

An alternative and creative method to check for comprehension is to ask students to place themselves as a character and describe their actions, conflicts, and solutions (Nathanson. 2006). In a science classroom, for example, students may cast themselves as Thomas Edison during the time of his invention of the light bulb, incorporating information of how the light bulb works.

2) Paraphrasing and Summarizing

Some middle school students may experience difficulties when attempting to place scientific concepts in their own words. Although providing examples of scientific concepts is one way to demonstrate comprehension, a student's ability to communicate by paraphrasing and summarizing is also critical.

2.3.3 The Comparison of L1 and L2 Reading Strategies

The issues of how first-language reading and second-language reading are related; whether first-language reading strategies can be transferred to second-language reading; and the relationship between first- and second-language reading are still attracting researchers' attention. Cheng (1998) interviewed 10 Taiwanese students to learn about the types of reading strategies used by these participants when reading English. Two distinctive patterns emerged: "integrating" and "non-integrating." Integrators were more likely to use more general or top-down types of strategies, while non-integrators tended to use local, bottom-up types. Cheng's findings also indicated that sociocultural factors impacted these participants' reading purposes, particularly their English-learning experiences, and the fact that they employed different patterns of strategies to achieve those purposes. Cheng mentioned that other factors (e.g., personality, exposure to strategy training, language

proficiency, reading interests, and academic major) in a learning context might have influenced the development of these participants' reading strategies.

Wu (2002) also explores whether L2 high-proficient students differed from their low-proficient counterparts in their reading awareness. Furthermore, she examined whether younger and older students had different perceptions about reading and also investigated if there was any distinction between native and foreign-language reading strategy use. Wu found that older and more proficient readers appeared to have more awareness of their metacognitive skills, while low-proficient readers relied on bottom-up strategies for processing information. Other researchers concentrated on L2 readers' awareness of effective reading strategies as they read L2 texts (Chern, 1994; Cheng, 2000; Hsu, 2003). Chern (1994) investigated Chinese readers' metacognitive awareness when reading Chinese and English. The results demonstrated that Chinese readers were dictionary-dependent and accuracy-oriented readers while reading English and that they lacked awareness of their reading behaviors when comprehending meaning or remembering the text.

Cheng (2000) also concluded that Taiwanese EFL college students' metacognitive awareness was more "global," or top-down, while reading Chinese. In contrast, they relied on local reading strategies, such as re reading, sentence syntax, and word meanings when reading English texts. Hsu (2003) compared English reading awareness, their perceptions of their knowledge about strategy use, and the reading performance of college students in the General Education System (GES) and the Technological and Vocational Education System (TVES). Her findings showed that GES students had more confidence reading in English than the TVES students did. Also, the TVES students perceived the translating of unknown words as an

effective reading strategy. When faced with repair strategies, GES and TVES students' favorite strategy was to "go back to a point before the problematic part and reread from there." The results showed differences in metacognitive awareness between GES and TVES students in terms of their reading effectiveness, reading difficulties, and repair strategies.

Other researchers have conducted studies on the strategies and metacognitive awareness between the first language and second language. Yang (1996) compared strategies that 90 EFL Taiwanese college freshmen employed when reading Chinese and English. She found that the students reported using more global and macrolinguistic-level reading strategies (guessing through the context and making inferences) when reading Chinese. On the other hand, the students tended to use more local and microlinguistic strategies (looking up vocabulary) when reading English. They thought that the more vocabulary they memorized, the more they could understand the texts. Later, Feng and Mokhtari (1998) investigated the strategies used by native speakers of Chinese when reading easy and difficult passages in their own language and in English. The results revealed that the native speakers employed strategies more frequently when they read in English than in Chinese. Moreover, subjects employed reading strategies more frequently for difficult texts than for easy ones.

Al-Sheikh (2002) examined the metacognitive knowledge and reading strategies used by native Arabic speakers. Ninety participants completed background and reading strategy inventories. Ten were then selected for an interview in the follow-up study focusing on how they actually use the strategies when reading in English and Arabic. The 90 participants used significantly more strategies in English

than in Arabic. They also reported using more repair strategies (adjusting the reading time, visualizing information, and rereading) and “support reading strategies” in English rather than in Arabic. Support reading strategies included asking oneself questions and translating readings from English. These results were consistent with those of Feng and Mokhtari (1998), who investigated Chinese native speakers’ use of reading strategies while reading easy and difficult passages in Chinese and English. However, Feng and Mokhtari’s (1998) findings and Al-Sheikh’s (2002) challenged Pritchard’s (1990) and Tang’s (2001) conclusions. Pritchard indicated that bilingual Latino high school students used the same reading strategies across languages. Similarly, Tang (2001) found that four ESL students used similar strategies when reading English and Chinese narrative texts. While researchers differ in their views about the relationships between first-language strategies and second- or foreign-language strategies, the consensus is that reading in a second or foreign language depends, to some degree, on the reader’s proficiency in that language and on his employment of metacognitive strategies.

Sarige (1987) compared the strategy use of learners reading in L1 and in L2 using a think-aloud protocol method. She found that the readers’ use of strategies and the relation between strategies used and actual success in comprehension were highly similar in L1 and L2. She also claims to have determined which strategic “moves” contributed to a reader’s success and failure. McDough (1995) brings together the reading strategies identified in different research within Sarige’s (1987) four categories. Identified by researchers interpreting the think-aloud data, they are:

1. Technical Aid Strategies: These would include skimming, scanning, marking the text, and using the glossary.

2. Clarification and Simplification Strategies: These include syntactic simplification, producing synonyms, using paraphrase of rhetorical function, interpreting the text, and using inference.

3. Coherence Detection Strategies: These would include identifying the macroframe, keeping the meaning in mind, using information about the story, using background knowledge, and identifying key information.

4. Monitoring Strategies: These would include consciously changing the plan, varying the reading rate, rereading, correcting mistakes, evaluating guesses, and questioning.

2.4 Reading Skills

The process of reading involves the interaction of some complex linguistic processes and knowledge bases which can be divided into “print decoding” and “comprehension processes” (Norris & Hoffman. 2002). Decoding processes include the visual processing of basic print shapes and the auditory phonetic characteristics of the speech sounds represented by the print. These shapes and auditory features are categorized by the reader into letters and phonemes.

Through phonotactic and orthographic rule systems, these phonemes and letters are organized into allowable syllable and word forms. Consequently, the reader relates each word in print to its meaning in his mental lexicon. These decoding processes are informed by the comprehension processes, which include knowledge of how syntactic structure informs meaning, knowledge of how different discourse structures organize information, and an ability to relate the propositions derived from print to the reader’s current knowledge and beliefs (Martino & Hoffman. 2002).

For those reading theorists who acknowledge the importance of both the text and the reader in the reading process, a combination of the two emerged in “the interactive approach,” in which reading skills surpass linguistic processes. Here, reading is a process of combining textual information with the reader’s prior knowledge. The interactive model (Stanovich, 1980) views reading as the interaction between the reader and the text, with which he interacts to create meaning as his mental processes function together at different levels (Bernhardt, 1996; Carrell et al. 2000).

Upton and Thompson (2001) state: “Reading in a second language (L2) is not a monolingual event; L2 readers have access to their first language (L1) as they read, and many use it as a strategy to help comprehend an L2 text” (p. 469). Research has begun to focus on some variables related to L1 that might influence L2 reading. One of these variables is “mental translation,” defined by Kern (1994) as “the mental reprocessing of L2 words, phrases, or sentences in L1 forms while reading L2 texts” (p. 442). Cook (1992) argued that all L2 learners access their L1 while processing L2. He suggested that L1 should be considered as a vital variable when teaching L2 reading because L1 is already present in L2 learners’ minds. Moreover, Kern (1994) found that L2 learners use translation as a cognitive strategy to understand the L2 text. In addition, he found that mental translation during L2 reading served the functional purpose of facilitating the generation and comprehension of meaning.

In another study, Upton (1997) found that reliance on L1 as the language of thought decreased as proficiency in the L2 increased. He noted that non-proficient L2 learners used their L1 more frequently when wrestling with unfamiliar vocabulary (seeking global understanding of L2) and when attempting to summarize what they

understood. Upton suggested that L1 is also used to think about and process what is being read in the L2, in addition to being in mental translation. Lastly, Upton and Thompson (2001) concluded that “the use of L1 by L2 readers to help them wrestle with word and sentence-level problems, confirm comprehension, predict text structure and content, as well as monitor text characteristics and reading behavior, supports a sociocultural view of language as a tool for thought as proposed by Vygotsky (1986)” (p. 491).

With respect to the relationship between L1 and L2 reading skills, different hypotheses have been suggested. The “transfer” hypothesis (Goodman, 1971), the “threshold” hypothesis (Alderson, 1984; Clarke, 1979; Cummins, 1980) and the “processing efficiency” hypothesis are the best known hypotheses that attempt to explain L1 and L2 reading relations. The transfer hypothesis states that differences between the components of L1 and L2 reading are negligible. This is because L2 readers transfer all their reading comprehension skills already acquired in L1 reading (such as reading strategies and metacognitive knowledge about reading tasks) to L2 reading.

By contrast, the threshold hypothesis was proposed to explain the observation that reading in a language which is not the learner’s first language is a source of considerable difficulty (Alderson, 1984). Claims surfaced that L2 reading was not only slower but also that it resulted in less comprehension than L1 reading, even when readers understood the words and structures in L2 texts (Alderson, 1984). It was also assumed that poor L2 lexical and grammatical knowledge prevented beginning L2 readers from applying reading strategies and the metacognitive knowledge they used in L1 reading. Metaphorically speaking, L2-specific linguistic knowledge constitutes

a threshold which has to be crossed before L1 skills transfer to L2 performance and they become similar. The hypothesis states that the initial stages of L2 reading development, L2 vocabulary, and grammar knowledge are more important than reading strategies and metacognitive knowledge.

3.4.1 Reading Skills and the Language Writing System

Language orthographic systems might direct readers to focus more on some reading skills than on others. Three major orthographic systems are used in languages: logographic, syllabic, and alphabetic. In logographic systems such as Chinese, one graphemic unit usually represents the meaning and the sound of an entire word or morpheme (Koda, 1988). Because of the one-to-one correspondence between graphemic representation and meaning, learning to read a logography is simplified when a limited number of characters must be processed. The logographic-proficient reader must know as many signs as there are words and graphemes in his spoken language.

In syllabic systems, each graphemic unit represents a syllable (each Japanese syllabary consists of 46 basic letters and two forms of diacritical marks). Finally, in alphabetic systems such as English, the unit of representation is the phoneme.

According to Gelb (as cited in Koda, 1988), since the symbol-to-sound correspondence in the English alphabet is reduced to the smallest sound unit (phoneme), a smaller number of symbols is needed to transcribe spoken language.

Orthographic knowledge also makes a more substantial contribution to L2 reading. Different L1 orthographic properties generate qualitatively distinct processing procedures for word recognition in different languages. Koda assumes that L2 word-recognition processing mechanisms are heavily constrained by the

learner's L1 orthographic properties. Koda also contends that L2 readers bring their L1 orthographic knowledge and processing mechanisms to bear on L2 word recognition. Green and Meara (1987) found that ESL learners with Roman-alphabetic (Spanish), non-Roman alphabetic (Arabic), and non-alphabetic (Chinese) L1 backgrounds utilized different visual-processing strategies when performing a letter-searching task in their L1s. However, when performing the task in their L2, all subjects used visual search strategies similar to those used in their L1s (Coady & Huckin, 1997). These findings suggest that L1 writing systems have profound and long-lasting effects on the way L2 linguistic materials are processed.

From different perspectives, several studies on bilingual word recognition (Brown & Haynes, 1985; Koda, 1988, 1990) have confirmed that L2 readers with a non-alphabetic orthography in their L1 (e.g., Chinese, Japanese) are less efficient at processing phoneme-grapheme correspondences in English words than are readers with an alphabetic L1 orthography (Persian, Spanish). Brown and Haynes (1985) showed that Japanese speakers were faster at making same-different judgments about pairs of English words than were Spanish and Arabic ones. However, they were the slowest group at integrating the sound-symbol information necessary for naming.

Similarly, in a study using the same language groups as the Brown and Haynes (1985) study, Koda (1988) presented a phonological task in which participants were asked to identify which of two pseudo words was homophonic with a real English word (e.g., thare, their), and an orthographic task in which they were asked to determine which of the two homophonic items was the correct spelling of an English word (e.g., room, rume). She found that Japanese participants were more severely impaired by the absence of orthographic information in the phonological task

than were the participants from alphabetic groups. However, because of their L1 orthography, Japanese and Chinese readers make greater use of visual processing than do readers of English (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). There is evidence that these differences lead to variations in reading rates and fluency in lexical processing. Grabe and Stoller (2002) argue that differing orthographies are more or less transparent with respect to letter-sound relationships. Thus, readers will process words differently in different kinds of orthographies.

2.4.2 Reading Skills in L1 and L2

Different studies show that there is a strong relationship between a person's L1 and L2 reading abilities. Brown and Haynes (1985) examined the effects of L1 reading experience on L2 component skills development among Arabic, Spanish, and Japanese ESL learners. The data revealed that although Japanese subjects were superior to the other groups in terms of visual discrimination, this advantage was not sustained in a visual-to-sound translation task. This confirms that L1 reading is a significant force in modeling processing mechanisms.

Some other studies have pointed to the need for efficient lower-order processes for proficient L2 reading comprehension (Koda, 2005). Researchers regard the efficiency of lower-order processes, such as word identification and syntactic parsing, as an important condition for the development of L1 reading comprehension (Perfetti, 1985; Stanovich, 1991). They also view it as important in the development of L2 reading comprehension (Koda, 2005).

It is obvious that L2 students, who have already experienced learning to read in an L1, come with the linguistic knowledge of it. This can either support the positive transfer of reading skills or become a source of interference. Students who

are weak in L1 literacy abilities cannot be expected to transfer many supporting resources to L2 reading contexts. Furthermore, L2 learners who do not know how to read in L1 might miss some fundamental skills and L2 reading strategies. These include pre-reading skills of directionality, sequencing, the ability to distinguish shapes and sounds, and the knowledge that written symbols correspond to sounds and can be decoded in terms of order and direction. Other challenges LD learners might face include the inability to activate semantic and syntactic knowledge or to recognize some rhetorical devices and understand text structure. LD learners might not be able to learn to use cues to predict meaning or be aware of the variety of purposes for reading and strategies, such as experimenting, hypothesizing, creating, and constructing meaning. Perhaps, most importantly, finding self-confidence in reading may be difficult.

Moreover, illiterate L1 students lack the experience needed to transfer appropriate reading strategies. Since literate L2 students bring with them varying underlying attitudes toward L2 reading, they shape their own perceptions of how well they can perform tasks and, consequently, cement their success as readers.

2.4.3 The Relationship between Reading Strategies and Reading Ability

Honsefeld (1977) reported a study in which learners with high and low reading abilities were asked to self-report as they read unassigned texts. The study found that those with a high reading ability tended to keep the meaning of the passage in mind, read in broad phrases, skip words, and possess a positive self-concept. Low reading-ability students, however, lost the meaning of sentences as they decoded them. They read word-by-word or in short phrases, rarely skipped words, turned to the glossary for the meaning of new words, and had a poor self-concept as readers.

Relatively, since these findings were not consistent throughout the different groups of students (vocational, semi-academic, academic, and disabled), the researchers suggested that the examined factors seem to influence the reading ability of each group of students differently. Another study used native and ESL university students' self-rated proficiency as the factor through which reading proficiency is assessed (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). There were significant differences between students with high and low abilities with regard to their use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. However, there were no significant differences observed in their use of support strategies. Anderson (1991) also examined the reading strategies of Spanish-speaking students enrolled in intensive ESL classes as they took a reading comprehension test and two other tests on a pair of academic passages. A simple regression showed that a significant relationship existed between the number of strategies used in the think-aloud protocol and the participants' reading comprehension scores. Reporting the use of more reading strategies was associated with higher reading comprehension scores. No specific strategies were found to relate to successful reading comprehension. The study also showed that no specific strategy or groups of strategies contributed more to their successful comprehension of the texts (p. 468).

Although the above-reviewed studies show that better L2 readers tend to be more strategic, there seems to be no simple or linear relationship between the use of reading strategies and reading comprehension. After enumerating several early case studies showing differences in the strategy used by high- and low-ability readers, Carrell, et al. (1998) maintained that these differences are not fixed. Brantmeier (2002) has also found no relationship between the types of strategies that second-

language learners use and their level of reading comprehension. This view entails using or reporting good reading strategies which do not always result in successful comprehension. It also indicates that when it comes to comprehension, what matter most is how effectively readers use these strategies rather whet her they actually do.

Finally, one might hypothesize that learners' not knowing how to read in L1 might miss some fundamental reading skills and L 2 reading strategies. These include, but are not limited to, pre-reading skills of directionality, sequencing, the ability to distinguish shapes and sounds, and the know ledge that written symbols correspond to sounds and can be decoded in terms of order and direction and state the importance to research method.

2.6 Previous Studies Related to Present Investigation

Over the past two decades, numerous studies have detailed the role of learners' strategies in a variety of L2 domains. Influenced by this trend in reading research, some Thai researchers tried to probe this issue from different sides.

All secondary school students are faced with the overwhelming challenge of learning how to read. Hence, central to the following section is a review of previous research studies that have shed light on a series of issues on the nature of reading strategies used for enhancing reading comprehension process.

Mei-hui (2002) explored the changes in the concept of reading in English and in the use of reading strategies for ESL students before and after ESL reading instruction. The samples were six students (four females and two males) were attending an intensive ESL reading class at a university in Northwest United State.

The instruments were questionnaires, retrospective reports, think-aloud protocols, classroom observations, and document review. The samples' concept of reading was defined by their internalized models of reading and meta-cognitive awareness of reading strategy use. The results of this study suggested that there were positive changes in the participants' concept of reading and use of reading strategies. According to the samples, the reading class was the biggest contributor for the changes. The findings of this study provided evidence for the feasibility of reshaping ESL learners' conception of reading in English and enhancing their ability to use reading strategies with greater flexibility through effective reading instruction.

Lau and Chan (2003) explored the reading strategy use and motivation among Chinese good and poor readers in Hong Kong. The samples were 159 Hong Kong Chinese grade 7 students (86 boys and 73 girls) participated voluntarily in this study. These students were between the ages of 11 and 16. They were categorized into 2 groups, 83 good readers and 76 poor readers were compared on their ability to use reading strategies in Chinese reading comprehension and on various reading motivation variables. Two reading tests and one questionnaire were employed in this study. The findings revealed that poor readers scored lower than good readers in using all reading strategies, and especially in using sophisticated cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Poor readers also had lower intrinsic motivation in reading than had good readers. While the ability to use reading strategies had the strongest relation with reading comprehension, intrinsic motivation and strategy attribution might facilitate reading development through their positive relations with strategy use.

Pattaraporn (2006) investigated the reading strategies used by Thai university first year engineering students. The samples of this study were 48 Thai full-time, first

year university students (28 male and 20 female; 24 high-readers and 24 low-readers). All subjects were asked to produce verbal reports during the process of reading expository text. The subjects' verbal reports were transcribed and coded into idea units. The results of this study showed that subjects 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 subjects' use of reading strategies. Interestingly, though, there was a statistically significant interaction between gender and reading ability on students' use of compensating 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.

Angel (2007) identified and comparatively analyzed the reading strategies of high school seniors. The students were surveyed regarding their use of online reading strategies, print reading strategies, and internet use habits. Standardized reading comprehension scores were also used in the analysis. It was hypothesized that readers who were highly strategic when reading print texts would also be highly strategic when reading online texts and that students who spent more time per week online and who scored higher on measures of reading comprehension would be more strategic and utilize more strategies while reading online texts. A subset of students was selected to participate in think-aloud protocols, giving voice to both strategy and

thought as they navigated and read online texts. Data indicated that students were more strategic readers of online texts than print texts, and the difference in strategy use was statistically significant. However, with this set of student participants, neither reading comprehension nor internet use affected strategy use with online texts. Students used a number of the strategies included in the framework, which indicated that many of the strategies from print texts can also be useful with online texts. However, students used many strategies that were unique to online texts and indicate differences in the environments that affect reading, including tracking their place online with the cursor, making connections to other media texts, and searching for items which caught their attention and interest.

Seham (2008) studied the EFL reading strategies of main idea comprehension and identification. Participants were all university students majoring in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL). There were 112 participants from Libya and 16 English speaking control participants from Canada. Reading comprehension strategy awareness was assessed via Mokhtari and Sheorey's (2002) Survey of Reading Strategy. An English reading text was administered to both groups and an Arabic reading text to the Arabic group only. In addition, semi-structured reading strategy interviews were conducted individually with participants from the control and the experimental groups. The interviewees were randomly selected from within different reading proficiency groupings. Results revealed that reading comprehension strategy awareness had no effect on main idea comprehension in both L1 and L2 for the native Arabic group. The native English group had higher awareness of the three categories of reading strategies (Support, Global and Problem-solving) than the native Arabic group. The problem solving strategy category was the most familiar to the

native Arabic group. Results indicated that general reading proficiency did not affect the recall performance of main ideas for either group. Qualitative analysis of the results indicated that the native English group effectively used more reading strategies than the native Arabic group, and that the native Arabic group did not actually use the strategies which they claimed the highest awareness of. Furthermore, they tended to misapply the strategies that they did use. These findings indicated that simply knowing about reading strategies does not necessarily result in being able to use them appropriately.

Hashem (2009) investigated the relationship between Saudi EFL college-level students' use of reading strategies and their EFL reading comprehension. The samples were 140 Saudi students in four Saudi public universities and colleges. The instruments used were questionnaire, structured interviews, and TOEFL reading test. The findings indicated that EFL learners in Saudi Arabia showed significantly more perceived use of planning strategies than attending strategies and evaluating strategies. They also perceived the environment as the most important factor affecting their reading comprehension. The results of the study showed no significant relationship between Saudi EFL learners comprehension level and their use of reading strategies. In fact, Saudi students perceived other factors such as prior knowledge (appropriate schemata), enthusiasm for reading, time on task, purpose for reading, and vocabulary as having much effective contribution to their final comprehension. Gender differences favoring female learners were evident in almost all analyses conducted in the current study. Significant differences were found favoring female students in overall strategy use, comprehension level, and the use of evaluating strategies.

Poole (2009) conducted the study to discover whether females and males significantly varied in their utilization of reading strategies. The participants were 352 (male=117; female=235) low to intermediate Colombian university students who completed the Survey of Reading Strategies or SORS (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). The results showed that males' overall strategy use was moderate, as was their use of nearly half of their individual strategies. Females' overall strategy use was high, as was their use of half of their strategies. Females' overall strategy use was significantly higher than males', as was their strategy use on two of the three SORS subscales and on eight strategies. The study provides ideas for teaching strategies and suggests areas for future research.

Banner and Wang (2010) identified and examined effective reading strategies used by adult deaf readers compared with student deaf readers. There were a total of 11 participants: 5 deaf adults ranging from 27 to 36 years and 6 deaf students ranging from 16 to 20 years. Assessment methods included interview and think-aloud procedures in which individuals were interrupted 3 times during the reading of a text to answer questions about their internal cognitive processes. It was found that both student and adult groups had highly skilled readers who demonstrated higher level reading strategies and less skilled readers who demonstrated lower level strategies, and only the highest skilled reader demonstrated both breadth and depth of strategies in all three categories: "constructing meaning," "monitoring and improving comprehension," and "evaluating comprehension." The study contributes evidence toward two identified gaps in the existing body of research: (a) the lack of investigation into the reading strategies utilized by deaf readers in text comprehension and (b) the overemphasis of most research on studying less skilled deaf readers while

overlooking highly proficient deaf readers.

Oranpattanachai (2010) investigated the effect of reading proficiency on the reading processes of Thai pre-engineering students at a college in Thailand. The samples were 90 Thai pre-engineering students. They were categorized into 2 groups, the high and the low proficiency readers, according to their reading scores and their English grades. The metacognitive reading strategy awareness questionnaire was employed to investigate their reading strategy use. The results showed that the high and the low proficiency readers shared both differences and similarities in their reading processes. The differences in their reading processes were divided into 2 aspects: the frequency of perceived strategy use and the frequency of perceived top-down strategy use. The similarities in their reading processes were also divided into two aspects: the rank ordering of perceived strategy use and the style of text

Lien (2011) investigated EFL learners' reading strategies use in relation to reading anxiety and gender after their participation in extensive reading as a supplemental course requirement. The samples were 108 EFL college freshmen. The instruments used were questionnaire, a survey of Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS), and a modified Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS). The findings indicated that a negative correlation between reading anxiety and reading strategies. It was also found that EFL learners with low anxiety levels tended to use general reading strategies such as guessing, while EFL learners with high anxiety levels employed basic support mechanisms, such as translation, to help themselves understand texts. Some reading strategies were more used by high-anxiety level readers than low-anxiety level readers. Additionally, females tended to be slightly more anxious than males in reading.

In summary, reading strategies are a process that requires effort on the readers' part if they want to understand what they are reading. A considerable amount of research has been devoted to understanding the processes that contribute to reading comprehension. According to the mentioned previous researches, they seem to be potentially strategic readers, EFL learners' comprehension level does not depend solely on the use of reading strategies. Prior knowledge (appropriate schemata), enthusiasm for reading, time on task, purpose for reading, and vocabulary are significant factors that contribute much to the final comprehension. Therefore, the study suggests that EFL educators in Thailand focus more on these factors in planning their reading curriculum and instruction. The study also recommends that reading instruction should supplement students with sufficient and balanced extensive reading activities.

2.7 Summary of the Chapter

The previous discussion indicates that both language proficiency and reading strategies and skills are contributing factors to L2 reading. However, to understand the impact of the major contributing factors in the L2 reading process, L2 reading research needs to examine language proficiency and reading skills and strategies simultaneously. The major problem with examining the impact of language proficiency on L2 reading rests with the different types of language proficiencies, which often make it difficult to explore this relationship more closely. Given this difficulty, several researchers have examined the relationship between reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge, considering this to be the most relevant linguistic construct to L2 reading (Laufer, 1989; Qian, 1999, 2002). To examine the

other contributing variable, that is, the reading factor, the reading strategies employed by L2 learners during the reading process are usually explored. Therefore, this study is a further step to gain more information on how Thai EFL secondary school learners' use of reading strategies affects their comprehension.

Although the perceived reading strategies of the different reading proficiency groups are considered in this study, no significant differences in strategy use among these groups, or significant high correlations between strategy use and reading comprehension, are expected. However, given the homogeneity of the participants in this study, which reduces the chance of variation caused by unknown variables, tendencies to use certain strategies more or less frequently by the different reading proficiency groups may be indicative of a relationship between reading strategies and reading proficiency. The following chapter, Chapter Three, provides more details about the research design, the participants of the current study, the instrumentation use for data collection and information about data analysis.