



**STUDENTS' USE OF READING STRATEGIES:
A CASE OF GRADE TWELVE STUDENTS**

**BY
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This study attempted to gain an understanding of language learning strategies used by Grade 12 students in EFL reading with the following purposes. The objectives of the study were 1) to describe the reading comprehension strategies which Grade 12 students used in EFL reading and 2) to identify the differences of reading comprehension strategies which either high-proficiency or low-proficiency Grade 12 students used in EFL reading. The research questions addressed in this study were: 1) What are the reading comprehension strategies which Thai Grade 12 students said they used in EFL reading? 2) What are the reading comprehension strategies used by Thai Grade 12 students who are either high-proficiency or low-proficiency EFL readers?

The data for this study was collected from two sets of instruments:-1) the Learning Strategy Questionnaire, given out to 8 students 8 times after they took a reading test so that they were put in the real situations and responded what they had just used and how they had approached the reading texts and 2) the Background Questionnaire (given out only to the same 8 research participants of which 4 were high proficient students, whereas the other 4 were low proficient students. The findings from the Learning Strategy Questionnaire showed that students were not different in their attempts to use some reading strategies ($x=3.79$ $SD=0.98$) Of the two groups, high proficient readers and low proficient readers, the common reading strategies they used were a problem solving strategy (When the text becomes difficult, students would re-read the text to increase their understanding ($X=4.36$ $SD =.740$) to be followed by just one GLOBAL Strategy at $X=4.30$ $SD = .749$) "I have a purpose in mind when I read." Other three GLOBAL Strategies were "I read slowly and carefully to make sure that understand what I am reading" ($X=4.28$ $SD =.744$), I try to get back

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on track when I lose concentration ($X=4.25$ $SD=.963$) and When I read, I guess the meaning of the unknown words or phrases ($X=4.10$ $SD=.882$). However, the two groups were different in their use of certain reading strategies, such as in the use of support strategy. The low proficient reader group chose “I use reference materials (e.g. a dictionary to help me understand what I read)” ($X=4.12$ $SD=.079$). When comparing the top five preferred reading strategies, it was found that the high proficient readers use problem-solving and global strategies only without support strategies ($X=3.34$ $SD=.80$). As for the low proficient readers, the mean score of the top five preferred reading strategies is 4.11 $SD=.85$. The findings from the Background (Personal) Questionnaire that showed qualitative data pointed out that the two groups were similar in their attempt to find the right strategies for themselves and they realized that the more practice, the better learner they became. However, the low proficient reader groups presented a slight need for teacher support or the importance of classroom learning.



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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

In recent years there has been a shift in focus from teaching to learning, from focus on the improvement of teaching to an increased concern for how learners go about their learning tasks in a second or foreign language. It has become clearer that much of the responsibility for success at language learning rests with the individual learners and with their ability to take full advantage of opportunities to learn (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Horwitz, 2000; Lightbown and Spada, 1993; Ormrod, 1996). Learning strategies are steps taken by students to enhance their own learning. Strategies are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence (Kugukoglu, 2013). Appropriate language learning strategies result in improved proficiency and greater self-confidence.

Learning strategies are the way students learn a wide range of subjects, from native language reading to new languages (Oxford, 1990). In other words, they should know which strategies suit them best. Although learning strategies should be selected by students themselves, teachers play an important role in helping students develop and use strategies in more effective ways. In other words, students can be taught how to use learning strategies for their maximum benefits.

Within the language instruction field, teachers are starting to discuss learning strategies among themselves. Researchers are identifying, classifying and evaluating language learning strategies and these efforts are resulting in a steady stream of articles on the topic. Most encouraging of all, increasing numbers of language learners are beginning to recognise the power of their own strategies. Savicoban (2012)

confirms that the strategies effective readers employ are pre-reading and post-reading stages of instruction in classroom language learning. Language learning strategies are among the main factors that help determine how and how effectively students learn a second or foreign language. A second language is a language studied in a setting where that language is the main vehicle of everyday communication and where abundant input exists in that language. A foreign language is a language studied in an environment where it is not the primary vehicle for daily interaction and where input in that language is restricted. (Oxford, 1990).

The most important function of a language is to allow people to communicate properly. Therefore, the English language also plays a powerful tool in communication. In order to communicate successfully, people need a language that is commonly understood by most of the people in the speech community. For many years, English has become the common language globally understood and appreciated by nearly everyone. English has, therefore become an effective instrument to communicate with everyone around the world. Thus, the focus of English language learning nowadays is for communicative purposes.

Considering an increasing need to enhance students with high English reading ability is a crucial prerequisite for both academic and occupational success in Thailand, English is a mandatory subject for all students with one of the main goals of enhancing Thai students' English reading proficiency.

However, research reveals that Thai students experience difficulties in comprehending texts written in English. The low level of English proficiency, especially in reading, among Thai students is due to many reasons. Difficulties in reading may come from the techniques of teaching reading the teachers use, the reading strategies the students bring in to tackle the reading texts as well as the frequencies of practice and exposure opportunities. According to Yavuz (2017), one factor that contributes to the failure in reading comprehension is the lack of qualified Thai teachers of English, many of whom are inadequately prepared in teaching reading methods and procedures. This is supported by Nuttall (1996), who criticises that there

are widespread misconceptions among ESL teachers about what procedures are helpful in teaching reading. Some ESL teachers always translate English texts into students' mother tongue immediately when their students encounter reading problems. Therefore, it is likely that Thai students have less opportunity to practice reading skills by themselves during their reading lessons. A considerable number of Thai students cannot apply some important reading skills--predicting the content, making inferences, and summarizing--to help them to make sense of a written text (Nuttall, 1996). Besides, according to Noomura (2013), problems involving students found in her studies included students not having enough practice in English on their own.

Reading is essential for a child's success. All too often, the barriers faced by children with difficulty reading outweigh their desire to read and, without proper guidance, they never overcome them. Learning to read is a sequential process; each new skill builds on the mastery of previously learned skills. Early on, for example, children learn to break down words into their most basic sounds in a process called decoding. Later, they begin to comprehend the meaning of words, sentences and, ultimately, entire passages of text. Savicoban (2012) confirms that the global understanding of the reading material before moving to smaller units such as words, sentences and paragraphs is necessary. Decoding creates the foundation on which all other reading skills are built. For many, decoding comes naturally, quickly becoming an automatic process. For people who struggle to decode words, however, the process requires such extreme concentration that they often miss much of the meaning in what they read. Indeed, according to many experts, decoding problems are at the root of most reading disabilities.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Reading involves the reader, the text, and the interaction between the reader and text and is also interactive in the sense that many skills work together simultaneously in the process. Regardless of the age of the learner, reading is significant and the key component for academic success of non-native English speaking students because they are required to read various textbooks or materials for getting information and learning

(Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2008). The EFL students' learning is closely tied to their ability to read and understand written materials across participants. When they study, read textbooks, do research, and take examinations, students are required to read and comprehend the content of a variety of academic materials. In other words, reading and learning are interrelated in education (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). It is significant for ESL students to improve English reading abilities since reading is used across all subject matter (Anderson, 1999; Koda & Zehler, 2008). Because English is not their first language, students of English attending schools in Thailand experience differences in learning academic content beyond those challenges experienced when learning in their native languages. Qraez & Ab. Rachid (2017, pp. 429-430) points out that students with limited English proficiency experience particular challenges in developing their English reading abilities. Research also demonstrates that ESL students struggle with learning the subject matter due to their insufficient vocabulary (Jimenez, Garcia, & Pearson, 1996; Koda, 2004).

Reading is an important way of gaining information in language learning and it is a basic skill for a language learner. There are a lot of reading exercises in an examination today. But all these readings must be done in limited time. So learners are asked to read them correctly and with a certain speed. Reading strategies are thus significant tools which will support students in their reading with full understanding. Nowadays, reading in one single language may not be a sufficient tool for some to learn. As a result, students need to read in more than one language.

Reading strategies are defined as a set of cognitive and purposeful actions that help readers construct and maintain meanings and make sense of the texts when they are engaged in reading tasks. Reading strategies are employed to help readers increase their comprehension of the texts before, during and after they read. Without adequate reading skills, readers struggle and encounter a number of problems in regards to their comprehension and this results in a profound sense of disengagement. Intervention can take place to help struggling adolescent readers to enhance their reading comprehension by means of the adoption of sufficient and appropriate strategies. For this reason reading strategies can be taught (Karami, 2008), and efficient reading

strategy instruction results in the less proficient students becoming more active, fluent and constructively responsive readers.

In terms of the reading processes in regards to the construction of meanings and the increase of text comprehension, reading strategies are the tools employed to improve reading ability of readers and these strategies are vital skills for readers. Huang et al. (2009, as cited in Amer et al., 2010), reveals that the effective use of reading strategies is recognised as an important means to enhance reading comprehension. Reading strategies, combined with the actual utilisation, enable readers to comprehend the texts they read during the pre-, while, and post-reading tasks. The readers engage actively with an array of strategies in reading texts. Likewise, as Abidin and Riswanto (2012) asserted, successful readers adopt various reading strategies in order to comprehend texts. Moreover, Raftari, Kashef, & Al Bahrani (2012) demonstrated that successful readers employ reading strategies more actively and make use of a greater variety of strategies to assist their comprehension.

Similarly, readers who are consciously aware of various reading strategies are able to employ and learn to choose the appropriate strategies to construct meanings from texts they are engaged in reading (Amer et al., 2010). The relationship between reading strategies and comprehension of texts lies in the fact that strategies function to help readers to overcome reading problems in the process of reading comprehension. From a reader's understanding of reading strategies the characteristics and discrepancies between the able and less-able readers can also be implied. Reading strategies are thus utilised to indicate the level of English language reading proficiency. These strategies positively affect reading comprehension (Cantrell & Carter, 2009) and substantially contribute to the better reading ability of EFL/ESL learners. It is of equal or greater importance to foster awareness of reading comprehension strategies by learning what strategies to use, when, why and how to engage alternate strategies appropriately and effectively (Cheng, 1998). Successful readers are able to understand and employ the information from reading English in different contexts via a repertoire of strategies that they draw upon.

According to Pernquest (2013), Thongroj, adviser to the Education Minister in the Editorial entitled “Thai Children Shortchanged” said Thailand’s education ranks last after their ASEAN neighbouring countries.

Relating to low proficiency in reading skills, numerous researchers (Chomchaiya, 2014; Sawangsamutchai & Rattanavich, 2016) stressed that Thai students have low motivation in learning English because Thai English teachers are still using conventional teaching technique that contribute to students’ lack of motivation in learning English reading skills.

In a pilot study carried out at Wat Khien Khet School, prior to the research commencing the scores of the population of the 70 Grade 12 students for Semester 1 of Academic year 2017 were examined and it was calculated that the average scores for reading were 14.66 out of 20 or 73.3%. The scores for English which included reading, writing, listening and speaking examinations along with the scores for classwork, mid-term exams and final exams (the accumulated English scores for semester 1) were examined and the average was calculated to be 72.29%. Teachers from Grade 12, both native English speakers and Thai teachers, were interviewed to ascertain the reading abilities and learning strategies used by their students. It was established the research participants appeared to be using the same strategies, but they used them with different frequencies. Cognitive reading strategies were used most frequently while metacognitive reading strategies were used least frequently. Furthermore, there was a statistically significant difference in the use of cognitive, metacognitive, and compensating reading strategies between high and low English reading ability students. That is, differing levels of English reading ability influenced the participants’ use of reading strategies. Results suggested that since students with different levels of English reading ability used strategies not only with different frequencies, but also in different ways, it is necessary to teach low English reading ability students how to use strategies more appropriately and effectively.

Specifically, Grade 12 students in the study encounter the following problems:

- 1) They have very limited vocabulary skills.
- 2) They possess poor sentence structure skills.
- 3) They don't understand fully the comprehension they are reading and they have difficulty summarising what they have been reading.

Therefore, this research study aims to describe the learning strategies used by Grade 12 students in a government school in Pathum Thani province in Thailand. The problem that is being researched is the low reading ability of Grade 12 students in Thailand and in particular Pathum Thani province. This is the reason for studying whether students use reading strategies and, if they do use strategies to establish what these particular strategies are.

The research attempts to gain an understanding how students learn English in the classroom context at the secondary level in Thailand, through an investigation of language learning reading strategies. Secondly, it describes the types of language learning strategies which students report using both inside and outside the classroom settings and to provide teachers with recommendations of how, in the future, they can improve students' reading abilities.

1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The present study will present an in-depth view of school EFL students' reading strategy use in Thailand. By clarifying the underlying dimensions of these variables and their relationships with English language proficiency, this study might in the future aid the teachers of thousands of EFL learners in Thailand by providing them with an understanding of what important influences exist in language learning.

The study may additionally shed light on how learners developed their knowledge about strategy use and what motivated them to learn English. Pedagogically, these insights and understandings might be of paramount importance to

English language educators in Thailand as they move toward learner-centered language teaching.

1.4 PROFILE OF THE SCHOOL UNDER THE STUDY

The research will be conducted at a school located in Education Area 2 in Thanyaburi district, PathumThani province. It is a government run school but has an Intensive English Program (I.E.P.) in which the students will be taught English for 5 periods per week, by a native English speaking teacher. This government funded public school was founded in 1921 and currently there are approximately 2900 students.

The Intensive English Program (I.E.P.) was started in 2007 and the new Mini English Program (M.E.P.) commenced in 2014. The I.E.P. program contains all the subjects taught at Matthayom level but five of the seven English lessons are taught by a native English speaker. The M.E.P. program has the same subjects as the I.E.P. program but in addition Mathematics, Science, Art, Music (pending), Health Education and Physical Education are all taught in English by a native English speaker or a Filipino teacher.

The School strives to offer a fun learning environment. The school endeavours to create students who have deep knowledge, know how to use technology and are well grounded in Thai culture, using the Sufficiency Economy Principles. They will know how to be good members of Thai and world society. Its mission is to: to create students who will be world citizens; to create students who are grounded in Thai culture and live by the tenets of The Sufficiency Economy Philosophy; to create students who can keep up with the ever changing world; to create a learning environment in which everyone has a say and is happy; to teach students how to use appropriate technology, in the classroom and in their lives; to teach students how to apply what they have learned in the real world and to utilise local knowledge and wisdom.

The school currently has a policy of offering free tuition to students encountering both reading and English language problems. These tuition classes are offered by all the foreign English language teachers at the school and will continue until at least the end of this academic year. The school also enters both regional and nationwide English competitions in which a variety of skills and events are participated in. All students competing in the events are personally trained by a foreign English language teacher. Also, in each of the Mini-English Program (MEP) classrooms a reading corner or 'mini' library has been established in order to promote English language reading by the students.

1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research attempts to gain an understanding of language learning strategies used by Grade 12 students in EFL reading with the following purposes.

- 1) To describe the reading comprehension strategies which Grade 12 students use in EFL reading.
- 2) To identify the differences of reading comprehension strategies which either high-proficiency or low-proficiency Grade 12 students use in EFL reading.

1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions are central to this study:

- 1) What are the reading comprehension strategies which Thai Grade 12 students use in EFL reading?
- 2) What are the reading comprehension strategies used by Thai Grade 12 students who are either high-proficiency or low-proficiency EFL readers?

1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There were several limitations of the study that became apparent during the research procedure. These were as follows:

- 1) The research did not include other classes, that is other grades ranging from Grade 1 to Grade 11 students.
- 2) Only one school was used for the research study.
- 3) The sample in this study deals with small sample size.
- 4) The study concentrated on only one province in Thailand, Pathum Thani province.
- 5) The present study is limited to the current situation and does not take in to account the possible situation in the future.
- 6) The learning strategies employed in 2nd language reading do not include the strategies used in the 3 other skills i.e. speaking, writing and listening.

1.8 DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

In order to discuss and answer the aforementioned questions, the following terms were used:

Reading strategies refers to the methods, behaviours, or processes that the Grade 12 students use while reading in order to be able to effectively read and comprehend the written texts to assist learners to increase their reading abilities.

Students refers to Grade 12 students attending a Government School in Pathum Thani province, Thailand.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents the review of the related literature and theoretical background of the study. The first part of the chapter covers the roles of language learning strategies and the theories of language learning strategies. The second part focuses on reading strategies which are believed to help a learner read with more efficiency and effectiveness. Finally, related studies were explored to identify the significance of reading strategies and the most commonly used. The sub-topics of the chapter are as follows:-

2.1 Language Learning Strategies

2.1.1 Definition of a Language Learning Strategy

2.1.2 Reading Strategies and Reading Comprehension

2.1.3 Learning Strategies in 2nd Language Reading

2.2 Theories Related to Learning Strategies

2.2.1 Rubin's (1987) Classification of Language Learning strategies

2.2.2 Oxford's (1990) Classification of language Learning Strategies

2.2.3 O'Malley's (1985) Classification of Language Learning

Strategies

2.2.4 Stern's (1992) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

2.3 Conclusion

2.1 LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

During the most recent years, language learning strategies and related research have experienced an enormous expansion and numerous researchers of language learning strategies have concluded that many of the learning strategies have the potential to facilitate language learning (MacIntyre and Noels, 1996; Nyikos and Oxford, 1993; Oxford and Crookall, 1989). According to Carroll (1977), learning a

foreign or a second language requires considerable effort. It can be a struggle for learners to find ways which are suitable and effective for themselves. Learning a foreign language can therefore be extremely difficult and frustrating for the learner. MacIntyre and Noels (1996) indicated that an undertaking to substantiate these remedies may help learners to understand and to retain the knowledge of the language being targeted, whether they are or are not learning inside or outside a classroom environment. Establishing from the research relating to language learning strategies, Pearson (1988) suggests that individual learners must be consciously prepared to invest a great deal of their own time and energy in second-language learning and that learners must want to become responsible for their own learning. Many studies of language learning strategies are directed at defining learning strategies and developing taxonomies that could be used to classify them.

Recently, interest in learning strategies has been focused on the relationships between learner characteristics and success in language learning (Bialystok, 1990; Ehrman and Oxford, 1989; Gradman and Hanania, 1991). The learner characteristics which relate to the success of second or foreign language learning include language learning aptitude, attitude and motivation, personality variables, socio-cultural variables, language practice and learning strategies. Besides, successful language learning may also relate to the characteristics of the learning situation such as length of exposure to the target language or the teaching methods. Further, another major area of second or foreign language learning research is on the complex relationship between the learner specific language learning behaviours or strategies, and the ultimate success of these behaviours or strategies in language learning (Bacon and Finnemann, 1990). That means, many researchers who are interested in language learning strategies tend to pay more attention to identifying the strategy use of successful language learners (e. g. Rubin, 1975; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Küpper, & Russo, 1985).

A number of researchers have examined language learning strategies employed by language learners learning a target language, mainly English, in different contexts in different parts of the world, i.e. learning English as a foreign language (EFL), or

learning English as a second language (ESL). Some researchers have also examined language learning strategies employed by native speakers of English learning a foreign language such as French, German, or Russian. Consequently, many of these researchers have come up with different findings which they have used to define and classify language learning strategies. The purpose of the research is to examine how language learning strategies are defined and classified by different researchers. In reviewing the research work on language learning strategies, the researcher will start with a brief discussion of definitions of learning strategies by different researchers, as well as some characteristics of language learning strategies.

2.1.1 DEFINITION OF A LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGY

Language learning strategies have been defined by many researchers, for example, Wenden and Rubin (1987) define learning strategies as "... any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information. Richards and Platt (1992) state that learning strategies are "intentional behaviour and thoughts used by learners during learning so as to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information." Stern (1992) wrote that, "the concept of learning strategy is dependent on the assumption that learners consciously engage in activities to achieve certain goals and learning strategies can be regarded as broadly conceived intentional directions and learning techniques." Language learners will often use language learning strategies either consciously or unconsciously when processing new information and performing tasks in the classroom.

Language learning strategies are the behaviours used by language learners to increase the acquisition, storage, retention, recall and use of new information (Oxford, 1990; Rigney, 1978). Strategies can be assessed in a variety of ways, such as diaries, think-aloud procedures, observations, and surveys. Research both outside the language field (e.g., Brown, Bransford, Ferrara, & Campione, 1983) and investigations with language learners (see reviews by Oxford 1990; Oxford & Crookall, 1989; Skehan, 1989) frequently show that the best learners often use learning strategies that are appropriate to the material, task and their own goals, needs and period of learning.

Better learners seem to use a broader range of strategies in more situations than less proficient learners, but the relationship between strategy use and proficiency is far from easy. Research indicates that language learners at all levels use strategies (Chamot & Kupper, 1989), but that some or most learners are not fully conscious of the strategies they use or the best and most beneficial strategies to employ.

There are multiple different strategies that can be used by language learners: metacognitive processes for focusing, organizing and evaluating your own learning; affective strategies for dealing with emotions or attitudes; social strategies for cooperating with others in the learning process; cognitive strategies for linking new information with existing knowledge and for analysing and classifying it; memory strategies for entering new information into memory storage and for retrieving it when needed; and compensation strategies (such as guessing or using gestures) to overcome deficiencies and gaps in one's current language knowledge (see Oxford, 1990). Language learning strategy research has suffered from an overemphasis on metacognitive and cognitive strategies, which are admittedly very important, at the expense of other strategy types that are also very useful.

2.1.2 READING STRATEGIES AND READING COMPREHENSION

A number of studies have tried to conceptualise the idea of strategies used by language learners, Oxford (1990) offers a comprehensive classification process of the various strategies used by learners. Within the wider context of reading strategies, the following six strategies can more appropriately be referred to as sub-strategies.

Cognitive strategies are used by learners to transform or manipulate the language. In more specific terms, this includes note taking, formal practice with the specific aspects of the target language such as sounds and sentence structure, summarising, paraphrasing, predicting, analysing, and using context clues. Techniques that help the learner to remember and retrieve information are referred to as memory strategies. These include creating mental images through grouping and associating,

semantic mapping, using keywords, employing word associations, and placing new words into a context.

Compensation strategies include skills such as inferencing, guessing while reading, or using reference materials such as dictionaries. Metacognitive strategies are behaviours undertaken by the learners to plan, arrange, and evaluate their own learning. Such strategies include directed attention and self-evaluation, organisation, setting goals and objectives, seeking practice Opportunities, and so forth. In the context of reading, self-monitoring and correction of errors are further examples of metacognitive strategies. Learners also use affective strategies, such as self-encouraging behaviour, to lower anxiety, and encourage learning.

Finally, social strategies are strategies that involve other individuals in the learning process and refer to cooperation with peers, questioning, asking for correction, and feedback; for example, when students read they may ask another individual for feedback about their reading responses.

It is fundamental to recognise that the above strategies can be used to facilitate learning, or can be used to facilitate comprehension. Such strategies will vary depending on the language area or skill to be mastered. This means that task requirements help determine strategy choice; learners would not use the same strategy for writing an essay as they would for engaging in informal conversation in a second language. According to Garner (1987), reading strategies are defined as “generally deliberate, planful activities undertaken by active learners, many times to remedy perceived cognitive failure”. Also, Brown (1980) stated that reading strategies should be characterised as any deliberate and planned control of activities, which lead to comprehension. Readers approach reading activities and make use of different processes, which allow them to understand the text. In other words, reading strategies facilitate reading comprehension.

Similarly, other researchers (Anderson, 1991; Brown, 1980; Guthrie & Wigfield, 1999; Winograd & Hare, 1988) stated that “Strategic reading is not only a

matter of knowing what strategy to use, but the reader must know how to use a strategy successfully and orchestrate its use with other strategies. It is not sufficient to know about strategies; a reader must also be able to apply them strategically”.

According to Anderson (1991), reading strategies may be classified into three main categories: (a) cognitive reading strategies, (b) metacognitive reading strategies, and (c) compensating reading strategies. Each category is comprised of specific reading strategies as follows:

Cognitive Reading Strategies consist of the following techniques.

1) Prediction: predicting the subject matter of an upcoming passage or section of the text.

2) Grammar concentration: concentrating on grammar to help understand unfamiliar construction

3) Identifying the main idea: to comprehend the entire reading.

4) Expanding vocabulary and grammar: expanding vocabulary and grammar to help readers increase their reading.

5) Guessing meanings from context: guessing meanings of unfamiliar words or phrases to let readers use what they already know about English

6) Analysing theme, style, and connections: analysing theme, style, and connections to improve reader's comprehension.

7) Distinguishing between opinions and facts: distinguishing between opinions and facts to aid in understand reading.

8) Break down larger phrases into smaller parts: break down larger phrases into smaller parts to help readers understand difficult passages.

9) Translation: linking what readers know in their first language with words in English or vice versa, translate the words in English into their first language.

10) Creating graphic organisers: Creating a map, diagram, or drawing of related ideas to enable you to understand the relationships between words and ideas.

11) Summarising: writing a short summary of what readers read to help them understand the main ideas.

Metacognitive Reading Strategies refer to the following actions.

- 1) Setting goals: having purposes in reading to help improve areas that are important to the reader.
- 2) Vocabulary listing: making lists of relevant vocabulary to prepare for new reading.
- 3) Working with classmates: working with classmates to help reader develop their reading skills.
- 4) Reviewing: Taking opportunities to practice what readers already know to keep readers progress steady.
- 5) Evaluating: evaluating what readers have learned and how well they are doing to help them focus their reading.

Compensating Reading Strategies comprise the following acts:-

- 1) Relying on what readers know: relying on what readers already know to improve their reading comprehension.
- 2) Note-taking: taking notes to help readers recall important details.
- 3) Remembering: trying to remember what readers understand from a reading to help them develop better comprehension skills.
- 4) Reviewing the purpose and tone of a reading: reviewing the purpose and tone of a reading passage so reader can remember more effectively.
- 5) Picturing scenes in readers' mind: picturing scenes in readers' mind to help them remember and understand their reading.
- 6) Reviewing key ideas and details: reviewing key ideas and details to help them remember.
- 7) Using physical action: to using physical action help readers remember information they have read.
- 8) Classifying words into meaningful groups: to classifying words into meaningful groups to remember more clearly.

Furthermore, research examining reading strategies currently focuses on the interactive, constructive nature of reading and reveals the need for all students to become “constructively responsive” readers (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995) who are

aware of what and why they do something during the process of reading, and “thoughtfully literate” individuals (Allington, 2000) who are engaged in reading and control of their own learning (Alvermann & Guthrie, 1993).

Fundamentally, Pressley and Afflerbach (1995)’s notion of constructively responsive reading, is in accordance with well-known theories of reading such as Rosenblatt’s (1978) reader response theory, in which the transaction between readers and texts is emphasised.

Researchers suggest that reading strategies can be taught through carefully devised instructional techniques (Anderson, 1991; Paris & Winograd, 1990. Further, reading strategies can and should be learned to the point of automaticity, after which they become skills, and that learners must know not only what strategies to use but also when, where, and how to use them (Paris, Lipson, & Wixson, 1983). Pressley and Afflerbach, 1995) present a very helpful thumbnail sketch of various strategies that skilled readers use before, during, and after reading. These strategies include:

- 1) Overview before reading.
- 2) Paying attention to important information and relating it to one another in order to understand the text as a whole.
- 3) Activating, relating, and using prior knowledge to interpret and/or predict the content of the text.
- 4) Reconsidering and/or revising hypotheses and prior knowledge based on the content of the text.
- 5) Making inferences to comprehend the text
- 6) Using strategies to remember text such as underlining, note taking, summarising, paraphrasing, self-questioning
- 7) Changing reading strategies when comprehension is not smooth.
- 8) Evaluating and reflecting the text, such as, reviewing and deciding to accept or reject one’s understanding of a text.
- 9) Anticipating or planning to use the knowledge from the text

Brown (2001, p. 36) believes that reading comprehension is mainly about developing appropriate, efficient comprehension strategies. His point is clear in that appropriate reading strategies can enable students to read better. He suggests that to decode, some steps must be followed:

- 1) Identify the purpose in reading
- 2) Employ bottom-up reading techniques
- 3) Read silently.
- 4) Skim for main ideas.
- 5) Scan for specific text information.
- 6) Use semantic mapping or clustering.
- 7) Guess.
- 8) Analyse vocabulary.
- 9) Distinguish between literal and implied meaning.
- 10) Capitalize on discourse markers to process relationship.

In summary, plenty of reading strategies are available for use. However, students need to select what suits them. This study is interested in what learning strategies these research participants use when they read and whether students with different ability levels use different strategies.

2.1.3 LEARNING STRATEGIES IN 2ND LANGUAGE READING

It is now evident that the 2nd language reading process, like the 1st language process, needs to be researched as a bottom up/ top-down relationship between the “graphic display in the text, various levels of linguistic knowledge and processes, and various cognitive activities” (Weber, 1984). As stated by Carrell and Eisterhold who wrote in summary: “Bottom-up processing ensures that the readers will be sensitive to information that is novel or that does not fit their own ongoing hypotheses about the content or structure of the text; top-down processing helps the readers to resolve ambiguities or to select between alternative possible interpretations of the incoming data”.

Several taxonomies have been created that attempt to map strategies used or thought to be used by L2 readers which reflect this top-down and bottom-up processing (e.g., Anderson, 1991; Pritchard, 1990). Generally, these taxonomies outline specific strategies, which are generally classified as more “top-down” or “bottom-up” in nature. While not necessarily better than others, they do provide a rather detailed classification system for analysing reading strategies. Pritchard’s coding system classifies strategies into two levels: general comprehension and local linguistic strategies. General comprehension strategies include methods used for “comprehension- gathering” and “comprehension- monitoring”.

It is obvious that there are a large number of reading strategies that a reader can use in trying to understand a text. Certainly, each individual reader needs to identify what he or she is comfortable with and select the right ones in order to enhance his or her reading ability.

2.2 THEORIES RELATED TO LEARNING STRATEGIES

Language Learning Strategies have been defined by many researchers and scholars (O'Malley et al. 1985; Oxford 1990; Wenden and Rubin 1987, etc.) Nevertheless, many of these attempts to classify language learning strategies reflect very similar categorisations of language learning strategies without many significant differences. The following will deal with the strategies focused on by 4 experts in the field of language learning strategies, Rubin's (1987), Oxford's (1990), O'Malley et al. (1985), and Stern's (1992) taxonomies of language learning strategies.

2.2.1 RUBIN’S (1987) CLASSIFICATION OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

Rubin, developed much of the work in the area of language learning strategies, and it was he who made the distinction between strategies contributing directly to learning and those contributing indirectly to learning. As described by Rubin, there

were three types of strategies used by learners that contributed directly or indirectly to language learning.

They are as follows:

- 1) Learning Strategies
- 2) Communication Strategies
- 3) Social Strategies

Learning Strategies

Learning strategies consist of two categories and they contribute directly to the development of the language system created by the learner:

- 1) Metacognitive Learning Strategies
- 2) Cognitive Learning Strategies

Metacognitive Learning Strategies

Metacognitive strategies assist to regulate, self-direct and to oversee the language learning process. They include several different processes such as setting goals, prioritising, managing oneself and planning.

Metacognitive strategies can be subdivided into the following:

Communication Strategies

Rubin states that communication strategies are less directly associated with the learning of a language as these strategies concentrate on the process of engaging in conversation and trying to get the meaning conveyed to the other participant by clarifying what the speaker was intending to communicate. These strategies are used by participants in a conversation when they encounter difficulties and they are unable to communicate or when they are misunderstood by the other person in the conversation

Social Strategies

Social strategies are activities that learners can participate in that provide them an opportunity to practice their knowledge and what they have previously learned. Although these strategies provide exposure to the target language, they contribute

indirectly to learning since they do not lead directly to the obtaining, storing, retrieving, and using of language (Wenden & Rubin, 1987).

Cognitive Learning Strategies

Cognitive learning strategies refer to the operations or steps used by language learners to solve problems that need alteration, direct analysis or a combination of learning materials. Rubin stated there are 6 primary cognitive learning strategies which contribute directly to the language learning process. These are as follows:

- 1) Practice
- 2) Guessing / Inductive Inferencing
- 3) Monitoring
- 4) Memorisation
- 5) Deductive Reasoning
- 6) Clarification / Verification

2.2.2 OXFORD'S (1990) CLASSIFICATION OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

Oxford (1990) sees the purpose of strategies for language learning as being positioned towards developing competence in communication. Oxford splits language learning strategies into two main categories, direct and indirect strategies, which are then further subdivided into 6 smaller groups.

As explained in Oxford's system, metacognitive strategies assist learners to control the process of language learning. Affective strategies deal with the learner's requirements from an emotional perspective, for example, confidence, whereas social strategies result in greater interaction with the language that is being targeted.

Cognitive learning strategies are defined as the mental strategies that language learners utilise to clarify their language learning. In contrast, memory strategies are strategies that are used for the storage of information and compensation strategies which

assist learners to overcome knowledge gaps to enable them to continue to communicate. Oxford's (1990) taxonomy of language learning strategies is detailed below:

Direct Strategies

1) Memory

1.1) Creating mental linkages

1.1.1) Grouping, Associating/elaborating, Contextualising words

1.2) Applying images and sounds

1.2.1) Imagery, Semantic Mapping, Keywords, Sounds in Memory

1.3) Reviewing well

1.3.1) Reviewing after increasingly longer intervals of time

1.4) Employing action

1.4.1) Physical response or sensation, mechanical techniques

Memory-related strategies help learners link one L2 item or concept with another but do not necessarily involve deep understanding. Various memory-related strategies enable learners to learn and retrieve information in an orderly string (e.g., acronyms), while other techniques create learning and retrieval via sounds (e.g., rhyming), images (e.g., a mental picture of the word itself or the meaning of the word), a combination of sounds and images (e.g., the keyword method), body movement (e.g., total physical response), mechanical means (e.g., flashcards), or location (e.g., on a page or blackboard) (see Oxford, 1990 for details and multiple examples). Memory-related strategies have been shown to relate to L2 proficiency in a course devoted to memorizing large numbers of Kanji characters (Kato, 1996) and in L2 courses designed for native-English speaking learners of foreign languages (Oxford & Ehrman, 1995). However, memory-related strategies do not always positively relate to L2 proficiency. In fact, the use of memory strategies in a test-taking situation had a significant negative relationship to learners' test performance in grammar and vocabulary (Purpura, 1997). The probable reason for this is that memory strategies are often used for memorising vocabulary and structures in initial stages of language learning, but that learners need such strategies much less when their arsenal of vocabulary and structures has become larger.

2) Cognitive

2.1) Practicing

2.1.1) Repeating, Formally, Formulaics, Recombining, Naturalistically

2.2) Receiving and sending messages

2.2.1) Getting the idea quickly, Using resources

2.3) Analysing and reasoning

2.3.1) Deductive, Expression analysing, Contrastively across languages, Translating, Transferring

2.4) Creating structure for input and output

2.4.1) Taking notes, Summarising, Highlighting

Cognitive strategies enable the learner to manipulate the language material in direct ways, e.g., through reasoning, analysis, note-taking, summarising, synthesising, outlining, reorganising information to develop stronger schemas (knowledge structures), practicing in naturalistic settings, and practicing structures and sounds formally. Cognitive strategies were significantly related to L2 proficiency in studies by Kato (1996), Ku (1995), Oxford and Ehrman (1995), Oxford, Judd, and Giesen (1998), and Park (1994), among others. Of these studies, three were specifically in EFL settings: Ku (Taiwan), Oxford, Judd, and Giesen (Turkey), and Park (Korea). The other two studies involved the learning of Kanji by native English speakers (Kato, 1996) and the learning of various foreign languages by native English speakers (Oxford & Ehrman, 1995).

3) Compensation strategies

3.1) Guessing intelligently

3.1.1) Using linguistic and other clues

3.2) Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

3.2.1) Mother tongue, Help!, Gesture, Avoidance, Topic

3.2.2) Selection, Approximating, Coining words, Circumlocution

Compensatory strategies (e.g., guessing from the context in listening and reading; using synonyms and “talking around” the missing word to aid speaking and

writing; and strictly for speaking, using gestures or pause words) help the learner make up for missing knowledge. Cohen (1998) asserted that compensatory strategies that are used for speaking and writing (often known as a form of communication strategies) are intended only for language use and must not be considered to be language learning strategies. However, Little (personal communication, January, 1999) and Oxford (1990) contend that compensation strategies of any kind, even though they might be used for language use, nevertheless aid in language learning as well. After all, each instance of L2 use is an opportunity for more L2 learning. Oxford and Ehrman (1995) demonstrated that compensatory strategies are significantly related to L2 proficiency in their study of native-English-speaking learners of foreign languages.

Indirect Strategies

1) Metacognitive Strategies

1.1) Centering your learning

1.1.1) Overviewing and linking, Paying attention, Just listening

1.2) Arranging and planning your learning

1.2.1) Meta-linguistics, Organizing, Setting goals, Identifying purposes, Planning for a task, Seeking times to practice

1.3) Evaluating your learning

1.3.1) Self-monitoring, Self-evaluating

Metacognitive strategies (e.g., identifying one's own learning style preferences and needs, planning for an L2 task, gathering and organising materials, arranging a study space and a schedule, monitoring mistakes, and evaluating task success, and evaluating the success of any type of learning strategy) are employed for managing the learning process overall. Among native English speakers learning foreign languages, Purpura (1997) found that metacognitive strategies had "a significant, positive, direct effect on cognitive strategy use, providing clear evidence that metacognitive strategy use has an executive function over cognitive strategy use in task completion" (p. 61). Studies of EFL learners in various countries (e.g., in South Africa, Dreyer & Oxford,

1996; and in Turkey, Oxford et al., 1998) uncovered evidence that metacognitive strategies are often strong predictors of L2 proficiency.

2) Affective Strategies

2.1) Lowering your anxiety

2.1.1) Relaxation/meditation, Music, Laughter

2.2) Encouraging yourself

2.2.1) Positive statements, Wise risk-taking, Rewarding yourself

2.3) Taking your emotional temperature

2.3.1) Body awareness, Emotion checklist, Diary, Sharing feelings

Affective strategies, such as identifying one's mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself for good performance, and using deep breathing or positive self-talk, have been shown to be significantly related to L2 proficiency in research by Dreyer and Oxford (1996) among South African EFL learners and by Oxford and Ehrman (1995) among native English speakers learning foreign languages. However, in other studies, such as that of Mullins (1992) with EFL learners in Thailand, affective strategies showed a negative link with some measures of L2 proficiency. One reason might be that as some students progress toward proficiency, they no longer need affective strategies as much as before. Perhaps because learners' use of cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategies is related to greater L2 proficiency and self-efficacy, over time there might be less need for affective strategies as learners progress to higher proficiency.

3) Social Strategies

3.1) Asking questions

3.1.1) Clarification/verification, Correction

3.2) Cooperating with others

3.2.1) Peer support, Interaction with native speakers

3.3) Empathising with others

3.3.1) Developing cultural understanding, Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings

Social strategies (e.g., asking questions to get verification, asking for clarification of a confusing point, asking for help in doing a language task, talking with a native-speaking conversation partner, and exploring cultural and social norms) help the learner work with others and understand the target culture as well as the language. Social strategies were significantly associated with L2 proficiency in studies by the South African EFL study by Dreyer and Oxford (1996) and the investigation of native-English-speaking foreign language learners by Oxford and Ehrman (1995).

2.2.3 O'MALLEY'S (1985) CLASSIFICATION OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

O'Malley et al. (1985) divided language learning strategies into three main subdivisions:

- 1) Cognitive Strategies
- 2) Metacognitive Strategies
- 3) Socioaffective Strategies

Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies are one type of learning strategy that learners use in order to learn more successfully. These include repetition, organising new language, summarising meaning, guessing meaning from context, using imagery for memorisation. All of these strategies involve deliberate manipulation of language to improve learning. Classifications of learning strategies distinguish between cognitive strategies and two other types, metacognitive strategies (organising learning), and social/ affective strategies (which enable interaction). For example, a learner remembers new words by visualising them represented in a memorable or ridiculous situation. This makes it easier and faster to recall these words. In a learning environment, activities which can be described as cognitive strategies include making mind maps, visualisation, association, mnemonics, using clues in reading comprehension, underlining key words, scanning and self-testing and monitoring.

Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies refer to methods used to help students understand the way they learn; it means processes designed for students to ‘think’ about their ‘thinking’. Metacognitive strategies can positively impact students who have learning disabilities by helping them to develop an appropriate plan for learning information, which can be memorised and will eventually become routine. As students become aware of how they learn, they will use these processes to efficiently acquire new information and consequently, become more of an independent thinker.

Metacognitive expresses executive function which are strategies which require planning for learning, thinking about the process of learning as it takes place, monitoring one's comprehension and production and evaluating learning after an activity has been completed. The main metacognitive strategies include advance organisers, directed and selective attention, functional planning, self-monitoring and self-management, delayed production and self-evaluation.

Socioaffective Strategies

Socioaffective strategies are related with social-mediating activity and transacting with others. Cooperation and questioning for clarification are the most frequent socioaffective strategies used (Brown 1987).

2.2.4 STERN'S (1992) CLASSIFICATION OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

According to Stern (1992), there are five main language learning strategies, as follows:

- 1) Affective Strategies
- 2) Management and Planning Strategies
- 3) Interpersonal Strategies
- 4) Communicative - Experiential Strategies
- 5) Cognitive Strategies

Affective Strategies

Proficient language learners tend to employ distinct affective strategies. Learning a language is often frustrating and learners can witness a feeling of strangeness caused by the use of the foreign language. In some other instances second language learners may experience negative feelings towards native speakers of that language.

Efficient language learners are conscious of these emotional problems and will try to establish associations of positive affect towards the foreign language and its speakers as well as towards the learning activities that will be needed. Learning training will help students to face up to and overcome the emotional difficulties by drawing attention to the potential frustrations or pointing them out as they arise (Stern 1992).

Management and Planning Strategies

Management and planning strategies are associated with the learner's intention to direct their own learning. A language learner can take responsibility for the development of their own programme when they are helped by a teacher whose role is that of an adviser and resource person. In other words, the learner must:

- 1) Set themselves reasonable goals
- 2) Decide on an appropriate methodology, select appropriate resources, and monitor progress,
- 3) Decide what commitment to make to language learning
- 4) Evaluate his achievement in the light of previously determined goals and expectations (Stern 1992).

Interpersonal Strategies

Language learners should monitor their own development and evaluate their own performance. They should make contact with native English speakers and cooperate with them. Learners must become acquainted with the target culture (Stern 1992).

Communicative - Experiential Strategies

Communication strategies, such as circumlocution or verbosity, gesturing, paraphrasing or asking for repetition and explanation are techniques used by learners

so as to keep a conversation going. The purpose of using these techniques is to avoid interrupting the flow of communication (Stern 1992).

Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive learning strategies refer to the operations or steps used by language learners to solve problems that need alteration, direct analysis or a combination of learning materials. These are as follows:

- 1) Practice
- 2) Guessing / Inductive Inferencing
- 3) Monitoring
- 4) Memorisation
- 5) Deductive Reasoning
- 6) Clarification / Verification

2.3 CONCLUSION

It is apparent that students should be taught to use better language learning strategies, and many researchers have suggested that these strategies may improve language learners' performance. It should be questioned, however, how language learners should be taught learning strategies, but at present language learning strategy training is more effective when combined with regular classroom activities than when presented as a separate language learning strategy course.

Language learning strategies and styles are some of the most significant variables influencing performance in second language acquisition. Further research is required to establish the exact roles of styles and strategies, but even at this stage in our understanding it is apparent that teachers should become more aware of both learning strategies and learning styles through the necessary teacher training to enable teachers to help their students by designing instruction materials that fulfill the language learning needs of learners with different stylistic preferences and by teaching students how to improve their learning strategies.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The following will describe the methods and procedures for investigating the reading strategies used by Thai secondary school students. The first part covers research design to explain why the study was designed in this way. Secondly, the instruments being used in the research will be discussed. Thirdly, the data collection and analysis methods will be covered. Next, the future benefits of the study, the scope, population and research participants will be discussed. Finally, the location and time of the research will be covered.

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

The present study will present high school EFL students' reading strategy use in Thailand, and their perceptions about language learning. This study might in the future aid the teachers of thousands of EFL learners in Thailand by providing them with an understanding of what important influences exist in language learning. It will also highlight what the teacher should do to assist the students to increase reading proficiency. The study may additionally shed light on how learners developed their knowledge about strategy use, what motivated them to learn English, and what their perceptions were.

The study was designed with the use of two instruments to collect data from the students. The Reading Strategy Questionnaire was used to find out what strategies students tended to use most and if students had different reading ability levels, did they use different reading strategies? The data to collect from the first instrument were quantitative in nature, while the data from the Background (Personal) Questionnaire were partially qualitative when students were asked to give their opinions in some of the questions.

3.2 RESEARCH SITE

Wat Khien Khet School is located in District Educational Area 2 in Pathum Thani province, 10 kilometers directly north of Bangkok. This government school was founded in 1921 and currently there are approximately 2900 students. There are 15 grade levels ranging from Pre-kindergarten to Grade 12. There are currently 137 teachers, of which there are 17 foreign teachers working in the I.E.P. and M.E.P. programs. The Intensive English Program (I.E.P.) was started in 2007 and the new Mini English Program (M.E.P.) commenced in 2014. The I.E.P. program contains all the subjects taught at Secondary (Matthayom) level but five of the seven English lessons are taught by a native English speaker. The M.E.P. program has the same subjects as the I.E.P. program but in addition Mathematics, Science, Art, Music (pending), Health Education and Physical Education are all taught in English by a native English speaker or a Filipino teacher. There is also an M.S.P. program (Mathematics and Science program) which focuses on these 2 subjects in particular. In addition to these three programs there is also the 'normal' program as run in other government schools.

3.3 POPULATION AND RESEARCH PARTICIPANT SELECTION

The research was undertaken at Wat Khien Khet School. It is a government run school but has an Intensive English Program (I.E.P.) in which the students will be taught English for 5 periods per week, by a native English speaking teacher.

3.3.1 Research Population

The population for the research was a total of 70 Grade 12 students who study EFL in semester 2, the academic year 2017. The 70 students were chosen as this is the total number of students who are studying in Grade 12 at Wat Khien Khet School during semester 2 of academic year 2017. The 70 students would all undertake three reading comprehension tests to ascertain the top and bottom 20% of the participants.

From these groups of top and bottom 20% participants, 4 high proficiency readers and 4 low proficiency readers were chosen.

3.3.2 Research Participants

Four high-proficiency readers and 4 low-proficiency readers will be recruited as research participants and will join the study on a voluntary basis. The 4 high-proficiency readers will be randomly selected from the top 20% of Grade 12 EFL students at Wat Khien Khet School. High-proficiency readers refers to the top 20% of Grade 12 EFL students in Wat Khien Khet School based on the test scores of the previously taken three reading comprehension tests. The 4 low-proficiency readers will be randomly selected from the bottom 20% of Grade 12 EFL students at Wat Khien Khet School. “Low-proficiency readers” refers to the bottom 20% of Grade 12 EFL students in Wat Khien Khet School based on the test scores of the previously taken three reading comprehension tests. They will be informed about the study at the end of semester 1, of academic year 2017.

3.4 METHODOLOGY

The steps in conducting the study are as follows:

- 1) Prepare a background (personal) questionnaire and a reading strategy survey based on the literature review of metacognitive and cognitive strategies in reading English texts used by EFL students.
- 2) Ask 3 EFL experts, 1 in assessment and 2 EFL teachers to validate the interview questions and the questions in the Reading Strategy Survey.
- 3) Revise the questions in the background (personal questionnaire) and the Reading Strategy Survey according to the recommendations of the 3 experts.
- 4) Select a population of 70 grade 12 students. This was the total number of grade 12 students studying at Wat Khien Khet School at the time the research was started.

5) All 70 students took 3 reading comprehension tests and the scores of the tests were calculated to select the top 20% and bottom 20% of students based on their individual test scores.

6) From the top and bottom 20% of the population, based on their test scores, 4 high-proficiency and 4 low-proficiency readers were randomly selected, on a voluntary basis, to provide the research participants.

7) Interview the research participants by using the background questionnaire employing the interview technique. The interviews lasted approximately 20 minutes per person and the researcher took notes of the answers.

8) Each of the 8 participants took 8 reading comprehension tests. These tests were spread over a 2 week period and following each test the students were required to complete the Reading Strategy Survey. This research design was used because it was expected that the students in the study were stimulated to think about what reading strategies they had just used.

9) A total number of 64 reading comprehension tests and 64 Reading Strategy Surveys were completed by the participants.

10) The data (the answers to the questions in the personal interview) and the Reading Strategy Survey were then analyzed accordingly.

3.5 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Many assessment tools exist for uncovering the strategies used by L2 learners. Self-report surveys, observations, interviews, learner journals, dialogue journals, think-aloud techniques, and other measures have been used. Each one of these has advantages and disadvantages, as analysed by Oxford (1990) and Cohen and Scott (1996).

For the purpose of this study two types of instruments and techniques were used to collect the data for the study. These are:

- 1) The Personal Interview (The Background Questionnaire)
- 2) The Reading Strategy Questionnaire

3.5.1 The Personal Interview (The Background Questionnaire)

The researcher used a form of simple interview to collect data from 4 high-proficiency readers and 4 low-proficiency readers. The interview was used to find out what learning strategies were used to help the participants to comprehend texts. After hearing the students' answers, the researcher would ask for more detail on the certain points which were interesting and beneficial to data collection. The researcher would take notes during the interview. The interviews lasted approximately 20 minutes.

The interviews were conducted with a fairly open framework which allowed for focused, conversational, two-way communication. The purpose of the student oral interview analysis was to explore the perceptions of students in relation to their own language ability and language learning strategies they employed within and outside the classroom and to improve their reading skills in general. The researcher also investigated what the students found difficult in learning English and how they attempted to solve the problems. Lastly, the students were asked to express their opinions or comments about English learning and teaching from their own experience.

The researcher decided to use a one-to-one interview. This interview method has an advantage in that it has a structured overall framework but allows for greater flexibility (McDonough, J. and McDonough, S., 1997). Further, the one-to-one interview allowed an interviewee to generate a description of the most important aspects of the language learning strategies he or she employed. The researcher believed that the one-to-one interview was more productive and worthwhile despite a bit time-consuming.

In investigating a student's language learning strategies, a researcher asked each student in the study to describe what language learning strategies he or she used and how they were used to deal with aspects of language learning. One way to do this was to interview students. Student interviews provide personalised information on many types of language learning strategies which would not be available through classroom observations (Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995).

3.5.1.1 Purposes of the interview

The interview, as a research tool, has the following functions:-

- 1) Obtain specific quantitative and qualitative information from a sample of the population
- 2) Obtain general information relevant to specific issues, (i.e. to probe for what is not known)
- 3) Gain a range of insights on specific issues

With specified functions, the interview has the following benefits.

- 1) The interview encourages two-way communication. Those being interviewed can ask questions of the interviewer. In this way it can also function as an extension tool.
- 2) They can confirm what is already known but also provide the opportunity for learning. Often the information obtained from structured interviews will provide not just answers, but the reasons for the answers.
- 3) When individuals are interviewed, they may more easily discuss sensitive issues.
- 4) Using both individual and group interviews can optimise the strengths of both.

The interviews during the research were conducted in the Teachers' office in Wat Khien Khet School at a pre-arranged time with the students. Each interview lasted approximately 20 minutes.

3.5.1.2 The interview questions were as follows:-

| <u>Background Questionnaire</u> | |
|--|-------|
| The Student's Background Questionnaire | |
| Q1: What is your name? | _____ |
| Q2: How old are you? | _____ |
| Q3: Are you male or female? | _____ |
| Q4: How often do you study English at school? | _____ |
| Q5: According to Q4, do you think it is enough for you? | _____ |
| Q6: What is the level of your ability in English? (high, moderate, or low?) | _____ |
| Q7: Do you do anything to help yourself understand the English lessons better? | _____ |
| Q8: What do you do to improve your English in general? | _____ |
| Q9: What do you find (think) very difficult for you in learning English? | _____ |
| Q10: Do you have any comments about learning English in your present classroom? | |
| Thank you very much for your co-operation | |

Figure 3.1 Background Questionnaire

3.5.2 The Reading Strategy Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a series of questions for the purpose of gathering information from respondents. Although they are often designed for statistical analysis of the responses, this is not always the case. The questionnaire was invented by the Statistical Society of London in 1838. Questionnaires have advantages over some other types of surveys in that they are cheap, do not require as much effort from the questioner as verbal or telephone surveys, and often have standardised answers that make it simple to compile data. However, such standardised answers may frustrate users. Questionnaires are also sharply limited by the fact that respondents must be able to read the questions and

respond to them. Thus, for some demographic groups conducting a survey by questionnaire may not be concrete.

Like oral interviews, written questionnaires are used to elicit learner responses to a set of questions, and they require the researcher to make choices regarding question format and research procedures (Cohen and Scott, 1996). In addition, Oxford and Crookall, (1989) suggest that written questionnaires typically cover a range of language learning strategies and are usually structured and objective (closed) in nature. In other words, informants have little or no freedom in providing their own responses to the questions as choices for responses are normally provided. Question items in written questionnaires can range from those asking for 'yes' or 'no' responses or indications of frequency (e. g. Likert Scales) to less structured items asking respondents to describe or discuss language learning strategies they employ in detail. In this scenario, the respondents have more control over the information included in their responses. The responses to structured questionnaires may be simplistic or contain only brief information about any one language learning strategy. The questionnaires that require the respondents to indicate frequency of use of language learning strategies, like Likert Scales, are easy and quick to give, provide a general assessment of each respondent's typical strategies, and may be the most cost-effective mode of strategy assessment. They are also almost non-threatening when administered using paper and pencil under conditions of confidentiality (Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995).

Further, written questionnaires enable the researcher to collect data in field settings and the data obtained are more amenable to quantification than those collected through free-form field notes, participant observing journals or the transcripts of oral language (Nunan, 1992). However, there are a few weak points with this kind of questionnaire. The data may be superficial. There is little or no check on honesty or seriousness of responses. This may be seen as a challenge for a novice researcher with regards to his or her own ability to deal with such limitations. More importantly, while analysis may be easy, but time consuming, interpretation can be problematic (Robson, 1993; Walker, 1985).

3.5.2.1 Purpose of the Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a mechanism for obtaining information and opinion; questionnaires have a number of advantages and disadvantages when compared with other evaluation tools. In general, questionnaires are effective mechanisms for efficient collection of certain kinds of information. They are not, however, a comprehensive means of evaluation and should be used to support and supplement other procedures for evaluating and improving teaching.

The purpose of the questionnaire analysis is to answer the research questions in relation to use of language learning reading strategies of secondary school students learning English in Thailand.

3.5.2.2 Major Benefits of the Questionnaire

- 1) They permit respondents time to consider their responses carefully without interference from, for example, an interviewer.
- 2) Cost. It is possible to provide questionnaires to large numbers of people simultaneously.
- 3) Uniformity. Each respondent receives the identical set of questions. With closed-form questions, responses are standardised, which can assist in interpreting from large numbers of respondents.
- 4) Can address a large number of issues and questions of concern in a relatively efficient way, with the possibility of a high response rate.
- 5) Often, questionnaires are designed so that answers to questions are scored and scores summed to obtain an overall measure of the attitudes and opinions of the respondent.
- 6) They permit anonymity. It is usually argued that anonymity increases the rate of response and may increase the likelihood that responses reflect genuinely held opinions.

3.5.2.3 The Reading Strategy Questionnaire was as follows:

General Perceived Reading Strategy Use

Three reading strategy categories are surveyed in this study: global strategies (GLOB), problem-solving strategies (PROB), and support strategies (SUP).

All 25 survey items fall within one of these types of reading comprehension strategies.

The purpose of this study is to collect information about the various strategies you use when you read school-related academic materials in English (e.g., reading narrative texts as for the purpose of this research, reading textbooks for homework or examinations, reading journal articles). Each statement is followed by five numbers, 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, and each number means the following:

1 means that “I never or almost never do this.”

2 means that “I do this only occasionally.”

3 means that “I sometimes do this.” (about 50% of the time)

4 means that “I usually do this.”

5 means that “I always or almost always do this.”

After reading each statement, circle the number (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) which applies to you.

Note that there are no right or wrong responses to any of the items on this survey.

Table 3.1 Classification of Learning Strategy (Global, Problem Solving Support)

| Category | Item | Reading strategy | Never-----Always |
|----------|------|--|------------------|
| GLOB | 1. | I have a purpose in mind when I read. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| SUP | 2. | I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| GLOB | 3. | I think about what I know to help me understand what I read. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| GLOB | 4. | I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| SUP | 5. | When the text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| PROB | 6. | I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| GLOB | 7. | I review the text first by noting its characteristics and organisation. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| PROB | 8. | I try to get back on track when I lose concentration. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| SUP | 9. | I underline or circle information in the text to help me understand. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| PROB | 10. | I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| GLOB | 11. | When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| GLOB | 12. | I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| PROB | 13. | When the text becomes difficult, I pay close attention to what I am reading. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| PROB | 14. | I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

Table 3.1 Classification of Learning Strategy (Global, Problem Solving Support)
(Cont.)

| Category | Item | Reading strategy | Never-----Always |
|----------|------|---|------------------|
| SUP | 15. | I use reference materials (e.g., dictionary) to help me understand what I am reading. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| PROB | 16. | I try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| GLOB | 17. | I use typographical features like boldface and italics to identify key information. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| GLOB | 18. | I critically analyse and evaluate the information presented in the text. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| SUP | 19. | I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| GLOB | 20. | I check my information when I come across new information. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| GLOB | 21. | I try to guess what the context of the text is about when I read. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| PROB | 22. | When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| GLOB | 23. | I check to see if my guesses about the texts are right or wrong. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| PROB | 24. | When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| SUP | 25. | When reading, I translate from English into my native language. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

3.6 DATA TRIANGULATION

Triangulation means using more than one method to collect data on the same topic. This is a way of assuring the validity of research through the use of a variety of methods to collect data on the same topic, which involves different types of samples as well as methods of data collection.

Data triangulation validates your data and research by cross verifying the same information. This triangulation of data strengthens your research paper because your data has increased credibility and validity. The triangulation of data occurs when multiple theories, materials or methods are used. The following are a few of the most common approaches:

Data source triangulation—using evidence from different types of data sources, such as primary and secondary research or interviews, documents, public records, photographs and observations

Methodology triangulation—Combining multiple methods to gather data, such as documents, interviews, observations, questionnaires or surveys, when conducting primary research, at different times and in different places

Theory triangulation---using more than one theoretical approach (theory) to interpret and support data.

In this study, methodology triangulation is used. If you were conducting primary research and wanted to use data triangulation, you might combine two different types of interviews: conversational interviewing and structured-question interviewing. By using two different methods, or approaches, to collect your data, you obtain different information that (hopefully) provides data sets that complement one another. If both approaches yield results that support your hypothesis or theory, your data is naturally more valid. You could even combine those data sets with results from conducting an observation, or combine it with another study by using data source triangulation.

3.6.1 Benefits of Data Triangulation

The triangulation of data strengthens your research and allows you to write a better research paper because of the following benefits.

- 1) Additional sources of information often give more insight into a topic.
- 2) Inadequacies found in one-source data is minimised when multiple sources confirm the same data.
- 3) Multiple sources provide verification and validity while complementing similar data.
- 4) More comprehensive data is obtained.
- 5) Data and information is supported in multiple places/types of research, which makes it easier to analyse data to draw conclusions and outcomes.
- 6) Inconsistencies in data sets are more easily recognized.

3.7 DATA COLLECTION

In this section, the main research methods or procedures used to gather data on language learning reading strategies will be discussed. This is followed by the framework of methods for data collection for the present investigation. The instruments for language learning strategies include:

- 1) The Background Interview (Personal questionnaire)
- 2) Strategy Questionnaire (Reading Strategy Questionnaire)

The data were collected during semester 2 of academic year 2017. In collecting data to answer the research questions for the present investigation, student oral interviews and a questionnaire were used as the main methods. Student oral interviews were conducted in the first phase, and the Language Learning Strategy questionnaire was used in the second phase of data collection.

3.8 DATA ANALYSIS

Analysis of the data from the two instruments was done according to the format of the instrument used. For the Reading Strategy Questionnaire, the statistics used were mean and S.D. The interpretation was from the representative numbers. As for the personal individual interviews, a table collecting data from all the cases was used to show how high proficient readers were similar or different from low proficient students in terms of preferences to their approaches to English.



CHAPTER 4

RESULTS OF DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter is divided into three sections: first, findings from the Reading Strategy Questionnaire, second, findings from the Background Questionnaire and third, the chapter conclusion

The three sections of this chapter are intended to respond to the objectives of the study, which are:-

- 1) To describe the reading comprehension strategies which Grade 12 students use in EFL reading.
- 2) To identify the differences of reading comprehension strategies which either high-proficiency or low-proficiency Grade 12 students use in EFL reading.

4.1 Findings from the Reading Strategy Questionnaire

Three reading strategy categories are surveyed in this study: global strategies (GLOB), problem-solving strategies (PROB), and support strategies (SUP). All of the 25 survey items fall within one of these types of reading comprehension strategies. The survey participants were 8 Thai grade 12 students who participated in this study with a completion of 8 questionnaires after one of the eight reading tests assigned (n=64). Table 1 shows the results for the first research question: *What are the reading comprehension strategies which Thai Grade 12 students use in EFL reading?* Note that results in bold-faced type in the table indicate the highest and lowest use of reading strategies. Thai grade 12 students' reported preferences are arranged in descending order by their means (i.e., the most often used to the least often used strategies).

On a scale of one to five, the mean frequencies of 3.6 or above indicate students used the strategy frequently; the mean frequencies between 2.5 and 3.5

indicate moderate use; and the mean frequencies of 2.4 and below indicate no use of the strategy surveyed (Oxford, 1990). With respect to reported general reading strategy use, 20 of the 25 items fell in the high usage group (mean=3.6 or above), and 5 strategies had means between 2.5 and 3.5 indicating moderate use of these strategies. The average for the reported general strategy use reflects how often the research participants (n=64) report using the strategies when reading English texts.

Table 4.1 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use in Descending Order
(of both high and low-proficiency readers)

(N=64)

| Strategy Category | Survey Item | Strategy Descriptions | Mean | SD |
|-------------------|-------------|--|------|-------|
| PROB | 22 | When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding. | 4.36 | .740 |
| GLOB | 1 | I have a purpose in mind when I read | 4.30 | .749 |
| PROB | 6 | I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading. | 4.28 | .744 |
| PROB | 8 | I try to get back on track when I lose concentration. | 4.25 | .963 |
| PROB | 24 | When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases. | 4.10 | .882 |
| PROB | 13 | When the text becomes difficult, I pay close attention to what I am reading. | 3.97 | .873 |
| GLOB | 20 | I check my information when I come across new information. | 3.97 | .858 |
| PROB | 14 | I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading. | 3.97 | .954 |
| GLOB | 3 | I think about what I know to help me understand what I read. | 3.88 | 1.163 |
| GLOB | 21 | I try to guess what the context of the text is about when I read. | 3.84 | .996 |

Table 4.1 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use in Descending Order
(of both high and low-proficiency readers) (Cont.)

(N=64)

| Strategy Category | Survey Item | Strategy Descriptions | Mean | SD |
|-------------------|-------------|---|------|-------|
| PROB | 10 | I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading. | 3.83 | .982 |
| GLOB | 18 | I critically analyse and evaluate the information presented in the text. | 3.78 | .825 |
| PROB | 16 | I try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read. | 3.77 | .958 |
| GLOB | 11 | When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore. | 3.77 | .994 |
| SUP | 19 | I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it. | 3.74 | 1.018 |
| SUP | 9 | I underline or circle information in the text to help me understand. | 3.74 | .965 |
| GLOB | 17 | I use typographical features like boldface and italics to identify key information. | 3.71 | .998 |
| GLOB | 25 | When reading, I translate from English into my native language. | 3.69 | 1.087 |
| SUP | 15 | I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I read. | 3.60 | 1.091 |
| SUP | 2 | I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read. | 3.60 | 1.041 |
| GLOB | 4 | I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it. | 3.48 | 1.209 |

Table 4.1 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use in Descending Order
(of both high and low-proficiency readers) (Cont.)

(N=64)

| Strategy Category | Survey Item | Strategy Descriptions | Mean | SD |
|-------------------|-------------|--|------|-------|
| GLOB | 7 | I review the text first by noting its characteristics and organisation. | 3.41 | 1.042 |
| SUP | 23 | I check to see if my guesses about the texts are right or wrong. | 3.32 | 1.081 |
| GLOB | 12 | I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading. | 3.32 | 1.174 |
| SUP | 5 | When the text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read. | 3.23 | 1.140 |
| | | OVERALL MEAN and STANDARD DEVIATION | 3.79 | 0.98 |

The overall average of 3.79 for the twenty-five items indicates that the students typically perceived themselves as using a variety of strategies while reading English texts. The top five strategies that the participants reported generally using most while reading in English are: (PROB 22), “When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding” (M=4.36; SD=.740); (GLOB1), “I have a purpose in mind when I read” (M=4.30; SD=.749); (PROB6), “I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading. ” (M=4.28; SD=.744); (PROB8), “I try to get back on track when I lose concentration” (M=4.25; SD=.963); and (PROB24, “When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases” (M=4.10; SD=.882).

The next five strategies, on the other hand, that the research participants reported generally using least while reading in English are: (GLOB 4),“ I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it” (M=3.48;SD=1.209); (GLOB7),“I review the text first by noting its characteristics and organisation” (M=3.41;

SD=1.042); (SUP23),“I check to see if my guesses about the texts are right or wrong” (M=3.32; SD=1.081), (GLOB 12),“ I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading” (M=3.32; SD=1.174); and (SUP5),“ When the text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read” (M=3.23;SD=1.140).

Table 4.2 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use per Category in Descending Order (of both high and low-proficiency readers)

(N=64)

| Level | Survey Item | Global reading strategies | Mean | SD |
|----------|-------------|---|------|-------|
| High | 1 | I have a purpose in mind when I read | 4.30 | .749 |
| High | 20 | I check my information when I come across new information. | 3.97 | .858 |
| High | 3 | I think about what I know to help me understand what I read. | 3.88 | 1.163 |
| High | 21 | I try to guess what the context of the text is about when I read. | 3.84 | .996 |
| High | 18 | I critically analyse and evaluate the information presented in the text. | 3.78 | .825 |
| High | 11 | When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore. | 3.77 | .994 |
| High | 17 | I use typographical features like boldface and italics to identify key information. | 3.71 | .998 |
| High | 25 | When reading, I translate from English into my native language. | 3.69 | 1.087 |
| Moderate | 4 | I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it. | 3.48 | 1.209 |
| Moderate | 7 | I review the text first by noting its characteristics and organisation. | 3.41 | 1.042 |
| Moderate | 12 | I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading. | 3.32 | 1.174 |

Table 4.2 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use per Category in Descending Order (of both high and low-proficiency readers) (Cont.)

(N=64)

| Level | Survey Item | Global reading strategies | Mean | SD |
|----------|-------------|---|------|-------|
| High | 22 | When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding. | 4.36 | .740 |
| High | 6 | I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading. | 4.28 | .744 |
| High | 8 | I try to get back on track when I lose concentration. | 4.25 | .963 |
| High | 24 | When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases. | 4.10 | .882 |
| High | 13 | When the text becomes difficult, I pay close attention to what I am reading. | 3.97 | .873 |
| High | 14 | I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading. | 3.97 | .954 |
| High | 10 | I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading. | 3.83 | .982 |
| High | 16 | I try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read. | 3.77 | .958 |
| High | 19 | I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it. | 3.74 | 1.018 |
| High | 9 | I underline or circle information in the text to help me understand. | 3.74 | .965 |
| High | 15 | I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I read. | 3.60 | 1.091 |
| High | 2 | I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read. | 3.60 | 1.041 |
| Moderate | 23 | I check to see if my guesses about the texts are right or wrong. | 3.32 | 1.081 |

Table 4.2 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use per Category in Descending Order (of both high and low-proficiency readers) (Cont.)

(N=64)

| Level | Survey Item | Global reading strategies | Mean | SD |
|----------|-------------|--|------|-------|
| Moderate | 5 | When the text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read. | 3.23 | 1.140 |
| | | OVERALL MEAN and STANDARD DEVIATION | 3.79 | 0.98 |

As shown in Table 2 above, 8 of the 20 strategies that fell in the high usage group (mean of 3.6 or above) were global reading strategies; 8 were problem-solving strategies; and 4 were support strategies. In the moderate group, strategy use shifted to 2 of 6 support strategies and 3 of 11 global strategies.

Based on the results shown in Table 4.2, the three highest items for global reading strategies are 1, 20 and 3. It could be interpreted as most students having reading purposes (average = 4.30/SD .749), when seeing new information most students checked it (average = 3.97/SD .858) and most students were thinking about what they already know to help them understand what they read (average = 3.88/SD 1.163). However, the SD of the third item revealed that the majority of the students did not follow the same direction.

With regards to problem-solving strategies, the three items with the highest mean were numbers 22, 6 and 8:

1) When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding (average = 4.36/SD .740)

2) I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading (average = 4.28/SD .744)

3) I try to get back on track when I lose concentration (average = 4.25/SD .963)

As for support reading strategies students chose numbers 19, 9 and 15:

1) I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it (average = 3.74/SD 1.1018)

2) I underline or circle information in the text to help me understand (average = 3.74/SD 0.965)

3) I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I read (average = 3.60/SD 1.091)

What is surprising is that students did not really agree on the same direction, as the standard deviation for item 19 is high. Another surprising technique that this group of students use is “I underline or circle information in the text to help me understand” and that dictionaries may still be a preferred way to get the meaning across.

Table 4.3 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use in Descending Order
(of high-proficiency readers only)

(N=32)

| Strategy category | Survey Item | Strategy descriptions | Mean | SD |
|-------------------|-------------|--|------|-------|
| GLOB | 1 | I have a purpose in mind when I read. | 4.41 | 0.780 |
| PROB | 6 | I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading. | 4.37 | 0.863 |
| PROB | 22 | When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding. | 4.33 | 0.902 |
| PROB | 13 | When the text becomes difficult, I pay close attention to what I am reading. | 4.32 | 0.874 |
| GLOB | 3 | I think about what I know to help me understand what I read. | 4.25 | 0.933 |
| PROB | 24 | When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases. | 4.10 | 0.866 |
| PROB | 10 | I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading. | 4.07 | 0.830 |

Table 4.3 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use in Descending Order
(of high-proficiency readers only) (Cont.)

(N=32)

| Strategy category | Survey Item | Strategy descriptions | Mean | SD |
|-------------------|-------------|---|------|-------|
| PROB | 8 | I try to get back on track when I lose concentration. | 4.04 | 0.921 |
| GLOB | 18 | I critically analyse and evaluate the information presented in the text. | 3.97 | 0.799 |
| GLOB | 20 | I check my information when I come across new information. | 3.94 | 0.926 |
| GLOB | 11 | When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore. | 3.92 | 0.839 |
| PROB | 14 | I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading. | 3.91 | 0.966 |
| SUP | 9 | I underline or circle information in the text to help me understand. | 3.86 | 0.935 |
| GLOB | 21 | I try to guess what the context of the text is about when I read. | 3.82 | 0.981 |
| SUP | 19 | I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it. | 3.79 | 1.031 |
| GLOB | 17 | I use typographical features like boldface and italics to identify key information. | 3.79 | 0.944 |
| PROB | 16 | I try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read. | 3.77 | 1.053 |
| GLOB | 4 | I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it. | 3.74 | 1.163 |
| SUP | 2 | I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read. | 3.70 | 1.084 |

Table 4.3 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use in Descending Order
(of high-proficiency readers only) (Cont.)

(N=32)

| Strategy category | Survey Item | Strategy descriptions | Mean | SD |
|-------------------|-------------|---|------|-------|
| SUP | 15 | I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I read. | 3.65 | 1.202 |
| GLOB | 12 | I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading. | 3.59 | 1.197 |
| GLOB | 25 | When reading, I translate from English into my native language. | 3.55 | 1.136 |
| SUP | 5 | When the text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read. | 3.49 | 1.284 |
| GLOB | 7 | I review the text first by noting its characteristics and organisation. | 3.45 | 1.310 |
| SUP | 23 | I check to see if my guesses about the texts are right or wrong. | 3.34 | 1.289 |
| | | OVERALL MEAN and STANDARD DEVIATION | 3.89 | 1.004 |

The overall average of 3.89 for the twenty-five items indicates again that the students typically perceive themselves as using a variety of strategies while reading English texts. The top five strategies that the high-proficiency readers reported generally using most while reading in English are: (GLOB1), “I have a purpose in mind when I read” (M=4.41; SD=0.780); (PROB6), “I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading” (M=4.37;SD=0.863); (PROB22), “When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding” (M=4.33; SD=0.902); (PROB13), “When the text becomes difficult, I pay close attention to what I am reading” (M=4.32; SD=0.874); and (GLOB3), “I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.” (M=4.25; SD=0.933).

The last five strategies, on the other hand, that the high-proficiency readers reported generally using least while reading in English are: (GLOB12), “I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.” (M=3.59; SD=1.197); (GLOB25), “When reading, I translate from English into my native language.” (M=3.55; SD=1.136); (SUP5), “When the text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.” (M=3.49; SD=1.284), (GLOB7) “I review the text first by noting its characteristics and organisation” (M=3.45; SD=1.310); and (SUP23), “I check to see if my guesses about the texts are right or wrong.” (M=3.34; SD=1.289)

Table 4.4 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use per Category in Descending Order (of high-proficiency readers only)

(N=32)

| Level | Survey Item # | Global reading strategies | Mean | SD |
|-------|---------------|---|------|-------|
| High | 1 | I have a purpose in mind when I read. | 4.41 | 0.780 |
| High | 3 | I think about what I know to help me understand what I read. | 4.25 | 0.933 |
| High | 18 | I critically analyse and evaluate the information presented in the text. | 3.97 | 0.799 |
| High | 20 | I check my information when I come across new information. | 3.94 | 0.926 |
| High | 11 | When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore. | 3.92 | 0.839 |
| High | 21 | I try to guess what the context of the text is about when I read. | 3.82 | 0.981 |
| High | 17 | I use typographical features like boldface and italics to identify key information. | 3.79 | 0.944 |
| High | 4 | I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it. | 3.74 | 1.163 |

Table 4.4 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use per Category in Descending Order (of high-proficiency readers only) (Cont.)

(N=32)

| Level | Survey Item # | Global reading strategies | Mean | SD |
|----------|---------------|--|------|-------|
| Moderate | 12 | I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading. | 3.59 | 1.197 |
| Moderate | 25 | When reading, I translate from English into my native language. | 3.55 | 1.136 |
| Moderate | 7 | I review the text first by noting its characteristics and organisation. | 3.45 | 1.310 |
| High | 6 | I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading. | 4.37 | 0.863 |
| High | 22 | When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding. | 4.33 | 0.902 |
| High | 13 | When the text becomes difficult, I pay close attention to what I am reading. | 4.32 | 0.874 |
| High | 24 | When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases. | 4.10 | 0.866 |
| High | 10 | I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading. | 4.07 | 0.830 |
| High | 8 | I try to get back on track when I lose concentration. | 4.04 | 0.921 |
| High | 14 | I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading. | 3.91 | 0.966 |
| High | 16 | I try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read. | 3.77 | 1.053 |
| High | 9 | I underline or circle information in the text to help me understand. | 3.86 | 0.935 |
| High | 19 | I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it. | 3.79 | 1.031 |

Table 4.4 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use per Category in Descending Order (of high-proficiency readers only) (Cont.)

(N=32)

| Level | Survey Item # | Global reading strategies | Mean | SD |
|----------|---------------|---|------|-------|
| High | 2 | I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read. | 3.70 | 1.084 |
| High | 15 | I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I read. | 3.65 | 1.202 |
| Moderate | 5 | When the text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read. | 3.49 | 1.284 |
| Moderate | 23 | I check to see if my guesses about the texts are right or wrong. | 3.34 | 1.289 |
| | | OVERALL MEAN and STANDARD DEVIATION | 3.89 | 1.004 |

As shown in Table 4.4 above, 8 of the 20 strategies that fell in the high usage group (mean of 3.6 or above) were global reading strategies; 8 were problem-solving strategies; and 4 were support strategies. In the moderate group, strategy use shifted to 3 of 11 global strategies and 2 of 6 support strategies.

Out of the ten most used strategies, 4 were global reading strategies, while 6 were problem-solving strategies but none were support reading strategies. That means this group of students use strategies to solve their problems more than using strategies to support their reading.

For global reading strategies, students did not use context clues to help them better understand what they were reading. They did not translate into their native language and they did not review the text by noting characteristics and organisation.

Table 4.5 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use in Descending Order
(of low-proficiency readers only)

(N=32)

| Strategy category | Survey Item # | Strategy descriptions | Mean | SD |
|-------------------|---------------|---|------|-------|
| PROB | 6 | I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading. | 4.16 | 0.788 |
| PROB | 16 | I try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read. | 4.14 | 0.853 |
| SUP | 15 | I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I read. | 4.12 | 0.790 |
| PROB | 24 | When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases. | 4.10 | 0.871 |
| PROB | 22 | When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding. | 4.05 | 0.953 |
| SUP | 2 | I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read. | 4.01 | 0.890 |
| SUP | 9 | I underline or circle information in the text to help me understand. | 3.97 | 0.923 |
| GLOB | 25 | When reading, I translate from English into my native language. | 3.96 | 0.956 |
| PROB | 8 | I try to get back on track when I lose concentration. | 3.94 | 0.873 |
| GLOB | 1 | I have a purpose in mind when I read | 3.91 | 0.932 |
| GLOB | 3 | I think about what I know to help me understand what I read. | 3.82 | 1.036 |
| GLOB | 21 | I try to guess what the context of the text is about when I read. | 3.79 | 0.976 |
| PROB | 14 | I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading. | 3.74 | 1.008 |

Table 4.5 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use in Descending Order
(of low-proficiency readers only) (Cont.)

(N=32)

| Strategy category | Survey Item # | Strategy descriptions | Mean | SD |
|-------------------|---------------|---|------|--------|
| GLOB | 18 | I critically analyse and evaluate the information presented in the text. | 3.72 | 1.076 |
| GLOB | 20 | I check my information when I come across new information. | 3.70 | 1.152. |
| PROB | 10 | I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading. | 3.64 | 1.189 |
| PROB | 13 | When the text becomes difficult, I pay close attention to what I am reading. | 3.62 | 1.143 |
| SUP | 19 | I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it. | 3.56 | 1.084 |
| GLOB | 4 | I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it. | 3.52 | 1.120 |
| GLOB | 11 | When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore. | 3.42 | 1.204 |
| SUP | 23 | I check to see if my guesses about the texts are right or wrong. | 3.40 | 1.237 |
| SUP | 5 | When the text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read. | 3.37 | 1.304 |
| GLOB | 12 | I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading. | 3.32 | 1.271 |
| GLOB | 17 | I use typographical features like boldface and italics to identify key information. | 3.25 | 1.356 |
| GLOB | 7 | I review the text first by noting its characteristics and organisation. | 3.20 | 1.329 |
| | | OVERALL MEAN and STANDARD DEVIATION | 3.73 | 1.048 |

The overall average of 3.73 for the twenty-five items indicates yet again that the students typically perceive themselves as using a variety of strategies while reading English texts. However, the top five strategies that the low-proficiency readers reported generally using most while reading in English are: (PROB6), “I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading.” (M=4.16; SD=0.788); (PROB16), “I try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read.” (M=4.14; SD=0.853); (SUP15), “I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I read.” (M=4.12; SD=0.790); (PROB24), “When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.” (M=4.10; SD=0.871); and (PROB22), “When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding.” (M=4.05; SD=0.953).

The last five strategies, on the other hand, that the low-proficiency readers reported generally using least while reading in English are: (SUP23), “I check to see if my guesses about the texts are right or wrong.” (M=3.40; SD=1.237); (SUP5), “When the text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.” (M=3.37; SD=1.304); (GLOB12), “I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.” (M=3.32; SD=1.271), (GLOB17) “I use typographical features like boldface and italics to identify key information” (M=3.25; SD=1.356); and (GLOB7), “I review the text first by noting its characteristics and organisation.” (M=3.20; SD=1.329).

Table 4.6 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use per Category in Descending Order (of low-proficiency readers only)

(N=32)

| Level | Survey Item # | Global reading strategies | Mean | SD |
|----------|---------------|---|------|-------|
| High | 25 | When reading, I translate from English into my native language. | 3.96 | 0.956 |
| High | 1 | I have a purpose in mind when I read | 3.91 | 0.932 |
| High | 3 | I think about what I know to help me understand what I read. | 3.82 | 1.036 |
| High | 21 | I try to guess what the context of the text is about when I read. | 3.79 | 0.976 |
| High | 18 | I critically analyse and evaluate the information presented in the text. | 3.72 | 1.076 |
| High | 20 | I check my information when I come across new information. | 3.70 | 1.152 |
| Moderate | 4 | I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it. | 3.52 | 1.120 |
| Moderate | 11 | When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore. | 3.42 | 1.204 |
| Moderate | 12 | I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading. | 3.32 | 1.271 |
| Moderate | 17 | I use typographical features like boldface and italics to identify key information. | 3.25 | 1.356 |
| Moderate | 7 | I review the text first by noting its characteristics and organisation. | 3.20 | 1.329 |
| High | 6 | I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading. | 4.16 | 0.788 |
| High | 16 | I try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read. | 4.14 | 0.853 |

Table 4.6 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use per Category in Descending Order (of low-proficiency readers only) (Cont.)

(N=32)

| Level | Survey Item # | Global reading strategies | Mean | SD |
|----------|---------------|---|------|-------|
| High | 24 | When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases. | 4.10 | 0.871 |
| High | 22 | When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding. | 4.05 | 0.953 |
| High | 8 | I try to get back on track when I lose concentration. | 3.94 | 0.873 |
| High | 14 | I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading. | 3.74 | 1.008 |
| High | 10 | I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading. | 3.64 | 1.189 |
| High | 13 | When the text becomes difficult, I pay close attention to what I am reading. | 3.62 | 1.143 |
| High | 15 | I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I read. | 4.12 | 0.790 |
| High | 2 | I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read. | 4.01 | 0.890 |
| High | 9 | I underline or circle information in the text to help me understand. | 3.97 | 0.923 |
| Moderate | 19 | I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it. | 3.56 | 1.084 |
| Moderate | 23 | I check to see if my guesses about the texts are right or wrong. | 3.40 | 1.237 |
| Moderate | 5 | When the text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read. | 3.37 | 1.304 |
| | | OVERALL MEAN and STANDARD DEVIATION | 3.73 | 1.048 |

As shown in Table 4.6 below, only 6 of the 17 strategies that fell in the high usage group (mean of 3.6 or above) were global reading strategies; 8 were problem-solving strategies; and 3 were support strategies. In the moderate group, strategy use shifted to 5 of 11 global strategies and 3 of 6 support strategies.

4.2 Findings from the Background/Personal Questionnaire

The Background/Personal Questionnaires which were filled out during the interviews were analysed and out came the Profiles of two groups of readers—High Proficient Readers and Low Proficient Readers to find out the ways they were exposed to English learning.

Table 4.7 Profiles of High-proficient Readers

| Student | A | B | C | D |
|---------------------------|---|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Age and Gender | 17 years old female | 16 years old, female | 17 years old, male | 17 years old, female, |
| Hours of Studying English | studying 6 lessons per week | studying English 6 periods every week | studying 6 periods every week | studying English every day |
| Self-rating | moderate to high in English reading ability | moderate in English reading ability | moderate in English reading ability. | |

Table 4.7 Profiles of High-proficient Readers (Cont.)

| Student | A | B | C | D |
|------------------|---|---|---|---|
| Ways of Practice | <p>--She practices her English whenever she has time.</p> <p>--She enjoys speaking English with her friends in the classroom to get more practice</p> | <p>--She enjoys watching Netflix movies or YouTube or listening to western music.</p> | <p>--She usually searched for information on the Internet when she didn't understand anything.</p> <p>--She also watched foreign YouTube movies and liked to watch soundtrack movies.</p> | <p>--She tried to remember vocabulary and looked up words She didn't know before the lesson.</p> <p>--She also talked with the teacher a lot. She spoke English with my friends and tried to remember vocabulary.</p> <p>--She also watched English movies.</p> |

Table 4.7 Profiles of High-proficient Readers (Cont.)

| Student | A | B | C | D |
|----------------|---|---|---|--|
| Difficulties | --She finds vocabulary difficult | --She thinks grammar is very difficult --Sometimes her teacher speaks too fast and also the teachers are often very serious. | She tried to understand many different accents but for accents that she never heard before such as Korean accent that I can't understand. | --She couldn't remember vocabulary. -- -She believed that the situation was good. |
| How to Improve | --She has to be more confident when speaking and try to speak more naturally. She listens carefully and speaks English in daily life. For example, when she is at home or out with friends socializing or shopping. | | --She believed that the situation was good and everyone improved their English very well. | |

Interpretation

It is obvious that this group had a common age range, one 16 years old and the other three, 17 years old. They had the same hours of English at school. They did not think they were good at English. For English learning strategies, they tried to make the best use of their time and opportunities to practice their English, for example, talking to friends in English, watching movies or YouTube Clips as well as looking up unfamiliar words in the dictionary. In other words, these students picked up their own strategies for use.

Table 4.8 Profiles of Low-proficient Readers

| Student | E | F | G | H |
|------------------------------|--|--|---|---|
| Age and Gender | 17 years old female | 17 years old, female | 17 years old, female | 17 years old, male |
| Hours of Studying English | studying 6 lessons per week | studying English 6 periods every week | studying 6 periods every week | studying 6 periods every week |
| Self-rating | moderate in English reading ability | poor in English reading ability. | moderate in English reading ability. | |
| Ways of Practice | --She could learn in class more and when she didn't understand. | --She studied hard and tried to speak English with others. | --She believed that the situation was good and everyone was trying to improve their English. | --He tried to remember vocabulary and looked up words that he didn't know before the lesson. |

Table 4.8 Profiles of Low-proficient Readers (Cont.)

| Student | E | F | G | H |
|--------------|---|--|--|---|
| | --She raised her hand when she didn't understand something. | | -- She used a dictionary and Google Translate. --She watched movies --She had extra classes to study more than ever. --In some subjects there was a lot of homework which she thought was good for her. | --He also talked with the teacher a lot. --He spoke English with friends and tried to remember vocabulary. --He also watched English movies. --He was more confident when he spoke English in his classroom. |
| Difficulties | --She didn't know the meaning of many words. | --She thought grammar was very hard. --She wanted more games and more learning. | --Sometimes she didn't understand and found English very difficult. | |

Table 4.8 Profiles of Low-proficient Readers (Cont.)

| Student | E | F | G | H |
|----------------|--|----|----|---|
| | <p>--When some teachers spoke she didn't understand. She believed that the situation was good.</p> | | | |
| How to Improve | <p>She has to be more confident when speaking and try to speak more naturally. She listens carefully and speaks English in daily life. For example, when she is at home or out with friends socializing or shopping.</p> | -- | -- | |

Interpretation

It is obvious that this group had a common age range, all 17 years old. They had the same hours of English at school. One thought he was poor at English. For English learning strategies, they tried to make the best use of their time and opportunities to practice their English, for example, talking to the teachers in English, watching movies as well as looking up unfamiliar words in the dictionary. In other words, these students picked up their own strategies for use. However, they tended to depend on the teachers and taught lessons. Thus, one indicator of difference between the two groups was that they were not truly independent learners.

4.3 Summary of Findings and Discussion

Research Question One: What are the reading comprehension strategies which Thai Grade 12 students use in EFL reading?

Using the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS), I wanted to determine the types of reading strategies Thai grade 12 students report using when reading academic texts in English. Data analysis revealed that these students reported reading strategies use, as measured by the SORS statements, range from high (20 of the 25 reading strategies with $M = 3.6$ or above) to moderate (5 of the 25 reading strategies with $M = 2.4$ to 3.5).

As a group, the research participants reported using global strategies more frequently than problem-solving and support strategies. In contrast, the students reported using problem-solving and support strategies only moderately to address comprehension problems that arise while reading. This relatively infrequent use of support strategies at first seems inconsistent with other studies such as Sheorey and Mokhtari's (2001). (Sheorey and Mokhtari, 2001, p. 102). Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001), studying undergraduate English language learners ($n=152$), found ELL "students attribute high value to support reading strategies regardless of their abilities" (Sheorey and Mokhtari, 2001, p. 445). Unlike the participants of this study,

the participants in Sheorey and Mokhtari's (2001) study were undergraduates. The difference in age, maturity, school, and life experiences might well account for the shift away from support reading strategies seen in this study's school student sample (n=8). Perhaps, the research participants use support strategies only as a last resort when global and problem-solving strategies do not work and comprehension is failing.

Research Question Two: What are the reading comprehension strategies used by Thai Grade 12 students who are either high-proficiency or low-proficiency EFL readers?

High-proficiency Readers

Using the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS), I wanted to determine the types of reading strategies Thai grade 12 students who are considered to be high-proficiency readers report using when reading academic texts in English. Data analysis revealed that these students reported reading strategies use, as measured by the SORS statements, range from high (20 of the 25 reading strategies with $M = 3.6$ or above) to moderate (5 of the 25 reading strategies with $M = 2.4$ to 3.5). This is statistically the same ratio as both high and low-proficiency readers combined, as can be seen in Table 2.

The overall average of 3.89 for the twenty-five items indicates again that the students typically perceive themselves as using a variety of strategies while reading English texts. The top five strategies that the high-proficiency readers reported generally using most while reading in English are: (GLOB1), "I have a purpose in mind when I read" ($M=4.41$; $SD=0.780$); (PROB6), "I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading" ($M=4.37$; $SD=0.863$); (PROB22), "When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding" ($M=4.33$; $SD=0.902$); (PROB13), "When the text becomes difficult, I pay close attention to what I am reading" ($M=4.32$; $SD=0.874$); and (GLOB3), "I think about what I know to help me understand what I read." ($M=4.25$; $SD=0.933$).

The next five strategies, on the other hand, that the high-proficiency readers reported generally using least while reading in English are: (GLOB12), “I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.” (M=3.59; SD=1.197); (GLOB25), “When reading, I translate from English into my native language.” (M=3.55; SD=1.136); (SUP5), “When the text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.” (M=3.49; SD=1.284), (GLOB7) “I review the text first by noting its characteristics and organisation” (M=3.45; SD=1.310); and (SUP23), “I check to see if my guesses about the texts are right or wrong.” (M=3.34; SD=1.289).

These results are quite different from the results found in the combined low and high-proficiency statistics. It can be stated that high-proficiency readers rely predominantly on Global and Problem strategies with very little reliance placed on Support strategies.

As shown in Table 4, 8 of the 20 strategies that fell in the high usage group (mean of 3.6 or above) were global reading strategies; 8 were problem-solving strategies; and 4 were support strategies. In the moderate group, strategy use shifted to 3 of 11 global strategies and 2 of 6 support strategies.

Low-proficiency Readers

Using the same Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS), I wanted to determine the types of reading strategies Thai grade 12 students who are considered to be low-proficiency readers report using when reading academic texts in English. Data analysis revealed that these students reported reading strategies use, as measured by the SORS statements, range from high (17 of the 25 reading strategies with M = 3.6 or above) to moderate (8 of the 25 reading strategies with M = 2.4 to 3.5). This is statistically different from the combined results of both high and low-proficiency readers combined, as can be seen in Table 2 and also the results found in the Table 4 for the high-proficiency readers. It can be seen that low-proficiency readers use reading strategies with less frequency than high-proficiency readers. It can also be seen that low-proficiency readers use Problem and in particular Support strategies far

more frequently than Global strategies, as contrasted with high-proficiency readers who relied far more frequently on Global and Problem strategies.

The overall average of 3.73 for the twenty-five items indicates yet again that the students typically perceive themselves as using a variety of strategies while reading English texts. However, the top five strategies that the low-proficiency readers reported generally using most while reading in English are: (PROB6), “I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading.” (M=4.16; SD=0.788); (PROB16), “I try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read.” (M=4.14; SD=0.853); (SUP15), “I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I read.” (M=4.12; SD=0.790); (PROB24), “When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.” (M=4.10; SD=0.871); and (PROB22), “When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding.” (M=4.05; SD=0.953).

The next five strategies, on the other hand, that the low-proficiency readers reported generally using least while reading in English are: (SUP23), “I check to see if my guesses about the texts are right or wrong.” (M=3.40; SD=1.237); (SUP5), “When the text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.” (M=3.37; SD=1.304); (GLOB12), “I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.” (M=3.32; SD=1.271), (GLOB17) “I use typographical features like boldface and italics to identify key information” (M=3.25; SD=1.356); and (GLOB7), “I review the text first by noting its characteristics and organisation.” (M=3.20; SD=1.329).

As shown in Table 6, only 6 of the 17 strategies that fell in the high usage group (mean of 3.6 or above) were global reading strategies; 8 were problem-solving strategies; and 3 were support strategies. In the moderate group, strategy use shifted to 5 of 11 global strategies and 3 of 6 support strategies.

4.4 Conclusion

From the results attained from the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) I have concluded the following:

1) As a group, (both high and low-proficiency readers), the research participants reported using global strategies more frequently than problem-solving and support strategies. In contrast, the students reported using problem-solving and support strategies only moderately to address comprehension problems that arise while reading.

2) Data analysis revealed that the combined group of students reported reading strategies use, as measured by the SORS statements, range from high (20 of the 25 reading strategies with $M = 3.6$ or above) to moderate (5 of the 25 reading strategies with $M = 2.4$ to 3.5).

3) High-proficiency readers rely predominantly on global and problem-solving strategies with very little reliance placed on support strategies whereas low-proficiency readers use reading strategies with less frequency than high-proficiency readers. It can also be seen that low-proficiency readers use problem-solving and in particular support strategies far more frequently than global strategies, as contrasted with high-proficiency readers who relied far more frequently on global and problem-solving strategies.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was conducted to investigate several aspects of reading strategy use by Thai EFL learners. The study first identified the reading strategies that are most frequently used by Thai Grade 12 students, based on their responses to a five-point Likert scale survey of 25 reading strategies. In addition, strategy use was examined in view of high-proficiency readers and low-proficiency readers, based on their reading comprehension scores taken from 8 reading comprehension passages. The current chapter provides a discussion of the findings, the implications as well as the limitations of the study, recommendations for future research and conclusion. It also presents the analysis of the research findings from the two research instruments used during the study: the semi-structured interview (personal questionnaire) and the reading strategy questionnaire. In the last part of the chapter, how good students and poor students read and the reading strategies is described.

5.1 Discussion

The following research questions are central to this study:

- 1) What are the reading comprehension strategies which Thai Grade 12 students they use in EFL reading?
- 2) What are the reading comprehension strategies used by Thai Grade 12 students who are either high-proficiency or low-proficiency EFL readers?

5.1.1 Responses to Research Question 1

One of the present study's interests, as stated in research question 1, was to discover the most frequently used reading strategies by Thai learners of English. Findings for these research questions are further discussed in this section.

Based on the frequency statistics, it appears that Thai Grade 12 students have a metacognitive awareness of the reading process to some extent and employ reading strategies quite frequently. The fairly high use of reading strategies by Thai students could be a result of their relatively long-term English education. At the time of the study, all participants had studied English for between five and eight years

Among the three types of reading strategies investigated by this study, problem-solving strategies were the most frequently employed by the participants, with a mean frequency of a relative high rate ($M=4.06$). Global reading strategies were next in the frequency of use, yielding a frequency rate of ($M=3.74$). Support reading strategies were used at the lowest level of frequency amounting to a total mean score of 3.54.

In other similarly conducted research, other foreign language learners appear also to favour problem-solving strategies. In particular, Typamas (2012) found that Thai adult English learners preferred problem solving strategies the most, global strategies the second and support strategies the least. Likewise, Moroccan EFL students (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2004), Indian EFL learners (Madhumathi & Ghosh, 2012), also reported the most frequent use of cognitive strategies. This study also examined Thai Grade students' preferences for individual reading strategies. None of the 25 individual reading strategies were reported as being used at a low frequency by the students and interestingly 20 of the strategies had a high usage. Table 7 below summarises the most and least preferred reading strategies by Thai Grade 12 students.

Table 5.1 The most and least frequently used reading strategies by Thai Grade 12 students

| Most frequently used strategies | Mean | Frequency |
|---|------|-----------|
| Re-reading the text to increase understanding | 4.36 | High |
| Having a purpose in mind when reading | 4.30 | High |
| Reading slowly and carefully | 4.28 | High |
| Getting back on track when losing concentration | 4.25 | High |
| Least frequently used strategies | 2.47 | Medium |
| Using tables, figures, and pictures | | |
| Using context clues to better understand | 3.32 | Medium |
| Reading aloud when the text becomes difficult | 3.23 | Medium |

As presented in Table 5.1 below, the highest frequency of use was reported in relation to a problem-solving strategy, namely, when the text becomes difficult students would re-read the text to increase their understanding ($M=4.36$), followed by a global reading strategy, having a purpose in mind when reading ($M=4.30$), and two problem-solving strategies, reading slowly and carefully to make sure they understand what they are reading ($M=4.28$) and trying to get back on track when losing concentration ($M=4.25$). On the other hand, two support reading strategies, checking to see if their guesses about the text were right or wrong ($M=3.32$) and reading aloud to help them understand what they are reading when the text becomes difficult ($M=3.23$) and one global strategy, using context clues to help them better understand what they are reading ($M=3.32$) were the three least preferred strategies used by Thai Grade 12 learners of English.

Table 5.2 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use in Descending Order
(of both high and low-proficiency readers)

(N=64)

| Strategy Category | Survey Item # | Strategy Descriptions | Mean | S.D. |
|-------------------|---------------|--|------|-------|
| PROB | 22 | When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding. | 4.36 | .740 |
| GLOB | 1 | I have a purpose in mind when I read | 4.30 | .749 |
| PROB | 6 | I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading. | 4.28 | .744 |
| PROB | 8 | I try to get back on track when I lose concentration. | 4.25 | .963 |
| PROB | 24 | When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases. | 4.10 | .882 |
| PROB | 13 | When the text becomes difficult, I pay close attention to what I am reading. | 3.97 | .873 |
| GLOB | 20 | I check my information when I come across new information. | 3.97 | .858 |
| PROB | 14 | I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading. | 3.97 | .954 |
| GLOB | 3 | I think about what I know to help me understand what I read. | 3.88 | 1.163 |
| GLOB | 21 | I try to guess what the context of the text is about when I read. | 3.84 | .996 |
| PROB | 10 | I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading. | 3.83 | .982 |
| GLOB | 18 | I critically analyse and evaluate the information presented in the text. | 3.78 | .825 |
| PROB | 16 | I try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read. | 3.77 | .958 |

Table 5.2 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use in Descending Order
(of both high and low-proficiency readers) (Cont.)

(N=64)

| Strategy Category | Survey Item # | Strategy Descriptions | Mean | S.D. |
|-------------------|---------------|---|------|-------|
| GLOB | 11 | When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore. | 3.77 | .994 |
| SUP | 19 | I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it. | 3.74 | 1.018 |
| SUP | 9 | I underline or circle information in the text to help me understand. | 3.74 | .965 |
| GLOB | 17 | I use typographical features like boldface and italics to identify key information. | 3.71 | .998 |
| GLOB | 25 | When reading, I translate from English into my native language. | 3.69 | 1.087 |
| SUP | 15 | I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I read. | 3.60 | 1.091 |
| SUP | 2 | I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read. | 3.60 | 1.041 |
| GLOB | 4 | I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it. | 3.48 | 1.209 |
| GLOB | 7 | I review the text first by noting its characteristics and organisation. | 3.41 | 1.042 |
| SUP | 23 | I check to see if my guesses about the texts are right or wrong. | 3.32 | 1.081 |
| GLOB | 12 | I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading. | 3.32 | 1.174 |
| SUP | 5 | When the text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read. | 3.23 | 1.140 |
| | | OVERALL MEAN and TANDARD DEVIATION | 3.79 | 0.98 |

In contrast to these findings, Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) found that EFL learners studying English in the United States, regardless of their reading ability, made use of support strategies more often than of the two other strategy types. The consistent preference for support strategies among several studies with EFL learners suggests that support strategies still play an important role for some EFL learners.

In comparison with other EFL learners, Thai Grade 12 students both compare and contrast in their use of individual reading strategies. For example, EFL students in a study carried out in India also used reading strategies with a high frequency (Madhumathi & Ghosh, 2012). Similarly, as with Thai EFL students, they most regularly used both *re-reading* and *adjusting the reading speed* and avoided *thinking in both English and their native language* and *translating and using dictionaries to help them understand*. These findings about Thai Grade 12 EFL learners' preference for reading strategies coincide with the results of many prior studies (e.g. Abbott, 2010; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001) that EFL learners who speak different first languages are both similar and different from each other in their preferences for reading strategies. In other words, learners share similar choices of reading strategies; in other ways, they are likely to have different preferences for certain reading strategy types and particular strategies.

5.1.2 Strategy Use by High-Proficiency and Low-Proficiency Readers

A large amount of research into reading strategies has been carried out to examine EFL learners' use of reading strategies and their reading abilities. Several studies (for example, Block, 1986; Carrell, 1989; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001) have established that the more capable EFL learners monitor the reading process and the more frequently they make use of particular reading strategies, the higher reading performances are achieved. Other researchers (e.g. Anderson, 1991; Pang, 2006) have observed that the relation between EFL learners' strategy use and reading capabilities is not straightforward.

In relation to the three categories of reading strategies, this study showed that there are no statistically significant differences between high-proficiency and low-proficiency readers. Therefore, it can be said that, none of the three strategy categories, global, problem-solving and support strategies were found to be significantly associated with Thai Grade students' reading performance. This finding is similar to some prior research involving EFL learners of other first languages, for example, Sheorey, & Mokhtari (2001). In contrast, the results from this study are inconsistent with the findings of other research which have found a notable relationship between EFL learners' strategy use and their reading ability (for example, Barnett, 1988; Zhang, 2001). Furthermore, Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) produced statistically significant correlations between EFL learners' overall use of reading strategies and use of global, problem solving, support strategies and their reading proficiency.

In contrast, however, as observed by Anderson (1991), both high and low-proficiency readers may utilise the same strategies, although the effectiveness of their strategy use may be different. This study compared high and low-proficiency readers mainly on the frequency of strategy use. Therefore, another possibility is that although both high and low-proficiency readers reported a similar frequency of use of the three strategy categories, the effectiveness of their strategy use may be different and may affect their reading proficiency accordingly.

Table 5.3 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use in Descending Order
(of high-proficiency readers only)

(N=32)

| Strategy Category | Survey Item # | Strategy Descriptions | Mean | S.D. |
|-------------------|---------------|--|------|-------|
| GLOB | 1 | I have a purpose in mind when I read. | 4.41 | 0.780 |
| PROB | 6 | I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading. | 4.37 | 0.863 |
| PROB | 22 | When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding. | 4.33 | 0.902 |
| PROB | 13 | When the text becomes difficult, I pay close attention to what I am reading. | 4.32 | 0.874 |
| GLOB | 3 | I think about what I know to help me understand what I read. | 4.25 | 0.933 |

An extract taken from Table 5.3 above, reveals that five strategies were used more frequently by the high-proficiency reading group, including having a purpose in mind when reading (a global reading strategy, SD=0.780), reading slowly and carefully to understand what is being read (a problem-solving strategy, SD =.863), re-reading the text when it becomes difficult to increase understanding (a problem-solving strategy, SD =.902), paying close attention to what is being read when the text becomes difficult (a problem-solving strategy, SD =.874) and thinking about what is already known to help understanding (a global reading strategy, SD=.933).

Table 5.4 General Perceived Reading Strategy Use in Descending Order
(of low-proficiency readers only)

(N=32)

| Strategy Category | Survey Item # | Strategy Descriptions | Mean | S.D. |
|-------------------|---------------|---|------|-------|
| PROB | 6 | I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading. | 4.16 | 0.788 |
| PROB | 16 | I try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read. | 4.14 | 0.853 |
| SUP | 15 | I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I read. | 4.12 | 0.790 |
| PROB | 24 | When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases. | 4.10 | 0.871 |
| PROB | 22 | When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding. | 4.05 | 0.953 |

In contrast, as can be seen in an extract from Table 5.4 above which documents reading strategy use of low-proficiency readers, two problem-solving strategies were used far more frequently, namely, trying to picture or visualise information to help them remember what they were reading (SD = .853) and guessing the meaning of unknown words and phrases when reading (SD = .871). There was also a frequently used support strategy namely, using reference material, for example using dictionaries, to help them understand when they are reading (SD=.790). Similarly and quite interestingly, however, low-proficiency readers reported using two problem-solving strategies that were also in the top five most frequently used strategies by high-proficiency readers, namely, reading slowly and carefully to make sure they understand what they are reading (SD=.788) and re-reading difficult text to increase their understanding (SD=.953).

These results tend to confirm that both high and low-proficiency readers differ in their use of certain reading strategies even though they may not differ in their overall use of global, support, and problem-solving strategies. Obviously, this fact points at the need for further research and comparisons between high and low-proficiency readers and their use of individual reading strategies. If a sufficient number of studies research this issue, then it may be possible to identify the strategies that are more closely associated with high and low-proficiency rather than differences in educational and cultural backgrounds.

5.2 Implications

As the use of reading strategies is fundamental in understanding and comprehending academic texts in English, the results of this study have a number of implications for both learners and teachers in EFL classrooms:

1) EFL teachers can use the SORS or a modified SORS version to create student awareness of additional reading strategies that their students were not familiar with before. This will assist students to learn extra reading strategies that make these students comprehend and understand English school texts more successfully.

2) Teachers can use the SORS or a modified SORS version to survey their students' reading strategies use in the classroom. They can then use the survey results analysis to identify which reading strategies their students use to understand academic texts in English.

3) Teachers can then learn from the results to establish whether their students use "poor" reading strategies and can then work on designing in-class reading instruction that assist these students to avoid using less helpful reading strategies and to assist them in learning to use more beneficial, skilled reading strategies.

4) EFL teachers are able to read SORS research from different school contexts and learn from these studies. These studies may provide an insight as to why their students are struggling with reading.

5) EFL learners can learn from this research that students learning another language will use reading strategies differently. Skilled readers are more proficient readers because they read for longer periods of time in their academic programs and

probably because of their own interest in reading. Poor readers also read differently, but if less proficient readers wish to read as skillfully as more proficient readers, they will need to learn from skilled readers how to read effectively and how to improve their own reading abilities.

5.3 Limitations of the Study

There were several limitations of the study that became apparent during the research procedure. These were as follows:

- 1) The research did not include other classes, that is other grades ranging from Grade 1 to Grade 11 students.
- 2) Only one school was used for the research study.
- 3) The sample in this study deals with small sample size.
- 4) The study concentrated on only one province in Thailand, Pathum Thani province.
- 5) The present study is limited to the current situation and does not take in to account the possible situation in the future.
- 6) The learning strategies employed in 2nd language reading do not include the strategies

5.4 Recommendations for Future Research

The SORS is a useful tool for surveying reading strategies of school students and collecting data. It has been field-tested and appraised for its content. Yet, researchers should think ahead whether they want to use Mokhtari and Sheorey's original SORS (2002) or they want to use a modified SORS version before they administer the survey to their research participants. In addition to this the following recommendations should also be considered.

- 1) The researcher surveyed how Thai students perceive themselves using reading strategies when they read academic texts in English. Further research should survey which reading strategies Thai students perceive using when reading Thai texts.

This information would confirm and/or not confirm the theory of “transfer of reading strategies” from reading in Thai into reading in English.

2) It would be useful to research if Thai students’ oral language proficiencies affect their use of reading strategies when reading academic English text. These results might help explaining the target language proficiency’s role in using reading strategies in the target language.

3) It would be useful to assess which reading strategies Thai students use when reading texts of different lengths, difficulties, and topics.

4) This study could also be repeated with another group of students. Or perhaps a future study could focus on general learning strategies or even digital learning strategies.

5) Finally, it would be useful to conduct a think-aloud study by randomly selecting a few survey participants to uncover how Thai readers read and understand academic texts in English and to help them in becoming strategic readers.

5.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, teachers should take into consideration the differences in learning styles among students and enhance students’ learning strategies for their successful learning. When teachers are aware of the importance of learning styles, they can provide a good map to their students. Moreover, it is important to enable students to be self-aware of both style and strategies. Students who know their learning style preferences are able to build their self-confidence that can reinforce their willingness to be risk-takers.

As well as students, teachers play a critical role in the teaching/learning process. The researcher recommended further investigation into teaching and learning styles. Further research related to their classroom learning styles should be done in order to improve the quality of high school education.

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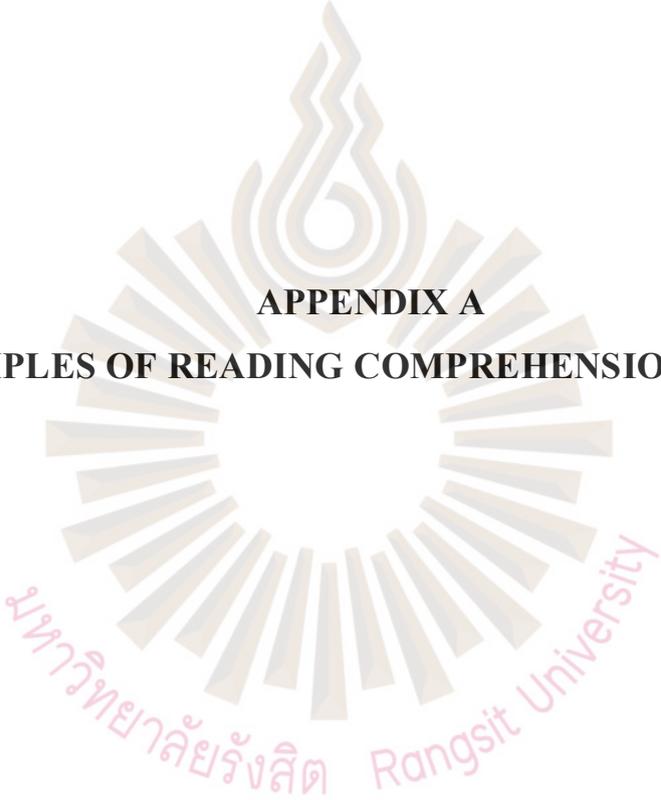
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APPENDICES



The image features a large, faint watermark of the Rangsit University logo in the background. The logo consists of a central flame-like symbol above a circular arrangement of radiating lines, with the university's name in Thai and English below it.

APPENDIX A
SAMPLES OF READING COMPREHENSION TESTS

Reading Comprehension 1

When we are young, we learn that tigers and sharks are dangerous animals. We might be scared of them because they are big and powerful. As we get older, however, we learn that sometimes the most dangerous animals are also the smallest animals. In fact, the animal that kills the most people every year is one that you have probably killed yourself many times: the mosquito.

While it may seem that all mosquitoes are biters, this is not actually the case. Male mosquitoes

eat plant nectar. On the other hand, female mosquitoes feed on animal blood. They need this blood to live and produce eggs. When a female mosquito bites a human being, it transmits a small amount of saliva into the blood. This saliva may or may not contain a deadly disease. The result of the bite can be as minor as an itchy bump or as serious as death.

Because a mosquito can bite many people in the course of its life, it can carry diseases from one person to another very easily. Two of the most deadly diseases carried by mosquitoes are malaria and yellow fever. More than 700 million people become sick from these diseases every year. At least 2 million of these people will die from these diseases.

Many scientists are working on safer and better ways to kill mosquitoes, but so far, there is no sure way to protect everyone in the world from their deadly bites. Mosquito nets can be placed over beds to protect people against being bitten. These nets help people stay safe at night, but they do not kill any mosquitoes. Mosquitoes have many natural enemies like bats, birds, dragonflies, and certain kinds of fish. Bringing more of these animals into places where mosquitoes live might help to cut down the amount of mosquitoes in that area. This is a natural solution, but it does not always work very well. Mosquitoes can also be killed with poisons or sprays. Even though these sprays kill mosquitoes, they may also harm other plants or animals.

Although mosquitoes may not seem as scary as larger, more powerful animals, they are far more dangerous to human beings. But things are changing. It is highly likely that one day scientists will find a way to keep everyone safe from mosquitoes and the diseases they carry.

Questions

- 1) According to the author, some people are more afraid of tigers and sharks than mosquitoes because tigers and sharks
- A. kill more people than mosquitoes
 - B. are big and powerful
 - C. are found all over the world
 - D. have no natural enemies
- 2) Based on the information in paragraph 2, we can understand that
- I. male mosquitoes and female mosquitoes have different eating habits
 - II. male mosquitoes are harmless to humans
 - III. female mosquitoes are responsible for transmitting diseases to humans
- A. I only
 - B. I and II only
 - C. II and III only
 - D. I, II, and III
- 3) In paragraph 2 the author writes, "This saliva may or may not contain a deadly disease." The purpose of this statement is to
- A. oppose a previous argument
 - B. question an upcoming conclusion
 - C. confirm a hypothesis
 - D. support a later statement
- 4) As used in paragraph 2, **minor** most nearly means
- A. insignificant
 - B. deadly
 - C. frustrating
 - D. dangerous

- 5) Based on information in paragraph 3, it can be understood that if you get sick with malaria or yellow fever, your chances of survival are
- A. terrible
 - B. mediocre
 - C. good
 - D. excellent
- 6) It can be understood that the introduction of dragonflies might reduce the number of flies in a given area because dragonflies
- A. work together with mosquitoes
 - B. kill mosquitoes
 - C. cannot be killed by poisons or sprays
 - D. attract bats
- 7) Which of the following best summarizes the information in paragraph 4?
- A. Mosquito nets provide adequate protection from deadly mosquitoes.
 - B. Poisons and sprays provide adequate protection from deadly mosquitoes.
 - C. The introduction of the mosquito's natural enemies provides adequate protection from deadly mosquitoes.
 - D. There is no perfect solution to the mosquito problem.
- 8) Which of the following words best describes the author's overall attitude towards the prospect of solving the mosquito problem?
- A. *despondent*, meaning hopeless or dejected
 - B. *exasperated*, meaning extremely irritated or annoyed
 - C. *equivocal*, meaning doubtful or uncertain
 - D. *optimistic*, meaning hopeful or taking a favorable view

Reading Comprehension 2

It is bad to have food stuck between your teeth for long periods of time. This is because food attracts germs, germs produce acid, and acid hurts your teeth and gums. Flossing helps to remove the food that gets stuck between your teeth. This explains why flossing helps to keep your mouth healthy, but some doctors say that flossing can be also good for your heart.

It may seem strange that something you do for your teeth can have any effect on your heart. Doctors have come up with a few ideas about how flossing works to keep your heart healthy. One idea is that the germs that hurt your teeth can leave the mouth and travel into your blood. Germs that get into the blood can then attack your heart. Another idea is based on the fact that when there are too many germs in your mouth, the body tries to fight against these germs. For some reason, the way the body fights these mouth germs may end up weakening the heart over time.

Not every doctor agrees about these ideas. Some doctors think that the link between good flossing habits and good heart health is only a coincidence. A coincidence is the occurrence of two or more events at one time apparently by mere chance. The incidence of these events is completely random, as they do not admit of any reliable cause and effect relationship between them. For example, every time I wash my car, it rains. This does not mean that when I wash my car, I somehow change the weather. This is only a coincidence. Likewise, some doctors think that people who have bad flossing

habits just happen to also have heart problems, and people who have good flossing habits just happen to have healthy hearts.

The theory that flossing your teeth helps to keep your heart healthy might not be true. But every doctor agrees that flossing is a great way to keep your teeth healthy. So even if flossing does not help your heart, it is sure to help your teeth. This is enough of a reason for everyone to floss their teeth every day.

Questions

- 1) Which of the following would be the best title for this passage?
- A. Why Doctors Disagree about Flossing
 - B. How to Keep Your Teeth Healthy
 - C. Flossing Your Way to a Healthy Heart
 - D. Flossing by Coincidence
- 2) Flossing effectively helps to keep your mouth healthy by preventing
- A. germs from producing acid
 - B. food from entering your body
 - C. germs from entering into your blood
 - D. acid from contacting your teeth and gums
- 3) In paragraph 2, the author introduces ideas about how flossing works to keep your heart healthy.
Exactly how many of these ideas does the author put forth in this paragraph?
- A. 1
 - B. 2
 - C. 3
 - D. 4
- 4) Based on information in paragraph 2, it can be understood that germs in the mouth may harm your heart by
- I. getting into the blood that flows to the heart
 - II. forcing the body to fight against too many of them
 - III. causing food to get stuck in the arteries
- A. I only
 - B. I and II only
 - C. II and III only
 - D. I, II, and III

- 5) In paragraph 2, the author explains how having too many germs in your mouth can "end up weakening the heart." Using the passage as a guide, it can be understood that with respect to the actual way in which this occurs, doctors are
- A. reluctant to hypothesize
 - B. confident in their estimations
 - C. extremely knowledgeable
 - D. uncertain but speculative
- 6) In paragraph 3 the author writes, "Not every doctor agrees about these ideas." The author's purpose in writing this sentence is to
- A. provide an example
 - B. introduce a new topic
 - C. change a previous statement
 - D. clarify an earlier assertion
- 7) Using information in paragraph 3 as a guide, which of the following is the best example of a **coincidence**?
- A. Jim wakes up with a sore throat. He eats a piece of bacon for breakfast. By noon, he feels much better. Jim decides that the bacon has cured his sore throat.
 - B. Laura remembers to brush her teeth every day, but she only remembers to floss once a week. She writes a note to herself, reminding herself to floss and sticks it to her bathroom mirror.
 - C. Mario is not very good at baseball. He practices playing every day. After a several months of practice, he is a much better baseball player.
 - D. Jai has a bad heart. Her doctor tells her to eat more vegetables and less junk food. After nearly a year of doing this, the doctor tells Jai that her heart is doing much better.
- 8) Based on its use in the final paragraph, it can be inferred that **theory** belongs to which of the following word groups?
- A. query, question, interrogation
 - B. assertion, declaration, affirmation
 - C. hypothesis, supposition, belief

D. idea, thought, notion

9) Which of the following best states the main idea of the final paragraph?

A. Because doctors do not agree that flossing will help your heart, it is useless to floss. B. It is a fact that flossing can help your heart as well as your teeth.

C. Even if flossing is only good for your teeth, you should still do it every day.

D. There is no good reason to believe that flossing will help your heart, but it is still a good idea to do it every day.



Reading Comprehension 3

When you imagine the desert, you probably think of a very hot place covered with sand. Although this is a good description for many deserts, Earth's largest desert is actually a very cold place covered with ice: Antarctica.

In order for an area to be considered a desert, it must receive very little rainfall. More specifically, it must receive an average of less than ten inches of precipitation—which can be rain, sleet, hail, or snow—on the ground every year. Antarctica, the coldest place on earth, has an average temperature that usually falls below the freezing point. And because cold air holds less moisture than warm air, the air in Antarctica does not hold much moisture at all. This is evident in the low precipitation statistics recorded for Antarctica. For example, the central part of Antarctica receives an average of less than 2 inches of snow every year. The coastline of Antarctica receives a little bit more—between seven and eight inches a year. Because Antarctica gets so little precipitation every year, it is considered a desert.

When precipitation falls in hot deserts, it quickly evaporates back into the atmosphere. The air over Antarctica is too cold to hold water vapor, so there is very little evaporation. Due to this low rate of evaporation, most of the snow that falls to the ground remains there permanently, eventually building up into thick ice sheets. Any snow that does not freeze into ice sheets becomes caught up in the strong winds that constantly blow over Antarctica. These snow-filled winds can make it look as if it is snowing. Even though snowfall is very rare there, blizzards are actually very common on Antarctica.

Questions

- 1) The main purpose of paragraph 1 is to
 - A. accept a conclusion
 - B. introduce an argument
 - C. provide a brief history
 - D. deny a common belief

- 2) The best title for this passage would be
- A. Earth's Many Deserts
 - B. Antarctica: The Coldest Place on Earth
 - C. A Desert of Ice
 - D. Unusual Blizzards
- 3) Africa's Sahara Desert is the second-largest desert on earth. Based on the information in the passage, what characteristic must the Sahara share with Antarctica?
- A. low temperatures
 - B. high temperatures
 - C. frequent blizzards
 - D. low precipitation
- 4) As used in paragraph 2, which is the best definition for **precipitation**?
- A. moisture in the air that falls to the ground
 - B. any type of weather event
 - C. weather events that only happen in very cold areas
 - D. a blizzard that occurs in areas with limited snowfall
- 5) In paragraph 2 the author writes, "And because cold air holds less moisture than warm air, the air in Antarctica does not hold much moisture at all." Using this information, it can be understood that
- A. air in Africa holds more moisture than the air in Antarctica
 - B. air surrounding a tropical island holds less moisture than the air in Antarctica
 - C. air in the second floor of a house is typically warmer than air on the first floor
 - D. air at the mountains is typically colder than the air at the beach

6) According to the final paragraph, any snow that falls over Antarctica

- I. becomes part of the Antarctic ice sheet
- II. is blown around by strong winds
- III. evaporates back into the atmosphere

- A. I only
- B. I and II only
- C. II and III only
- D. I, II, and III

7) Based on the information in the final paragraph, it can be understood that blizzards in Antarctica are mainly the result of

- A. freezing cold temperatures
- B. large amounts of snowfall
- C. low amounts of precipitation
- D. strong winds



Reading Comprehension 4

Mona doesn't like to ask people for help. But it is hard for her to perform daily activities on her own. She is almost 13, yet she is no larger than a 5-year-old. Mona has trouble keeping her balance and can't walk very far. When she uses a wheelchair, she can't push it herself.

Fortunately, Mona has a wonderful service dog named Sam. A service dog is a dog that has been trained to assist someone who has a physical problem. Sam lets Mona lean on him when she walks. He also pulls her wheelchair and turns lights on and off. When Mona drops something, Sam picks it up. He even pulls her socks off at night.

Sam also helps Mona with everyday tasks at school. He carries her books from class to class in a special backpack. He puts Mona's completed assignments in her teachers' homework trays.

In the lunchroom he throws away her trash.

Besides making Mona less dependent on other people, Sam helps her lead a fuller life.

Mona's classmates flock around Sam like geese. This has helped her make friends. Sam also helps Mona be more active. With his aid, she raised over \$500 in a walk-a-thon for her local humane society.

Because of Sam, Mona doesn't have to ask people for help. Sam brings her closer to other kids. And he even helps her contribute to her community.

Questions

1) Which of the following would be the best title for this passage?

- A. Why Mona Loses Her Balance
- B. How Mona's Service Dog Helps Her
- C. Sam Helps Mona at School
- D. Raising Money for the Humane Society

2) Using the passage as a guide, which of the following dogs is most likely a service dog?

- A. Frank's dog, who turns on the lights when Frank enters the room.

- B. Raul's dog, who fetches the newspaper for Raul while he is busy getting dressed.
- C. Mei's dog, who licks Mei's face when she cries.
- D. Teddy's dog, who loves to play catch, go on walks, and watch movies with the family.

3) According to the passage, Sam helps Mona by

- I. helping her to walk
- II. performing everyday tasks for her
- III. bringing her closer to her classmates

- A. I only
- B. I and II only
- C. II and III only
- D. I, II, and III

4) In paragraph 4, the author writes, "Mona's classmates flock around Sam like geese." Which of the following literary techniques is used in this sentence?

- A. *allusion*, characterized by a reference to, or representation of, people, places, events, literary work, myths, or works of art, either directly or by implication
- B. *personification*, characterized by giving human traits to nonhuman things, such as animals or objects
- C. *irony*, characterized by the use of words to express the opposite of their usual meaning
- D. *simile*, characterized by the making of a comparison using the words "like" or "as"

Reading Comprehension 5

To Whom it May Concern:

On March 5, 2010, I bought a Perfect Muffin Kit from your store at Midfield Mall. The cashier who assisted me was George. George was very friendly and assured me that the Perfect Muffin Kit would live up to the guarantee on the box: "Perfect Muffins Every Time!"

Unfortunately, this product did not live up to its claim. Although the box promised, as I stated above, to provide "Perfect Muffins Every Time," the muffins I made were far from perfect. I followed the directions included in the package very carefully. First, I removed the bag of mix from the box. Then, I poured it into a bowl. Next, I added the correct amount of water to the mix and stirred it. The directions said that after stirring the mixture, I could, and I quote, "add half a cup of raisins, nuts, berries, or another favorite ingredient." My favorite ingredient happens to be hot sauce. I find that a dash of hot sauce makes pizza, pasta, and soup taste very delicious. So, continuing to follow the directions, I added half a cup of hot sauce to the mix and stirred it. Finally, I poured the mix into muffin tins and baked it in the oven at 350 degrees for exactly 20 minutes. When the muffins finished baking, I was very excited to eat the "Perfect Muffins" as promised on the box. You can imagine my disappointment when, upon tasting the muffins, I discovered that they were not perfect. These muffins were, in fact, absolutely terrible. Not even my dog was interested in eating these supposedly "perfect" muffins.

I would appreciate a full refund (\$3.99) for this product as soon as possible. Enclosed are the receipt, the empty box, and one of the un-perfect muffins so that you can experience it for yourself. Thank you for your prompt attention to this matter.

Sincerel

y,

Michell

e Bauer

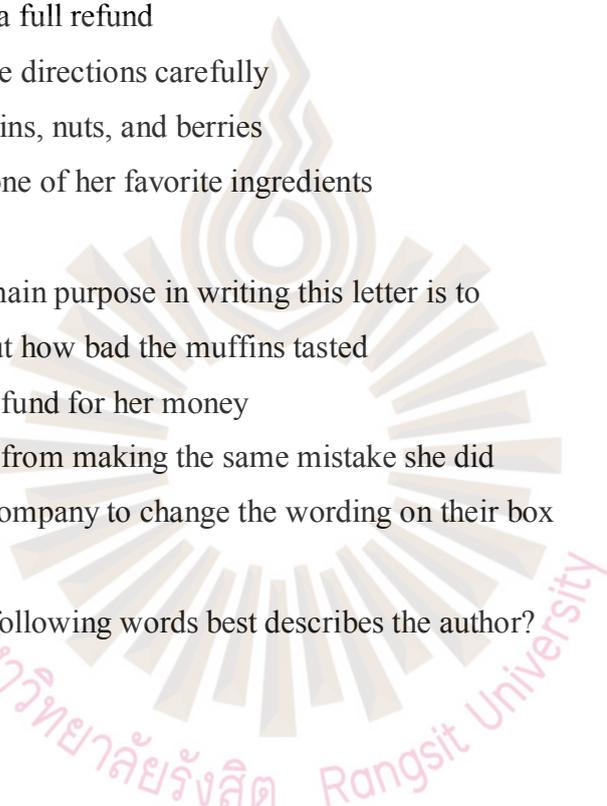
Questions

- 1) This letter is most likely addressed to
 - A. the owner of the muffin mix company
 - B. A local storeowner
 - C. the clerk at a local muffin bakery
 - D. George, the cashier who sold Michelle the muffin mix

- 2) The tone of the author can best be described as
 - A. furious
 - B. disgusted
 - C. embarrassed
 - D. frustrated

- 3) As used in paragraph 1, which is the best synonym for **guarantee**?
 - A. lie
 - B. warning
 - C. promise
 - D. sentence

- 4) Which of the following best describes the organization of paragraph 2?
 - A. The paragraph follows chronological order, in which events are presented in the sequence that they occur.
 - B. The author explains a problem and then proposes a solution to that problem.
 - C. The author makes an argument and then provides evidence to support that argument.
 - D. The paragraph follows a cause-and-effect order, in which a series of causes are given, followed by their effects.

- 5) It can be understood that the author is disappointed by the product because
- A. it was worth less money than she paid for it
 - B. it did not fulfill the promise made on the box
 - C. the directions included with the product contained a mistake
 - D. the directions included with the product were too difficult to follow
- 6) It can be understood that the author put hot sauce in the muffins because she
- A. wanted to get a full refund
 - B. did not read the directions carefully
 - C. was out of raisins, nuts, and berries
 - D. considered it one of her favorite ingredients
- 7) The author's main purpose in writing this letter is to
- A. complain about how bad the muffins tasted
 - B. obtain a full refund for her money
 - C. prevent others from making the same mistake she did
 - D. persuade the company to change the wording on their box
- 8) Which of the following words best describes the author?
- A. shrewd
 - B. senseless
 - C. unreasonable
 - D. careful
- 
- A large, semi-transparent watermark logo of Rangsit University is centered on the page. It features a stylized sunburst or fan-like emblem with rays emanating from a central point. Below the emblem, the university's name is written in Thai script 'มหาวิทยาลัยรังสิต' and English 'Rangsit University'.

Reading Comprehension 6

Fleas are perfectly designed by nature to feast on anything containing blood. Like a shark in the water or a wolf in the woods, fleas are ideally equipped to do what they do, making them very difficult to defeat. The bodies of these tiny parasites are extremely hardy and well-suited for their job.

A flea has a very hard exoskeleton, which means the body is covered by a tough, tile-like plate called a sclerite. Because of these plates, fleas are almost impossible to squish. The exoskeletons of fleas are also waterproof and shock resistant, and therefore fleas are highly resistant to the sprays and chemicals used to kill them.

Little spines are attached to this plate. The spines lie flat against the flea's thin, narrow body as the flea scurries through an animal's fur in search of food. However, if anything (like fingers or a self-grooming pet) tries to pull a flea off through the hair coat, these spines will extend and stick to the fur like Velcro.

Fleas are some of the best jumpers in the natural world. A flea can jump seven inches, or 150 times its own length, either vertically or horizontally. An equivalent jump for a person would be 555 feet, the height of the Washington Monument. Fleas can jump 30,000 times in a row without stopping, and they are able to accelerate through the air at an incredibly high rate—a rate which is over ten times what humans can withstand in an airplane.

Fleas have very long rear legs with huge thigh muscles and multiple joints. When they get ready to jump, they fold their long legs up and crouch like a runner on a starting block. Several of their joints contain a protein called resilin, which helps catapult fleas into the air as they jump, similar to the way a rubber band provides momentum to a slingshot. Outward facing claws on the bottom of their legs grip anything they touch when they land.

The adult female flea mates after her first blood meal and begins producing eggs in just 1 to 2 days. One flea can lay up to 50 eggs in one day and over 2,000 in her lifetime.

Flea eggs can be seen

with the naked eye, but they are about the size of a grain of salt. Shortly after being laid, the eggs begin

to transform into cocoons. In the cocoon state, fleas are fully developed adults, and will

hatch immediately if conditions are favorable. Fleas can detect warmth, movement, and carbon dioxide in exhaled breath, and these three factors stimulate them to emerge as new adults. If the flea does not detect appropriate conditions, it can remain dormant in the cocoon state for extended periods. Under ideal conditions, the entire life cycle may only take 3 weeks, so in no time at all, pets and homes can become infested.

Because of these characteristics, fleas are intimidating opponents. The best way to control fleas, therefore, is to take steps to prevent an infestation from ever occurring.

Questions

- 1) The primary purpose of the passage is to
 - A. educate the reader about the physical characteristics of fleas
 - B. compare fleas to other members of the animal kingdom
 - C. relate the problems that can result from a flea infestation
 - D. explain why a flea infestation is hard to get rid of

- 2) The author's tone in the passage is best described as
 - A. concerned
 - B. passionate
 - C. informative
 - D. opinionated

- 3) According to the passage, fleas are resistant to sprays and chemicals because they
 - A. have waterproof sclerites
 - B. are excellent jumpers
 - C. reproduce very rapidly
 - D. can stick to fur like Velcro

- 4) Fleas are difficult to squish because they have
 - I. sclerites
 - II. tough spines

III. resilin in their joints

- A. I only
- B. I and II only
- C. II and III only
- D. I, II, and III

5) According to the passage, which of the following statements is true?

- A. Fleas extend their little spines if threatened.
- B. Fleas have the ability to jump higher than humans.
- C. Humans can jump higher if they consume foods containing resilin.
- D. The resilin found in fleas is used to make rubber bands.

6) According to the passage, fleas are able to jump

- I. with a high rate of acceleration
- II. up and down and from side to side
- III. because the blood they eat contains resilin

- A. I only
- B. I and II only
- C. II and III only
- D. I, II, and III

7) Based on information in the passage, the reader can understand that

- A. fleas will die without access to blood
- B. fleas survive at a higher rate in outdoor habitats
- C. fleas will die after they produce 2,000 eggs
- D. newly hatched fleas are the size of a grain of salt

8) The author mentions the Washington Monument in order to

- A. estimate the extreme distance that a flea is able to jump
- B. illustrate a comparison made between fleas and humans

- C. clarify a point made regarding fleas and acceleration
- D. demonstrate the superiority of fleas over humans

9) It can be inferred that fleas will emerge from eggs as adults

- A. when they outgrow the cocoon
- B. after a period of 3 weeks
- C. when they sense there is access to blood
- D. if there is too much carbon dioxide in the cocoon

10) Using the information in the passage as a guide, it can be concluded that

- A. humans do not possess the physical characteristics of the flea because they have no use for them
- B. humans do not pay much attention to fleas because they do not pose a serious threat
- C. fleas have many physical advantages, although these are outweighed by their many disadvantages
- D. fleas are designed in such a way as to give them unique physical advantages in life



Reading Comprehension 7

For two months, I have been trying to decide who makes the best ice cream. I have narrowed it down to my four favorite manufacturers: Randolph Farms, Goodies, Disco, and Twinkle.

Let's start with Randolph Farms. Randolph Farms makes very good ice cream. They have lots of different flavors, but this doesn't really matter to me. That's because I always get coffee flavor. They make the best coffee ice cream in the world. I've never had hot coffee (the drink) but people tell me that Randolph Farms coffee ice cream tastes just like the real thing. Also, Randolph Farms uses all natural ingredients to make their ice cream. This is a good idea, I think.

Second, we have Goodies. Goodies make excellent ice cream. Like Randolph Farms, Goodies uses all natural ingredients. They only make three different flavors—strawberry, vanilla, and chocolate—but they make them very well. The strawberry is amazing. Every bite of it reminds me of the strawberries that I used to pick behind my old house. The vanilla is wonderful. It is very smooth and has a refreshing, creamy taste. The chocolate is outstanding. It is made with real cocoa beans from Bolivia. I didn't know where Bolivia is so I decided to look for it on a map. After hunting awhile, I discovered that it is in South America! That's a long way to go to get cocoa, so it must be good. I would say that the only drawback to Goodies ice cream is that they only make three different flavors.

Third, we have Disco. Disco ice cream is okay. They don't have many good flavors. Actually, the only Disco flavor I like is Bubblegum. It is vanilla ice cream with little chunks of bubblegum in it. After you eat the ice cream, you can blow bubbles with the gum. That's pretty fun.

Finally, there is Twinkle. Twinkle ice cream is mediocre. The only good thing about Twinkle is that it is relatively inexpensive. You can buy a whole carton of twinkle ice cream for \$4.50. That's only two weeks' allowance for me.

Questions

1) Which of the following would be the best title for this passage?

- A. Strawberry, Vanilla, Chocolate, and Bubblegum Too!
- B. The Four Top Ice Cream Manufacturers
- C. The Finest Ice Cream in the World
- D. Picking the Best Ice Cream Manufacturer

2) If the author wanted to get a scoop of coffee ice cream, where would he or she probably go?

- A. Randolph Farms
- B. Goodies
- C. Disco
- D. Twinkle

3) In paragraph 1, the author uses a colon. A colon (:) looks like two dots, one on top of the other.

Colons are used to separate different parts of a sentence. The part before the colon introduces an idea and can stand alone as a sentence. The part after the colon gives more detailed information about this idea, often as a list. If the colon could talk, it would say, "And here they are!"

Using this information, it can be understood that which of the following sentences contains the correct use of a colon?

- A. My friends are: sweet, young, and generous.
- B. I like: to talk on the phone at night.
- C. I have three pets: Toto, Spot, and Rover.
- D. I want a new bicycle: or new roller skates.

4) According to the passage, the author likes Randolph Farms ice cream because it

- I. is all natural
- II. is made in Bolivia

III. comes in many flavors

- A. I only
- B. I and II only
- C. II and III only
- D. I, II, and III

5) In paragraph 3 the author writes, "That's a long way to go to get cocoa, so it must be good." Using this information, we can understand that the author believes that

- A. Goodies loses money on sales of chocolate ice cream
- B. Bolivia makes the best cocoa in the world
- C. things that are hard to get must be high quality
- D. cocoa from the United States is not very good

6) According to the passage, the author likes Disco ice cream because it

- A. is relatively inexpensive
- B. has bubblegum in it
- C. is made in Bolivia
- D. is okay

7) According to the passage, how is Randolph Farms ice cream different than Goodies?

- I. Randolph Farms has many different flavors and Goodies does not.
- II. Randolph Farms uses all natural ingredients and Goodies does not.
- III. Randolph Farms is very expensive and Goodies is not.

- A. I only
- B. I and II only
- C. II and III only
- D. I, II, and III

8) An *adjective* is a word that is used to describe a thing. For example, in the sentence, "The car is fast," the word "fast" is an adjective. Using this information, which of the following are adjectives used in paragraph 3?

- I. flavors
- II. excellent
- III. old

- A. I only
- B. I and II only
- C. II and III only
- D. I, II, and III

9) According to the author, what is the only drawback to Goodies ice cream?

- A. cheap ingredients
- B. expensive price
- C. mediocre quality
- D. a lack of flavors

10) How much money does the author receive in his or her weekly allowance?

- A. \$2.25
- B. \$4.50
- C. \$9.00
- D. Not enough information is provided

11) Given the information included in the passage, which of the following statements would the author most likely agree with?

- A. Each manufacturer has its strengths and weaknesses.
- B. The best manufacturers are the ones with the most flavors.
- C. Goodies is certainly not the best manufacturer, as they only have three flavors.
- D. Each manufacturer is good for different reasons.

12) If the author did decide that one manufacturer is best, which one would he or she probably choose?

- A. Randolph Farms
- B. Goodies
- C. Disco
- D. Twinkle

13) How many weeks would it take for the author to save enough money to buy two cartons of Twinkle ice cream?

- A. 1 week
- B. 2 weeks
- C. 3 weeks
- D. 4 weeks



Reading Comprehension 8

Have you ever wondered what keeps a hot air balloon flying? The same principle that keeps food frozen in the open chest freezers at the grocery store allows hot air balloons to fly. It's a very basic principle: Hot air rises and cold air falls. So while the super-cooled air in the grocery store freezer settles down around the food, the hot air in a hot air balloon pushes up, keeping the balloon floating above the ground. In order to understand more about how this principle works in hot air balloons, it helps to know more about hot air balloons themselves.

A hot air balloon has three major parts: the basket, the burner, and the envelope. The basket is where passengers ride. The basket is usually made of wicker. This ensures that it will be comfortable and add little extra weight. The burner is positioned above the passenger's heads and produces a huge flame to heat the air inside the envelope. The envelope is the colorful fabric balloon that holds the hot air. When the air inside the envelope is heated, the balloon rises.

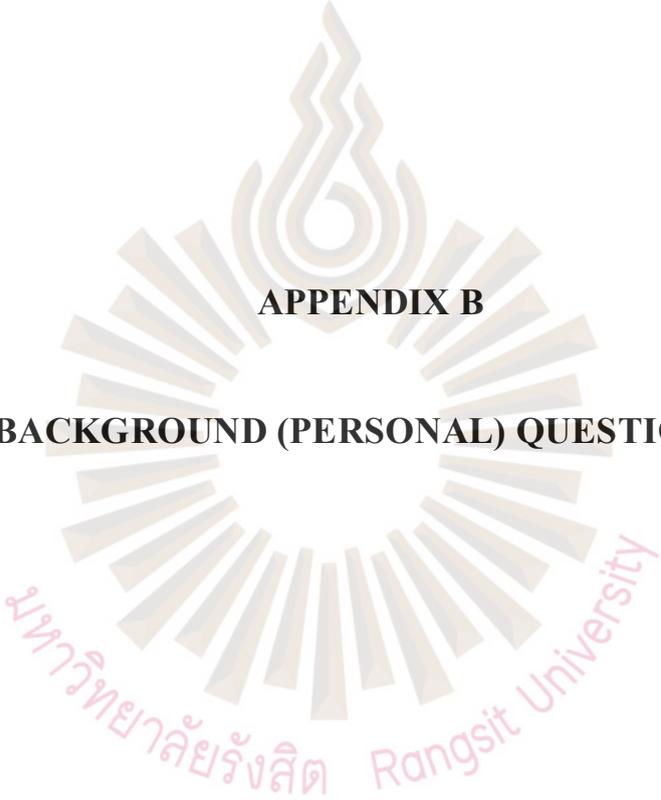
The pilot can control the up-and-down movements of the hot air balloon by regulating the heat in the envelope. To ascend, the pilot heats the air in the envelope. When the pilot is ready to land, the air in the balloon is allowed to cool and the balloon becomes heavier than air. This makes the balloon descend.

Before the balloon is launched, the pilot knows which way the wind is blowing. This means that she has a general idea about which way the balloon will go. But, sometimes the pilot can actually control the direction that the balloon flies while in flight. This is because the air above the ground is sectioned into layers in which the direction of the wind may be different. So even though the pilot can't steer the balloon, she can fly or higher or lower into a different layer of air. Some days the difference between the direction of the wind between layers is negligible. But other days the difference is so strong that it can actually push the balloon in a completely different direction!

Questions

- 1) According to the passage, balloon pilots control the balloon's altitude by
- A. moving into a different layer of air
 - B. regulating the air temperature inside the balloon
 - C. adjusting the amount of air in the envelope
 - D. changing the amount of weight contained in the basket
- 2) As used in paragraph 3, which is the best synonym for **ascend**?
- A. move
 - B. fly
 - C. sink
 - D. climb
- 3) As used in paragraph 3, which is the best antonym for **descend**?
- A. fall
 - B. float
 - C. rise
 - D. drop
- 4) According to the author, wicker is
- I. comfortable
 - II. lightweight
 - III. durable
- A. I only
 - B. I and II only
 - C. II and III only
 - D. I, II, and III

- 5) If the hot air balloon pilot wants to change directions during flight, what might he or she do to accomplish this?
- A. head toward a mountain peak
 - B. wait for it to rain
 - C. fly into a cloud
 - D. fly higher
- 6) Using the passage as a guide, it can be inferred that which of the following statements is not true?
- A. Air goes up and out the top of a chimney when you light a fire.
 - B. Cool air collects about the ceiling when you open a refrigerator.
 - C. Smoke from a candle rises after you blow out the flame.
 - D. Cold air coming from an air conditioning vent settles about the floor.
- 7) Based on its use in paragraph 4, it can be understood that **negligible** belongs to which of the following word families?
- A. solemn, grave, serious
 - B. substantial, considerable, large
 - C. exhilarating, thrilling, exciting
 - D. insignificant, small, unnoticeable

The image features a large, faint watermark of the Rangsit University logo in the background. The logo consists of a central flame-like symbol above a circular arrangement of radiating lines, with the university's name in Thai and English below it.

APPENDIX B

THE BACKGROUND (PERSONAL) QUESTIONNAIRE

Background Questionnaire**The Student's Background Questionnaire**

Q1: What is your name? _____

Q2: How old are you? _____

Q3: Are you male or female? _____

Q4: How often do you study English at school? _____

Q5: According to Q4, do you think it is enough for you? _____

Q6: What is the level of your ability in English? (high, moderate, or low?) _____

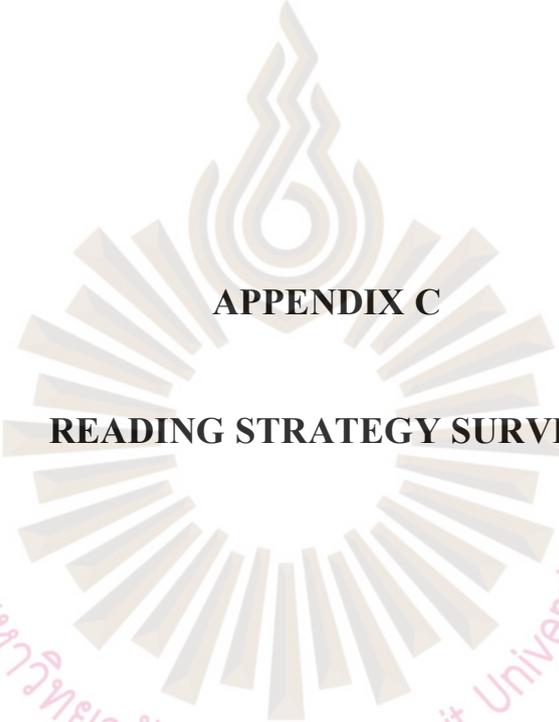
Q7: Do you do anything to help yourself understand the English lessons better?

Q8: What do you do to improve your English in general?

Q9: What do you find (think) very difficult for you in learning English?

Q10: Do you have any comments about learning English in your present classroom?

Thank you very much for your co-operation

The logo of Rangsit University is a circular emblem. At the top is a stylized flame or sunburst. Below it is a central circle surrounded by a ring of radiating lines. The text 'มหาวิทยาลัยรังสิต' and 'Rangsit University' is written in a semi-circle at the bottom of the emblem.

APPENDIX C

READING STRATEGY SURVEY

มหาวิทยาลัยรังสิต Rangsit University

General Perceived Reading Strategy Use

Three reading strategy categories are surveyed in this study: global strategies (GLOB), problem-solving strategies (PROB), and support strategies (SUP). All 25 survey items fall within one of these types of reading comprehension strategies.

The purpose of this study is to collect information about the various strategies you use when you read **school-related academic materials in English** (e.g., reading narrative texts as for the purpose of this research, reading textbooks for homework or examinations, reading journal articles). Each statement is followed by five numbers, 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, and each number means the following:

- 1 means that “**I never or almost never do this.**”
- 2 means that “**I do this only occasionally.**”
- 3 means that “**I sometimes do this.**” (about 50% of the time)
- 4 means that “**I usually do this.**”
- 5 means that “**I always or almost always do this.**”

After reading each statement, **circle the number** (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) which applies to you. Note that there are **no right or wrong responses** to any of the items on this survey.

| Category | | Reading strategy | Never | Always | | | | | |
|----------|-----|--|-------|--------|---|---|---|--|--|
| GLOB | 1. | I have a purpose in mind when I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | |
| SUP | 2. | I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | |
| GLOB | 3. | I think about what I know to help me understand what I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | |
| GLOB | 4. | I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | |
| SUP | 5. | When the text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | |
| PROB | 6. | I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | |
| GLOB | 7. | I review the text first by noting its characteristics and organisation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | |
| PROB | 8. | I try to get back on track when I lose concentration. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | |
| SUP | 9. | I underline or circle information in the text to help me understand. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | |
| PROB | 10. | I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | |
| GLOB | 11. | When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | |
| GLOB | 12. | I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | |

| Category | | Reading strategy | Never Always | | | | |
|----------|-----|---|--------------|---|---|---|---|
| PROB | 13. | When the text becomes difficult, I pay close attention to what I am reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| PROB | 14. | I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| SUP | 15. | I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I am reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| PROB | 16. | I try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| GLOB | 17. | I use typographical features like boldface and italics to identify key information. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| GLOB | 18. | I critically analyse and evaluate the information presented in the text. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| SUP | 19. | I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| GLOB | 20. | I check my information when I come across new information. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| GLOB | 21. | I try to guess what the context of the text is about when I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| PROB | 22. | When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| GLOB | 23. | I check to see if my guesses about the texts are right or wrong. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| PROB | 24. | When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| SUP | 25. | When reading, I translate from English into my native language. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

The image features a large, faint watermark of the Rangsit University logo in the center. The logo consists of a stylized flame or sunburst shape at the top, with a circular base made of radiating lines. Below the logo, the text 'มหาวิทยาลัยรังสิต Rangsit University' is written in a circular path.

APPENDIX D
STUDENT CONSENT FORM

มหาวิทยาลัยรังสิต Rangsit University

Consent Form

Research Title: STRATEGIES FOR GAINING ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS IN READING: A CASE OF GRADE TWELVE STUDENTS

Investigator: Gareth D. Baird
M. Ed Bilingual Education, Faculty of Education
Rangsit University, Thailand

Purpose

The purpose of this research study is to attempt to gain an understanding of language learning strategies used by Grade 12 students in EFL reading with the following purposes:

1. Describe the reading comprehension strategies which Grade 12 students use in EFL reading.
2. Identify the differences of reading comprehension strategies which either high-proficiency or low-proficiency Grade 12 students use in EFL reading.
3. Identify the students' perceptions of using reading comprehension strategies.

Procedures

If you agree to participate, your involvement will last approximately five class periods. You will be asked to take a selection of reading comprehension tests and complete a background questionnaire and a survey during the periods. Your information is for this research purpose and no one will review it.

Risks

There are no foreseeable risks to participating.

Benefits

There will be no personal benefit for participating in this study. However it is hoped that, in the future, the English as Foreign Language (EFL) reading education in Thailand could benefit from this study.

Costs and Compensation

You will not incur any costs for participating in this research project. You will not be compensated for participating in this research paper

Confidentiality

Records of participants in this research paper will be kept confidential to the extent permitted by law. In the event of any report or publication from this study, your identity will not be disclosed.

Voluntary Participation

Taking part in this research study is voluntary. You may choose not to take part at all. If you agree to participate in this study, you may stop participating at any time. If you decide not to take part, or if you stop participating at any time, your decision will not result in any penalty.

Questions

If you have any questions about this research, please contact me.

Investigator:

Gareth D. Baird

M.Ed Bilingual Education

Faculty of Education

Rangsit University, Thailand

Phone: 086 604 9108 or 086 567 5407

E-mail: garethdavid.b56@rsu.ac.th or gdbaird69@gmail.com

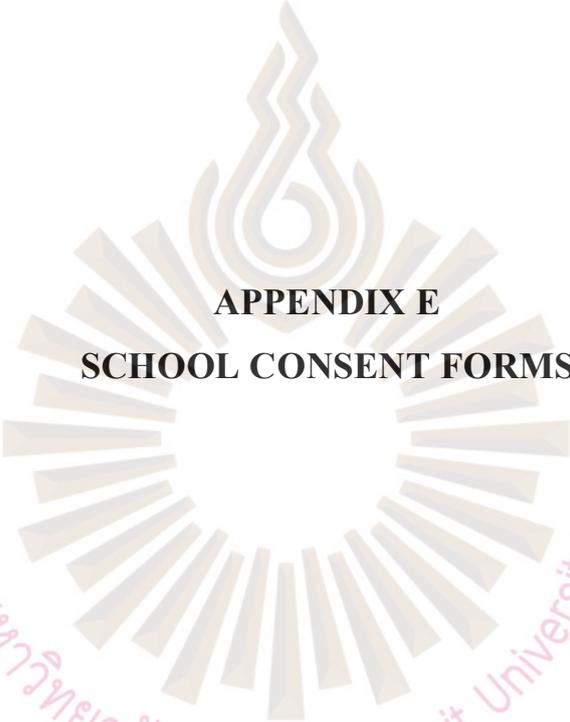
If you agree to participate in this study, please leave your name, signature and student number.

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Student Number: _____



The logo of Rangsit University is a circular emblem. At the top is a stylized flame or sunburst. Below it is a ring of radiating lines, and at the bottom is a ring of rectangular blocks. The text 'มหาวิทยาลัยรังสิต Rangsit University' is written in a semi-circle at the bottom of the emblem.

APPENDIX E
SCHOOL CONSENT FORMS

มหาวิทยาลัยรังสิต Rangsit University

Dear Principle of Wat Khien Khet School, Pathum Thani.

I am Gareth D. Baird, a full-time staff member at your school. I am now conducting a research study as part of the requirements for my Master's degree in the Faculty of Education at Rangsit University, Thailand with a concentration in Reading and Language studies.

I am requesting your permission to conduct my study with our students in our school. The main purpose of this study is to discover what reading strategies Wat Khien Khet School students use while reading texts written in English. The result of this study will contribute valuable information for both Thai and foreign teachers of English regarding how they can help increase Thai students' English reading ability.

Participation is voluntary. If a student chooses to participate in the study, it will take approximately 5 lesson periods. Their reports may be recorded on audiotape for clarification. All his/her responses will be kept confidential within reasonable limits.

If you have any questions about this research, please contact me.

Investigator:
Gareth D. Baird
M.Ed Bilingual Education
Faculty of Education
Rangsit University, Thailand
Phone: 086 604 9108 or 086 567 5407
E-mail: garethdavid.b56@rsu.ac.th or gdbaird69@gmail.com

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Gareth D. Baird

E-mail: garethdavid.b56@rsu.ac.th or gdbaird69@gmail.com

I understand the parameters of this project and agree allow the research to proceed with the study in my school.

Principle's signature

Date

BIOGRAPHY

| | |
|----------------------|---|
| Name | Gareth David Baird |
| Date of Birth | 30 th July, 19693 |
| Place of Birth | Irvine, Scotland, United Kingdom |
| Education Background | Rangsit University, Thailand Bachelors of Arts in Communication Arts, 2012 (1 st Class Honours) Rangsit University, Thailand Master of Education in Bilingual Education, 2018 |
| Email Address | gdbaird69@gmail.com |

