 2  | To comprehend the whole text (in details): the most complete and accurate understanding | 1. See Tactics 1 above. | 2  | To comprehend the whole text (in details): the most complete and accurate understanding | 1. See Tactics 1 above. |
|    |                    | 2. To comprehend the meaning of all text components at linguistic and non-linguistic levels and to logically correlate all its components taking into consideration the functional style of a text, vocabulary, and grammar. |    |                    | 2. To comprehend the meaning of all text components at linguistic and non-linguistic levels and to logically correlate all its components taking into consideration the functional style of a text, morphological background for combining radicals and / into hieroglyphs, vocabulary, and grammar. |
|    |                    | 3. To adequately decode and interpret the semantic loading of the perceived information in correlation with the implicit background of each concrete word/word combination and situation. |    |                    | 3. To adequately decode and interpret the semantic loading of the perceived information in correlation with the implicit background of each concrete word/word combination and situation. |
| Reading tactic 1 representing Reading strategy 1 (in both English and Chinese reading) is typical of Reading strategies 2 and 3 (in both English and Chinese reading, correspondingly) | 3 |
|---|---|
| To promptly and quickly review printed material: searching for specific information | 1. See Tactics 1 above (as quickly as possible). |
| 2. To detect the information under search differentiating it from the most general one and to comprehend the content of pragmatically relevant material at linguistic and non-linguistic levels. |
| 3. To adequately decode and interpret the semantic loading of the information under search. |
| 3 | 1. See Tactics 1 above. |
| See Tactics 1 above (as quickly as possible). |
| 2. To detect the information under search differentiating it from the most general one and to comprehend the content of pragmatically relevant material at linguistic and non-linguistic levels. |
| 3. To adequately decode and interpret the semantic loading of the information under search. |