



**PERCEPTIONS OF THAI EFL LEARNERS TOWARDS THE  
EXPLICIT READING STRATEGY INSTRUCTION**

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**การรับรู้ต่อการสอนกลวิธีการอ่านเชิงประจักษ์ของนักเรียนไทย  
ที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศ**

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## บทคัดย่อ

การปฏิรูปการศึกษาและความรับผิดชอบในการเรียนการสอนของโรงเรียนในประเทศไทยกำลังได้รับการดำเนินการอย่างต่อเนื่องอยู่ในขณะนี้ แต่ผลสัมฤทธิ์ทางการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนไทยยังคงเป็นปัญหาตลอดมา การวิจัยครั้งนี้ เป็นการวิจัยผสมผสานทั้งเชิงปริมาณและคุณภาพโดยมีความมุ่งหมายเพื่อศึกษาระดับการรับรู้ของนักเรียนไทยต่อการสอนกลวิธีการอ่านเชิงประจักษ์และการนำไปประยุกต์ใช้ งานวิจัยนี้ยังได้สำรวจความเหมือนและความแตกต่างของระดับการรับรู้ระหว่างนักเรียนที่เรียนแผนการเรียนวิทยาศาสตร์ และนักเรียนที่เรียนแผนการเรียนศิลปศาสตร์

กลุ่มตัวอย่างที่ใช้ในการศึกษาคั้งนี้เป็นนักเรียนไทยชั้นมัธยมศึกษาปีที่ 5 โรงเรียนบุรีรัมย์พิทยาคม จำนวน 80 คน ที่ได้มาโดยการเลือกแบบเจาะจง โดยแบ่งเป็นนักเรียนที่เรียนแผนการเรียนศิลปศาสตร์ จำนวน 40 คน และนักเรียนที่เรียนแผนการเรียนวิทยาศาสตร์ จำนวน 40 คน งานวิจัยนี้ใช้กรณีศึกษาโดยการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูลใช้เทคนิคด้านชาติพันธุ์วรรณา เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการรวบรวมข้อมูลได้แก่ เอกสารของโรงเรียน แบบสอบถาม บทเรียนอ่านสองเรื่อง การสัมภาษณ์ และการสังเกตจากบทเรียนการสอนอ่านซึ่งเป็นการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูลเชิงปริมาณและคุณภาพ สถิติที่ใช้ในการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลได้แก่ ร้อยละ ค่าเฉลี่ย ส่วนเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐานและ Independent Samples t-test โดยกำหนดค่าความมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติที่ระดับ .05

จากผลการวิเคราะห์เชิงปริมาณ พบว่า นักเรียนทั้งสองแผนการเรียนใช้กลวิธีการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษโดยรวมในระดับปานกลาง โดยใช้กลวิธีทางจิตใจมากที่สุดและใช้กลวิธีการอ่านทางความจำน้อยที่สุด ทั้งนี้ นักเรียนที่เรียนแผนการเรียนศิลปศาสตร์และนักเรียนที่เรียนแผนการเรียนวิทยาศาสตร์มีระดับการใช้กลวิธีที่ค่อนข้างเหมือนกัน จากการเปรียบเทียบการใช้กลวิธีการอ่านของนักเรียนที่เรียนแผนการเรียนศิลปศาสตร์ และนักเรียนที่เรียนแผนการเรียนวิทยาศาสตร์ พบว่า นักเรียนทั้งสองแผนการเรียนใช้กลวิธีทางความจำ กลวิธีทางพุทธิปัญญาและกลวิธีทางอภิปัญญา แตกต่างกันอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติที่ระดับ 0.001 ส่วนกลวิธีการชดเชย กลวิธีทางจิตใจและกลวิธีทางสังคม แตกต่างกันอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติที่ระดับ 0.05

ส่วนผลการวิเคราะห์เชิงคุณภาพ พบว่า นักเรียนที่เรียนแผนการเรียนวิทยาศาสตร์เข้าใจรูปแบบของการอ่านและกลวิธีการอ่านเชิงประจักษ์ มากกว่านักเรียนที่เรียนแผนการเรียนศิลปศาสตร์ ในทางตรงกันข้าม นักเรียนที่เรียนแผนการเรียนศิลปศาสตร์มีระดับการรับรู้ทางด้านจิตใจมากกว่านักเรียนที่เรียนแผนการเรียนวิทยาศาสตร์

นอกจากนี้ นักเรียนที่เรียนแผนการเรียนศิลปศาสตร์และนักเรียนที่เรียนแผนการเรียนวิทยาศาสตร์มีความแตกต่างกันในแง่การรับรู้ และการประยุกต์ใช้ด้านบริบททางการอ่าน โดยนักเรียนที่เรียนแผนการเรียนวิทยาศาสตร์ใช้กลวิธีการอ่าน เพื่อวัตถุประสงค์ทางวิชาการและเพื่อเพิ่มทักษะทางปัญญา ส่วนนักเรียนที่เรียนแผนการเรียนศิลปศาสตร์ประยุกต์ใช้กลวิธีการอ่าน ในยามว่าง อีกทั้งประยุกต์ใช้เมื่อเผชิญกับกลวิธีการอ่านที่ไม่คุ้นเคย ตามข้อค้นพบงานวิจัยในครั้งนี้ ได้นำทฤษฎี งานวิจัยที่เกี่ยวข้อง และการปฏิบัติการเรียนการสอนมาเพื่อประยุกต์ใช้ให้เกิดประโยชน์สำหรับการศึกษารุ่นต่อไป

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### **ABSTRACT**

Educational reform and accountability are on the rise in Thai schools; still many students continue to struggle with reading achievement. Using a mixed qualitative and quantitative design, this study examined Thai students' levels of perceived values towards the explicit reading strategy instruction and their perceived application of the strategies. In addition, it explored the similarity and differences which exist between arts and science students' report and encountering.

The samples were 80 surveyed students from grade 11 studying at Burirampittayakhom School purposively selected and divided into two groups: 40 arts students and 40 science students. This research employed a case study approach, using ethnographic techniques of data collection. Various methods, including: (1) school documents, (2) questionnaires, (3) two types of reading texts, (4) interviews, and (5) observations of reading lessons, were used to collect both quantitative data and qualitative data. The statistics for data analysis included percentage, mean, standard deviation, and independent samples t-test. The significant difference was set at the level of .05.

The quantitative analysis showed that both groups of students used all six groups of strategies at moderate levels. Affective strategies were the most often used and memory strategies were the least often used. The order of use of the strategy groups employed by arts and science students was rather similar. The t-test results revealed that the arts and science students used memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and metacognitive strategies differently at 0.001 levels of significant difference; whereas, compensation strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies were statistically significant difference at 0.05 levels. For qualitative data analysis, it was found that science students gained more extensive than arts students both in understanding the concepts about reading and reading strategies while arts students gained more affective values.

Additionally, the differences were found regarding perceived reading contexts and difficulties in application between the two groups of students. The science students gained more strategies that were applicable for academic purposes, and they also cognitively encountered more demanding tasks. In comparison, the arts students employed more strategies that were applicable to leisure readings, and the problem they encountered was mainly unfamiliarity with the reading strategies. Based on the findings in this study, implications are drawn for theory, research and instructional practice.

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

<b>ANCOVA</b>	<b>Analysis of Covariance</b>
<b>ANOVA</b>	<b>Analysis of Variance</b>
<b>AS</b>	<b>Arts Student</b>
<b>BALLI</b>	<b>Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory</b>
<b>BRU</b>	<b>Buriram Rajabhat University</b>
<b>EFL</b>	<b>English as a Foreign Language</b>
<b>ERSI</b>	<b>Explicit Reading Strategy Instruction</b>
<b>ESL</b>	<b>English as a Second Language</b>
<b>IOC</b>	<b>Item Objective Congruence</b>
<b>ISL</b>	<b>Informed Strategies for Learning</b>
<b>L1</b>	<b>First Language</b>
<b>L2</b>	<b>Second Language</b>
<b>MANOVA</b>	<b>Multivariate Analysis of Variance</b>
<b>S.D.</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>
<b>SILL</b>	<b>Strategies Inventory of Language Learning</b>
<b>SS</b>	<b>Science Student</b>
<b>SPSS</b>	<b>Statistical Package for the Social Sciences</b>
<b>TOEFL</b>	<b>Test of English as a Foreign Language</b>

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background of the Study

The advent of the information era has profound implications for education development in Thailand. One important implication is the understanding that education is not mere imparting of knowledge, for no one can impart “knowledge” and the amount of information available to one is massive and ever-changing. Rather, teachers should enhance students’ capabilities to cope effectively with the challenges in a keenly competitive knowledge-based society. Students should be taught to learn by themselves rather than wait passively for someone to impart those facts (Ministry of Education, 2002). This realization also has implications for the reading curriculum. The recent revised syllabuses for English language for Thai high schools have identified three reasons that contribute to the importance of reading. One of them is that mastery of reading skills is important for acquisition of new knowledge in both formal education and lifelong learning (Ministry of Education, 2006).

This function of reading has highlighted not just one’s comprehension of the written messages but one’s ability to make that comprehension possible. It is also in the new syllabuses that the notion of reading strategies have been introduced and specified as learning targets. Such emphasis on the learning of reading strategies is consistent with the notion of learning to learn, which is much stressed in Thailand’s recent education reform (Ministry of Education, 2006). Learning the reading strategies

means learning the ways that enable a person to read, comprehend and acquire knowledge. However, what we need to ask is whether our language classrooms are making adjustments that can accommodate this shift of focus in the reading curriculum.

In a study on reading instruction in L1 middle-grade reading classrooms, Durkin (1978) has found that classroom instruction consisted primarily of practice and tests. Students just answered questions and took tests, and teachers seldom advised students on how to carry out the reading skills. Her work has motivated researchers to develop and study comprehension instruction that really helps learners to develop their ability to read.

Unfortunately, the local situation remains more or less the same as what Durkin described about L1 classrooms thirty years ago. Reading instruction in local primary and secondary classrooms can still be described as more practice and tests than teaching (Babaki & Yazdanpanah, 2010). The product of reading is still emphasized more than the reading process. In the Vanichakorn's (2003) survey on classroom reading strategies, it was found that many teachers still placed low emphasis on higher order skills and comprehension instruction. One can assume that in most local reading classrooms, explicit knowledge about the use of reading strategies is still rarely given.

The conduct of reading strategy instruction and a study on it, the researcher believe, are helpful to inform local practitioners of how the instruction can possibly be carried out. Though no one can claim generalizability of a small-scale study like this one, the current study is still important in two senses: (1) to provide feedback to the reading program conducted by the school under investigation, and (2) to add to the

limited understanding that we now have about ways to help Thai EFL students especially the local learners to read effectively.

Researches in first language reading (Hare & Borchardt, 1984; Paris, Cross & Lipson, 1984; Palinscar & Brown, 1984; Duffy et. al. 1987; Pressley et. al., 1992; Loranger, 1997) have found that reading strategies can be taught and that such training can improve students' comprehension and develop their reading ability. These studies have also identified a number of strategies that can be taught to students. Some of them include teaching of text-structures, summarization (Hare & Borchardt, 1984) and self-questioning (Nolan, 1991).

At the same time, studies have been conducted to see how strategy training should be carried out. It has been shown that teaching is better conducted in an explicit manner (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Wenden, 1991). In the field of reading comprehension, explicit instruction is also advocated (Duffy & Roehler, 1982; Pearson & Gallagher, 1983; Paris, Cross & Lipson, 1984; Palinscar & Brown, 1984; Winograd & Hare, 1988), though different models of explicit instruction have different emphasis. In a sense, conducting strategy training explicitly means adding a metacognitive component to the training because it raises students' awareness of the existence of strategies and strategy use. In reading, focus is placed on knowledge and regulation of reading strategies (Baker & Brown, 1984). Explicit instruction of reading strategies means bringing this knowledge and regulation to students' awareness, and some studies (e.g. Hare & Borchardt, 1984; Palinscar & Brown, 1984) have shown that it can lead to strategy use over time and transferring of strategies to other tasks. However, many of the afore-said studies have been carried out in the L1

setting (Pressley, 2000). What we know from research in this area in the L2 setting is limited, particularly with Thai learners.

As most of the past research on the effects of reading strategy training adopts an experimental approach to study the linear and causal relations between training and students' reading ability development (Pressley, 2000), investigation into students' perceptions of the instruction is usually briefly reported or much ignored. In a sense, these evaluations have overlooked the importance of seeing the instruction from the perspective of the participants (Piggot & Barr, 2000).

So far, to the researcher's knowledge, only a relative small amount of research on comprehension strategy instruction has been conducted, particularly in the context of Thailand. Besides, empirical research on effective reading instruction for foreign language learners has long been under-explored. Seeing this, the researcher has been inspired to carry out the present study with a view to exploring the perceptions of explicit reading strategy instruction on improving a group of Thai EFL 11<sup>th</sup>-grade students' English reading comprehension. The researcher believes this research may give us more information about the values learners perceive and a glimpse of some variables involved. Such information is again important to theory and guide curricular planning and pedagogical decisions.

## **1.2 Research Objectives**

This study is designed to achieve the following objectives:

1.2.1 To investigate Thai EFL students' perceived values of the explicit reading strategies instruction and their perceived application of the strategies.

1.2.2 To investigate differences of perceived values and perceived application of the reading strategies between arts and science students.

### **1.3 Research Questions**

Based on the research purposes above, the present study attempts to address the following questions:

1.3.1 What strategies do students report that they have used in reading?

1.3.2 How do arts and science students differ in their self-report use of reading strategies?

1.3.3 What values do students perceive in the explicit reading strategy instruction?

1.3.4 How are the perceived values of arts students different from those of science students?

### **1.4 Significance of the Research**

This investigation into students' perceptions of the explicit teaching of reading strategies seems to indicate that students value quite highly the usefulness of reading strategy instruction as shown by the various values both arts and science students perceived. The perceived values will be manifolds, including perceived improvement in comprehension, acquisition of cognitive tactics, improvement in metacognitive knowledge or conceptions of reading and gains in affective values. The value of reading strategy training appears to be indisputable, at least to this group of EFL students who are of average reading ability in comparison with students across the territory.

Students' perceptions of the positive effects of reading strategy instruction will be actually consistent with findings of other studies on both EFL and ESL students. This study will indicate students' improvement in metacognitive awareness or comprehension scores after reading strategy training over a period of time; whereas, this current research into students' perceptions of reading strategy instruction reveals various facilitating effects perceived by students. Though the current research only works on a limited number of students, it still appears to inform us of the importance of reading strategy instruction. What need to be considered next are perhaps the factors that make the instruction effective.

### **1.5 Scope and Limitations of the Study**

Several limitations are noted in the current research as follows:

1.5.1 First, this study confines itself to investigating the 11<sup>th</sup>-grade students at Burirampittayakhum High School, in Buriram Province, Thailand. In total, the population counted 608 students. The participants consisted of 40 arts, and 40 science programs students. At the time of the investigation, they were all students of the English reading course in the academic year 2010. The students are informed in advance of the day and time of the interview and of the observation. The students who are not willing to participate in the study are not included and replaced by students who accept to participate. The fact that the present study involved a limited number of participants makes it difficult to form conclusive generalizations. Although the study certainly generates sound advice for the current school and suggests insights to schools that may bear similar characteristics, it is hard to say that

the same can be applied to other settings given the differences in at least the ecological, cultural and social situations.

1.5.2 Second, the reading materials are selected from two reading texts with the same website. Both groups of participants study the same materials and the researcher herself instructs both groups. In order to control threats of internal validity, the researcher used the same reading materials, activities, length of time, environment in the classrooms, and midterm and final examinations.

1.5.3 The third limitation is the inability to control all the variables in a naturalistic environment. To tap learners' perceptions in a genuine instructional program on reading strategies, the researcher does not set up an experimental study. Obviously, the researcher could not control a number of factors such as a constant quality of teaching materials and uniform learning input to everyone. There is no control of different text-types in use in a particular session. Interviewees are not subjected to the same instruction. Learners' perceptions can also be affected by the learners' and teachers' motivation on a particular day. All these mean that the results cannot be taken as general truth.

1.5.4 Fourth, though other data collection methods such as observations are used to induce a higher degree of reliability, self-report data has its inherent weaknesses. For example, it is difficult to determine if student respondents are trying to supply more socially acceptable data than reality in the interviews and questionnaires. Moreover, perceptions and reality are at times distant from one another the researcher cannot exclude the possibility that the students might have over reported or underreported their actual strategy use.



## **1.6 Definitions of Key Terms**

The following terms are essential to interpret in this study and thus need to be defined before presenting such results.

**1.6.1 EFL (English as a Foreign Language)** refers to the role of English in countries where it is taught as a subject in schools but neither is used as a medium of instruction nor as a language of communication (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1999).

**1.6.2 Thai EFL Learners** refers to 11<sup>th</sup>-grade students who study English as a foreign language in both arts and science programs at Burirampittayakhum High School in Buriram Province, Thailand in the academic year of 2010.

**1.6.3 Perceptions** refer to the interpretation or impression based on understanding of teachers' instruction techniques in explicit teaching of reading strategies and how the students perceive their own pattern of strategy use of substantial aspect of investigation.

**1.6.4 Reading** refers to an active process of integrated skills and strategies used to understand printed information (Goodman, 1986).

**1.6.5 Reading Comprehension** - Reading requires an individual to comprehend or construct meaning from text. Comprehension is an active and complex process that involves interaction between the text and the reader (Durkin, 1978; Rosenshine & Meister, 1994). Both the information from the text and the knowledge possessed by the reader are needed for construction of meaning.

**1.6.6 Reading Strategies** refer to a range of behaviors, actions, techniques, operations or steps used by foreign language students to help them succeed in reading English.

**1.6.7 Explicit Instruction** refers to a type of instruction that not only tells students what they will be learning, but also gives them the procedural and conditional knowledge needed for understanding (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983).

**1.6.8 Explicit Reading Strategy Instruction (ERSI)** refers to the teachers' explanations and demonstrative use of strategies, and the adoption of a cooperative learning mode appear to shape students' positive perceptions. The ERSI is mainly based on the strategy of the six broad groups according to Oxford's New System of Language Learning Strategies (1990, pp. 14-15), namely:

**1.6.8.1 Memory Strategies** are used for entering new information into memory storage and for retrieving it when needed for communication.

**1.6.8.2 Cognitive Strategies** are used for linking new information with existing schemata, and for analyzing and classifying it.

**1.6.8.3 Compensation Strategies** are included strategies such as guessing and using gestures. These strategies are needed to fill any gaps in the knowledge of the language.

**1.6.8.4 Metacognitive Strategies** are techniques used for organizing, planning, focusing, and evaluating one's own learning.

**1.6.8.5 Affective Strategies** are used for handling feelings, attitudes, and motivations related to language learning.

**1.6.8.6 Social Strategies** are used for facilitating interaction with others by asking questions, and cooperating with others in the learning process.

**1.6.9 Reading Texts** refer to the narrative and expository texts. A narrative text is written to express either a true or fictional story. They may take the form of a travel story, autobiography, fairy tale, etc. A narrative text may contain the following

elements: characters, setting, plot, and theme (Spafford, Pesce, & Grooser, 1998). An expository text is written to present factual information or ideas. This type of text is referred to as content area texts, which includes social studies, mathematics or science (Spafford, Pesce & Grooser, 1998). An expository text may have the following structures: cause-effect, comparison-contrast, description, problem-solution and sequence (Harris & Hodges, 1995).

### **1.7 The Overviews of the Research**

This current research is organized into six chapters. Chapter One presents both the contextual and research background against which the current study is set. To answer the research questions, the researcher has reviewed the related theories and previous research studies in the field. This is developed in Chapter Two. Chapter Two looks into relevant theoretical issues and findings from empirical research. First, there is a review of the literature in which the cognitive views of reading and reading ability development is discussed. Second, the effectiveness of and possible instructional approaches for reading strategy training are presented, and finally the importance of students' perceptions of the instruction is analyzed. Chapter Three is on research methodology. The research design, the details of reading strategy instruction, the research participants, the research instruments, the data collection procedures, and the data analysis and statistical procedures are presented. Chapter Four presents findings on students' perceived usefulness of reading strategy instruction, and their perceived application of the reading strategies. Chapter Five is a discussion of the findings including significance of reading strategy instruction and the different aspects involved in facilitating a more effective teaching. In Chapter

Six, the study concludes with a summary of its pedagogical implications, and a discussion of the limitations and future research directions.

### **1.8 Summary of the Chapter**

In Chapter One, the researcher has given a description of the background to the current investigation in an attempt to put the study in context, followed by the research objectives for the present investigation. This chapter also presents a brief research questions and their contributions. This is followed by a discussion of the scope and limitations, and definitions of key terms of the present investigation. Lastly, the chapter concludes the overviews of the research. In the next chapter, Chapter Two, relevant research studies that have previously been conducted will be reviewed with a view to shedding light on the theoretical framework guiding this particular study.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of Thai EFL learners towards the explicit reading strategy instruction. This review of the literature begins with definitions of reading comprehension as defined by experts in the area of reading. The next section overviews research related to reading as a cognitive process, and reading process models. This section is followed by a review of developing reading ability through the explicit reading strategy instruction, and a case study employing ethnographic technique of data collection. Finally, the previous studies on explicit reading strategy instruction are discussed.

#### **2.1 Definitions of Reading**

Reading is a skill that a reader uses to search for world knowledge, understanding and entertainment (Chandavimol, 1998). Moreover, reading is a matter of an interaction that involves the reader, the text, and the actual interaction between the reader and text (Rumelhart, 1977; Acbersold & Field, 1997; Piyanukool, 2001; Intaraprasert, 2004).

Mikulecky and Jeffries (1996) state that reading is perhaps one of the most realistic communicative skills that can take place in an EFL context. Reading is important for EFL students because it helps them to learn to think in English, to feel more comfortable with written English and to build a better vocabulary. As well as

being a highly important skill for students who plan to study in an English-speaking country, it may be the only way for EFL students who live in a non-English speaking country to use English.

The term of reading has been defined in a number of different ways by a variety of experts in the field. Gates (1986) views reading as the complex organization of patterns of higher mental process involving all types of thinking: evaluating, judging, imagining, reasoning and problem-solving. Goodman (1967) argues that reading is a psycholinguistic game, in which the reader reconstructs a message encoded by the writer as a graphic display. Huey (1987) defines reading as the complicated working of the human mind. Barnette (1989) argues that reading involves interdisciplinary insights from different fields of study such as psychology, sociology, education, and theoretical and applied linguistics. Richards, Platt and Platt (1999) view reading as a process of perceiving a written text in order to comprehend the contents of the text.

While reading, readers use their past experiences, called background knowledge. In turn, from doing this and from the text they read, they construct new experiences and acquire new knowledge. Readers have different schema and ways to apply their experiences to what they read, and these differences in experiences make some readers comprehend a text quicker and better than others. The text itself is another factor in the reading process. There are various types of texts, and each one has a different style of writing, organization, pattern, syntax and grammar, vocabulary, cohesion, and purpose. It is the readers' responsibility to know the differences between different texts in order to understand what the writer tries to convey to them.

The text and the reader are two factors that are essential to the reading process. The reader reads the text to comprehend it. Therefore, the interaction between the text and the reader is, by itself, another vital factor in this process. Different readers may get different meanings from the same text. These differences are due to the differences in the readers' background knowledge, reading ability, aptitude, personal interest, classroom environment, and so on.

In short, it could be said that ESL/EFL reading is an interactive process that involves constructing the meaning of a text. Readers interact with a text to derive the meaning from it, relying on different reading models. Therefore, knowing these models will help understand how readers work out the meaning from a text.

## **2.2 Reading as a Cognitive Process**

Traditionally, reading was seen as a passive process of text decoding. Readers are regarded as 'empty vessels', and they have nothing to contribute to the reading process and merely receive information provided by the text (McDonough & Shaw, 1993). The meaning resides in the text itself and the goal of the readers is to reproduce that meaning. In regard to this view, the teaching of reading comprehension focuses on developing skills for translating text into meaning such as word recognition skills and précis writing (McNeil, 1992).

However, starting from the 1960s, there has been a paradigm shift from viewing reading as a passive process to an active and interactive one. From this new perspective, reading is seen as a cognitive process in which readers use their existing knowledge, a range of textual cues and the situational context to construct meaning from the text (Dole, et. al., 1991). Readers are seen as meaning makers who actively

engage in making sense with the text and relating the information they are gleaning from the text to their familiar ideas, topics, experiences and events (Cummins, 1983; Graves, Juel, & Graves, 2001). They are assumed an active role in constructing meaning through the integration of existing and new knowledge and deploying strategies flexibly to foster, monitor, regulate, and maintain comprehension. Teaching reading comprehension from this cognitive perspective emphasizes developing learning strategies for relating prior knowledge to words and concepts of a text, monitoring one's comprehension of text, and learning how to reorganize old knowledge with the new knowledge in the text (McNeil, 1992).

### **2.2.1 Characteristics of an Effective Reader**

Research has generally shown that an effective reader knows how to use reading strategies that work for himself / herself. According to Wassman and Rinsky (1993, p. 5), an effective reader needs an understanding of the reading process and an understanding of how to go about reading different types of printed information. In this way, a second or foreign learner can practice techniques that will help to succeed in becoming an effective reader. Besides, they also point out two necessary ingredients for an effective reader, i.e. the willingness to change reading habits that limit the learner's reading ability and the willingness to practice. Apart from this, there are other factors helping second or foreign language readers to become effective: (1) Organize properly for Reading and Study: this requirement forces the reader to understand the importance of disciplined study so that they can appropriately time to devote to reading and study; (2) Improve the Concentration: actually concentration is important to learning in general and learning in particular for the fact that readers need to comprehend the printed information; and (3) Maintain



Confidence: confident reading is chiefly the result of preparation. Without this, readers can not become effective readers.

### **2.2.2 Teaching Reading Skills**

In an article about teaching reading, Bamford and Day (1998, pp. 124-141) state that around the world there are at least four distinctive approaches to the teaching of foreign or second language reading: grammar-translation, comprehension questions, skills, and strategies and extensive reading. For grammar-translation, students may be taught to read texts written in the foreign language by translating them into the native language. As a result, meaning is taken at the sentence level with less attention paid to the meaning of the text as a whole and meaning is constructed via the native language, not directly from the foreign language. In term of comprehension questions and language work, this approach focuses on teaching a textbook containing short passages that demonstrate the use of foreign language words or points of grammar. These texts, short enough to encourage students to read them word by word, are followed by comprehension questions and exercises. Also, skills and strategies, to follow skills and strategies approach, the teacher has to prepare for students to read a one or two - page passage from a textbook by providing or activating any background knowledge needed for comprehension (Klingner & Vaughn, 1999; Klingner & Vaughn, 2000). This preparation may include pre-teaching vocabulary that appears in the reading passage. Students then read the passage silently while keeping in mind two or three while reading questions. For the goal of the extensive reading, students will become willing and able readers in a second or foreign language. Students individually read books and other materials at their own speed mainly for homework.

## 2.3 Reading Process Models

Reading is a cognitive process that consists of a reader, a text, and the interaction between the reader and the text. Three persuasive models of the processes at work in reading for meaning are the bottom-up model, the top-down model, and the interactive model.

### 2.3.1 The Bottom-up Model

This reading model focuses on the smaller units of a text such as its letters, words, phrases and sentences. Then, a syntactic and semantic processing occurs during which reading reaches the final meaning. In this model, the reader reads all of the words in a phrase, or a sentence before being able to understand.

According to Carrell (1989), the bottom-up reading process begins with decoding the smallest linguistic units, especially phonemes, graphemes, and words, and ultimately constructs meaning from the smallest to the largest units. While doing this, the readers apply their background knowledge to the information they find in the texts. This bottom-up method is also called data-driven and text-based reading.

However, the disadvantage of this model is that the readers will only be successful in reading if they accurately decode the linguistic units and recognize the relationship between words. However, it is impossible for the readers to store in their memory the meaning of every word in a passage. Moreover, it is difficult to relate one word to the other words.

From the above information, it could be said that there are some arguments against the bottom-up model. In the reading process, the readers understand that what they have read is the result of their own constructions, not the result of the

transmission of graphic symbols to their understanding, and that without their background knowledge, they cannot comprehend the texts.

### **2.3.2 The Top-down Model**

The top-down model was first introduced by Goodman (1967). He proposes the idea of reading as a “psycholinguistic guessing game” in which the reader uses his background (prior) knowledge or textual schemata to connect with a text and to relate these to new or unexpected information found in the text in order to understand it. This model focuses on linguistic guesswork rather than graphic textual information. Moreover, the readers do not need to read every word of a text, but rather, they concentrate on predicting the next group of words. They concern themselves with guessing the meaning of the words or phrases.

Nuttall (1996) states that readers might start predicting from the title of the reading text, something that allows them to limit the scope of their reading. Additionally, while reading, they may hypothesize the message the writer wants to convey and modify their hypotheses according to what they read in the text. Comprehension begins with higher levels of processing (making hypotheses), and proceeds to the use of the lower levels.

### **2.3.3 The Interactive Model**

This model is built on the interaction of the bottom-up and top-down models. Nunan (1990), Rumelhart (1977), and Grabe (1991) argue that efficient and effective reading requires both top-down and bottom-up decoding. L2 readers, for example, may use top-down reading to compensate for deficiencies in bottom-up reading. To achieve meaning, they use their schemata to compensate for the lack of bottom-up knowledge (Grabe, 1991).

Stanovich (1980) argues that the interactive model is a process based on information from several sources such as orthographic, lexical, syntactic, semantic knowledge, and schemata. While reading, decoding processes can support one another in a compensatory way. If, when reading word by word, readers with good bottom-up skills do not comprehend the texts, they need to use their prior knowledge (schemata) to assist them. Alternatively, readers who rely on the top-down model use textual clues and guess wildly at the meaning, but they need to compensate for deficits such as weaknesses in word recognition and lack of effective bottom-up processing.

To sum up, the arrival and popularity of interactive models show that interactive models can maximize the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of both bottom-up and top-down models.

## 2.4 Reading Strategies

While the importance of reading strategies can not be overestimated for L1 English readers, Sarig (1987) notes that an individual learner's reading moves are unique and that instructing the learner to make the right move is a complicated matter.

For the role reading strategies play in the general reader's comprehension,

Salmeron et. al. (2005) indicate that reading strategies may be an important variable in reading comprehension, because reading strategies not only affect the amount of information a reader reads a particular text, but also the order in which she reads it.

For instance, when reading a text, a reader may follow a reading strategy which guides her to read the paragraphs that interest her and overlook the other information she feels is uninteresting.

As indicated by Block (1986), knowledge of the components and management of the reading process is extremely important because without it L2 English educators must resort to designing reading programs based on intuitions and guesses about students' problems. Commenting on the importance of reading strategy research, Carrell (1991) notes that studies of this nature can reveal how L2 English readers manage interactions with written texts and how strategies are related to reading comprehension. Addressing another important area of caution, Anderson (1991) reminds us that "[it] is not sufficient to know about strategies; a reader must also be able to apply them strategically" (p. 469). Additionally, his study indicates that poor readers cannot determine whether they apply the strategies successfully, even though they may be aware of the right kinds of strategies to use.

According to Jimenez, Garcia and Pearson's study (1996), investigating the reading knowledge and strategic processes of bilingual Latinos students, educators can enhance reading instruction by providing alternative models of proficient reading for learners. As indicated by Anderson (1999), reading, one of the essential language skills, is an active, fluent process in which the readers build meaning out of the reading material. Meaning is not located in the printed page, nor is it in the reader's head. Rather, meaning is constructed by a synergy which integrates the words on the printed page with the reader's background knowledge and experiences. However, as illustrated by Anderson (1999), ESL/EFL learners' reading tends not to be fluent because they are not actively engaged with the text in a meaningful way. Addressing this challenge in the EFL/ESL classroom, Anderson suggests that language teachers teach L2 readers how to successfully orchestrate the use of strategies and how to monitor their own improvement.

In the same vein, Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) believes that metacognitive reading strategy instruction should be integrated with the overall reading curriculum because “[such] instruction can help promote an increased awareness of the mental processes involved in reading and the development of thoughtful and constructively responsive reading” (p. 446).

## **2.5 Developing Reading Ability through the Explicit Reading**

### **Strategy Instructions**

Various experimental studies to evaluate the effectiveness of reading strategy instruction in the L1 setting (Palinscar & Brown, 1984; Duffy et. al. 1987; Pressley et. al, 1992; Loranger, 1997 cited in Siriwan, 2007) have identified a number of reading strategies that can be taught, and suggested that it is more effective to conduct training in an explicit manner.

#### **2.5.1 The Various Forms of Explicit Teaching**

Both Oxford (1989) and O’Malley and Chamot (1990) point out that for training to be effective, it is better to conduct the teaching in an explicit manner, though they use different terms to indicate the concept of explicitness. For Oxford (1990, p. 199) use the term “informed” as opposed to “blind” training; whereas, O’Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 153) use the term “direct” as opposed to “embedded”. They all mean that students should be informed of the purpose and value of strategy training. In a discussion of reading and studying skills, Brown, Ambruster and Baker (1986) also point out that informed training should involve “instruction in the significance of the trained activity” (p. 67).

In the field of reading comprehension, many researchers have tried to define the concept of explicitness. Though each with different area(s) of emphasis, they all maintain that instruction conducted explicitly is most effective. Pearson and Gallagher (1983) propose the explicit instruction model, stating that reading strategy instruction should be carried out through “the repetition of a cycle of instructional events - explanation, guided practice, corrective feedback, independent practice, and applications (p. 333). Roehler et. al. (1987, p. 7, cited in Pearson & Dolc, 1987, p. 158) “argue that Pearson and his colleagues” work focuses on “activities that encourage but do not explicitly explains”. In contrast, they propose the direct explanation strategy instruction, which stresses the importance of teacher explanations, the reasoning associated with strategic reading and mental modeling of effective strategy use (i.e., showing students how to apply a strategy by thinking aloud) (Duffy & Roehler, 1982; Brown et. al., 1986; Duffy et. al., 1987). They also propose the phrase direct explanations to replace direct instructions.

However, their emphasis on teacher explanations and modeling is actually similar to the first two instructional events, i.e. modeling or explanation and guided practice, proposed by Pearson and Gallagher (1983). In an elaboration, Pearson and Gallagher point out that modeling should usually involve teachers thinking aloud as they are reading, a sharing of the cognitive secrets of the teacher’s success, and guided practice should involve teachers and students work[ing] together to figure out how they went about applying the skills (p. 159). The special emphasis of Duffy et. al, (1987) on teacher’ explanations of the rationale and modeling of effective reading strategy use has helped to further explain what effective teachers’ instructional

behavior should be like. This emphasis has added to our understanding of the concept of explicit instruction.

In a review of several studies on reading strategy instruction, Winograd and Hare (1988) propose five elements of direct explanation. They posit that reading strategy instruction should embody: 1) clear explanation of the strategies; 2) how; 3) why; 4) when and where of using them; and 5) the ways to self-evaluate one's strategy use. Paris, Cross and Lipson (1984) share a similar opinion to Winograd and Hare's and propose Informed Strategies for Learning (ISL). They advocate bringing the reading strategies to students' awareness, meaning that teachers should explicitly inform learners about declarative knowledge (what), procedural knowledge (how) and conditional knowledge (when and why) of reading strategies. Though there seems to be variations in the two definitions of direct or informed training, Paris, Cross and Lipson and Winograd and Hare actually use slightly different terms to capture the same concept. For example, Paris, Cross and Lipson (1984) use "when" to refer to "situational appropriateness" (p. 121) while Winograd and Hare (1988) use "when and where" to indicate "appropriate circumstances" (p. 123). Furthermore, Paris, Cross and Lipson (1984) seem to emphasize less the last element, i.e. the self-evaluation of one's strategy use, but this element is actually embedded since discussion and feedback are given to students about "their options for selecting and employing particular strategies" (p. 124).

There are also approaches of explicit teaching that emphasize a different aspect of strategy training. Reciprocal teaching advocated by Palinscar and Brown (1984) emphasizes a highly interactive and cooperative teaching and learning mode (Rosenshine & Meister, 1994). Though this instructional model focuses on a different



area, it is not contradictory to the emphasis of explicit teacher explanation. In reciprocal teaching, the role of teacher explanations and demonstration is still there (Palinscar, 1986), but it emphasizes the gradual release of responsibility from the teacher to the students.

To sum up, though with variations in focus, explicit teaching of reading strategies of the above models in its broadest sense means informing students about the purposes and value of learning the strategies (why) and increasing their awareness of what the strategies are, and how and when to use them. Practice and feedback are also given all through the training while students are engaged in discussion with the teacher and their peers. Transfer of the learning is also included, i.e. students are encouraged to apply strategy use to new contexts. The teaching mode of the current study actually followed this explicit approach, with special emphasis on teacher explanations and demonstration. The term “explicit”, “informed” and “direct” are used interchangeably all through the discussion in the present study.

### **2.5.2 Explicit Instruction and Metacognitive Awareness**

As mentioned earlier, this study adopts an explicit approach to teach reading strategies. Actually employing an explicit approach to teach reading strategies in a sense means offering metacognitive training to students. Metacognition refers to one's conscious awareness into one's own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them (Flavell, 1976). Baker and Brown (1984) further divide the metacognitive processes as one's knowledge about cognition and one's regulation of cognition. Explicit instruction of reading strategies unavoidably involves explanations of the cognitive process of reading, and hence implies increasing students' knowledge of their cognition and the reading strategies they can employ.

Research studies have been carried out to evaluate the effectiveness of the explicit teaching of reading strategies.

## **2.6 A Case Study Employing Ethnographic Techniques of Data**

### **Collection**

Some qualitative researchers (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Pitman & Maxwell, 1992) question the preoccupation of experimental researches with the linear and causal relations between training and student ability development to study the complex nature of the interaction. In fact, many variables can affect the effectiveness of strategy training. One of the important factors, the researcher believes, is learners' perceptions of the instruction.

#### **2.6.1 Importance of Studying Students' Perceptions**

With the advent of the learner-centered teaching approach (Nunan, 1989), greater emphasis has been laid on learners' perceptions of classroom aims, events and the instruction. Nunan (1989) proposes that "no curriculum can claim to be truly learner-centered unless the learner's subjective needs and perceptions relating to the processes of learning are taken into account" (p. 177). In order to take them into account, we need to study what students' perceptions are.

Over the years, researchers and academicians have conducted extensive research on learners' perceptions. These investigations not only reveal the fact that learners do have certain perceptions of the instructional approaches and materials teachers use but also indicate that mismatches are often found between learners' and teachers' perceptions (Block, 1996). Very often, these mismatches can minimize the positive effects or even lead to negative results of teachers' instructional actions. In a

descriptive study of first-grade seatwork, Anderson et. al. (1985) found that students especially potentially at-risk children demonstrated virtually no understanding that independent seatwork (having students working independently on assignments to create time for the teacher to work with other students in the classroom) was supposed to help them to be better readers. Instead, they thought the primary goal was for “getting work done” (p. 130).

Similar results were found in other studies. Barkhuizen (1998) discovered that teachers and students had very different perceptions towards the class literature reading. While teachers enjoyed teaching the literature and believed that it could increase students’ enjoyment and in the long run improve their reading, students commented that it was “boring” and that the teacher “forced (them) to listen” (p.98). Barkhuizen (1998) therefore urges teachers to encourage learners “to express their perceptions overtly, both for themselves and for the teachers” (p. 102).

### **2.6.2 Students’ Perceptions of Explicit Strategy Training**

Dole et. al. (1991) argue that “[T]he more explicit an instruction cue, the more likely students are to infer a teacher’s intended curricular goals unambiguously” (p. 252). While it is sensible to assume such a relationship, we still need results from research work to support the assumption. We also need to know what degree of explicitness of the instruction is required in order to help learners to make inferences that match teachers’ expectations.

Studies on students’ perceptions of learner training are unfortunately few, not to mention those specifically on reading strategy training. However, these studies on strategy training in general (Wenden, 1991) and reading strategies in particular (Davis, Lange & Samuels, 1988; Auerbach & Paxton, 1997) at least give us an

understanding of the significance of surveying students' perceived usefulness of training, even if the training is conducted in an explicit mode. Wenden (1991) reports a strategy training course conducted at the American Language Program at Columbia University. ESL students in this intensive program were given, in addition to the regular course, instruction and practice on the nature of language learning to develop metacognitive awareness. Students were then asked to report in a questionnaire their evaluation of the learner training component. The responses indicated that for the most part, students did not perceive any value on the learner training. She, therefore, attributes these negative results to the fact that the learner training was not closely linked to the language learning objectives of the course, so students did not understand why and how the use of metacognitive strategies could improve their English. The study demonstrates that even though explicit training may enhance students' understanding of the intended purposes of the instruction, it does not necessarily imply that students will naturally attach value to it.

In another study on the teaching of reading and developing students' reading strategies, again in the ESL university classroom, Auerbach and Paxton (1997), however, find that students' perceptions of and responses to the training were very positive. In the interviews, students expressed that they learnt more about strategies and had become more confident to read in English. Instructors also found that most students had improved their comprehension though statistical data was not given due to the descriptive nature of the study. The success of the training, according to the researchers, is due to the fact that students were trained to investigate their own reading as part of the pedagogical process and invited to apply what they discovered to their reading. However, the above two studies involve only university students; we

still yet have to see how secondary students perceive the explicit teaching of reading strategies. More importantly, we need to find out whether students attach any value to the training so that they can really benefit from it.

The contradictory and complicated results of students' perceptions of explicit strategy training, together with the realization of the importance of learning more about students' perceptions, lead to new questions in relevant research studies. Instead of asking what kind of training works, reading specialists ask "for whom it works and why" (Piggott & Barr, 2000). Unfortunately, there are not many studies that investigate students' perceptions of reading strategy training. Though in a number of experimental studies, researchers do include examination of learners' perceptions through interviews or questionnaires (Duffy et. al. 1987; Cotterall, 1990) but the report of which has been rather brief. A study that adopts a more interpretive approach can provide us insights into what learners actually think and feel. This helps modify pedagogical practice and in turn inform theory.

## **2.7 Previous Studies on Explicit Reading Strategy Instruction (ERSI)**

In essence, factors and skills leading to early reading success or failure contribute to the future practice and development of vocabulary knowledge and achievement. With success comes exponential development in reading skill, but with failure comes continued frustration and compounded deficiencies in reading skill development. 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 during the explicit instruction reading process.

Attempts have been made to aid students' comprehension of and memory for the ideas presented in the text by explicitly teaching students text structures (Gordon, 1980 cited in Pearson and Camperell, 1994, p. 458). Gordon trained 5<sup>th</sup> grade students to apply a simplified story schema to basal reader stories that they read as part of their normal reading instruction. On a transfer story, these students recalled significantly more, especially certain categories of high-level information, than a placebo or an untreated control group.

Other experimental studies have been conducted to evaluate the results of explicit teaching of specific reading strategies. Hare and Borchardt (1984) conducted training of direct instruction of summarization skills to junior high low-income minority students. Their instruction followed what has been discussed above about explicit teaching (Hare & Borchardt 1984, p. 64). After five consecutive sessions, they found that the experimental groups were significantly different from the control group in terms of summarization efficiency and summarization rule usage, and their differences were maintained two weeks after the instruction ended.

In another experimental study, Paris, Cross and Lipson (1984) introduced Informed Strategies for Learning (ISL) to third- and fifth- grade native speakers to increase their awareness and use of effective reading strategies. After 4 months of training, children in experimental classes generally had better knowledge about reading strategies. They also made larger gains than did children in control classrooms on cloze and error detection. However, the teaching of strategies, reported by both Hare and Borchardt (1984) and Paris, Cross and Lipson (1984), was conducted either by the researcher (Paris, Cross and Lipson, 1984) or the research assistants (Hare & Borchardt, 1984). In the study of Hare and Borchardt, the research

assistants even had to follow precise teaching scripts (p. 67). To maintain consistency of instruction between experimental and control groups in experimental research, naturalistic elements such as flexibility of teacher explanations in real classroom settings are thus sacrificed. Instructional possibility in the regular classroom remains to be demonstrated.

An explicit teaching approach that emphasizes other aspects of the training also yields positive outcomes. One of the emphases of reciprocal teaching advocated by Palinscar and Brown (1984) is its cooperative and interactive learning mode (Rosenshine & Meister, 1994). An adult model guides the students to interact with texts by using the strategies. Later, students take turns to be student teachers guiding the class in interaction with texts. Palinscar and Brown (1984) conducted Study 1 (conducted by an experimenter) and 2 (conducted by volunteer teachers with their existing reading groups) to test the effectiveness of the instruction. Sixth to eighth graders were given 20 lessons of training. Four comprehension strategies formed the basis of the training, including prediction, questioning, seeking clarification and summarization. Results of both studies showed that there were more gains on criterion tests of comprehension for reciprocal teaching than for typical classroom practice.

The affirmative results of reading strategy instruction in the L1 setting have inspired reading researchers to examine its effects on second language learners. Carrell (1985) gave explicit teaching of various text structures to a group of high-intermediate proficiency ESL students who spoke different native languages. Students in the experimental group were also told that learning the structures would facilitate their comprehension and recall. After one-week training, results indicated

that training on the top-level rhetorical organization of expository texts significantly increased the amount of information that the treatment group could recall.

In an attempt to attend to ecological validity, Duffy et. al. (1987) conducted research using regular classroom teachers to do all the teaching. Teachers were not given any scripts, but instead made all the preactive and active decisions in a normal rather than an intervention reading program. The instruction highlighted mental processes an expert reader uses when strategically applying skills to reading of connected texts. The effects of the instruction on grade 3 reading over the course of an entire academic year were evaluated. By the end of the year, students in the direct explanation condition outperformed control students on their understanding of reading strategies and their skills for word study and oral reading. The study also demonstrates that experiments conducted in naturalistic classrooms can produce positive results of reading strategy training. Researchers also find that teachers can be taught to give explanations of the cognitive processes; they can model and demonstrate strategies and provide practice.

Palinscar, Brown and Martin (1987) took the peer interaction component one step further by training teachers to train peer tutors to carry out the four activities with their tutees. Classroom teachers taught selected seventh-grade poor comprehenders how to conduct reciprocal-teaching sessions. The peer tutors then conducted reciprocal-teaching dialogues with their group of tutees. Results showed that these tutors quite quickly reached ceiling on daily comprehension measures, and tutees also made substantial comprehension gains. Process measures also indicated that peer tutors were effective in modeling, giving practice and adjusting level of support given to their tutees.



Similar results were found in another study on second language reading by Carrell, Pharis and Liberto (1989). They conducted explicit training with ESL university students with different native tongues. Two experimental groups received either semantic-mapping training or the ERT training (experience-text-relationship method developed as a total reading program that emphasizes comprehension, i.e. reading for meaning, and two groups functioned as control groups. It was found that though neither of the training groups gained significantly on the multiple-choice questions, both gained significantly more on the open-ended questions, which the researchers think, reflect more students' mental processing of text-information and are hence more likely to be sensitive in measuring the facilitating effects of both training treatments.

In 1990, Chang investigated the language learning strategies which overseas Chinese students employed to cope with their language deficiency during their sojourn in the United States and how their language learning strategy use related to an array of personal and background variables. Fifty Chinese students from Taiwan and Mainland China participated in this study. A language learning strategy questionnaire and a one-to-one interview were used to gather other needed information. The results of this study indicated that the six categories of strategies on the strategy questionnaire - memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies, this group of Chinese students employed compensation strategies most frequently and affective strategies least frequently. Among the six categories of strategies, the Chinese students in the top group used social strategies more often than did those in the bottom group.

Furthermore, Cotterall (1990) hypothesized that reciprocal teaching which has improved native students' reading ability will also assist students reading in a foreign language. She hence adopted a similar approach to teach adult ESL students in a pre-university English proficiency course. Preliminary findings seem to indicate that students made progress in their application of particular strategies and positive feedback was obtained from the participants. Though the above research in the L2 context yields quite promising results, certain problems are identified when reading strategy instruction is given to second language learners. Cotterall found in her study that students were of a wide range of L2 proficiency levels, making it difficult for the teacher to cater for the needs of individual students. There was also difficulty encountered by learners when they had to conduct discussions in L2. Rather than dismissing the effectiveness of explicit reading strategy instruction, the researcher points out the need for more studies to discover ways that enhance a more effective instruction.

Green (1991) explored the frequencies of strategies use of 213 students at Puerto Rican University. The findings indicated that students used affective strategies were used less often than metacognitive strategies. Qualitative results indicated teachers were committed to guided reading instruction, and perceived guided reading instruction benefited students. Further, teachers recommended additional training in guided reading instruction, coupled with additional staff to provide guided reading instruction, would help maximize results.

Roehler and Duffy (1991) called for conducting of reading instruction research in naturalistic settings so that instructional feasibility in the regular classroom can be demonstrated. For taking advantage of serving teachers' self-initiative to conduct

explicit instruction of reading strategies, is another attempt to attend to ecological validity. Though the teaching was not carried out in day-to-day classroom, the fact that instruction was designed and implemented by regular serving teachers might still give insights to researchers and practitioners as to how reading strategy instruction can be carried out and the possible constraints involved in a naturalistic situation.

Adair-Hauck (1993) provided a narrative description contrasting a whole language/guided participatory and an explicit teacher-directed approach to foreign language grammar instruction. The samples were thirty-eight students who enrolled in a French II high school program. The explicit-instruction group was taught the past indefinite tense in French explicitly with teacher-directed explanations followed by explicit textbook explanations and oral practice. Classroom discourse analysis revealed that the teacher used different discourse strategies when teaching in these varying contexts and the teacher used discourse strategies that promoted the ideas of the teacher and excluded the learners' participation in the grammar explanation.

Park (1995) identified Korean university students' use of language learning strategies and their beliefs about language learning, followed by an investigation of the relationships among their beliefs, strategy use, and L2 proficiency. The students' use of learning strategies and their beliefs were identified by the factor analytic findings of two self-report questionnaires, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL, ESL/EFL Student Version) and the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI, ESL Student Version), and L2 proficiency was determined by the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). The subjects were 332 students attending two universities in Korea. The Korean university students in this study used more metacognitive and memory strategies than communication-affective and

independent and interactive practice strategies.

Bremner (1999) investigated levels of strategy use among the group, and examined levels of association between strategy use and language proficiency. The SILL questionnaire (Strategies Inventory of Language Learning) by Oxford was used. SILL consists of six categories of strategies: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social. The results showed that compensation and metacognitive strategies were the most used, while affective and memory strategies were the least used.

Vanichakorn (2003) conducted the research to explore the roles of a teacher in modeling explicit reading strategies necessary for reading expository and academic texts. The purpose was to find out whether the students benefited from the explicit instruction and to what degree they perceived the teacher modeling of each strategy during the course of the study. The population was totally of 105 graduate students enrolled in two Master Programs at a top-five higher institution in Bangkok, Thailand who were required to take the English Reading Skills Development Course were participated of the study. The researcher used the modeled active reading strategies by making implicit strategies explicit, including vocabulary analysis, explicit teaching of grammar and syntactic structures, context clues, reference and inference, text organization, as well as the uses of linking devices and transitions. A pre-and post-test, a questionnaire, and an informal focus-group interview were the main data collection. Quantitative results showed an improvement in the students' reading comprehension performances, and data from the interview revealed a positive reaction to the benefits of explicit models of reading strategies.

Etsey (2004) investigated the extent to which the explicit teaching of a repertoire of reading comprehension strategies would (a) improve the comprehension ability of Ghanaian English language learners on a comprehension test, and (b) improve their comprehension monitoring and the repertoire of strategies they use. The sample was the sixth grade elementary students in the Cape Coast Municipality who speak Fante as their native language but were required to learn in English at school. Quantitative and qualitative methods were used to analyze the data from group comprehension tests, individual students' strategy interviews and students' think aloud protocols of actual strategy use while reading administered before, immediately after and four months after the intervention. The quantitative analysis showed that there was no significant difference in the scores between the experimental and the control group on the posttest multiple choice passage comprehension questions.

In addition, Fortenberry (2004) determined the influence of explicit cueing strategies instruction on the reading achievement and strategy awareness of second-grade students. During a 12-week training period, a class of 20 second graders (Experimental Group) received two 20-minute whole group lessons per week in which cueing strategies were explicitly taught through direct explanation, modeling, and scaffolding while reading. Another class of 19 second-grade students (Control Group) were taught using traditional reading methods which did not involve teaching of cueing strategies. Students in both groups were administered the Group Reading Assessment and Diagnostic Evaluation developed by Williams (2000) as pre- and post-reading ability measures. These results were analyzed using Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA). The ANCOVA results revealed significant differences

between the control and experimental groups for vocabulary measures (e.g., word reading, word meaning) but not for reading comprehension (e.g., sentence vs. passage comprehension). Qualitative data unveiled some encouraging growth in strategy awareness among students in the experimental group as a result of the type of instruction provided.

Newman (2007) examined the effects of explicit instruction of expository text structure incorporating graphic organizers on the comprehension of three intervention classrooms of third-grade students in comparison to one control classroom. Within the three intervention classrooms, the students received the designed intervention presented by their classroom teacher or teaching assistant during their small-group instruction. This research used a mixed qualitative and quantitative design. When compared with the control group, at post-testing, students receiving the intervention showed a statistically significant difference in their ability to comprehend expository text. The intervention teachers and assistant were able to deliver the designed intervention effectively. The findings from this study revealed third-grade students can improve their expository text comprehension when given explicit instruction incorporating graphic organizers.

Nelson (2008) investigated the vocabulary teaching of primary grade teachers involved in a school reform project. A coding scheme was developed from the observations to further analyze the vocabulary instruction. The coding scheme examined teachers' instruction in terms of teaching: 1) specific words; 2) word learning strategies; 3) word consciousness; 4) explicit; and (5) oral or written instruction in word learning. The 15 teachers were interviewed about their vocabulary instruction. Results indicated that teachers spent 5% of their time on

average during their reading and language arts blocks on vocabulary instruction.

Interviews with teachers indicated that they were purposeful in selecting the specific words they taught, although they did so for a variety of reasons.

Elliker (2009) examined the effects of explicit teaching and active student application of specific Greek and Latin affixes and root words with third and fourth grade remedial reading students. Fifty-three third and fourth grade remedial readers participated in the study pretests and posttests assessing their knowledge of twenty-two specific word parts as well as a vocabulary survey assessing their attitude about words were administered. The post-study survey responses revealed themes of empowerment, independence and transfer of knowledge. New appreciation and awareness of words was apparent from both student and classroom teacher responses.

Lee (2010) explored effects of reading environments on L2 learners' strategic behaviors in coping with unknown words while reading texts in English. Their perceptions of or attitudes toward their strategic behaviors (ignoring, inferencing, dictionary consultation, or etc.) in the two reading environments were also investigated. The results showed that reading environment did appear to affect learners' strategies for coping with unknown words, but the effect was not substantial. In terms of the learners' levels of vocabulary knowledge, the advanced group was influenced by the effect of reading environment more than the other two groups (intermediate and low). Although the effect of reading environment was almost negligible in the low group, the frequency of strategies employed by this group was far greater than the other two groups.

Yang (2010) investigated which English learning strategies are frequently used by EFL Korean university students, and discovered the differences in the use of English learning strategies by self-assessed language proficiency and gender. This study investigated the strategy usage of 288 Korean university students through administering a demographic questionnaire and Oxford's (1990) SILL. Independent t-tests, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), post-hoc Scheffé tests, and chi-square tests were performed at the .05 level of significance to answer research questions. The findings indicated that Korean university students used a medium range of strategies. Compensation strategies were used most frequently whereas memory strategies were used least frequently among Korean university learners. Language proficiency levels had significant effects on the overall strategy use, the six categories of strategy, and individual strategy use items. The present study also found that gender did not affect the overall strategy usage of EFL Korean university learners, the six categories of strategy, and individual strategy use.

In summary, the past literature has revealed the great potentials of reading strategy training. The adoption of explicit teaching with modeling in a cooperative learning mode leads to especially positive results in the L1 context. A study of the potential effects of reading strategy instruction in the L2 setting can not only aid the development of the Reading Program in schools, but it can also help to explore the effects of the training in naturalistic settings on L2 learners, particularly Thai students.

The provision of another perspective to study the effects of reading strategy training has been called for. Seeing the instruction through the eyes of the participants can help reading teachers to adjust approaches that are more aligned with



learners' perceptions and expectations or to find ways to modify students' perceptions to achieve the expected outcomes of the instruction. Though informed training may enable a closer match between teachers' intentions and students' perceptions of the instruction as purposes of training are explicitly conveyed to students, we cannot therefore assume that learners must attach value to the training. Collection and description of more information about the implementation of the training, how it works in a given setting, and why it works allow a fuller description of the training, and provide a better understanding of learners' perceptions.

It is the above two concerns that form the impetus of the current investigation into students' perceptions of the explicit teaching of reading strategies that employ a more ethnographic approach of data collection.

## **2.8 Summary of the Chapter**

This chapter provides some background information for understanding this study. First, the researcher reviews the reading, reading strategies and reading ability development. Next, it also demonstrates the perception views in reading development. In addition, it explains the developing reading ability through the explicit teaching of reading strategies. Then, a case study employing ethnographic techniques of data collection is described. Lastly, the previous studies on explicit reading strategy instruction are presented. 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.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

The purpose of this mixed methods case study was to explore the students' perceived values of the explicit reading strategies instruction and their perceived application of the strategies. This study also examines similarities and differences which exist between arts and science students reported and encountered.

This chapter presents the research design and the methodology of this research study. The chapter is organized according to the following sections: research design, reading strategy instruction, population, and research participants. In addition, threats to research instruments, data collection procedures, and data analysis and statistical procedures are also discussed.

#### **3.1 Research Design**

As noted in the literature review, many of the past studies of reading strategy instruction employed an experimental study approach to examine mainly the effectiveness of the teaching. This research, however, was intended to examine another aspect of the instruction participants' perceptions, to give further insights into how students think and feel about the instruction and related aspects such as the teaching approach and the instructional materials used. Moreover, unlike many experimental studies, which are often conducted in laboratory settings, the current

study took place in a naturalistic context of a reading program offered by a local secondary school. Hence, a different methodological approach, a case study adopting ethnographic techniques of data collection, was employed. Different methods of data collection were used to study students' perceived values of the instruction and perceived application of the reading strategies taught.

Data analysis was drawn from both quantitative and qualitative traditions. The quantitative analysis involved mainly general and broader-based studies which rely, to a large extent, on questionnaire data and the qualitative analysis was more concerned with the complex nature of the human minds, and so involved analysis of thick data, mainly the interviews. The quantitative data gave us a general trend of students' perceptions, whereas the qualitative data offered us more in-depth descriptions of the human minds (Freeman, 1992).

In addition, the methodological approach employs in this study had two key characteristics. First, like many studies (Barkhuizen, 1998; Leki & Carson, 1994) that investigate students' or teachers' perceptions, it employed ethnographic techniques of data collection including: 1) school documents; 2) questionnaires; 3) reading texts; 4) interviews with the students; and 4) classroom observations. This helped the researcher to gain insights into the interplay of different variables and provide a rich source of information for analysis. Another advantage is that it entails triangulation, an approach that employs more than one method of investigation and hence more than one type of data to enhance the reliability of the study. Adopting various methods also enable the researcher to present sufficient data for the reader to draw conclusions other than those presented directly by the writer (Nunan, 1992). Second, it was used a case study approach. Case study is in fact very similar to ethnography; only in that

case study is usually more limited in scope, aiming at examining a facet or a particular aspect rather than a complete account of a culture (Denny, 1978, cited in Nunan, 1992, p. 77). There are two reasons for adopting this approach. First, it gave an opportunity for the researcher, an individual researcher, to study one aspect of a problem in some depth within a limited time scale (Bell, 1993). Second, it allowed the investigation to take place in context with an attempt to minimize the disruption caused by the researcher's intrusion (Freeman, 1992).

### **3.2 Reading Strategy Instruction**

The instruction was bore two major characteristics. First, it employed an explicit teaching approach in its broadest sense, with special emphasis on teacher explanations and demonstration (Duffy & Roehler, 1982; Pearson & Gallagher, 1983; Winograd & Hare, 1988). In the reading program, teachers and/or tutors explained to students the strategies, the purpose of using them, and how and when to use them. Demonstration was given while teachers and/or tutors explain the lessons. Students also gave guided practice and feedback. To encourage transfer of learning, students were asked to write in their logbooks possible application of the strategies in new contexts. Second, it adopted a cooperative learning mode (Palinscar & Brown, 1984) including the teacher discussions and supervision for arts and science students) (See Appendices G and H).

In each reading session (See Appendix E), a genre and its characteristics and one to two strategies for studying the genre introduced to the students. The reading strategies included mainly two types: 1) making use of literary characteristics of different text types and/or genres that form the basis for more independent and critical

reading; and 2) specific reading strategies that are conducive to extensive and cursory reading. In other words, it adopted mainly a genre-approach but included both genre-specific strategies (e.g. identifying introduction-complication-resolution pattern in Narrative) and across-genre strategies (e.g. recognizing words of relation (so that) and words of sequence (firstly, secondly) commonly used in explanation, are also applicable to a number of expository texts such as Report). The list of reading strategies were developed by the teachers in charge of the program based on a survey of guiding books on teaching of reading (See Appendix D: Questionnaire Categorization).

### **3.3 Population and Participants**

The target population of this study was formed of Thai high school students in the expanding level (grades 10-12) taking the course Fundamental English (E42101), which is an elective course according to the standard National English Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2002). The participants of this study were formed by two full classes chosen from eight classes composed of 11<sup>th</sup>-grade students enrolled in the elective course Fundamental English (E42101) in the first semester of the academic year 2010 at Burirampittayakhum High School in Buriram Province. They were all native Thai speakers of both genders and, according to their scores on the placement test for grade 10, of mixed abilities.

At the time of the study, the school counted eight classes of Fundamental English (E42101). The students in these eight classes received a pretest formed of the reading part of the National English Entrance Examination and two classes were purposively selected as the arts and the science groups according to the similarity of

their mean scores. Therefore, before receiving the instruction the English reading proficiency of the participants in both groups was similar. From these two classes, one was selected as an arts group, and the other as a science group. The arts group consisted of 40 students and 40 students formed the science group; thus, 80 students participated in this study.

According to Merriam (1998), two levels of sampling are usually required in qualitative case studies. First, the researcher must determine the case to be studied. For this study, the case has been defined as the instructional reading program for students in grade 11 in a large, urban high school. A purposeful sampling strategy was employed in the selection of the school which varied in socioeconomic status, student diversity, and student performance in reading. For this case study, purposive sampling was chosen because, as Merriam noted, it is based on the assumption that the researcher wants to understand the phenomenon to be studied and consequently needs to choose a sample from which the most can be learned.

Once the instructional reading programs, or cases, for school was selected, sampling within the case was conducted. The participants for this study consisted of two teachers from that school. These participants were eleventh grade teachers. They were selected as participants for this study by the researcher.

The two teachers selected to participate in this study consisted of one male and one female. The two teachers are mainly in charge of the teaching in the program have an inherent interest and dedication in teaching reading. They were also the coordinators of the extensive reading program in school (See Appendices G and H). The two teachers often worked collaboratively with the researcher. They welcomed

feedback from others concerning their teaching methods and did not feel threatened by the frequent presence of the researcher.

### **3.3.1 Eighty Surveyed Students**

As mentioned earlier, the participants of the study were 80 Thai EFL students who were enrolled in Fundamental English (E42101). Then, the participants were purposively divided into 40 arts students and 40 science students. The surveyed students were informed that they were selected to participate in a research, and they agreed to do so. They also allowed the data and the scores from the reading test to be used anonymously.

As for arts and science students, the selection was based on the scores they got on the placement test for grade 10. The 40 arts and 40 science students who got the scores that placed them were invited to join the program on a voluntary basis. They were urged to consider their commitment to a weekly session and their desire to improve their reading skills prior to making their decision. Hence, this was a homogenous group having similar reading ability and probably with a similar degree of motivation. The reason is very simple, it is just the researcher's convenience in the English group subject of that chooses this school to collect the data. Again, they urged to think about their desire to improve their reading skills and their commitment to weekly participation in two 45-minute reading sessions (trainers' meetings and peer-reading sessions). It mainly focused on three principal aspects: (1) studying strategies used in reading informative texts; (2) analyzing the content and the writer's presentation of information; and (3) practicing outlining and summarizing as well as giving opinions about the texts through oral discussion or writing.

Table 3.1 summarized the surveyed students' demographic information from the initial section of the questionnaire which was designed to elicit the respondents' background information. The data were included for 40 arts and science 40 students, respectively.

**Table 3.1**  
**Surveyed Students' Demographic Information**

Classification	Group	
	Arts (N=40)	Science (40)
<b>Gender</b>		
Female	21 (53%)	24 (60%)
Male	19 (47%)	16 (40%)
<b>Age</b>		
16	16 (40%)	26 (65%)
17	22 (55%)	13 (33%)
18	2 (5%)	1 (2%)

As indicated in the table above, there were 40 students in the arts group: 21 female (53%) and 19 male (47%) students. The science group consisted of 40 students: 24 female (60%) and 16 male (40%) students. Interestingly, female students vastly outnumbered male students in both groups. The surveyed students' ages ranged from 16 to 18. A total of 22 (55%) and 26 (65%) respondents who were 17 and 16 years old represented the majority of the students in the arts and science group, respectively.

Additionally, as all the subjects in this study gained a similar teaching and learning experience, the researcher did not introduce too many variables into this study. The students all share similar background experience in relation to the following factors:



1. They are all 11<sup>th</sup>- grade students, between the ages of 16 and 18. Thus, they are young people who were born during the years of 1990 to 1994.

2. The number of years they spent learning English, ranging from 7 to 10. As a minimum, they had all learnt English for 9 years, 6 years in elementary schools and three years in second schools before entering the high school. They all share the common experience of these at least 6 years of English learning. Thus, they came to high school with previous learning experiences and have already developed specific learning strategies. Therefore, they already have a good command of the basic structures of English and are increasing their range of vocabulary, and gaining more knowledge of English.

3. None of them had ever been to an English-speaking country. They had never even been abroad. Thus, English is dealt with totally as EFL. They are “pure” Thai learners of English who were born and are growing up in Thailand. Their ways of learning English have, therefore, been influenced by Thai heritage culture more directly, or more uninterruptedly, than those who have studied in western countries.

4. They are all Thai native speakers, which mean that Thai as their mother tongue is predominantly used in daily life.

### **3.3.2 Twelve Case-study Participants**

The researcher came to class again the next lesson and collected the names of the students who were interested in participating in this study. For instance, the learners who got the high, moderate, and low scores would be chosen. Twelve case-study participants (6 from arts students and 6 from science students) volunteered. In order to locate the 6 from arts students (3 male and 3 female) and 6 from science students (3 male and 3 female), placement test for grade 10 was used. The researcher

came to each class the following day and distributed the consent student form (See Appendix C) to the twelve case-study participants. Also, the volunteers were asked to write down all of their free time, so that the researcher could create the schedule for the activities in the research project.

### **3.4 Research Instruments**

The present study employed a mixed method design which includes both quantitative and qualitative research methods. To accomplish the objectives of this study, five instruments and approaches were used to collect data: 1) School Documents; 2) Questionnaires; 3) Reading Texts; 4) Interviews; and 5) Classroom Observations. The details of each instrument and how they were implemented briefly described as follows:

#### **3.4.1 School Documents**

The school documents use in this study included the attendance form, the text list and the notes for each reading session. They also provided contextual information about the instruction.

#### **3.4.2 Questionnaires**

Nunan (1992, p. 231) points out: "A questionnaire is an instrument for the collection of data, usually in written form, consisting of open and /or closed questions and other probes requiring a response from subjects." Dörnyei (2002, p. 6) also defines a questionnaire as "any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers." In this study, questionnaires distributed both to arts and science students. The questionnaires used in this study

was not based on any single theory but designed by considering the need and importance of an instrument for serving the purpose of the present research, although with previous studies in mind as valuable reference. To gain a picture of Thai EFL learners' perception about explicit reading strategy instruction in general, a questionnaire was developed as a research instrument in order to elicit data from the participants. The content of the questionnaire was adapted from the Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) version 7.0 (Oxford, 1990) by keeping the questions that survey strategies for reading as well as adding some questions to elicit reading strategies used by the participants. The development and construction of the questionnaire were also based on literature and research review, interviews of English teachers, and discussion with the thesis advisors. Then the draft questionnaire was modified and revised following by the advisors' suggestions.

The questionnaire used in this study consisted of three main parts. Part A, which consisted of 11 items, asking for background information about the participants, namely: first name and surname, gender, age, class, program of study, studying abroad, studying other foreign languages, studying extra English courses, reporting self-practice in English language skills, and rating their overall English proficiency. Part B is a five-point Likert scale of reading strategies which were used by the participants (See Appendix D). The scale is ordered from 1 to 5 as follows:

1	=	Never or Almost Never
2	=	Only Occasionally
3	=	Sometimes (50% of the Time)
4	=	Usually
5	=	Always or Almost Always

To give a more detailed account of the use of the questionnaire which adopted from the Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) version 7.0 (Oxford, 1990), the analysis of the average scores on this questionnaire was also based on the Key to Understand SILL Average by Oxford (1990, cited in Sarom, p. 109) as follows:

High	Always Use	4.5-5.0
	Often Use	3.5-4.4
Moderate	Occasionally Use	2.5-3.4
Low	Seldom Use	1.5-2.4
	Never Use	1.0-1.4

In the light of considerations discussed above, therefore, there were forty items in Part B of the questionnaire, which consisted of six categories for convenience and reference. Each category referred to the strategy of the six broad groups according to Oxford's New System of Language Learning Strategies (1990, pp. 14-15). The forty items were arranged in such a way that items number 1, 2, 3 and 4 come under "Memory Strategy" category, items 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 come under "Cognitive Strategy" category, items 11, 12, 13, and 14 come under "Compensate Strategy" category, items 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, and 29 come under "Metacognitive Strategy" category, items 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, and 36 come under "Affective Strategy" category while items 37, 38, 39, and 40 come under "Social Strategy" category.

The last part, Part C, was an open-ended form, concerning with strategy developing reading ability, which did not appear in the Part B.

Furthermore, the researcher established other questionnaire (See Appendix I for more details) for gaining information after instructing reading strategy to both arts and science students. The background questionnaire was employed to collect the students' opinions of the reading sessions and reading strategies to help them improve the reading program. The questionnaire consisted of three parts. Part I contained five questions focusing on the reading sessions is helpful to them. Part II, on the other hand, focused on the students' application of reading strategies. Finally, Part III mentioned about students' reading and their overall opinions towards the reading sessions.

### **3.4.3 Reading Texts**

The reading texts used in the reading materials were selected from EFL or ESL textbooks and teenage magazines while the follow-up comprehension activities or tasks were devised by the researcher.

The reading materials (See Appendix E) included two reading passages, and each was followed by strategy training exercises to facilitate the development of six explicit teaching strategies, i.e., memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. The materials were devised with reference to various sources such as EFL or ESL textbooks, the first piece of text is called "The Story of St. Valentine", was selected from website retrieved 12 September 2010. The second text entitled "Mount Everest", taken from the same sources available at:

<http://www.abcteach.com>.

The reading passages used in the study were either narrative or expository type of texts. Passage lengths ranged from approximately 100 to 150 words. The readability of the texts was in similar level of difficulty. To facilitate students

understanding of the text structure of these two types of writing were used to represent the text organization. In order to arouse and maintain students' interest in reading the texts, topics were selected on the basis of relevance to students' own areas of interest, their own experiences and the themes they had studied before.

Considering the participants' backgrounds, the researcher assumed that the topics of these texts were not entirely unfamiliar to them. That is, since these participants came from programs in arts and science, the first pair of selections may be reasonably familiar to them. Also, since all had qualified as intermediate readers according to their proficiency test scores, the researcher reasoned that academic texts selected from an intermediate level EFL textbook should not be too difficult for them, and the general topic of learning and education should also be reasonably familiar to them. Besides, none of the texts selected contained culture-specific knowledge which might affect the Thai L2 English learners' use of reading strategies.

#### **3.4.4 Interviews**

At the simplest level, interviews can be described as "the elicitation of data by one person from another through person-to-person encounters" (Nunan 1992, p. 231). The most common forms of interviewing involve individual, face-to-face verbal interchange, face-to-face group interchange or telephone surveys. Rather than asking respondents to read questionnaires and enter their own answers, interviewers ask the questions orally and record respondents' answers (Babbie, 1998). In this study, the interview was conducted with the two groups of students: 1) 6 arts students; and 2) 6 science students. Twelve students in the two groups of each program were interviewed individually in a face-to-face encounter.

Various types of interviews have been identified and differentiated by their degree of explicitness and structure, ranging from very open interviews to very structured ones as described by Seliger and Shohamy (1989, p. 167):

Open/unstructured” interviews provide the interviewee with broad freedom of expression and elaboration and often resemble informal talks. They allow greater depth, and one question leads to another without a pre-planned agenda of what will be asked.

Naturally, all those forms of interviews were of great importance for collecting data. One of the popular data collection techniques, semi-structured interview, is focused on in this study, as in many studies on language learning strategies, semi-structured interview is used to elicit information (Daly 1997; Nakamura, 2000). Drever (1995, pp. 1-13) also explains, the term “semi-structured” interview means that the interviewer set up a general structure by deciding in advance what ground is to be covered and what main questions are to be asked. This leaves the detailed structure to be worked out during the interview. The person interviewed can answer at some length in his or her own words, and the interviewer responds using prompts, probes and follow-up questions to get the interviewee to clarify or expand on the answers. Semi-structured interview is likely to have a mixture of closed and open questions. Prompts are often open and the probes usually close down the focus. This means that prompts invited different answers of the same kind, probes ask for an answer to be developed. In this sense, prompts were used to encourage broad coverage and probes aim at exploring responses in depth.

The first step for constructing the interviews was studied questions appearing in related books and articles in journal on language learning. Next, the researcher

wrote the first draft of the questions in English based on the research objectives and then group the items. Then the interview questions were corrected. After that, the researcher consulted with the thesis advisors to verify that the questions are appropriate. The researcher then edited the interview questions according to the advisors' suggestions. Finally, the researcher translated the interview questions from English into Thai so as to reduce the possibility of being misinterpreted and misunderstood by the participants whose first language is Thai and consulted with the thesis advisor and co-advisor.

In this study, interviews were employed as a supplementary instrument to ascertain the strategies in developing reading ability mentions on the returned questionnaires and used for seeing the perceived values of instruction. The question items therefore were written based on the purposes of the study and be related to items in the questionnaire. Then, the interview questions were re-worded and re-arranged with a discussion with the Thai experts before their actual uses (See Appendix B).

Before testing the validity of all research instruments, they were compared and checked. Hence, the three Thai experts were as follows:

1. Associate Professor Kowit Chuamklang, the President of Buriram Rajabhat University, BRU.
2. Dr. Chookiat Jarat, Associate Dean of Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, BRU.
3. Dr. Krapan Sri-ngan, Associate Dean of Faculty of Education, BRU.

There were mainly two reasons that prompt the researcher to conduct the two interviews (See Appendix F) for each of the interviewees and arrange them at separate



time. First, it helped overcome participants' anxiety due to the problem of time constraint. Conducting two interviews allowed the interviewees more time to express their opinions on different aspects and remove the problem of fatigue. Second, the one-week lapse between the two interviews allowed students ample time to apply the strategies to their reading if they chose to do so and to experience the difficulties they might encounter in application.

The interviews were basically semi-structured, but moving more towards the structured side of the continuum. This approach adopted for several reasons. First, semi-structured interviews were chosen because they gave the interviewees a degree of power and control over the course of the interview and allow the interviewer greater flexibility (Nunan, 1992), which was good for an interpretive research like this one. Second, the less structured questions with more general topics can allow students greater flexibility to express themselves. Third, the more structured questions with specific topics can give students clearer direction for self-reflection.

#### **3.5.4 Classroom Observations**

According to Grabe and Stoller (2002), class observation is an attentive observation, supported by some forms of record keeping (e.g. note taking, audio taping, video-taping, filling out checklists) of aspects of one's classroom. This could be done by the researcher herself or another person. However, in this action research, the teacher was also the researcher, she could not have the attentive observation while having the lesson with her class, especially when conducting the mini lessons.

Therefore, the data of observation from this study were mainly based on the video taken during the lessons so that the teacher researcher can study in details and analyze the data captured afterwards. The study concerned the implementation of literature

circles, which was a new approach for the class, and the class observation was adopted in every meeting by means of video-taping. Samples of student work (role sheets) were also collected throughout the whole study as supporting evidence. As Grabe and Stoller (2002) suggest, the data collection method procedures should complement normal classroom routines, especially with action research. The key is to select a data collection technique which is a natural outgrowth of the guiding research question and desired outcomes.

The observations served as another source of information to understand students' perceptions. They included the procedures of each trainer's meeting and peer-reading session, the time spent on learning, discussing and using the strategies, students' off-task behavior, which could indicate their enthusiasm in learning the strategies and other information considered relevant.

As stated above, to yield reliability in the research study, the various sources of data included the School Documents, Questionnaires, Reading Texts, Interviews, and Class observations. In addition, the issue of validity and reliability in this current study were discussed as follows:

1) Validity: In the present study, the research questions were formulated based on the reading instruction theory and a review of the related literature. The questions to be asked in the instruments both quantitative and qualitative methods were examined by the thesis advisors beforehand to ascertain their validity and appropriateness. Their relevancy to the purpose of the study were also confirmed. All the questions recognized as valid and appropriate by the thesis advisors. Furthermore, to ensure the validity of this study, the draft questionnaire, interview form, and observation form were modified and revised according to the comments and

suggestions of three experts. Therefore, it was confident that the instruments used in this research presented high validity.

2) Reliability: With regard to the reliability of the data collected for this study, the researcher used interview questions, two reading passages, the transcriptions of the interviews and observations through classroom sessions of each participant, and school documents to ensure their consistency. Furthermore, the thesis advisors were asked to examine the accuracy of the data, examine the steps of data analysis, and give valuable alternative insights on data analysis and categorization.

Even though the schedules are carefully planned, it could not be guaranteed that they would work well in practice. Because of the potential problems in the use of all elicitation instruments, Nunan (1992, p. 145) argues strongly that all research should have a piloting phase. Bell (1993, p. 84) also points out "All data-gathering instruments should be piloted to test how long it takes recipients to complete them, to check that all questions and instructions are clear and to enable you to remove any items which do not yield usable data." Thomas (1991, p. 122) concludes that it is better to pilot with two or three colleagues than not to pilot at all.

For the purpose of this research, a pilot study was used to find out if the questions are yielding the kind of data required and to eliminate any questions which might be ambiguous or confusing to the respondents. This was expected to result in some amendments being made to the instruments actually used in the study.

All the questions in the instruments (questionnaires, and interviews) were piloted with a small sample of subjects before being used. As Allison et. al (1996, p. 95) state: "For this purpose you need people who are of ability and background

similar to your target population and who are willing to think aloud while filling in....They are the ultimate judges of what is clear and what is not.”

### **3.5 Data Collection Procedures**

The data collection period was approximately two months (August-September, 2010). The following section reports the data collection techniques in relation to each and describes how data was analyzed. As stated above, to yield reliability in the research study, the various sources of data including: 1) School Documents; 2) Questionnaires; 3) Interviews; and 4) Classroom Observations. Also, all data collection methods, except school documents, were piloted and changes were made accordingly to ensure relevance of questions to capture students' perceptions, suitability of layouts and accuracy of wordings.

#### **3.5.1 School Documents**

Several documents were collected, and they enabled a better understanding of the reading strategy instruction and other information that shape students' perceptions. These documents were included the attendance form, the text list and the notes for each reading session. They were also provided contextual information about the instruction.

#### **3.5.2 Questionnaires**

The 80 surveyed students in the target class were given a copy of the English instructions version for completing questionnaire. For the questionnaire use in this study, the questionnaire was in Thai, but both arts and science students were told that they could use any languages they felt comfortable with when filling out the questionnaire (See Appendix D). The 80 surveyed students were asked to fill in the

questionnaire with Thai version on the day when the half-yearly review of the program carried out. This ensured that students recall better what they have learnt and hence might report more accurately the strategies used. Before filling in the questionnaire, the researcher explained the purpose and the non-evaluative nature of the questionnaire to remove any possible anxiety. The students then worked on their own and the researcher presented all through the thirty minutes to handle any questions raised. The researcher then took brief notes of their responses. English supplemented with Thai was used throughout the interview. The interview was tape-recorded for doing later analysis.

For the additional questionnaire was carried out, a sample group of 80 students from the arts and science groups of the same form was chosen randomly to try out the modified questionnaire whether students of similar proficiency and experience of multiple drafts could comprehend the statements in the questionnaire concerning their feedback. Without any complication on the trial whereby the 80 trial subjects finished the questionnaire successfully, the questionnaire was then given out in a single lesson of about 25 minutes before the content-based instructional teaching on reading was carried out. The questionnaire would evoke subjects' opinions on students' perceptions, reading strategies and attitudes towards reading.

### **3.5.3 Interviews**

At this stage, each interviewee in both groups was invited for a 2-stage one-to-one semi-structured interview: Interview One and Two (See Appendix F). Interview One was used with six students from arts and six from science program to collect self-report data about students' perceived learning contents, perceived values of learning the reading strategies in general and in specific areas including the perceived effects

of the instruction on their reading comprehension, reading speed, recall of texts, tackling of homework and exams, affective domains and attitudes about reading, and the possibility of future application. The interview also elicited students' opinions about the instructional materials and the reading program as a whole. With the twelve case-study participants, the interview Two was mainly used to collect students' self-reported application of reading strategies, their perceived difficulties of application, their perceived past learning before joining the program and reasons, if any, for not applying the reading strategies.

The interviews were all audio-taped to enhance a smooth flow of the interviews and facilitate re-analysis of the data at a later stage. Thai, the native tongue of the interviewees, was used to encourage students to express their opinions freely. The interviews first transcribed in Thai and then translated into English so as to record as accurately as possible the participants' opinions.

As mentioned earlier, the two interviews had different focuses and conducted at separate times. The interview focused and the dated for conducting Interviews One and Two for each interviewee were given in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2**

**Main Focuses of and Dates for Interview One and Interview Two**

<b>Interviews</b>	<b>Main focus of the Interviews</b>	<b>Dates for Interviews</b>
Interview One (around 25 minutes each)	It aims at exploring students' perceived values of reading strategy instruction and getting their general views towards the reading program.	On the same day or the day after a particular peer-reading session.
Interview Two (around 10 minutes each)	It aims at eliciting students' self-reported use of reading strategies and their perceived difficulties in application.	Around six to seven days after that particular peer-reading session.

### 3.5.4 Classroom Observations

Ten trainers' meetings and ten peer-reading sessions were observed. Brief observation notes were written on the observation forms for trainers' meetings and peer-reading sessions.

Below is Table 3.3 which summarizes the timetable for data collection for each research instrument.

**Table 3.3**

**Summary of Dates and Data Collections for Each Research Instruments**

<b>Dates for Data Collection</b>	<b>Data Collection Procedures</b>
School Documents	(1) On-going collection of school documents, including the notes, the attendance form and the text list.
Questionnaire	(2) A 3-part questionnaire was completed by students within 30 minutes. As for the additional questionnaire, it was given out in a single lesson of about 25 minutes.
Interviews	(3) Interview One and Two with each of the interviewees. Interview One took around 25 minutes and Interview Two took around 10 minutes. The time-lapse between Interview One and Two was 6 to 7 days.
Class Observations	(4) Class Observations of 10 trainers' meetings and ten peer-reading sessions, each took around 45 minutes. students within 30 minutes.

### 3.6 Data Analyses and Statistical Procedures

This part describes the methods of data analyses employed in the present study. Data obtained from the questionnaire were submitted for the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS), while data obtained from the students' interviews and class observation were submitted for qualitative analysis. Data analyses and statistical procedures used in this study are described as follows:

### 3.6.1 Effectiveness of the Research Instruments

To see the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, the construction and development of the questionnaire was used with two main statistical procedures. Firstly, IOC (Item Objective Congruence) was used to see the validity of the instrument. Secondly, to ensure the reliability of the questionnaire, Coefficient of Cronbach's alpha was employed to check the consistency of the answers of the responses for the items which use a five-point Likert scale. It was found that, in Part B of the questionnaire, the value of reliability was 0.91 which was acceptable for instrument in the present investigation.

### 3.6.2 Analysis of Data from the Questionnaire

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the questionnaire data was helped draw a general trend of students' perceptions while the interview data provided more in-depth descriptions of students' views, supporting and elaborating the data collected via the questionnaire and with the two cross-checking one another. Hence, quantitative data were mainly drawn from the questionnaire. The questionnaire data tally and collated to provide tabulated data. The results were mainly included students' perceived values of reading strategy instruction and self-reported use of strategies. The data from the completed questionnaires were analyzed, tabulated, and interpreted by computer using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS).

#### 3.6.2.1 Frequency, Mean ( $\bar{X}$ ), and Standard Deviation (S.D.)

Each group's frequency, mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) and standard deviation (S.D.) of forty items were calculated. They then ranked according to the mean scores of these items. Also, the six broad strategies of reading strategy were used by these statistical procedures. In both steps, the SPSS statistical package was used. However, the three



levels of strategy use: “high use”, “moderate use”, and “low use” (Oxford, 1990) based on the holistic mean scores of frequency of strategy use by the research subjects under the present investigation were defined.

### **3.6.2.2 t-test of the Difference between Two Groups**

To see whether there are any significant differences between two groups in the level of use of reading strategies between arts and science students' questionnaire responses, an independent samples t-test was used to analyze each group of strategies and the whole set of strategies.

### **3.6.3 Analysis of Data from the Interviews**

Qualitative data mainly drew from the interviews. The interview data were analyzed and coded to enable the discernment of common themes and patterns. The data collected from both arts and sciences students further compared to note any similarities and differences between the two groups of students. The data obtained from the interviews were transcribed immediately after each interview. The participants were asked to review their interview transcripts in order to check any ambiguous words and ideas. All transcriptions then translated from Thai into English. These were used descriptively and analyzed and coded.

Coding is an effective method to analyze the data of verbal protocols such as interviews and observations (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). Coding is “the relationship between what are termed task-independent process categories and performance on the task in question” (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p. 69). Thus, the data collected for this study were coded according to the following research questions:

1. What strategies do students report that they have used in reading?
2. How do arts and science students differ in their self-report use of reading strategies?
3. What values do students perceive in the explicit reading strategies instruction?
4. How are the perceived values of arts students different from those of science students?

The coding system was developed by the researcher based on the criterion of idea units, as opposed to words or statements. A word or a statement given by an interviewee might carry two ideas and was coded separately. The interview data first coded by the researcher and then cross-checked by a teacher who have nearly ten years' local teaching experience and has obtained a Master's degree in English.

Like the questionnaire, the descriptive data drawn from the interviews were mainly included students' perceived values of the explicit teaching of the reading strategies and self-reported use of strategies in reading. However, the data were also included students' perceived difficulties in application, and other data that were relevant to the understanding of the different variables that form students' perceptions such as science students' perceptions of the value of playing the role of trainer.

#### **3.6.4 Analysis of Classroom Observations and School Documents**

The frequencies of off-task behavior noted on the observation forms were counted to help estimate students' attention span and their seriousness about the reading strategy instruction; they also facilitated a comparison between the arts and science students' attitudes.

School documents were examined to provide background information of the teaching of reading strategies in context. The attendance of students checked to reveal more about students' attitude about the instruction. The notes for the reading sessions were examined to construct a better understanding of the instruction.

Other data, drawn from observations and school documents, relevant to the research purpose such as the teaching procedures and the emphasis of the teacher was also examined.

The Table 3.4 below summarized the data source and data analysis for each research question.

**Table 3.4****Summary of Data Source and Data Analysis for Each Research Question**

<b>Research Question</b>	<b>Data Source</b>	<b>Data Analysis</b>
1. What strategies do students report that they have used in reading?	1. Questionnaire 2. Interview	Descriptive statistical analysis of explicit reading strategy instruction, divided into memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social.
2. How do arts and sciences students differ in their self-report use of reading strategies?	1. Questionnaire 2. Interviews 3. Observation through class observation 4. Self-report of explicit reading strategy instruction	1. Narrative report of the responses to the questionnaire' open-ended question 2. Emerging themes from the interviews and self-reports 3. In-depth analysis of the observations 4. Inferential statistics for the questionnaire
3. What values do students perceive in the explicit reading strategies instruction?	1. Questionnaire 2. Interviews 3. Observation through class observation 4. Self-report of explicit reading strategy instruction	Descriptive statistical analysis of explicit reading strategy instruction, divided into memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social.
4. How are the perceived values of arts students different from those of sciences students	1. Questionnaire 2. Interviews 3. Observation through class observation 4. Self-report of explicit reading strategy instruction	1. Narrative report of the responses to the questionnaire' open-ended question 2. Emerging themes from the interviews and self-reports 3. In-depth analysis of the observations

To provide further insights into the students' perception of explicit reading strategy instruction, the confidentiality were also incorporated in this research to protect the participants' personal information, they were informed that the data

collected would be kept confidential, that the audiotapes of the interviews would be stored safely, that their real name would never appear in the study, and that the data would be destroyed after the study was completed.

### **3.7 Summary of the Chapter**

In order to find answers to the research questions the researcher asks, i.e. students' perceptions of the usefulness and application of the reading strategies, the researcher then adopts various methods of data collection. They provide the researcher with sufficient quantitative data and rich qualitative data. This enables the researcher to investigate students' perceptions of the values of reading strategy instruction and their perceived application of the strategies, and the variables that work together to shape such perceptions.

This chapter has reported the methods used to carry out the study, with an emphasis on the reason why the researcher employed the mixed method for this research. In addition, the chapter has described the research elements such as the setting, participants, instruments, data collection procedures and data analyses. In the next chapter, Chapter Four, the researcher presents the results of the current investigation.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESULTS**

This chapter presents the findings of this study. The results of each research question are described in the following order: (a) Research Question One regarding the surveyed students' perceived application of the reading strategies by the students; (b) Research Question Two regarding the comparison between the arts and science students concerning their self-reported use of the strategies; (c) Research Question Three regarding the perceived values of the students towards the explicit teaching of reading strategies; and (d) Research Question Four regarding the comparison between the perceived values of the arts and science students. The findings presented are drawn from quantitative data from the questionnaire and the qualitative data from the interviews. The interview data is presented mainly descriptively. However, to show a clearer tendency of the perceptions of the majority of the interviewees, the researcher also presents a frequency count of the number of students who have reported on particular topics and their total number of mentions of these topics and / or themes. The quantitative and qualitative data of both the questionnaire and the interviews are presented together to offer us a better understanding of the students' minds. While the quantitative data provides the general trends of students' perceptions regarding reading strategy instruction, the qualitative data not only provides elaborations and

explanations of these perceptions but also helps tap deeper other perceptions, which the questionnaire is unable to identify. The quantitative and the qualitative data also cross-check one another to give us more reliable information to capture the complicated human minds.

#### **4.1 Research Question One: What strategies do students report that they have used in reading?**

This section reports the results of the analysis of the quantitative data from the English version of the questionnaire employed in the study. The quantitative data consisted of the students' responses to the forty question items in section B of the one version of the questionnaire inquiring into students' perceptions of the importance of strategies. The first research question was directed toward identifying the reading strategies reported to be used by Thai EFL high school students who participated in this study. To answer this question, the researcher used quantitative data from the questionnaire, which measured the students' perceived use of strategies use when they read English texts for academic purposes.

##### **4.1.1 The Self-reported Strategies Employed by Surveyed Students**

The questionnaire asked the surveyed students to indicate the extent of their English reading strategies using a five-point Likert scale questions, ranging from always or almost always (5) to never or almost never (1). This survey measured six subcategories of reading strategies: memory strategies (4 items), cognitive strategies (6 items), compensate strategies (4 items), metacognitive strategies (15 items), affective strategies (7 items), and social strategies (4 items). Table 4.1 below

demonstrates the mean, standard deviation, meaning, and rank for each questionnaire item.

**Table 4.1**

**Mean, Standard Deviation, Meaning, and Rank of Self-Reported Strategy Use by Surveyed Students (N = 80)**

Strategy	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	Meaning	Rank
<b>Memory Strategies</b>				
1. Reviewing the reading lessons	2.34	0.89	Low	35
2. Putting the words/phrases/sentences	2.39	0.84	Low	33
3. Remembering words/phrases/sentences	2.28	0.92	Low	36
4. Transcribe the words/phrases/sentences	2.35	0.89	Low	34
<b>Total</b>	<b>2.33</b>	<b>0.73</b>	<b>Low</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>Cognitive Strategies</b>				
5. Practicing the phrases or sentences	2.57	1.07	Moderate	23
6. Using reference materials	2.50	1.08	Moderate	28
7. No transferring Thai grammar and patterns	2.51	1.03	Moderate	26
8. No trying to translate into Thai	2.44	0.98	Moderate	31
9. Skimming an English passage	2.71	1.10	Moderate	16
10. Making summaries in English	2.28	1.11	Low	36
<b>Total</b>	<b>2.50</b>	<b>0.79</b>	<b>Moderate</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>Compensation Strategies</b>				
11. No looking up every new word	2.20	1.05	Low	39
12. Making guesses with unfamiliar words	2.74	0.98	Moderate	15
13. Choosing the topic of reading passage	2.81	1.12	Moderate	9
14. Reading a word or phrase to know words	2.44	1.01	Moderate	31
<b>Total</b>	<b>2.54</b>	<b>0.74</b>	<b>Moderate</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>Metacognitive Strategies</b>				
15. Reviewing reading lessons for new tasks	2.50	1.01	Moderate	28
16. Blocking out noise and interruption	2.51	1.03	Moderate	26
17. Trying to find out how to read better	2.71	0.98	Moderate	16
18. Organizing language notebook	2.50	1.12	Moderate	28
19. Arranging schedule to practice reading	2.25	0.98	Low	38
20. Arranging a comfortable place for reading	3.20	1.14	Moderate	1
21. Planning the goals to read in English	3.16	1.14	Moderate	3
22. Accomplishing in each reading task	2.87	1.28	Moderate	9
23. Seeking for opportunities to read outside	2.89	1.20	Moderate	8
24. Noticing and correcting the mistakes	3.14	1.15	Moderate	4
25. Making the same mistake	3.19	1.18	Moderate	2
26. Improving work next time	2.60	1.15	Moderate	22
27. Paying attention before reading	2.17	1.00	Low	40



Table 4.1 (Continued)

Strategy	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	Meaning	Rank
<b>Metacognitive Strategies</b>				
28. Identifying clearly purpose	2.52	1.04	Moderate	26
29. Reading as much as possible	2.80	1.04	Moderate	12
<b>Total</b>	<b>2.73</b>	<b>0.82</b>	<b>Moderate</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>Affective Strategies</b>				
30. Relaxing whenever anxious	2.90	1.11	Moderate	6
31. Using meditation or deep breathing.	2.77	1.20	Moderate	13
32. Cheering up before reading word	2.71	1.03	Moderate	16
33. Giving a reward	2.69	1.15	Moderate	20
34. Relaxing before continuing to read	3.01	1.17	Moderate	5
35. Writing down in diary	2.57	1.17	Moderate	23
36. Talking about English reading problems	2.87	1.27	Moderate	9
<b>Total</b>	<b>2.79</b>	<b>0.90</b>	<b>Moderate</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>Social Strategies</b>				
37. Asking for better understanding	2.90	1.10	Low	6
38. Asking for correcting reading task	2.77	1.10	Moderate	13
39. Working with friends mutually	2.71	1.28	Moderate	16
40. Asking for help from many sources	2.69	1.20	Moderate	20
<b>Total</b>	<b>2.59</b>	<b>0.94</b>	<b>Moderate</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>2.75</b>	<b>0.90</b>	<b>Moderate</b>	

As revealed in the table above, the surveyed students used the reading strategies as a whole were at moderate levels ( $\bar{X} = 2.75$ , S.D. = 0.90). It is noticeable that the surveyed students rated affective strategies the most ( $\bar{X} = 2.79$ , S.D. = 0.90), followed by metacognitive strategies ( $\bar{X} = 2.73$ , S.D. = 0.82), social strategies ( $\bar{X} = 2.59$ , S.D. = 0.94), compensation strategies ( $\bar{X} = 2.54$ , S.D. = 0.74), cognitive strategies ( $\bar{X} = 2.50$ , S.D. = 0.79), and memory strategies ( $\bar{X} = 2.33$ , S.D. = 0.73), respectively. The most frequently reported strategy was no. 20 "Arranging a comfortable place for reading" ( $\bar{X} = 3.20$ , S.D. = 1.14). This strategy with the highest mean score was followed by strategies no. 25 "Making the same mistake" ( $\bar{X} = 3.19$ , S.D. = 1.18), and no. 21 "Planning the goals to read in English" ( $\bar{X} = 3.16$ ,

S.D. = 1.14). The strategy with the lowest mean score was no. 27 "Paying attention before reading" ( $\bar{X} = 2.17$ , S.D. = 1.00), followed by no. 11 "No looking up every new word" ( $\bar{X} = 2.20$ , S.D. = 1.05) and no. 19 "Arranging schedule to practice reading" ( $\bar{X} = 2.25$ , S.D. = 0.98), respectively.

#### 4.1.2 The Self-reported Strategies Employed by Surveyed Students in terms of Field of Study

It should be noted that the information presented in the table above only represents the data from all surveyed students, regardless of their English reading proficiency. Table 4.2 below then displays the reported strategy use by arts and science students. As mentioned earlier, the questionnaire items were arranged in random order.

**Table 4.2**  
**Mean and Standard Deviation of Self-Reported Strategy Use by Surveyed Students in terms of Field of Study**

Strategy	Arts Students (N = 40)		Science Students (N = 40)	
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
<b>Memory Strategies</b>				
1. Reviewing the reading lessons	2.69	0.82	2.00	0.81
2. Putting the words/phrases/sentences	2.73	0.93	2.05	0.60
3. Remembering words/phrases/sentences	2.53	1.01	2.03	0.77
4. Transcribe the words/phrases/sentences	2.59	0.90	2.13	0.82
<b>Total</b>	<b>2.62</b>	<b>0.70</b>	<b>2.05</b>	<b>0.64</b>
<b>Cognitive Strategies</b>				
5. Practicing the phrases or sentences	2.85	1.10	2.29	0.97
6. Using reference materials	2.79	1.00	2.20	1.10
7. No transferring Thai grammar and patterns	2.89	0.93	2.15	1.00
8. No trying to translate into Thai	2.69	0.94	2.20	0.97
9. Skimming an English passage	3.03	1.02	2.40	1.10
10. Making summaries in English	2.75	1.18	1.80	0.82
<b>Total</b>	<b>2.82</b>	<b>0.72</b>	<b>2.18</b>	<b>0.70</b>

Table 4.2 (Continued)

Strategy	Arts Students (N = 40)		Science Students (N = 40)	
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
<b>Compensation Strategies</b>				
11. No looking up every new word	2.39	1.00	2.00	1.09
12. Making guesses with unfamiliar words	2.95	1.03	2.53	0.88
13. Choosing the topic of reading passage	2.90	1.21	2.73	1.03
14. Reading a word or phrase to know words	2.69	1.00	2.20	1.00
<b>Total</b>	<b>2.72</b>	<b>0.79</b>	<b>2.37</b>	<b>0.67</b>
<b>Metacognitive Strategies</b>				
15. Reviewing reading lessons for new tasks	2.75	1.09	2.23	0.90
16. Blocking out noise and interruption	2.89	1.10	2.15	0.83
17. Trying to find out how to read better	2.85	1.05	2.59	0.88
18. Organizing language notebook	2.95	1.10	2.05	0.95
19. Arranging schedule to practice reading	2.70	0.97	1.78	0.75
20. Arranging a comfortable place for reading	3.81	0.78	2.58	1.10
21. Planning the goals to read in English	3.75	0.87	2.58	1.08
22. Accomplishing in each reading task	3.68	1.04	2.05	0.90
23. Seeking for opportunities to read outside	3.58	0.95	2.17	1.00
24. Noticing and correcting the mistakes	3.83	0.90	2.50	1.01
25. Making the same mistake	3.85	0.95	2.53	1.01
26. Improving work next time	2.99	1.17	2.20	1.01
27. Paying attention before reading	2.45	1.08	1.88	0.82
28. Identifying clearly purpose	2.83	1.10	2.23	0.90
29. Reading as much as possible	3.00	1.13	2.60	0.92
<b>Total</b>	<b>3.20</b>	<b>0.64</b>	<b>2.28</b>	<b>0.72</b>
<b>Affective Strategies</b>				
30. Relaxing whenever anxious	3.05	1.15	2.75	1.06
31. Using meditation or deep breathing.	2.98	1.20	2.55	1.15
32. Cheering up before reading word	2.80	1.00	2.63	1.08
33. Giving a reward	2.90	1.12	2.45	1.15
34. Relaxing before continuing to read	3.20	1.07	2.83	1.23
35. Writing down in diary	2.93	1.20	2.20	1.01
36. Talking about English reading problems	3.19	1.23	2.55	1.21
<b>Total</b>	<b>3.00</b>	<b>0.82</b>	<b>2.57</b>	<b>0.91</b>
<b>Social Strategies</b>				
37. Asking for better understanding	2.49	1.13	2.29	1.07
38. Asking for correcting reading task	2.63	1.10	2.55	1.10
39. Working with friends mutually	3.03	1.33	2.40	1.15
40. Asking for help from many sources	3.05	1.20	2.30	1.10
<b>Total</b>	<b>2.80</b>	<b>0.94</b>	<b>2.39</b>	<b>0.90</b>

As shown in the table above, the arts students reported that they used metacognitive strategies the most ( $\bar{X} = 3.20$ , S.D. = 0.64), followed by affective strategies ( $\bar{X} = 3.00$ , S.D. = 0.82), cognitive strategies ( $\bar{X} = 2.82$ , S.D. = 0.72), social strategies ( $\bar{X} = 2.80$ , S.D. = 0.94), compensation strategies ( $\bar{X} = 2.72$ , S.D. = 0.79), and memory strategies the least ( $\bar{X} = 2.62$ , S.D. = 0.70), respectively. However, the science students reported that they used affective strategies the most ( $\bar{X} = 2.57$ , S.D. = 0.91), followed by social strategies ( $\bar{X} = 2.39$ , S.D. = 0.90), compensation strategies ( $\bar{X} = 2.37$ , S.D. = 0.67), metacognitive strategies ( $\bar{X} = 2.28$ , S.D. = 0.72), cognitive strategies ( $\bar{X} = 2.18$ , S.D. = 0.70) and memory strategies ( $\bar{X} = 2.05$ , S.D. = 0.64), respectively.

For subcategories of self-reported strategy used by arts students, the most frequently reported strategy was no. 25 "Making the same mistake" ( $\bar{X} = 3.85$ , S.D. = 0.95). This strategy with the highest mean score was followed by strategies no. 24 "Noticing and correcting the mistakes" ( $\bar{X} = 3.83$ , S.D. = 0.90), and no. 20 "Arranging a comfortable place for reading" ( $\bar{X} = 3.81$ , S.D. = 0.78). The strategy with the lowest mean score was no. 11 "No looking up every new word" ( $\bar{X} = 2.39$ , S.D. = 1.00), followed by no. 27 "Paying attention before reading" ( $\bar{X} = 2.45$ , S.D. = 1.08) and no. 37 "Asking for better understanding" ( $\bar{X} = 2.49$ , S.D. = 1.13), respectively.

However, science students reported that the most frequently reported strategy was no. 34 "Relaxing before continuing to read" ( $\bar{X} = 2.83$ , S.D. = 1.23). This strategy with the highest mean score was followed by strategies no. 30 "Relaxing

whenever anxious" ( $\bar{X} = 2.75$ , S.D. = 1.06), and no. 13 "Choosing the topic of reading passage" ( $\bar{X} = 2.75$ , S.D. = 1.03). The strategy with the lowest mean score was no. 19 "Arranging schedule to practice reading" ( $\bar{X} = 1.78$ , S.D. = 0.75), followed by no. 10 "Making summaries in English" ( $\bar{X} = 1.80$ , S.D. = 0.82) and no. 27 "Paying attention before reading" ( $\bar{X} = 1.88$ , S.D. = 0.82), respectively.

In short, the information as to the perceived uses of strategies among the arts and science students in terms of field of study revealed that they tended to employ a wide range of affective and metacognitive strategies when reading English academic texts more frequently than others strategies. In order to reflect more profoundly upon the students' perceived values use of strategies when undertaking English reading tasks, a detailed qualitative and quantitative analysis of the very aspect based on multiple sources of data are provided in the subsequent section.

#### **4.2 Research Question Two: How do arts and science students differ in their self-reported use of reading strategies?**

The main purposes of the second research question are to see and gain an understanding of the similarities and differences in self-reported use of the reading strategies between arts and science students. To address this question, the researcher used both quantitative and qualitative data from multiple sources which allowed triangulation. The quantitative data came from the questionnaire, which measured the students' self-report use of reading strategies when they read English texts for

academic purposes. The qualitative data came from: (1) semi-structured interviews; (2) observations through classes; and (3) self-reports of English reading strategies.

As for the quantitative data which were partly reported in research question 1, the findings presented focused primarily on the data from all surveyed students. Moreover, independent samples t-test was administered to examine all strategies reported to be used by each student group in six subcategories to examine whether the observed differences in the overall mean scores of the two groups were statistically significant. For this study, the level of significance was set at .05. Table 4.3 shows the results:

**Table 4.3**

**The Differences in Self-Reported Strategy Use by Surveyed Students in terms of Field of Study**

Strategy	Arts Students (N = 40)		Science Students (N = 40)		t
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	
<b>Memory Strategies</b>					
1. Reviewing the reading lessons	2.69	0.82	2.00	0.81	3.68***
2. Putting the words/phrases/sentences	2.73	0.93	2.05	0.60	3.85***
3. Remembering words/phrases/sentences	2.53	1.01	2.03	0.77	2.49***
4. Transcribe the words/phrases/sentences	2.59	0.90	2.13	0.82	2.33**
<b>Total</b>	<b>2.62</b>	<b>0.70</b>	<b>2.05</b>	<b>0.64</b>	<b>3.80***</b>
<b>Cognitive Strategies</b>					
5. Practicing the phrases or sentences	2.85	1.10	2.29	0.97	2.50**
6. Using reference materials	2.79	1.00	2.20	1.10	2.45**
7. No transferring Thai grammar and patterns	2.89	0.93	2.15	1.00	3.34***
8. No trying to translate into Thai	2.69	0.94	2.20	0.97	2.22*
9. Skimming an English passage	3.03	1.02	2.40	1.10	2.62**
10. Making summaries in English	2.75	1.18	1.80	0.82	4.20***
<b>Total</b>	<b>2.82</b>	<b>0.72</b>	<b>2.18</b>	<b>0.70</b>	<b>4.10***</b>
<b>Compensation Strategies</b>					
11. No looking up every new word	2.39	1.00	2.00	1.09	1.60
12. Making guesses with unfamiliar words	2.95	1.03	2.53	0.88	1.99**
13. Choosing the topic of reading passage	2.90	1.21	2.73	1.03	0.70
14. Reading a word or phrase to know words	2.69	1.00	2.20	1.00	2.13*
<b>Total</b>	<b>2.72</b>	<b>0.79</b>	<b>2.37</b>	<b>0.67</b>	<b>2.23*</b>

Table 4.2 (Continued)

Strategy	Arts Students (N = 40)		Science Students (N = 40)		t
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	
<b>Metacognitive Strategies</b>					
15. Reviewing reading lessons for new tasks	2.75	1.09	2.23	0.90	2.38*
16. Blocking out noise and interruption	2.89	1.10	2.15	0.83	3.34***
17. Trying to find out how to read better	2.85	1.05	2.59	0.88	1.28
18. Organizing language notebook	2.95	1.10	2.05	0.95	3.89***
19. Arranging schedule to practice reading	2.70	0.97	1.80	0.75	4.63***
20. Arranging a comfortable place for reading	3.83	0.78	2.58	1.10	5.83***
21. Planning the goals to read in English	3.75	0.87	2.58	1.08	5.34***
22. Accomplishing in each reading task	3.68	1.04	2.05	0.90	7.42***
23. Seeking for opportunities to read outside	3.58	0.95	2.17	1.00	6.44***
24. Noticing and correcting the mistakes	3.83	0.90	2.50	1.01	6.18***
25. Making the same mistake	3.83	0.95	2.53	1.01	5.90***
26. Improving work next time	2.99	1.17	2.20	1.01	3.17***
27. Paying attention before reading	2.45	1.08	1.88	0.82	2.68***
28. Identifying clearly purpose	2.83	1.10	2.23	0.90	2.68***
29. Reading as much as possible	3.00	1.13	2.60	0.92	1.72
<b>Total</b>	<b>3.20</b>	<b>0.64</b>	<b>2.28</b>	<b>0.72</b>	<b>6.00***</b>
<b>Affective Strategies</b>					
30. Relaxing whenever anxious	3.05	1.15	2.73	1.06	1.31
31. Using meditation or deep breathing.	2.98	1.20	2.55	1.15	1.60
32. Checking up before reading word	2.80	1.00	2.63	1.08	0.75
33. Giving a reward	2.90	1.12	2.45	1.15	1.77
34. Relaxing before continuing to read	3.20	1.07	2.83	1.23	1.45
35. Writing down in diary	2.93	1.20	2.20	1.01	2.90***
36. Talking about English reading problems	3.19	1.23	2.55	1.21	2.28*
<b>Total</b>	<b>3.00</b>	<b>0.82</b>	<b>2.57</b>	<b>0.91</b>	<b>2.28*</b>
<b>Social Strategies</b>					
37. Asking for better understanding	2.49	1.13	2.29	1.07	0.81
38. Asking for correcting reading task	2.63	1.10	2.55	1.10	0.30
39. Working with friends mutually	3.03	1.33	2.40	1.15	2.24*
40. Asking for help from many sources	3.05	1.20	2.30	1.10	2.93***
<b>Total</b>	<b>2.80</b>	<b>0.94</b>	<b>2.39</b>	<b>0.90</b>	<b>1.99*</b>

\* significant difference at 0.05

\*\* significant difference at 0.01

\*\*\* significant difference at 0.001

A one-way ANOVA was used to test statistical procedures for the mean scores comparisons of the arts and science students using SPSS software. Table 4.3 shows the results of the independent samples t-test of the perceived importance of the categories of strategies in reading English texts between arts and science students. According to the self-reported strategy used by arts and science students in terms of

memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and metacognitive strategies, the results show that there was significant difference at a level of 0.001. As for compensation strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies, there were statistically significant differences in reading comprehension between arts and science students at 0.05 level.

#### **4.2.1 Differences in Reading Contexts**

When addressing Question 2, the researcher included data collected from the initial interview of the twelve participants and explicit reading strategy instruction (ERSI) sessions to note common themes and patterns that emerge from the way that the participants talk about reading and their evaluation of themselves as readers. The main findings are listed with the interpretation and evidence.

The contrast in reported use between the two groups of students was probably due to the different reading contexts arts and science students could have encountered. Probably, the type of reading contexts most science students encountered was more academically-based, calling for an employment of strategies that were more applicable to academic purposes. However, arts students who might experience less pressure from studies and exams, and had more time to engage themselves in leisure reading would use strategies that were more applicable for that purpose.

#### **4.2.2 Differences in Perceived Difficulties in Application of Reading Strategies**

In response to Question 2 of Interview Two (See Appendix F) that looked into students' perceived difficulties in application of reading strategies, four out of the six arts interviewees reported having difficulties in remembering the strategies including the names of the strategies and how to use them. At the beginning of the interviews, when students were asked to describe what they had learnt in the reading sessions, all



science students, actually said that they forgot what they had learnt. Though as the interviews went on, they were able to recall what they had learnt and described the learning contents, it appeared that arts students were quite unfamiliar with the strategies. Three of the above-mentioned arts students, plus another three, further reported that they had forgotten that they could use the strategies while they were reading.

In comparison with the science students, arts students seemed to remember the strategies much better. None of the science students reported that they had forgotten the strategies or how to use them. Though four science students out of six who had been interviewed said that they sometimes forgot that they could apply the strategies to their reading, they were still more ready to describe other occasions on which they had used the strategies. The general trend was still that arts students tended to be more unfamiliar with the names of the strategies.

Generally, all the discussions and interviews were conducted in Thai, even when we talked about L2 reading. The discussions and interviews were translated into English by the researcher. Then, they were analyzed and interpreted in order to see the change of the samples' perceived values about reading and their self-evaluation as a reader over time.

Most science students seemed to remember the reading strategies well and had tried to use them, but they encountered a number of contexts in which they found it difficult to use the strategies. The SS1 pointed out:

Note: AS: Arts Student, SS: Science Student

- Researcher: Did you find the strategies difficult to apply?  
 SS1: ...Yes.  
 Researcher: Do you mean you didn't know where to place the information?  
 SS1: Yes.  
 Researcher: Do you know why?  
 SS1: I thought the same point could be placed under two different headings, and I didn't know where I should put it.  
 Researcher: What did you do then?  
 SS1: I wrote it on the margin of the two columns.  
 Researcher: You said that you also tried to use Venn diagram to compare and contrast. Have you encountered any difficulties?  
 SS1: It's mainly for classifying similarities and differences, but I found that some points were in neither category.  
 Researcher: I see.

Furthermore, because the participants believed their L2 reading comprehension would improve through the development of language skills, their purposes of reading L2 were limited to vocabulary knowledge enlargement.

The twelve participants read in Thai on a regular basis. They continued to read in Thai for various purposes—to read news and articles in newspapers for information; to check emails, to contact friends in Thai, to visit others' homepages, including interesting writings, to read narrative stories to get pleasure, and so on. Their purposes of reading in Thai were not limited to information-gathering. They read in Thai to get personal pleasure for leisure time and to achieve development for academic studies. The AS1 asserted,

Reading in Thai is a part of my life. Also, all the participants considered reading in Thai as being pleasurable.

On the contrary, the participants' purposes of reading in English were limited to improve English language proficiency, primarily to prepare for English exams and to accomplish required tasks for school work. They rarely indicated reading for the purpose of enjoyment.

Although the participants were highly motivated to improve their English language ability, their primary goal in reading in English was to increase vocabulary and grammar knowledge to prepare for various kinds of English exams. The six science students remembered how they studied English reading. While reading in English, they usually focused on intensive reading, vocabulary building, grammar exercise and translation.

SS2 commented that,

I engaged in word by word decoding and translation, followed by comprehension questions.

SS2 claimed,

Decoding and translation have been the only strategy with which I approached an English (L2) text in English classes, because English teachers focused on vocabulary and grammar teaching.

Their limited purpose of reading in English, in order to improve their linguistic skills, promoted labored reading that got in the way of comprehension.

They spent less time reading any text and tended to pay careful attention to accuracy of print detail. They emphasized intensive decoding which often produced laborious and slow reading.

In sum, the participants' primary concerns in English reading were not the construction of meaning, which seemed to hinder their enjoyment of English reading. To accomplish their purpose of English reading, they spent a lot of time analyzing a

text to translate word-for-word, and relied heavily on the dictionary. More and more, they became frustrated and bored in English reading. Gradually, they read less and less in English. In consequence, they had few opportunities to engage in reading with personal pleasure or in reading various genres of English texts, because their English reading material was limited to school work or functional purposes. The narrow reading experiences led to a lack of opportunity to be exposed to various and greater reading opportunities.

In terms of the participants' beliefs about reading, there were closely related to their self-evaluation as a reader. Because of their skill-oriented views of reading, they evaluated themselves as a reader in terms of the amount of vocabulary knowledge that they had. They assessed themselves as a good reader in L1 because they had little trouble in dealing with unknown words and because they had immense vocabulary knowledge in Thai. On the other hand, they did not evaluate themselves as a good reader in English, as they believed their reading difficulties were caused by their lack of vocabulary knowledge and language proficiency in L2.

At the initial interview, AS2 defined good readers as those who had good pronunciation and language proficiency and said all the native English speakers would be good readers because "it would be strange if native speakers read poorly". His definition about good reading was related to oral fluency. He thought he would not have any trouble in understanding Thai texts, as Thai is his native language. Therefore, while he evaluated himself as an advanced reader in Thai, he did not evaluate himself as a good reader in English.

The SS2 and SS3 defined good readers as those who would like to read and have a large amount of vocabulary knowledge. They evaluated themselves as

proficient readers in Thai reading, while they did not in English reading, because of their deficient vocabulary knowledge. Likewise, the SS3 put emphasis on vocabulary knowledge in reading in both L1 and L2. He defined good readers as those who would have a good sense of language with an enormous amount of vocabulary knowledge.

All the participants self-evaluated themselves in terms of their conceptions of reading and their primary concerns in reading. They had unpleasant memories of their struggles with dense academic English texts. They seemed to be discouraged in reading in English and bogged down on one major strategy of looking up unknown words in the dictionary. As they had low self-evaluation of their English reading, they did not have positive feelings about English reading.

#### **4.3 Research Question Three: What values do students receive in the explicit reading strategy instruction?**

To gain more insights into the students' actual values of strategies when they were asked to undertake explicit reading tasks, the third research question was formulated. To address this question, the researcher used qualitative and quantitative data from multiple sources: questionnaires, reading texts, interviews, class observations sessions, and self-reports of explicit reading strategies. Table 4.4 illustrated the results of students' perceived usefulness of the explicit reading strategies instruction.

**Table 4.4**

**Percentage of Given Statements about the Perceived Values of Learning the Reading Strategies of Surveyed Students**

<b>Perceived Values Given Statement</b>	<b>Surveyed Students (N = 80)</b>	<b>%</b>
1. It increases my reading speed.	30	37.50%
2. It helps me remember more the content of the texts read.	27	33.75%
3. It helps me understand more the content of the texts read.	34	42.50%
4. It helps me understand the main message of the writer.	32	40.00%
5. I can do the reading comprehension exercise better than before.	25	31.25%
6. It increases my confidence in reading.	23	28.75%
7. It increases my interest in reading.	27	33.75%
8. I read with a purpose.	29	36.25%
9. Others (Please specify)	1	1.25%

As revealed in Table 4.4 above, the ranking from the highest to the lowest percentage of given statements about the perceived values of learning the reading strategies of surveyed students (See Appendix I) were “It helps me understand the main message of the writer (40.00%)” and statement “It increases my confidence in reading (28.75%)”. As for others statements were only 1.25%. These differences are accounted for later in this chapter, and a summary of the differences between the arts and science students’ responses to the same given statements are presented in Table 4.5. Both tables include: (1) raw figures to give a more realistic picture in this small-scale study; and (2) percentages for ease of comparison.

Table 4.5

**Comparison of Percentage of Given Statements about the Perceived Values of Learning the Reading Strategies of Arts and Science Students**

Perceived Values Given Statement	Arts Students		Science Students	
	(N = 40)	%	(N = 40)	%
1. It increases my reading speed.	21	52.50%	9	22.50%
2. It helps me remember more the content of the texts read.	14	35.00%	13	32.50%
3. It helps me understand more the content of the texts read.	20	50.00%	14	35.50%
4. It helps me understand the main message of the writer.	17	42.50%	15	37.50%
5. I can do the reading comprehension exercise better than before.	19	47.50%	6	15.00%
6. It increases my confidence in reading.	17	42.50%	6	15.00%
7. It increases my interest in reading.	22	55.00%	5	12.50%
8. I read with a purpose.	16	40.00%	13	32.50%
9. Others (Please specify)	1	2.50%	0	0.00%

Table 4.5 is a summary of students' responses to certain given statements in Part I Question 4 of the questionnaire (See Appendix I), which elicited students' perceived values of learning the reading strategies. All statements enjoyed the same high level of frequency, being chosen by more than half of the total number of students, though there were differences between the perceived values of arts and science students regarding statements: "I can do the reading comprehension exercise better than before", "It increases my confidence in reading", and "It increases my interest in reading" (See Appendix I).

#### **4.3.1 Improvement in Reading Comprehension in terms of Content Comprehension and Speed**

Most students acknowledged the positive effects of reading strategy instruction in enhancing reading comprehension. Of all the given statements in Part I

Question 4 of the questionnaire (See Appendix I for detail), statement “It helps me understand more the content of the texts read” which was intended to look at students’ perceptions of the usefulness of the reading strategy instruction in comprehension, was chosen most frequently (42.50%) (See Table 4.4). Statement “It helps me understand the main message of the writer”, which was aimed to tap students’ perceptions of usefulness of the training in identifying main ideas, was also chosen frequently, occupying the second highest position by percentage (40.00%) (See Table 4.4). Responses given in the interviews showed a similar tendency. Twelve of forty interviewees mentioned this perceived value in the interviews though the comments varied from a simple remark to more elaborate ones (See Appendix F). Below are two extracts of students’ responses regarding this value.

The AS3 indicated,

I can comprehend the book more easily.

The AS4 articulated,

I’m able to recognize the genres such as Report and Biography. That can help us understand what the books are about and what the books want to teach us.

Apart from facilitating improvement in comprehension content, students also agreed that strategy instruction could enhance their reading speed. Statement “It increases my reading speed” in Part I Question 4 of the questionnaire was chosen quite frequently, amounting to the third highest number by percentage (37.50%) (See Table 4.4). Many students mentioned perceived improvement in comprehension and speed together when they responded to the interview question (Interview 1 Question 5) (See Appendix F) that examined the usefulness of reading strategy instruction to



enhance their speed. To them, improvement in comprehension could probably result in improved reading speed. The AS5 implementation of these strategies manifested itself in the following quotes:

Researcher: Of what help do you think these reading strategies have on your reading speed?

AS5: I read faster.

Researcher: Why?

AS5: Why? Because when I understand the comprehension passages, I will read faster. In the past, I always failed to understand what a text says.

Though arts students seemed to be less ready to agree with statement “It helps me to understand more the content of the texts read”, the value of reading strategy training in improving speed (See Table 4.5), the researcher has reasons to believe that they still saw the general notion of the reading strategies in enhancing a faster reading speed. In fact, responses of several science students in the interviews provided us with an explanation for their being less ready to see improvement in reading speed.

The SS4 pinpointed the benefit of this strategy as follows:

SS4: ...sometimes when I read more complicated materials with many words, I don't need to be afraid. If I read slowly, though it uses more time, when I use the things I have learnt and slowly guess what the text is about, I can guess the meanings of the text, about 70 -80%.

Researcher: Do you mean that you have to use more time?

SS4: When I started learning the strategies. But sometimes, for example, when I read newspapers, which I read more frequently, I realize that I read faster. Sometimes, I read faster. But sometimes, when it's a new topic, I will read more slowly.

Arts students' responses informed us that at a higher level of studies, they had to encounter cognitively more demanding tasks in terms of length and unfamiliar

topics, requiring them either to spend more time on reading or vary their reading speed to go in line with a varying focus of attention. Their comments also explained why they were less ready to agree with the value of strategy instruction in managing English tasks, which are discussed in the next section.

#### 4.3.2 Managing English Exercises and Examinations

Another value of reading instruction perceived by students was its assistance in managing English comprehension tasks. The questionnaire data showed that more than half of the students (Table 4.4) responded favorably to statement “I can do the reading comprehension exercise better than before”, which was intended to find out students’ perceptions about the effects of reading strategies on managing English comprehension exercises. During the interviews, the interviewees mentioned a general belief in the positive impact of the reading strategies on reading comprehension exercises or went into a more detailed description of the impact. The AS6 accounted,

Researcher: Of what help do you think these reading strategies have on your doing English comprehension exercises?

AS6: I can do faster. I mean when it’s in the exam, you’ll understand the whole text. Unless there’s something you don’t understand (the student later explained that it meant some careless mistakes), you’ll know it well and you can get full marks.

Also, AS1 delineated several aspects of the comprehension exercises that facilitated her comprehension as follows:

Researcher: Of what help do you think these reading strategies have on your doing English comprehension exercises?

AS1: I can read faster.

Researcher: Anything else?

AS1: They help me to guess the meanings of the vocabulary items. When I am doing the exam papers and I don't know some of the words, I can guess their meanings and figure out what the whole sentence means.

Though arts students again seemed to be less ready to agree with this point (Table 4.5) when responding to Part I Question 4 of the questionnaire, because of the difficult contexts they encountered as they proceeded to a higher level of learning, they did mention how strategies were of help to their homework in general in the interviews. Actually, all of the science interviewees mentioned this value in the interviews. One science student explained in detail how the employment of reading strategies had enabled her to manage a complicated task in English homework.

Following are some examples:

SS2: ...for the questions, sometimes you have to finish a task such as writing a reply by following the instructions given. For example, once I had a task in which instructions on memo-writing were given, but there was no clear order in the instructions. I mean they were not in point form, but I was able to identify the verbs, i.e. the process in steps (Note: One strategy learnt in the reading program is called identifying steps in process.).

#### 4.3.3 Organizing Content of Reading

Students also perceived that learning the reading strategies helped them put in order the reading content. Students' responses to the given statement "I can do the reading comprehension exercise better than before" in the questionnaire Part I Question 4 (See Appendix I) indicated that a majority of students (See Table 4.4) believed that they could remember the information better. Many students also responded positively to the interview question (Interview 1 Question 6) (See

Appendix F) that asked them to comment on the effects of reading strategies on their memory and recall of reading materials. They believed that storage of information has been enhanced by a more effective organization of reading content due to the employment of reading strategies. The following excerpt demonstrates the point:

**Researcher:** What help do you think these reading strategies have on your doing English comprehension exercises?

**SS5:** It's clearer for remembering the main points. Very often, if things are mixed up, you'll get confused. But if you organize them, it's easier to remember and it's clearer.

To elucidate the point, AS2 added,

**AS2:** Quite enough. The main function of the reading strategies is to help me remember the main points of the text. They have not helped me to remember the whole text, but they helped me get the main points. It's impossible to memorize the whole text.

#### **4.3.4 Increased Strategy Knowledge**

In terms of increasing awareness of relation between genre characteristics and comprehension are presented. Adopting a genre approach to the teaching of reading strategies seemed to have enabled students to gain a greater awareness of the relation between genre characteristics and comprehension. As mentioned in Chapter Three, the reading program, to a large extent, adopted a genre approach to conduct the teaching of reading strategies. Students were told to identify the genres and their structures and characteristics in each reading session, for example identifying introduction- complication-resolution pattern in narrative. Students commented upon such impact during the interviews. The AS6 indicated,

**Researcher:** What help do you think these reading strategies have on your doing English comprehension exercises?

**AS6:** Yes. If you don't understand...If you know you have to find the verbs, usually you will find the verbs first when you encounter books with procedures. Then you'll understand what you read.

In fact, students were able to describe the characteristics of different genres such as narrative and instructions, revealing a fact that they possess the knowledge of text characteristics, which might facilitate their reading. Students made an explicit acknowledgement of how knowledge of genre characteristics could be applied to reading tasks to enhance reading comprehension.

For enabling power of acquisition of strategies in cognition such as self-questioning and summarizing are illustrated. Students also believed that reading strategy instruction made possible the awareness of the enabling power of acquisition of strategies in cognition. The interview data suggested students' understanding of the facilitating effects of strategies in cognition. Though some strategies such as self-questioning and word-attack skills were not the main focus of the reading sessions and were not highlighted at the end of the notes were able to mention them. Of these students, some went deeper to comment on the perceived affirmative outcome of acquiring the strategies in the interviews. The AS4 explained:

**Researcher:** Do you think learning these reading strategies have changed your views towards reading?

**AS4:** ...Also, one can ask oneself a lot of questions to help one comprehend better.

For instance, the AS1 reported,

- ASI: I learnt how to read.  
 Researcher: Can you tell me how?  
 ASI: I have learnt to ask myself questions regarding a book and then answer them. In this way, I can understand the book easily.

The SS6 explained as follows:

- SS6: .. Besides that, I learn how to list the items out and tabulate them. The text will then be more easily understood and it seems to be simpler to read. It's like a summary.

Though investigation into the actual extent of students' use of the strategies was beyond the scope of this research, students' responses informed us that they were aware of the cognitive tactics they could employ and the usefulness of these tactics in reading.

#### **4.3.5 Conceptual Changes about Reading**

The teaching of reading strategies enabled students to change their concepts about reading. Students who were interviewed, about half of them revealed a conceptual change from focusing on single words to attending to the meaning of a text. Following is one of the examples of what the AS5 indicated:

- AS5: ..I didn't know how to read a large piece of text. Now, the teacher tells us about reading the title and the opening statement first. Then I can understand what the text actually wants to say. I won't view the text as words plus words.

Doing so, the AS4 explained how to come up with an answer,

- AS4: I can read faster. That means it's not necessary for me to read word for word to work out the meaning of a text. Also, it's easy to understand.

Though one important skill of strategic readers is mastery of decoding skills at word-level (Pressley, 2000), reading should not be regarded as a mere word-decoding activity for its own sake. Word-decoding should, however, lead to construction of meanings. We can perhaps see here that students' concern for difficult words or for decoding of words in EFL reading very often blocked them from seeing that reading is a meaning-getting activity. Some arts students, who were supposed to be more mature readers, still focused on individual words. The quotes below are indicative:

SS4: That is I don't have to. When I know I read a book, I have to know what the book is about, but I don't need to memorize word for word. I don't have to learn the words by heart.

Students' responses appeared to indicate that reading strategy instruction could release students' from the obsession with individual words and help promote a more effective understanding of the purpose of reading.

#### **4.3.6 Affective Values**

Students' perceived values were not confined to improvement in comprehension or increased awareness of cognitive tactics. They also saw improvement in affective values in terms of confidence and pleasure. Students' responses to the given statements in the questionnaire Part I Question 4 indicated that more than half of the eighty informants (Table 4.4) agreed with statements "It increases my confidence in reading", and "It increases my interest in reading" that the teaching of reading strategies had enhanced their confidence (28.75%) and pleasure (33.75%) in reading.

In the interviews, both arts and science students mentioned that reading strategy training had enabled them to find pleasure in reading as the AS6 clearly explained:

**Researcher:** Do you think learning these reading strategies have changed your interest in reading?

**AS6:** I have become more interested.... They tell me the strategies and how to use them. It makes me feel that stories can be quite interesting. They are not boring.

Below is the AS2' explanation:

**AS2:** I'll read more English books at my leisure... Before, I found it very difficult to understand the books even though I knew all the words. I didn't know what the books wanted to say, so I seldom read. But now since I learn the reading strategies, I find it easier to understand.

The SS4 added,

**SS4:** ...Yes. For example, I didn't like reading newspapers because they're long and I didn't understand. But now when I read newspapers, I won't fall asleep.

During the interviews, both arts and science students reported an increase in confidence level as a result of reading strategy training. The AS6 reported,

**Researcher:** Do you think learning these reading strategies have changed your confidence in reading?

**AS6:** Yes, at least I know more....

**Researcher:** Then can you explain what more do you know?

**AS6:** More... Ways that enable me to read faster and comprehend well, so when I read, I'll comprehend. When I read more books, I'll learn more vocabulary. I don't need to look up the words every time. It's very troublesome.



The following excerpts illustrate the point by the SS2:

**Researcher:** Do you think learning these reading strategies have changed your confidence in reading?

**SS2:** A bit more. At least now I can feel that I'm really reading something. I don't read a book blindly, but I read with a purpose.

However, only about one third of the arts students (See Table 4.5) indicated an increase in interest and confidence level when they responded to given statements "It increases my confidence in reading", and "It increases my interest in reading" in Part I Question 4 in the questionnaire (See Appendix I).

#### **4.4 Research Question Four: How are the perceived values of arts students different from those of science students?**

In general, both arts and science students saw various beneficial effects of reading strategy instruction, but arts students appeared to gain more in terms of the affective values. Most arts students reported that teaching of reading strategies had increased their interest (55%) and confidence (42.50%) in reading, higher than science students by around 15% (interest) and 12.50% (confidence), respectively (See Table 4.5). Nevertheless, the whole process of teaching seemed to have impacted more positively and extensively on sciences students regarding the cognitive and metacognitive aspects.

##### **4.4.1 Interpretive and Critical Reading with Literal Reading**

Learning the reading strategies allowed science students to see the possibility of understanding a text in various depths. In the interviews, science interviewees were able to see reading strategies as an empowering tool to read at different levels

(interpretive reading) and out of these six interviewees, about three even saw the need for critical reading. Some examples of how the SS6 made use of this strategy are as follows:

Researcher: Do you think learning these reading strategies have changed your views towards reading?

SS6: I'm not sure if it's what you're asking. To me, I won't just understand the surface meaning of the book, and think that that's enough. I will also see the underlying meaning and identify what the implications are. I now realize that a text is not that simple and there should be various meanings in every text. There are some messages in the texts.

The SS2 reasoned,

Researcher: In what way has it changed your views?

SS2: In the past, when I read, I would finish the book and that's it. But now I realize that we can know something after reading, i.e. I know more things and I know more about the thoughts of others.

Researcher: Why is there such a change?

SS2: Because when we apply the reading strategies, it means that we have to think... to think about what others are saying. If we think, we understand others' views.

Only one out of arts interviewees was able to see the need for interpretive reading. All arts interviewees mentioned improvement in comprehension but usually remarked on an overall understanding of a text (literal understanding) rather than comprehending at different levels. While undertaking a task, the SS3 uttered,

Researcher: Do you think learning these reading strategies have changed your views towards reading?

SS3: I was not very keen on reading in the past

because I didn't know the words. I know the way to read now and find that it's quite interesting to read even though I still encounter some difficult words. Sometimes, I think reading is quite interesting. Though there are difficult words, at least I know what the story is about and hence I won't feel bored to read.

Differences in realization of the levels of understanding between arts and science students also explained why more arts students reported an increase in confidence than sciences students. Interpretive reading and critical reading require a higher level of thinking ability (Rubin, 1992). As arts students were less aware of the needs and hence the demands of interpretive reading, they were contented with getting a literal understanding and were probably more confident of seeing improvement in their own reading ability. Though sciences students did perceive the enabling power of reading strategies training to read interpretively, awareness of a higher level of reading and the demands involved, together with the difficult contexts they encountered, might stop them from boasting their ability. To illustrate the point, the SS6 pointed out,

Yes. It's more difficult because the contents of my studies are harder than before. It's very different from what I had. That's why I find it more difficult to read.

In view of the cognitively more demanding tasks, many science students were hence more cautious to agree with an increase in both confidence and pleasure. That may account for why only around one third of the science respondents agreed with given statements "It increases my confidence in reading" and "It increases my interest in reading" as they responded to Part I Question 4 of the questionnaire.

#### 4.4.2 Extensive Use with Limited Use of Reading Strategies

Science students' report of more extensive use of reading strategies in comprehension tasks and in studies in general is mentioned. For instance, science students seemed to be more ready to describe in detail how to apply the reading strategies to their homework or tests. As evidenced from the following extracts of the interviews, science students were able to comment on the possible use of the strategies to analyze text structure. The SS4 evidently indicated,

**Researcher:** What help do you think these reading strategies have on your doing English comprehension exercises?

**SS4:** It can help me to do. I know how to read a text. Now it's training us to understand the organization of a text. For example, when a writer writes, he will have a thesis statement. It's there. If we don't know, it's difficult to guess what the text is about. But when we have learnt this in the training, we then know the meaning of a text. For example, when there's a change between the previous paragraph and the next paragraph, or there's a relationship, I will notice it. Then in the exam, I will naturally do faster and can grasp the purpose of the writer.

Following are some examples of the SS2:

**SS2:** I remember I was quite weak at doing reading comprehension exercises before joining this reading program.

**Researcher:** Quite what?

**SS2:** Quite weak, i.e I mean I did., I read... I mean I didn't understand the text though I'd read it once. But now, I know that I should pay attention to the opening statements and then try to guess the purpose of the writing or the rationale behind. When I know how to read and how to think, I can then read faster and the text is not hard to understand anymore.

**Researcher:** Have you really tried to apply the strategies while doing English comprehension exercises

- and did you find that you read faster?  
 SS2: Sure. Just like the exercise called “screening or what”. I did it last time, and I was really faster in doing so.

All the six science students were capable of explaining and elaborating the perceived effects of strategy teaching on their reading tasks. In comparison with science students, all six arts students gave very general responses when explaining the perceived effect of strategy training on their English exercises and exams. For those who gave more elaborate responses, they appeared to focus less on complicated areas such as text-organization and finding relationship among different elements of the written text but more on word attack skills. Before actually started to read, strategy was observed as the AS4 articulated,

- AS4: ...But if you’ve learnt the strategies, you’ll completely understand the text by only reading once.  
 Researcher: Of what help then?  
 AS4: I can finish the exercises faster.

When applying the strategies to memorizing text contents, arts students were also less capable of perceiving the actual use of strategies in enhancing organization of contents for ease of memorization. A contrast was seen between the descriptions of the arts and science students in response to the interview question (Interview 1 Question 6) that asked them to comment on the effects of reading strategies on their recall of the reading materials. Evidently, the SS4 pointed out,

- Researcher: Of what help do you think these reading strategies have on your recall of the content of the text?  
 SS4: You can use Wh-words to find the information you want.  
 Researcher: What about recalling?

SS4: If you remember the most important things, you may also recall the details.

To indicate the point, the AS6 added,

Researcher: Of what help do you think these reading strategies have on your recall of the content of the text?

AS6: If you understand in depth what the problem is, that is you're familiar with it, you'll remember what the problem is and what the answer is.

Researcher: Do you mean you can remember?

AS6: [Nodding.]

This arts student did not mention any cognitive tactics he would employ to help organize and memorize the texts. In fact, only two out of the six arts interviewees had talked about employment of strategies; while in comparison, four out of six science interviewees mentioned that they would use strategies such as words to organize their reading and enhance recall of the materials. The researcher does not exclude the possibility that better verbal ability of the science learners might have enabled them to describe the use of the strategies more thoroughly in the interviews. However, the researcher can infer with confidence that their more comprehensive descriptions of how they had employed the strategies in reading still suggest a more extensive use of these strategies.

Evidently, science students were more aware of the applicability of strategies beyond English reading tasks and across discipline. Several reading strategies such as identifying text organization, categorizing and generalizing rules were applicable to both English subject reading and content area reading, but only science students perceived their applicability across discipline. The SS4 mentioned,

... In the past, when I read a book, I would not think of reading that way. When I was in grade 9 and 10, I read a book and finished it and that's all. I would not think about how it was structured. I wouldn't think about why the text was organized that way. At that time, I would think about the clues given by the writer when I was reading Thai books, but I didn't know that the same skills are employed by writers of English books.

The SS5 added,

**Researcher:** Do you see any benefits in learning the reading strategies? What are they?

**SS5:** To read... They are useful in other subjects.

Science students' perceptions of the use of reading strategies have gone beyond English reading tasks. They were able to see the use of reading strategies across L1 and L2 and from language subjects to non-language subjects. On one occasion, the teacher taught categorization skills. One science student was able to view the reading strategies as study or test-handling skills. He did mention how he might apply the strategies to categorizing more possible choices from the less possible ones when handling questions in English subject. For instance, the SS5 reported,

**Researcher:** What do you mean by the meanings of words? Are they words or reading?

**SS5:** For example., when I studied Biology in the past, I learnt to differentiate dinosaurs with wings from those without. Now I realize that categorization we learnt at that time is the same as the one we are learning now. I don't know what was wrong at that time, but I always thought that categorization could not be applied to English subject I thought it must be used in science subjects. Now I learn that it can be used in English subject and I do apply the strategy. I will try to separate the less possible choices and consider them as irrelevant information or wrong answers. Then I may get the right answers.

However, arts students seemed to have confined the use of reading strategies more to English reading tasks such as assigned reader or story books in extensive reading scheme. The AS4 illustrated the point,

Researcher: Please recall one incident you have used the reading strategies you learnt last time.

AS4: Yes.

Researcher: When?

AS4: In reading lessons.

Researcher: Can you say more?

AS4: I applied the strategies to reading.

More science students also showed an increased awareness of applying genre characteristics to writing tasks. Probably the adoption of a genre approach to the teaching of reading strategies has made possible and more obvious the applicability of reading strategies in the writing tasks. We can see that students' discussion of this value of reading strategies was largely genre-specific. The SS6 explained as follows:

SS6: ...And also I'll be more aware of the structure and I won't write without thinking. I won't write just to make sure that there aren't any grammatical errors.

Researcher: How is learning those strategies related to your writing?

SS6: Oh, there are some relationships because they are related to text structure.

Although both arts and science students could perceive the use of reading strategies in writing tasks, more sciences students were able to mention this value. In the interviews, half of the science interviewees mentioned use of reading strategies in writing tasks; while in comparison, less than one third of arts interviewees mentioned this value.



#### 4.5 Summary of the Chapter

The results indicate that students saw various values of reading strategy instruction including perceived improvements in reading comprehension, memory, cognitive tactics, concepts about reading and affective values; though sciences students perceived that they gained more extensively both in understanding of the concepts about reading and reading strategies while arts students gained more in affective values. Concerning application of reading strategies, both groups reported to have used the strategies though some strategies were found to be used by more students. Differences were found regarding perceived reading contexts and perceived difficulties in application between the two groups of students. More sciences students used strategies that were more applicable for academic purposes, and they also encountered cognitively more demanding contexts. In comparison, more arts students employed strategies that were applicable to leisure readings, and any difficulty they encountered was mainly unfamiliarity with the reading strategies.

The results on perceived values and reported use give us a glimpse of the positive effects and impacts of reading strategy instruction students reported to have experienced, and these findings, together with the comparisons between the two groups of students, further enable us to examine the various variables that affect effective reading strategy training. Additionally, this chapter described the findings and data analysis of the research. Detailed discussion of the findings and implications for instruction are then presented in Chapter Five. Chapter Five, on the other hand, will present an interpretation of these findings, using the research questions as a framework.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DISCUSSION**

This chapter discusses and interprets the findings especially with regard to their implications for reading strategy instruction. It first briefly talks about the significance of reading strategy instruction and then goes into a discussion of a number of aspects, including the teaching approach, the learner factor, the cooperative learning mode, and the instructional materials, that can contribute to a more effective teaching of reading strategies.

Below is the discussion of the following aspects based on the findings: perceived used of self-reporting reading strategies by surveyed students, significant values of explicit reading strategy instruction (ERSI), and differences between ERSI used by arts and science students.

#### **5.1 Discussion of the Perceived Used of Self-reporting Reading Strategies by Surveyed Students**

According to the results from the questionnaires, the surveyed students used the reading strategies as a whole were at moderate levels. When considering at each aspect, it was found that cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies were at moderate levels; whereas, memory strategies was at low level. The ranking from the highest to the lowest

mean scores were surveyed students reported that they used affective strategies, metacognitive strategies, social strategies, compensation strategies, cognitive strategies, and memory strategies, respectively. However, it is noticeable that the most frequently reported strategy was no. 20 “Arranging a comfortable place for reading”. This strategy with the highest mean score was followed by strategies no. 25 “Making the same mistake”, and no. 21 “Planning the goals to read in English”. The strategy with the lowest mean score, in the other hand, was no. 27 “Paying attention before reading”, followed by no. 11 “No looking up every new word”, and no. 19 “Arranging schedule to practice reading”, respectively.

In terms of field of study, the arts students reported that they used metacognitive strategies the most, followed by affective strategies, cognitive strategies, social strategies, compensation strategies, and memory strategies, respectively; whereas, affective strategies, social strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and memory strategies were used respectively by the science students. The results show slight differences in the order of strategy groups used by the arts and science students.

It is noticeable that arts students rated metacognitive strategies the highest mean scores among the six groups of strategies. The result agree with Bremner (1999) who surveyed the language learning strategies used by a group of Hong Kong learners, and found that metacognitive strategies were the most popular. However, Bremner's results (1999) contradict Yang's results (2010). Yang (2010) conducted a study involving which English learning strategies are frequently used by EFL Korean university students, and the results showed that compensation strategies were used at a high level. According to the use of subcategory strategies, the arts students most

often read a word or phrase that the same thing in that context if they did not know the meaning of an English word; whereas, the science students used this strategies less often than arts students. This result appears to be in accordance with the study of Lee (2010) who found that one of her samples, who often guessed unknown words from context, stated that he was able to understand the main idea by reading the surrounding words. This agrees with Carmine et al. (1984) who suggested that guessing the meaning of a word using everything in the context such as context clues can help learners to apply their background knowledge to understand the meaning of new words in the text. Lee's results (2010), on other words, indicted that guessing unknown words using context clues was not completely effective if students lacked an adequate knowledge of vocabulary.

Additionally, the science students rated affective strategies the highest mean scores among the six groups of strategies. This finding appears to be in accordance with Chang (1991) who explored the frequency of strategy use of fifty Chinese ESL students at a Southeastern University in the US. He found that the strategy group most often used was affective strategies. However, Chang's findings (1991) contradict Green' findings (1991) when he explored the frequencies of strategies use of 213 students at Puerto Rican University, and found that affective strategies were used less often than metacognitive strategies. As for the use of subcategory strategies, the science students most often read better if they could choose the topic of a reading passage. Possibly, they might have motivation and concentration in their reading when they read passages that they were interested in. On the contrary, the science students most often made guesses to understand unfamiliar English words. This findings does not agree with Park (1995) who identified Korean university students'

use of language learning strategies and their beliefs about language learning of less effective learners and found that the poor learners did not use the strategies they were taught in order to guess the meanings of a word. Additionally, Hosenfeld et. al. (1981) confirms that successful readers use contextual guessing more than less successful readers. This seems to support Oxford (1990) who suggested that the more proficient students should be able to use context clues frequently instead of looking up every unfamiliar word in a dictionary. In this research, the science students read a word or phrase that meant the same thing in that context if they did not know the meaning of an English word more often than the arts students. They also made guesses from context more than looking up unfamiliar words in a dictionary. This research, however, concurs with Oxford (1990) who suggested that all students should try to guess intelligently using linguistics clues, for example, the text structure, noticing the author's structural and organizational use of words, phrases, and section numbering that indicates importance or priority. Adair-Hauck (1993) also found that their learners could guess large numbers of words successfully, if they used context clues in the passage.

Apart from the aforementioned aspect, the science students rated memory strategies the lowest mean scores among the six strategy groups. As for the use of subcategory, the science students most often put the words/phrases/sentences they had learned in an easy-recognized story to remember them, and group them into separate groups such as the groups of application letters, the groups of occupations. Possibly, the science students can remember vocabulary and phrases or sentences they have been taught more easily, learn faster, and get the meaning of word more quickly by putting them in an easy-recognized story or grouping them into separate groups.

In the arts group, the samples improved their metacognitive reading strategies through the metacognitive process. Explicit reading strategy instruction is one of the reading strategy instructions that improve readers' metacognitive awareness. It leads students to think about their reading process, develop a plan of action, monitor their own reading in order to construct their own knowledge, and self-evaluate their reading process (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). In the end, they are able to become independent readers, which is the goal of teaching reading for EFL students.

The results of this study indicated that the students in the arts group employed the metacognitive reading strategies more often after the instruction than they did before. These findings suggest that the metacognitive reading strategies raised the participants' awareness of the reading task and improved their performance in reading comprehension. Moreover, this study found that both metacognitive awareness and reading comprehension improved with metacognitive training.

## **5.2 Discussion of Significant Values of Explicit Reading Strategy**

### **Instruction (ERSI)**

This investigation into students' perceptions of the explicit teaching of reading strategies seems to indicate that students valued quite highly the usefulness of reading strategy instruction as shown by the various values both arts and science students perceived. The perceived values were manifolds, including perceived improvement in comprehension, acquisition of cognitive tactics, improvement in metacognitive knowledge or conceptions of reading and gains in affective values. The value of reading strategy training appears to be indisputable, at least to this group of EFL students who are of average reading ability in comparison with students across the

territory. Students' perceptions of the positive effects of reading strategy instruction were actually consistent with findings of other studies on both EFL and ESL students (Hare & Borchardt, 1984; Paris, Cross & Lipson, 1984; Palinscar & Brown, 1984, Duffy et. al. 1987; Pressley et. al., 1992; Loranger, 1997; Carrell, 1985; Davis, Lange & Samuels, 1988; Carrell, Pharis & Liberto, 1989; Cotterall, 1990). These research studies indicate students' improvement in metacognitive awareness or comprehension scores after reading strategy training over a period of time; whereas, this current research into students' perceptions of reading strategy instruction reveals various facilitating effects perceived by students. Though the current research only worked on a limited number of students, it still appears to inform us of the importance of reading strategy instruction. What need to be considered next are perhaps the factors that make the instruction effective.

### **5.3 Discussion of Differences between ERSI Used by Arts and Science Students**

The results based on multiple sources of data in this study indicated that how the arts and science students employed each explicit reading strategy instruction were different from each other in terms of both frequency and quality of use. Specifically, as evidenced from the questionnaire data, this study showed that there was significant difference between arts and science students at 0.001 levels in terms of memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and metacognitive strategies, and at 0.05 levels in terms of compensation strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. The arts students showed higher reported usage for metacognitive reading strategies than the science students. Additionally, the qualitative data revealed that the science group

generally struggled with vocabulary, reading skills and using strategies. The arts group, on the other hand, was more able to monitor their cognitive processes. Not only were they aware of which strategies to use and how to use them, but they also tended to be good at regulating the use of such strategies while reading. This difference between the two groups was echoed in previous research studies (Hosenfeld et. al, 1981; Pressley, 2000) which established that awareness and use of reading strategies are associated with and contribute to superior reading comprehension and thereby successful learning.

Furthermore, the research on students' perceptions of reading strategies helps us to see a number of factors that interplay to work to the success of the reading instruction. Effective teaching of reading strategies seems to depend on, as far as this study suggests, at least four factors, namely, the teaching approach, the learner factor, the cooperative learning mode and the instructional materials.

### **5.3.1 The Teaching Approach**

The use of explicit instruction with modeling seems to have enabled students to learn better and hence see the values of reading strategy training. Several observations of the reading sessions were done and the researcher found that in all the trainers' meetings and peer-reading sessions, students were guided through a number of questions to: (1) discover the value and purpose of learning each strategy; and (2) learn to apply the strategies to reading a text. The notes given to arts and science students illustrate how these lessons were conducted. The teacher also explained and demonstrated the use of the strategies to arts students, these arts students in turn do the same to the science students. It appears that by including a metacognitive component together with an opportunity for learners to witness the model's (the



teacher and / or the science students) demonstrative application of reading strategies, students were more able to see the values and transferability of the strategies to new tasks as evidenced from students' self-reported data of the perceived values and reported use.

The findings of the current research tend to concur with the studies of Duff et. al. (1987) and Paris, Cross and Lipson (1984), which suggest that adding a metacognitive component is helpful in maintaining strategy use over time. Researchers (Palinscar & Brown, 1984; Brown, Ambruster & Baker, 1986; Wenden, 1991) hence recommend that instruction in learning strategies be "direct"; informing students the value of strategy training rather than "embedded"; including activities that elicit the use of strategies instead of informing students (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 153). Research studies of strategy training related to reading have also come to a similar conclusion, and hence the suggestions of Informed Strategies for Learning (ISL) (Paris, Cross & Lipson, 1984) and direct explanation strategy instruction (Duffy & Roehler, 1982).

During the interviews, students were asked if they had learnt any reading strategies before joining the school's reading program (Interview 2 Question 5). Of the students who reported having learnt certain strategies such as previewing the title and blurb, some went further to compare the differences between past and current learning. The AS2 indicated in the following extract:

Researcher: Have you learnt these strategies before? If yes, which one(s) have you learnt?

AS2: No, I haven't...

Researcher: Have you learnt to preview the title first before going to the main text?

AS2: Yes, but my teachers didn't teach us in detail. They only told me to pay attention to the titles.

They also asked us to try to identify the main points.

Researcher: What do you mean by “teaching in detail”?

AS2: It means our teachers should teach us how to use them, but they only told us to look at the titles.

Researcher: Can you say more about “how to use”?

AS2: Our teachers told us to be aware of the titles, but they didn’t tell us the names of the strategies or show us how to use a strategy. However, the teacher in the reading sessions told me the names of the strategies. It is clearer.

The initial response of this student seemed to be that he had not learnt any strategies in the past, but further probing disclosed the fact that he had learnt certain reading strategies but was not given the names of the strategies or enough demonstration by the teacher. It seems that from the learner’s view, being given the names of the strategies would facilitate the learning of them. Perhaps the naming of the strategies can help learners to conceptualize the learning and in turn retain better the learning contents. The findings here provide little support to make such a claim, but this is a point that merits further investigation to enhance our understanding of the complex cognitive process. However, the above extracts and other data provided in this study suggest that teacher’s modeling is important. Absence of opportunity to observe the application can make it difficult for learners to remember the learning contents or see the possibility of application in new tasks. For the teaching of reading strategies to be effective, direct explanation and the provision of modeling are seen to be crucial.

Explanation and demonstration about the transferability of reading strategies beyond language-learning tasks may allow learners to see a more extensive use of the reading strategies. The current findings show that science students have benefited

more from reading strategy instruction. They tended to be more able to apply reading strategies across discipline and to writing tasks. That is probably due to the fact that the teacher had explained to them the applicability of the strategies to content area subjects. The explanatory notes which were given to science students about the transferability of reading strategies beyond language-learning tasks were noticeably absent from the notes which were given to arts students.

To enhance students' learning, modeling can aim not only to help learners understand how, when and why to use the strategy in English subject reading contexts, it can also gradually move beyond reading contexts and beyond language-learning tasks. The more we enable students to see the connection, the better we have helped them grasp strategies that enhance reading as well as learning.

Inadequate attention to increasingly difficult reading contexts students may encounter can diminish the positive effects of reading strategy instruction. As mentioned earlier science students encountered contexts in which they found it difficult to apply the strategies and some thought that reading strategies were not of help in those contexts. Evidently, the SS6 reported,

Researcher: But what about those strange genres you've encountered?

SS6: Strange genres? Then I don't think the benefits are as great...

Researcher: Then, how will you read those genres?

SS6: Well, some texts are really difficult. They are really very difficult. I really have to read them carefully....

One dimension of Cummins' (1983) language model is task complexity, which suggests that when the cognitive demands of a task are high, comprehension is

more difficult. Tasks such as acquiring information through reading about academic topics are believed to be high in cognitive demand (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). It is important to have recurrent teaching of reading strategies to deal with more difficult task demands. As mentioned in Chapter Four, it was found that science students tended to be more aware of the possibility of using reading strategies across discipline and they reported to have used strategies that were more applicable to academic contexts; hence, it is not surprising to find that they encountered problems not intrinsic in understanding of the strategies but in the reading contexts. The SS2 added,

Researcher: Did you find the strategies difficult to apply?

SS2: It's the structure. There were many commas I didn't understand what it was saying.

Researcher: What do you mean?

SS2: The texts used in the reading sessions are simple. I know what every sentence says. But there're always compound sentences, like defining clauses, in the textbooks I read, such as story texts or history texts.

Researcher: Do you mean there're always compound sentences, not just simple ones?

SS2: And then I don't know what to do.

Researcher: You said that the difficulty you encountered was the complicated sentence structures. Were there other problems you'd encountered?

SS2: Yes. Sometimes the text is too long.

In view of the cognitively more demanding tasks EFL students encounter in their academic pursuit, recurrent teaching of strategies in increasingly difficult contexts is necessary to help students to see and use reading strategies as a tool for learning subject matter or completing academic tasks.

### 5.3.2 Learner Factor

Maturity, in terms of language level and ability to concentrate, might have accounted for the differences in perceived impacts of learning between arts and science students.

The results do not exclude the fact that age differences between arts and science students can affect the learning impacts given the same instruction. Rather they reveal other differences that are associated with age. Language proficiency of the students can affect their receptiveness to reading strategy training. In the interviews, many arts students pointed out that difficult words were one main problem they encountered in reading and they welcomed explanations of vocabulary. The SS3 indicated,

SS3: Yes. If I don't understand anything, he'll guide me to comprehend. Also, he will teach me where to start and what characteristics the book has. Also, he'll teach me how to recognize the genre of the text by studying its characteristics.

Researcher: Just now, you said that he would guide you if there was anything you didn't understand. What sort of questions do you usually have?

SS3: Most often, I have problems with the vocabulary. I can't guess the meanings sometimes. ...Usually I don't get the meanings of the vocabulary.

Arts students do not only have problems with the language that appear in the reading contexts but also the language that is associated with learning of reading strategies. In the interviews, more arts students reported unfamiliarity with the strategies despite the fact that revision and practice had been offered. Some of these

students stated that they could not understand or remember the English names of the strategies. The AS3 illustrated,

- Researcher: Did you find the strategies difficult to apply?  
 AS3: I always forget the strategies.  
 Researcher: Anymore?  
 AS3: I forget the strategies quickly  
 Researcher: Can you explain more?  
 AS3: I forget the meanings of the English words for the strategies. For example, I didn't remember what Explanation meant.

It seems that inadequate linguistic knowledge could play down the effects of strategy training. As suggested by Hosenfeld et. al. (1981), certain language literacy is probably "prerequisite to using strategies" (p. 416). The ability to attend to speech acts, i.e. understanding of the rhetorical functions of sentences and words, is necessary for reading strategy instruction to take better effect. Hence, reading strategy instruction needs to take into consideration the language levels of the learners. Apart from teaching of higher-order (i.e., above word-level) strategies, the importance of training of lower-order (i.e., word-level decoding) strategies should also be emphasized especially for poor or younger learners.

Moreover, to help learners deal with the language that is involved in learning of reading strategies, both L1 and L2 of the learners can be resorted to. Malley and Chamot (1990) suggest that strategy instruction (including the ones on reading) can either "delay introduction ...until students have developed sufficient proficiency .., or provide initial learning strategy instruction in the native language" (p. 160).

Another point that the reading instructor needs to consider is the ability of younger learners to concentrate on their learning. From what the researcher observed

in both peer-reading sessions and trainers' meetings, arts students exhibited far more off-task behavior than the science students and there were also more arts students who were absent from the training. They also frequently expressed to the science students and some expressed to me in the interviews that they would like to have more activities in each session. For these statements, the AS6 added,

Researcher: Do you enjoy all the past reading sessions?

AS6: I like them all.

Researcher: If you have to rate your degree of preference on a scale of 1 to 6, 6 being the most, which one will you choose?

AS6: 5. Actually it's not because he (the science student) doesn't teach well. Because during lunch time, sometimes I want to play table tennis. But I can't because I have to attend the reading sessions. That's why I choose 5.

It was not that these young students did not see the benefits of the teaching, but the need for more interactive activities and games at this young age might affect their ability to attend to the learning contents. Reading instructors have to consider learner factors (e.g. learners' age, their L2 competence and their ability to concentrate) when designing the curriculum.

### 5.3.3 The Impact of Peer-reading Approach

Adopting a peer-reading mode to learn reading strategies may enable students to perceive a more effective outcome of the instruction. Several research studies (Palinscar & Brown, 1984; Palinscar, Brown & Martin, 1987; Klingner & Vaughn, 1999; Klingner & Vaughn, 2000) have found that students' performance improves when they are taught to read not only strategically but also cooperatively. In this

research, students also commented on the value of cooperative learning of reading strategies under the teacher's supervision. The ASI mentioned,

Researcher: Please recall one useful thing you learnt from the discussion with the trainer/ with the teacher?

ASI: ...We'll have a discussion together. We may understand the text in different ways and we can listen to what one another think.

Researcher: Do you mean discussion helps you read? Is there anything that can help your reading then?

ASI: Discussion involves several people. In the discussion, someone in the group might say something which might not have come to your mind before, and you could not figure it out on your own. The ideas like that may help your reading. It's easier for us to understand if we work together.

As indicated by the above extract, cooperative learning of reading strategies was perceived to have enhanced thought-provoking discussions among members of the group, which in turn seemed to have improved students' reading comprehension.

However, the fact that the whole learning seems to have had more positive effects on science students urges me to give a second thought to the kind of cooperative learning that can maximize the effects of learning outcomes. As mentioned in the previous section, the age of the learners may affect their uptake of the instruction. It is well-documented in the literature that the age effect plays a role in students' reading skills development (Taylor, 1980; Paris, Wasik & Turner, 1991) though strategy training can help younger learners improve their understanding and control of strategies. However, the researcher still has reasons to believe that science students' involvement as trainers played a key role in enhancing the positive effects of



the instruction for themselves, especially regarding the cognitive and metacognitive aspects.

Concurring with what Palinscar, Brown and Martin (1987) have found, it seems that opportunities offered to sciences students to teach or articulate their learning in a cooperative learning mode strengthened the positive effects of reading strategy training. In response to the interview question (Interview 1 Question 8) that looked at the effects of playing the role of instructor on sciences students, nearly all senior interviewees stated the positive effects and the only one who did not mention the values in the interviews seemed to focus more on the fun of cooperative learning rather than its value in cognitive development. The SS6 indicated,

SS6: I learnt something through the sessions and it's fun.

Researcher: Do you mean the peer-reading sessions or the trainers' sessions?

SS6: Both, because the students (the arts students) are cute too.

Nearly all the science interviewees were in total agreement of the benefits of playing the role of a tutor to the arts students. The SS4 added,

Researcher: Of what help do you think playing the role of a trainer has on your reading?

SS4: I have to recall my memory...! mean what the teacher has told us. When I teach, I recall what I have learnt.

For instance, the SS5 suggested,

...the role of a trainer...! can...! would tell my trainees in detail from head to tail, so I can recall what I have learnt. Also, there may be something I do not understand at the time I prepare for a peer-reading session. But when I start discussing with them, what they say may stimulate my thinking.

Additionally, the SS3 added,

When my trainee is previewing the book, I will try to read the text one more time and think about how to read it. Before I teach her, I have to think about it once, and when I teach her, I have to repeat the steps all over again. I realize that I can learn something then...

The benefits include both a better memory of the learning facilitated by the chance for revision, and a better understanding of the knowledge and application of reading strategies enhanced by the opportunity to teach and articulate the learning process. The SS1 pinpointed the benefit of this strategy as follows:

SS1: It is clearer than just listening to the teacher because I think I grasp more as I have to ponder over everything before teaching them.

Researcher: That means you have to ponder over the reading strategies, right?

SS1: Actually, I believe when you're able to teach the things you have learnt, you have really learnt them and been able to retain them.

When science students had to teach, they had to understand the rationale behind each question and the structure of the questions. They were in fact learning the pedagogy and experiencing why things should be taught and learnt in a particular way. The very act of thinking about the structuring of the questions and the reasons behind it implied that the science students had to understand why and how understanding of a text happened cognitively. They were indeed led through the process of understanding in steps while they were engaged in the trainers' meetings in which the teacher modeled to them the ways to read and the ways to teach the arts

students. It was this understanding that enabled them to integrate the comprehension process. Therefore, rather than simply having an increased awareness and understanding of the strategies involved in reading comprehension, this increased awareness would consequently lead to students' more effective use of strategies while reading, probably resulting in an improved outcome on their own comprehension. It would be good, of course, to conduct experimental studies to measure treatment effects of the tutor role played by students to give further support of this observation. That also explains why science students were able to give more thorough mentions of the use of the reading strategies.

#### **5.3.4 Instructional Materials**

Insufficient preparation of instructional materials such as overlooking the intrinsic difficulty of the subject matter, i.e. the strategies or the naming of the strategies, and ignoring learners' language proficiency level and their past learning experience can adversely affect students' receptiveness of the instruction. The findings in this research have shown that several strategies including: (a) summarizing using wh-questions; (b) predicting outcome; and (c) identifying problem/solution pattern seemed to be perceived by students as more usable (i.e. the most frequently used) than others. However, the strategy, identifying statements about the phenomenon, seemed to have been used by fewer students. There is no reason to believe that strategies are created equal and enjoy the same usability. Some strategies can be applied to several text types while some are more text-specific. That may explain why strategies such as identifying problem/solution pattern were reported having been used by more students because this strategy is applicable to a number of

genres. In fact, the strategy, previewing, which enjoyed the fourth position in terms of frequency of use also belongs to this type of strategy.

However, the various frequencies of use of the strategies by students still give us insights into how an effective instruction should be implemented. Several reasons may explain the usability of some strategies over the others. Past knowledge about the strategies may enable ease of learning and application. Strategies like summarizing using wh-words were claimed to have been learnt by some students before they joined the reading program. The difficulty in application of predicting outcome varies. Though the better the reader is good at identifying cues given by the writer, the more capable he/she is of predicting the outcome of the story. Yet, it is still possible for less proficient learners to employ the strategy, hence more students in this research claimed to have used it. Identifying statements about the phenomenon may create many problems as the name of the strategy was not self-explanatory. Students may find it difficult to remember what it means and how it should be applied. Moreover, it involves a higher level of thinking as successful application of the strategy means that students need to be able to differentiate opinions from facts.

Naming of strategies, past learning experience and ease of use may affect the teachability and learnability of a strategy and students' readiness of application of the strategy. Truly, the researcher does not exclude the possibility that there were strategies that have been used but were unreported to her. Furthermore, the use of the strategies may be affected by the types of texts students encountered during the data collection period. However, the result that a strategy was reported having been used by the least number of students, despite the fact that some students perceived quite a lot of occasions that could trigger its application still suggests that the design of the

instructional materials, specifically the naming of the strategies, could affect students' receptiveness and use of the reading strategies. It is possible that knowing the names of the strategies is important if they are to be understood and used though, as said before, we still need more proof to support this claim. It is, at the moment, probable to say that instructional materials on reading strategy training need to cater for learners' needs. Hence, many researchers (Hosenfeld et. al., 1981; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) suggest that reading instructors need to identify or show students' how to identify their current reading strategies, and to develop materials that build on the prior knowledge of reading strategies and cater for language proficiency of the learners.

#### **5.4 Summary of the Chapter**

Students are taught to read so that they can understand what is in the text. Thus, most of what matters in reading instruction matters because ultimately it affects whether the student develops into a reader who can comprehend what is in text (Pressley, 2000). Not only is comprehension imperative in an English classroom, but it is a necessity that transcends the walls of a classroom into everyday life. While a debate continues over what programs and strategies are most effective in teaching reading skills, the importance of reading is not debatable. Additionally, this chapter analysis was further investigated, with discussion of some interesting issues that emerged in relation to past studies and related literature. Chapter Six presents the conclusions, interpretation of findings, implications for reading instruction, suggestions for further study, and a summary.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **CONCLUSION**

This chapter reviews the purpose and the procedures of the study which is followed by the summary. Then, pedagogical implications drawn mainly from the discussion of findings in Chapter Five are discussed. In addition, the discussion of some limitations of the research is illustrated. The last section offers recommendations for future research.

#### **6.1 Summary of the Research**

To fulfill the goals, this mixed methods case study was carried out in order to examine the students' perceived values of the explicit reading strategies instruction and their perceived application of the strategies by 11<sup>th</sup>-grade students. In addition, it explores similarities and differences which exist between arts and science students reported and encountered. The results of the study, on the other hand, will provide suggestions for the improvement of English reading instruction. The samples were 80 11<sup>th</sup>-grade students in the arts students and science students at Burirampittayakhum School. The samples in each field of study consisted of 40 arts students and 40 science students.

The main research tools used in this research comprised of school documents, questionnaire, interviews, and classroom observations. First, the school documents were employed to enable a better understanding of the reading strategy instruction and

the other information that shape students' perception. Based on the results, the samples were grouped into arts and science students. Second, the questionnaire was used to gain personal information and to obtain the samples to identify their reading strategies. The questionnaire, on the other hand, was administered to all 80 samples. Third, the face-to face interviews were utilized as a supplementary research instrument to ascertain the strategies in developing reading ability mentioned on the returned questionnaires, but it was conducted with twelve students (six students from arts program and six students from science program) who were selected from among the samples of this research. The summary of the main findings were described as follows:

**6.1.1 Research Question One: What strategies do students report that they have used in reading?**

The first research question was directed toward identifying the reading strategies reported to be used by Thai EFL high school students who participated in this study. To answer this question, it was used quantitative data from the questionnaire, which measured the students' perceived use of strategies use when they read English texts for academic purposes. According to the results from the questionnaires, the surveyed students used the reading strategies as a whole were at moderate levels. When considering at each aspect, it was found that cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies were at moderate levels; whereas, memory strategies was at low level. The ranking from the highest to the lowest mean scores were surveyed students

reported that they used affective strategies, metacognitive strategies, social strategies, compensation strategies, cognitive strategies, and memory strategies, respectively.

Regarding to the findings of this study, the arts students rated metacognitive strategies the most, followed by affective strategies, cognitive strategies, social strategies, compensation strategies, and memory strategies the least, respectively. The science students, on the other hand, reported that they used affective strategies the most, social strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, followed by cognitive strategies, and memory strategies, respectively.

**6.1.2 Research Question Two: How do arts and sciences students differ in their self-reported use of reading strategies?**

The findings of this study showed that the arts and science students used memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and metacognitive strategies, which was significant difference at a level of 0.001. Results of this study also indicated there was a statistically significant difference in reading comprehension between arts and science students at 0.05 levels in terms of compensation strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. The arts students, on the other hand, used all six groups of strategies with the higher mean scores than science students did.

In addition, for qualitative data analysis, it was found that science students gained more extensively than arts students both in understanding of the concepts about reading and reading strategies while arts students gained more in affective values. The twelve samples self-evaluated themselves in terms of their conceptions of reading and their primary concerns in reading. They had unpleasant memories of their struggles with dense academic English texts. They seemed to be discouraged in



reading in English and bogged down on one major strategy of looking up unknown words in the dictionary. As they had low self-evaluation of their English reading, they did not have positive feelings about English reading.

**6.1.3 Research Question Three: What values do students receive in the explicit reading strategy instruction?**

During the implementation of this study, the results indicated that students perceived various values of explicit reading strategy instruction including perceived improvements in reading comprehension, memory, cognitive tactics such as self-questioning and word-attack skills, concepts about reading and affective values; though it was found that arts students gained more extensively than science students both in understanding of the concepts about reading and reading strategies while science students gained more in affective values.

**6.1.4 Research Question Four: How are the perceived values of arts students different from those of science students?**

According to the findings in this case study, concerning application of reading strategies, both groups reported having used the strategies though some strategies were found to be used by more students. Differences were found regarding perceived reading contexts and difficulties in application between the two groups of students. The science students gained more strategies that were more applicable for academic purposes, and they also encountered cognitively more demanding tasks. In relation to the interviews that were used to collect data for this study, in comparison, more arts

students employed strategies that were applicable to leisure readings, and the problem they encountered was mainly unfamiliarity with the reading strategies.

During the closing interview, all the participants agreed that explicit reading strategy instruction provided them with the opportunity to revalue their conception of reading as an accurate rendition of a text and that reading will be improved by reading itself rather than by linguistic skill development.

## **6.2 Pedagogical Implications for Reading Strategy**

Pedagogical significance with reference to the findings and results from this study will be presented.

In Chapter One, the researcher states that there is a need to conduct research to identify effective ways to help second language learners especially local EFL Thai students to read English effectively. The researcher states this for two main reasons: 1) the limited research in English as a foreign language with specific reference to learners in local schools; and 2) the emphasized reading demands and needs on these learners by contemporary educationalists. Moreover, in both Chapters One and Two, the researcher points out the importance of knowing how learners perceive these ways because, as found in the literature, learners' perceptions can quite possibly affect their uptake of the instruction. The current study does give insights into ways to help learners to read more effectively by drawing implications for the design and execution of reading strategy training sessions through tapping learners' perceptions.

The current investigation has yielded positive results, demonstrating the fact that it is quite possible for Thai high students from both arts and science forms to benefit from reading strategy training conducted in an explicit manner. To be more

specific, the teaching of reading strategies through teacher and / or tutor explanations and demonstration, conducted in a cooperative-learning mode appears to enhance effective reading. More importantly, the benefits of training were seen through the eyes of the participants, rather than presumed by the teachers. The values perceived by learners might also imply a high degree of receptiveness and more effective uptake of the training.

However, students' responses from the interviews and other data reveal that there are several areas which reading teachers have to attend to when planning reading strategy instruction. First, it seems better for teachers to identify learners' past knowledge and use of reading strategies before the instruction begins. This is similar to what Hosenfeld et. al. (1981) suggest, the "diagnostic" steps (p. 417), in their proposed curricular sequence for teaching reading strategies to second language learners. This means strategies that learners are already using can serve as a starting point for the introduction of new strategies.

The second area concerns the presentation of instructional materials and tasks. At the beginning of the course, the learners' mother tongue can be employed, if it is in a bilingual classroom, to ensure that learners' acquisition of the strategies is not hampered by learners' level of L2 linguistic competence (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Moreover, it seems to be best if the learning tasks used in the course are in line with the types of texts learners' encounter in their academic pursuit. In other words, teachers need to cater for learners' needs to deal with academic tasks by recurrently teaching strategies in cognitively more demanding contexts.

Third, periodical revision of the program and related teaching activities appears to be necessary to enhance better mastery and retention of the strategies

instructed. At the same time, it would be good if activities can aim at illustrating the use of reading strategies as well as maintaining the interest of students, especially young learners.

### **6.3 Suggestions for Future Research**

As a preliminary and exploratory study, the present research gives findings in a very limited sense. There are still various areas in relation to this topic for further investigations to be made, with some of which have emerged from the present study. Future research may be needed in four broad areas of study.

6.3.1 A study needs to be conducted to investigate on the effects of reading strategy instruction on students' cognition. As pointed out earlier, the interview data in this study seemed to suggest that students underwent a conceptual change about reading when cognitive (reading) strategies were taught. It also appeared that the very act of thinking about the structuring of the questions and the reasons behind it when playing the role of trainers enabled senior students to learn more effectively. All these tend to suggest that comprehension improvement might not be merely or directly enhanced by teaching of a particular strategy or set of strategies.

In a review of the research on reciprocal teaching, Rosenshine and Meister (1994) find that there is no relationship between the number of strategies taught and the results. They also find that the results of the research do not suggest a correlation between the ability to use a strategy and students' comprehension of new text. To account for the lack of correlations, they quote what Brady (personal communication, cited in Rosenshine & Meister, 1994, p. 510) has said and interpret it as saying that "the process of (students) trying to make sense of what they read was more important

than the specific strategies taught". In other words, it may not really matter how many or what strategies to be taught. Rather, it is the emphasis of making sense of what one is reading and the awareness of the fact that reading should be a meaning-getting activity that facilitates comprehension.

If that is the case, it can have certain implications for teaching. What leads to effective learning may not be the number or the type of strategies (four strategies are advocated in reciprocal teaching) taught and how well students learn a particular strategy or set of strategies. Instead, it may be the enhancement of students' thinking ability and other processes that enable comprehension improvement. If so, reading strategy training or comprehension instruction should make development of students' thinking ability as its goal. However, as pointed out by Rosenshine and Meister (1994), we still need more research to find out about student processing before and after the instruction of cognitive strategies. There is also "a need for more research on the effects of teaching of individual strategies or combinations of strategies" (p. 511) and the correlation of students' use of strategies and their comprehension of new text.

6.3.2 An experimental study to evaluate the effects of cooperative learning should be conducted. As pointed out earlier, opportunities offered to students to articulate and / or teach may lead to their increased awareness of strategies. This in turn may lead to gains in their understanding and uses of strategies, probably resulting in improvement in their own comprehension. These findings can be put to the test in experimental studies. Though in this study, there is an emphasis on conducting research in naturalistic settings to enhance instructional feasibility, the researcher still appreciates the value of experimental studies to examine correlations between opportunities to teach and consequent improved comprehension. In fact, the two

types of studies can often complement one another to provide significant feedback for pedagogical planning.

6.3.3 Concerning research methodology, the employment of other data collection methods to tap learners' perceptions should be taken consideration. Since investigation into students' strategy use in the current study relies much on self-report data in the questionnaires, some strategy use might be overreported or underreported. Conducting think-aloud protocols to study students' actual use, asking students to keep journals and inviting teachers to note down students' strategy use in a natural context (though it might be more demanding) can provide more accurate and diversified data.

6.3.4 Further study should take other longitudinal study of students' perceptions. The current study investigated secondary school students' perceptions of the explicit teaching of reading strategies for only about four months. The time frame is short compared to the length of time, at least five years, these students will receive reading instruction in their secondary school life. Moreover, the research investigated only one particular context, studying two small groups of learners. There is a need for research which tracks students across a longer period of time and, if possible, from one learning environment to another. This can further our understanding of students' perceptions and identify changes, if any, throughout the years, and in turn helps us to design a curriculum that better suits students' needs at different times.

## **6.4 Concluding Remarks**

In order to accurately answer the research questions for this study, it was necessary to explore the instructional reading curriculum and its related instructional

and assessment strategies as well as the professional development activities that were provided for these teachers in order to improve reading achievement for their students. Since the researcher was a participant observer in the classrooms, the researcher was knowledgeable about the content of the instructional reading lessons. Data analysis supported these findings that teachers believed that the use of direct or explicit instruction along with the consistent use of specific instructional strategies such as early literacy indicators played a significant role in improving student achievement in reading. In particular, the use of the prescribed ERSI reading materials incorporated reading awareness, systematic reading instruction, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension activities to ensure that students improved their reading skills. Thus, both the prescribed ERSI reading materials and these instructional strategies implemented by these teachers including the use of early literacy indicators had a positive impact on student reading achievement.

All of these teachers in this study were intrinsically rewarded by improvement in the reading performance of many of their students; however, these findings of this study also suggest that this improvement in reading may be indirectly influenced by the teacher's professional development. In other words, the teacher's ability to influence reading instruction is indirectly a result of their desire to be adequately prepared to deliver high quality reading instruction. Teachers can influence student achievement in a positive way if they are adequately prepared through professional development to use appropriate instructional strategies. The challenge is to create professional educators who have the ability to reflect on their instructional practices and to become critical consumers of educational research who are willing to explore their own endless opportunities for growth and development.

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มหาวิทยาลัยสุโขทัย  
Buriram Rajabhat University



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Buriram Rajabhat University

**APPENDICES**

# APPENDIX A

## Formal Letter

### The Letter Asking Permission to Collect the Research Data



No. 0545.11/ว 745

Buriram Rajabhat University  
Jira Road, Amphur Muang,  
Buriram 31000, THAILAND

August 22, 2010

Dear Director of Burirampittayakhum School:

**Subject: Asking Permission to Collect the Research Data**

Buriram Rajabhat University (BRU) presents this letter to the Director of Buriram Pittayakhom School to ask permission to collect the research data. I wish to inform you that Miss Piyanut Chuamklang, a student studying for her Master of Arts Program in English at BRU, is conducting the research entitled "**Perceptions of Thai EFL Learners towards the Explicit Reading Strategy Instruction**" under the supervision of Assistant Professor Dr. Nawamin Prachanant, a Chairperson of the Thesis.

In this regard, BRU would like to ask permission from Mr. School Director to allow her to collect the research data from the Grade 11-arts and sciences students at Burirampittayakhum School by responding to her research methodologies in August 2010.

Please accept, Mr. Director, my sincere appreciation and the assurances of my highest consideration.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Suthiap La-ongthong'.

(Assistant Professor Dr. Suthiap La-ongthong)

Dean of Graduate School  
Buriram Rajabhat University

Office of Graduate School

Tel: 04461 1221, 04460 1616 ext. 3806

Fax: 04461 2858



## APPENDIX B

### Letter for Experts

#### The Letters Requesting to be the Expert for the Research Instruments



No. 0545.11/ ๓ 748

Buriram Rajabhat University  
Jira Road, Amphur Muang,  
Buriram 31000, THAILAND

August 17, 2010

Dear Associate Professor Kowit Chuamklang:

**Subject: Requesting to be the Expert for the Research Instruments**

Buriram Rajabhat University (BRU) presents its complement to Associate Professor Kowit Chuamklang, the President of Buriram Rajabhat University to be the expert for the research instruments. I would like to inform you that Miss Piyanut Chuamklang, a student studying for her Master of Arts Program in English at BRU, is conducting the research entitled “**Perceptions of Thai EFL Learners towards the Explicit Reading Strategy Instruction**” under the supervision of Assistant Professor Dr. Nawamin Prachanant, a Chairperson of the Thesis.

In this regard, BRU strongly believes in your kindness to be the expert for giving suggestions about her research instruments.

Please accept, Mr. President, my sincere appreciation and the assurances of my highest consideration.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Suthiap La-ongthong'.

(Assistant Professor Dr. Suthiap La-ongthong)

Dean of Graduate School

Buriram Rajabhat University

Office of Graduate School

Tel: 04461 1221, 04460 1616 ext. 3806

Fax 0 4461 2858



No. 0545.11/๗748

Buriram Rajabhat University

Jira Road, Amphur Muang,

Buriram 31000,

THAILAND

August 17, 2010

Dear Dr. Chookiat Jarat:

**Subject: Requesting to be the Expert for the Research Instruments**

Buriram Rajabhat University (BRU) presents its complement to Dr. Chookiat Jarat, the Associate Dean of Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at Buriram Rajabhat University to be the expert for the research instruments. I would like to inform you that Miss. Piyanut Chuamklang, a student studying Master of Arts Program in English at BRU, is conducting the research entitled "**Perceptions of Thai EFL Learners towards the Explicit Reading Strategy Instruction**" under the supervision of Assistant Professor Dr. Nawamin Prachanant, a Chairperson of the Thesis.

In this regard, BRU strongly believes in your kindness to be the expert for giving suggestions about her research instruments.

Please accept, Mr. Associate Dean, my sincere appreciation and the assurances of my highest consideration.

Yours sincerely,

(Assistant Professor Dr. Suthiap La-ongthong)

Dean of Graduate School

Buriram Rajabhat University

Office of Graduate School

Tel: 04461 1221, 04460 1616 ext. 3806

Fax 0 4461 2858



No. 0545.11/๓748

Buriram Rajabhat University

Jira Road, Amphur Muang,

Buriram 31000,

THAILAND

August 17, 2010

Dear Dr. Krapan Sri-ngan:

**Subject: Requesting to be the Expert for the Research Instruments**

Buriram Rajabhat University (BRU) presents its complement to Dr. Krapan Sri-ngan, the Associate Dean of Faculty of Education at Buriram Rajabhat University to be the expert for the research instruments. I would like to inform you that Miss. Piyanut Chuamklang, a student studying Master of Arts Program in English at BRU, is conducting the research entitled "**Perceptions of Thai EFL Learners towards the Explicit Reading Strategy Instruction**" under the supervision of Assistant Professor Dr. Nawamin Prachanant, a Chairperson of the Thesis.

In this regard, BRU strongly believes in your kindness to be the expert for giving suggestions about her research instruments.

Please accept, Associate Dean, my sincere appreciation and the assurances of my highest consideration.

Yours sincerely,

(Assistant Professor Dr. Suthiap La-ongthong)

Dean of Graduate School  
Buriram Rajabhat University

Office of Graduate School

Tel: 04461 1221, 04460 1616 ext. 3806

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## **APPENDIX C**

### **STUDENT CONSENT FORM**

Buriram Rajabhat University  
Jira Road, Amphur Muang,  
Buriram 31000, THAILAND

September 07, 2010

#### **Perceptions of Thai EFL Learners towards the Explicit Reading Strategy Instruction**

Dear Students,

I am Piyanuch Chuamklang, a master's degree student at Buriram Rajabhat University. I will conduct a research project on **Perception of EFL Learners towards the Explicit Reading Strategy Instruction** and would like to invite you to participate. The research project is to investigate students' perceived values of the explicit reading strategy instruction and their perceived application of the strategies. It may provide youngsters like you with some reasonable suggestions that are helpful for the success and failure in learning. Because the school and the class you studying in have been chosen by the researcher, you are then asked to participant.

You will complete several questionnaires in your classroom. Those questionnaires are not used to judge your goodness or badness. Nor do they have psychological stress or discomfort to you. What you need to do is to answer the questions objectively. Please complete the reply slip below to indicate whether you do decide to participate in this research. All information obtained will be used for research purposes only. Your personal information will be kept confidential.

Furthermore, you will not be identified by name in any report of the completed study. Participation is entirely voluntary. If you have any questions about the research, please feel free to contact me (086-724 9224). If you want to know more about the rights as a research participant, please contact the Office of Graduate School, the Buriram Rajabhat University (04461 1221, 04460 1616 ext. 3806).

If you understand the contents described above and agree to participate in this research, please sign below. Your help is very much appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Piyanut Chuamklang  
The Buriram Rajabhat University

---

**Reply Slip**

Name of Participant: \_\_\_\_\_

I \*\* will / will not participate in the research. (\*\* Please delete as if inappropriate.)

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

## **APPENDIX D**

### **Questionnaire for Explicit Reading Strategy Instruction (English Version)**

**Directions:** The present study aims to investigate students' perceived values of the explicit reading strategy instruction and their perceived application of the strategies.

This questionnaire series contains 3 parts including:

**Part A:** Participants' General Data

**Part B:** Information of Reading Strategies

**Part C:** Additional Opinions

Please kindly express your actual opinions to respond the questionnaire as reading in ENGLISH for academic purposes. The entire survey will take you approximately 40 minutes. Your response will be confidential and anonymous. Only the researcher of this study will have access to it.

I feel very grateful for your kind cooperation.

Piyanut Chuamklang

Researcher

**Part A: Participants' General Data**

**Direction:** Please put a tick (✓) into the box  and/or write your real set of information in the blank.

1. Gender:  Male  Female
2. Age:.....years old.
3. Class: Matthayomsuksa 5/.....
4. Program of Study
  - Arts  Science
5. When did you begin to study English? (Please choose and specify)
  - Kindergarten.....
  - Prathomsuksa.....
  - Matthayomsuksa.....
6. Have you ever studied abroad?
  - Yes, I have been to study in (Please specify the country).....  
for.....years.....months.
  - No
7. Have you studied other foreign languages in addition to English?
  - Yes (Please specify the language you have studied)
    - Khmer  Chinese  Vietnamese
    - French  Japanese  Lao  Others (Please specify).....
  - No
8. Have you studied English at a language institute?
  - Yes (Please specify the institute).....
    - Length of Time:.....days per week, and.....hours per day.
    - Duration:.....months.....weeks.
  - No
9. Have you practiced English language skills by yourself?
  - Yes (Please specify the learning media)
    - Song  Game  Movie/Video  Internet
    - Television  Others (Please specify).....
  - No

/.....Continued to Next Page

10. How do you rate your overall English proficiency?

	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
10.1 Reading	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.2 Speaking	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.3 Writing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.4 Listening	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Part B: Information on Reading Strategies**

There are forty statements in the questionnaire below. Please read each statement and write the response (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) that tells what you actually do when you are reading in English. The criteria for the responses are as follows:

- 1 = Never or Almost Never
- 2 = Only Occasionally
- 3 = Sometimes (50% of the Time)
- 4 = Usually
- 5 = Always or Almost Always



Strategies	Never or Almost Never	Only Occasionally	Sometimes (50% of the Time)	Usually	Always or Almost Always
1. I review the reading lessons that I've learned.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. I put the words/phrases/sentences I've learned in an easy-recognized story, so I can remember them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I remember words/phrases/sentences by grouping them into separate groups e.g. groups of application letter, groups of occupation, etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. I transcribe the words/phrases/sentences that I've just learned several times in order to remember them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. I practice the phrases or sentences I've learned or those in which I always make mistakes by rereading them again and again.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. I use reference materials such as dictionaries or grammar textbooks while I'm reading.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. I <u>try not</u> to transfer Thai grammar and reading patterns to use in English reading	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. When I'm reading, I understand meaning in English and <u>try not</u> to translate into Thai.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. I make summaries of information that I read in English.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. I read English without looking up every new word.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. I will read better if I can choose the topic of reading passage.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. If I don't know the meaning of an English word, I will read a word or phrase that means the same thing in that context.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Before I read any new tasks, I will review my reading lessons and knowledge on reading that I've learned, and link them with the task I'm going to read.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. When I read any tasks, I will block out noise and interruption until I finish it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. I try to find out all I can about how to read better (e.g. reading more books, practicing a lot, etc.).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. I organize my language notebook to record information on reading.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. I arrange my schedule to practice reading outside the classroom by myself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

/.....Continued to Next Page

Strategies	Never or Almost Never	Only Occasion -ally	Sometimes (50% of the Time)	Usually	Always or Almost Always
20. I arrange a comfortable environment for myself in order to promote reading; for instance, I find a quiet, comfortable place to read, etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. I plan my own goals for learning to read in English, for example, I must improve my reading skill.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. I plan what I am going to accomplish in each reading task (e.g. I must finish the task within 15 minutes, etc.).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. I try to seek for opportunities to read outside the classroom (e.g. reading magazine or newspapers in English, using the internet to communicate with others, etc.).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. I myself notice the mistakes in my reading and correct them throughout the reading process.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. I <b>try not</b> to make the same mistake by learning from my previous errors.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. After the teacher returns my work, I compare it with that of my friends who got high marks so as to examine my errors and use this knowledge to improve my work next time.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. I decide in advance to pay attention to specific language aspects or content of the task that I'm going to read	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28. I clearly identify the purpose of a reading task while I'm reading the task.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30. I try to relax whenever I feel anxious while I'm reading; for instance, I stop reading and listen to the radio or watch T.V. for a while before I continue to read again.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31. I reduce anxiety before beginning to read by using meditation or deep breathing.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32. I will say positive statements to myself in order to cheer myself up when I feel discouraged in my reading word.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33. I give myself a reward when I do a reading task well.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34. I pay attention to physical signs of stress that occur while I'm reading and I try to relax in order to reduce such feelings before I continue to read.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35. I write down my feelings/attitudes/problems in English reading in a private diary.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

/.....Continued to Next Page

Strategies	Never or Almost Never	Only Occasionally	Sometimes (50% of the Time)	Usually	Always or Almost Always
36. I talk to someone I trust about my attitudes, feelings, and problems concerning my English reading.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37. If I do not understand the reading passage, I will ask the teacher to clarify it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38. I ask the teacher to correct my reading task.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39. I work with my friends to mutually review our tasks in order to find out any mistakes and try to correct them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
40. I ask for help or advice from native speakers or other proficient language user whom I know whenever I have got a problem in reading English.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

### Part C: The Additional Opinions

1. What are your problems in reading English language?

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_
4. \_\_\_\_\_

2. In your opinions, what guidelines could help you in reading English language better?

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_
4. \_\_\_\_\_

Thank you for your kind cooperation.

## (Thai Version)

วัตถุประสงค์ แบบสอบถามฉบับนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์ เพื่อ สํารวจการรับรู้และการนำไปใช้  
ต่อการสอนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษโดยใช้การสอนกลวิธีการอ่านเชิงประจักษ์

คำชี้แจง: ชุดแบบสอบถามฉบับนี้แบ่งออกเป็น 3 ตอน

ตอนที่ 1 ข้อมูลทั่วไปของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

ตอนที่ 2 ข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับวิธีการอ่าน

ตอนที่ 3 ความคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม

กรุณาตอบแบบสอบถามเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ โดยใช้เวลาทั้งหมดประมาณ 40 นาที ข้อมูล  
ทั้งหมดที่ได้จากการเก็บข้อมูลนี้จะเป็นความลับไว้ เฉพาะผู้วิจัยใช้ในการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูล  
เท่านั้น

ขอขอบคุณที่ให้ความร่วมมือในการตอบแบบสอบถามชุดนี้

ปิยนุช เชื่อมกลาง

ผู้วิจัย

ตอนที่ 1 ข้อมูลทั่วไปของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

คำชี้แจง: โปรดกรอกข้อมูลโดยใช้เครื่องหมาย (✓) ลงใน  หรือเติมคำตอบในช่องว่าง

1. เพศ:  ชาย  หญิง
2. อายุ: .....ปี
3. ชั้นมัธยมศึกษาปีที่ 5/.....
4. สายการเรียน
  - ศิลปศาสตร์  วิทยาศาสตร์
5. คุณเริ่มเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเมื่ออยู่ชั้น (โปรดเลือกและระบุชั้น)
  - อนุบาล....
  - ประถมศึกษา.....
  - มัธยมศึกษา.....
6. คุณเคยไปเรียนต่อต่างประเทศหรือไม่
  - เคย เรียนต่อที่ประเทศ (โปรดระบุ) .....  
เป็นเวลา.....ปี.....เดือน
  - ไม่เคย
7. คุณเคยเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศอื่นๆ นอกเหนือจากภาษาอังกฤษหรือไม่
  - เคย (โปรดระบุภาษา)
    - เขมร  จีน  เวียดนาม
    - ฝรั่งเศส  ญี่ปุ่น  ลาว  อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ) .....
  - ไม่เคย
8. คุณเคยเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเสริมที่สถาบันสอนภาษาอื่นๆหรือไม่
  - เคย (โปรดระบุชื่อสถาบัน) .....
    - ระยะเวลา:.....วันต่อสัปดาห์ และ.....ชั่วโมงต่อวัน
    - ระยะเวลา:.....เดือน.....สัปดาห์
  - ไม่เคย
9. คุณเคยฝึกฝนทักษะภาษาอังกฤษด้วยตนเองหรือไม่
  - เคย (โปรดระบุสื่อการเรียนรู้)
    - เพลง  เกม  หนังสือหรือวิดีโอ  อินเทอร์เน็ต
    - โทรทัศน์  อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ).....
  - ไม่เคย

## 10. โปรดระบุระดับความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษของคุณ

	ต้องปรับปรุง	ปานกลาง	ดี	ดีเยี่ยม
10.1 การอ่าน	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.2 การพูด	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.3 การเขียน	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.4 การฟัง	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## ตอนที่ 2: ข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับวิธีการอ่าน

คำชี้แจง: ในแบบสอบถามด้านล่างต่อไปนี้จะมีข้อความทั้งหมด 40 ข้อ โปรดอ่านแต่ละข้อความ และกรณาส่เครื่องหมาย (✓) ในช่อง  เพื่อระบุความถี่ที่คุณปฏิบัติในการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษ

- |   |         |                  |
|---|---------|------------------|
| 1 | หมายถึง | ไม่เคย/แทบไม่เคย |
| 2 | หมายถึง | น้อยครั้ง        |
| 3 | หมายถึง | บ่อยครั้ง        |
| 4 | หมายถึง | บ่อยมาก          |
| 5 | หมายถึง | สม่ำเสมอ         |

กลวิธีการอ่าน	ไม่เคย	น้อย ครั้ง	บ่อย ครั้ง	บ่อย มาก	ต่อมาเสมอ
1 ฉันทบทวนบทเรียนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษที่ได้เรียนมา	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2 ฉันจำรูปประโยค/คำศัพท์/สำนวนที่เรียนมาได้โดยใช้วิธีนำมา ผูกเป็นเรื่องราวที่ฉันจำได้ง่าย	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3 ฉันจำรูปประโยค/คำศัพท์/สำนวนที่ใช้ในเนื้อเรื่องที่อ่านโดย แยกเป็นกลุ่มๆ เพื่อให้จำได้ง่าย เช่นกลุ่มจดหมายสมัครงาน กลุ่มอาชีพ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4 ฉันจะคัดประโยค/คำศัพท์/สำนวนหลายๆครั้งจากการอ่าน เนื้อเรื่องที่เพิ่งได้เรียนมา เพื่อให้จำได้	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5 ฉันฝึกอ่านประโยคที่เพิ่งเรียนมา หรือประโยคที่ฉันมักอ่านผิด บ่อยๆ โดยการฝึกอ่านซ้ำๆหลายๆครั้ง	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6 ในระหว่างการอ่านเนื้อเรื่อง ฉันจะใช้พจนานุกรม หรือหนังสือ ไวยากรณ์ภาษาอังกฤษ เพื่อช่วยในการอ่าน	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7 ฉันพยายามไม่นำกฎไวยากรณ์และรูปแบบการอ่านภาษาไทย ไปใช้ในการอ่านเนื้อเรื่องภาษาอังกฤษ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8 ฉันอ่านเนื้อเรื่องภาษาอังกฤษ โดยพยายามไม่แปลเป็น ภาษาไทย	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9 ฉันอ่านเนื้อเรื่องต่างๆที่เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ โดยอ่านแบบ ผ่านๆในครั้งแรก เพื่อหาใจความสำคัญและกลับมาอ่าน ทบทวนอีกครั้งอย่างละเอียด	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10 ฉันทำสรุปข้อมูลต่างๆที่ฉันได้อ่าน เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11 ฉันอ่านภาษาอังกฤษ โดยไม่เปิดพจนานุกรม เมื่อเจอคำศัพท์ ใหม่	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12 ฉันใช้วิธีการเดา เพื่อให้เข้าใจคำในภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่คุ้นเคย	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13 ฉันจะอ่านภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี ถ้ามีโอกาสเลือกหัวข้อในการ อ่านเอง	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14 ถ้าฉันไม่รู้จักความหมายคำศัพท์ในเรื่องที่อ่าน ฉันจะอ่านคำหรือ วลีที่มีความหมายเหมือนกัน หรือใกล้เคียงกันกับคำๆนั้น จากข้อความข้างเคียง	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15 ฉันจะทบทวนความรู้/ประสบการณ์ ที่ฉันได้เรียนรู้มาจากการ อ่านภาษาอังกฤษและเชื่อมโยงกับเรื่องที่จะอ่าน (ทั้งทบทวน คนเดียวและทบทวนกับเพื่อน) ก่อนเริ่มอ่าน	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

กลวิธีการอ่าน	ไม่เคย/ ไม่เคย	น้อย ครั้ง	บ่อย ครั้ง	บ่อย มาก	ลมาเสมอ
16 เมื่อฉันอ่านเนื้อเรื่องในแต่ละครั้ง ฉันจะตั้งใจอ่านจนจบ โดยไม่สนใจเสียงหรือสิ่งรบกวนใดๆ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17 ฉันจะพยายามฝึกตนเองให้สามารถอ่านภาษาอังกฤษได้ดีขึ้น โดยหาโอกาสอ่านให้มากขึ้น	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18 ฉันจะสรุปโน้ตที่ฉันใช้จะบันทึกเกี่ยวกับรูปแบบ/การอ่าน กฎ ไวยากรณ์ ตัวอย่างประโยคที่ซับซ้อน ศัพท์/สำนวนที่ใช้ในการอ่านที่ครูสอนไว้เพื่อใช้เป็นตัวอย่าง	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19 ฉันกำหนดตารางฝึกการอ่านนอกเวลาเรียนด้วยตนเอง	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20 ฉันจะสร้างบรรยากาศที่ฉันรู้สึกสบายที่สุดก่อนเริ่มอ่าน เช่น นั่งในท่าที่สบาย หรือหามุมสงบๆในการอ่าน	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21 ฉันตั้งเป้าหมายในการเรียนการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษ ของตัวเองไว้ (เช่นจะต้องพัฒนาทักษะการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษของฉันให้ดีขึ้นกว่าเดิม)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22 ฉันกำหนดจุดมุ่งหมายในการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษ ในแต่ละครั้งไว้ (เช่น ฉันจะต้องอ่านเนื้อเรื่องให้จบภายใน 15 นาที)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23 ฉันพยายามหาโอกาสอ่านภาษาอังกฤษเมื่ออยู่นอกห้องเรียน (เช่น อ่านนิตยสารหรือหนังสือพิมพ์) ที่เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ ใช้อินเทอร์เน็ตในการติดต่อสื่อสารกับเพื่อนๆ หรือวิธีอื่นๆที่จะต้องใช้ทักษะการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษเป็นส่วนหนึ่งในการติดต่อสื่อสาร	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24 ฉันสังเกตข้อผิดพลาดในการอ่านของฉัน และปรับแก้ไขด้วยตนเองตลอดกระบวนการอ่าน (ก่อนเริ่มอ่านระหว่างการอ่าน และหลังการอ่าน)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25 ฉันใช้ข้อผิดพลาดในการอ่านที่ผ่านมาของฉันเป็นตัวอย่างเพื่อทำให้ฉันไม่ผิดพลาดซ้ำในเรื่องเดิมอีก	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26 ฉันนำแบบฝึกหัดการอ่านของฉันที่ครูตรวจแล้วมาเปรียบเทียบกับแบบฝึกหัดการอ่านของเพื่อนที่ได้คะแนนดีในชั้นเรียนเพื่อหาข้อผิดพลาด/บกพร่องและนำไปปรับปรุงในการทำแบบฝึกหัดการอ่านครั้งต่อไป	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



กลวิธีการอ่าน	ไม่เคย/แทบไม่เคย	น้อยครั้ง	บ่อยครั้ง	บ่อยมาก	สม่ำเสมอ
27 ฉันจะกำหนดจุดมุ่งหมายในการอ่านเนื้อเรื่องแต่ละครั้งไว้ล่วงหน้า (เช่นการอ่านเพื่อหาคำที่เป็น Noun, Adjective, Adverb, Relative, Clause หรือการอ่านเพื่อหาประเด็นที่จะต้องอ่านถึงในเรื่องเพื่อนำไปตอบคำถาม เป็นต้น)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28 ฉันคำนึงถึงจุดประสงค์ของเรื่องที่จะอ่าน (เช่นการอ่านรายงาน ต้องเป็นการนำเสนอข้อเท็จจริง หรือการอ่านบรรยายประโยชน์ของการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ เนื้อหาต้องเน้นข้อดีของการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29 ฉันหาโอกาสที่จะอ่านภาษาอังกฤษให้ได้มากที่สุดเท่าที่จะทำได้	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30 ฉันพยายามผ่อนคลาย เมื่อฉันรู้สึกวิตกกังวลในขณะที่ฉันกำลังอ่าน (เช่น โดยการหยุดอ่านสักครู่ ปิดเพลงฟัง/เปิดโทรทัศน์สักพัก ก่อนเริ่มอ่านต่อ)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31 ฉันจะลดความกระวนกระวายใจก่อนเริ่มอ่าน (เช่น นั่งเฉยๆ รวบรวมสมาธิ ทำให้สงบ หรือสูดลมหายใจลึกๆ)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32 เมื่อฉันเกิดความท้อถอยในการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษ ฉันจะให้กำลังใจตัวเองด้วยคำพูดที่ดีๆ เพื่อลดความท้อถอย (เช่น ฉันมักจะบอกตัวเองว่า ใจเย็นๆ ไม่มีใครเข้าใจความหมายของคำศัพท์หมดทุกคำ)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33 เมื่อฉันแบบทำฝึกหัดการอ่านได้ดี เป็นที่พอใจ ฉันจะให้รางวัลกับตนเอง (เช่น ถ้าทำแบบทำฝึกหัดการอ่านได้ดี จะไปดูหนัง ซื้อหนังสือการ์ตูนมาอ่าน หรือซื้อเกมมาเล่น)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34 เมื่อฉันเกิดอาการเครียดในขณะที่อ่านภาษาอังกฤษ ฉันพยายามผ่อนคลาย เพื่อจะลดความรู้สึกนั้น ก่อนจะอ่านต่อ (เช่น หยุดอ่านสักครู่ ปิดเพลง หรือโทรทัศน์สักพัก ก่อนเริ่มอ่านต่อ)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35 ฉันเขียนบรรยายความรู้สึก และทัศนคติ รวมทั้งปัญหาที่ประสบในการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษ ลงในสมุดไดอารี่ส่วนตัวของฉัน	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36 ฉันเล่าให้คนที่ฉันไว้ใจได้ฟังเกี่ยวกับความรู้สึก ทัศนคติ และปัญหาของฉันที่มีในการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

กลวิธีการอ่าน	ไม่เคย/ แทบไม่ เคย	น้อย ครั้ง	บ่อย ครั้ง	บ่อย มาก	สม่ำเสมอ
37 ฉันจะถามอาจารย์ผู้สอนทันทีที่ฉันไม่เข้าใจเนื้อเรื่อง ภาษาอังกฤษที่ฉันต้องอ่าน	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38 ฉันขอให้อาจารย์ผู้สอนให้คำแนะนำ หรือแก้ไขข้อผิดพลาดใน การทำแบบฝึกหัดการอ่านของฉัน	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39 ฉันแลกเปลี่ยนอ่านงานของฉันกับเพื่อน เพื่อช่วยกันหา ข้อผิดพลาด/ข้อบกพร่องที่ตนเองมองข้ามไป เพื่อแก้ไขก่อน ส่งอาจารย์	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
40 เมื่อฉันมีปัญหาในการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษ ฉันจะขอความ ช่วยเหลือ ขอคำแนะนำจากชาวต่างประเทศที่ฉันรู้จัก หรือ จากเพื่อนรุ่นพี่ที่เก่งภาษาอังกฤษ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

### ตอนที่ 3 ความคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม

#### 1. ปัญหาในการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษ

1. ....
2. ....
3. ....
4. ....

#### 2. แนวทางใดที่นักเรียนคิดว่าจะช่วยตัวเองในการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษให้ดีขึ้น

1. ....
2. ....
3. ....
4. ....

-- ขอขอบคุณที่ให้ความร่วมมือในการตอบแบบสอบถามชุดนี้ --

## Questionnaire Categorization

### Memory Strategies

1. I review the reading lessons that I've learned.
2. I put the words/phrases/sentences I've learned in an easy-recognized story, so I can remember them.
3. I remember words/phrases/sentences by grouping them into separate groups e.g. groups of application letter, groups of occupation, etc.
4. I transcribe the words/phrases/sentences that I've just learned several times in order to remember them.

### Cognitive Strategies

5. I practice the phrases or sentences I've learned or those in which I always make mistakes by rereading them again and again.
6. I use reference materials such as dictionaries or grammar textbooks while I'm reading.
7. I try not to transfer Thai grammar and reading patterns to use in English reading
8. When I'm reading, I understand meaning in English and try not to translate into Thai.
9. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully
10. I make summaries of information that I read in English.

### Compensation Strategies

11. I read English without looking up every new word.
12. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
13. I will read better if I can choose the topic of reading passage.
14. If I don't know the meaning of an English word, I will read a word or phrase that means the same thing in that context.

**Metacognitive Strategies**

15. Before I read any new tasks, I will review my reading lessons and knowledge on reading that I've learned, and link them with the task I'm going to read.
16. When I read any tasks, I will block out noise and interruption until I finish it.
17. I try to find out all I can about how to read better (e.g. reading more books, practicing a lot, etc.).
18. I organize my language notebook to record information on reading.
19. I arrange my schedule to practice reading outside the classroom by myself.
20. I arrange a comfortable environment for myself in order to promote reading; for instance, I find a quiet, comfortable place to read, etc.
21. I plan my own goals for learning to read in English, for example, I must improve my reading skill.
22. I plan what I am going to accomplish in each reading task (e.g. I must finish the task within 15 minutes, etc.).
23. I try to seek for opportunities to read outside the classroom (e.g. reading magazine or newspapers in English, using the internet to communicate with others, etc.).
24. I myself notice the mistakes in my reading and correct them throughout the reading process.
25. I try not to make the same mistake by learning from my previous errors.
26. After the teacher returns my work, I compare it with that of my friends who got high marks so as to examine my errors and use this knowledge to improve my work next time.
27. I decide in advance to pay attention to specific language aspects or content of the task that I'm going to read
28. I clearly identify the purpose of a reading task while I'm reading the task.
29. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English

**Affective Strategies**

30. I try to relax whenever I feel anxious while I'm reading; for instance, I stop reading and listen to the radio or watch T.V. for a while before I continue to read again.
31. I reduce anxiety before beginning to read by using meditation or deep breathing.
32. I will say positive statements to myself in order to cheer myself up when I feel discouraged in my reading word.
33. I give myself a reward when I do a reading task well.
34. I pay attention to physical signs of stress that occur while I'm reading and I try to relax in order to reduce such feelings before I continue to read.
35. I write down my feelings/attitudes/problems in English reading in a private diary.
36. I talk to someone I trust about my attitudes, feelings, and problems concerning my English reading.

**Social Strategies**

37. If I do not understand the reading passage, I will ask the teacher to clarify it.
38. I ask the teacher to correct my reading task.
39. I work with my friends to mutually review our tasks in order to find out any mistakes and try to correct them.
40. I ask for help or advice from native speakers or other proficient language user whom I know whenever I have got a problem in reading English.

## APPENDIX E

### Narrative and Expository Reading Texts

#### Reading One: The Story of St. Valentine

Do you know why we celebrate Valentine's Day? Now it is mainly so that we can tell people that we care about them, give and receive cards, and enjoy chocolate and candy. But according to one legend, St. Valentine's Day is meant for people to remember a brave man, a martyr\* whose name was Valentine.

#### The Story of St. Valentine

The Roman Emperor Claudius II was fighting many wars. He wanted a strong army, but many men did not want to be soldiers. Claudius thought the men wanted to stay home to be with their wives and children instead of leaving to fight wars.

Claudius thought of an awful solution to his problem. He decided to cancel all marriages! No one in all of Rome could get married. Claudius thought that if the men couldn't get married, the men would ignore the women and want to be soldiers.

Valentine, who was a priest, believed that people needed to get married. He thought that if they were not married, they would be tempted to sin by living together without being married. So he secretly and illegally married couples anyway! He performed the weddings in secret places, so the Roman soldiers would not find out.

But they did find out. Valentine was arrested and brought before the Emperor. The Emperor thought Valentine was a well spoken and wise young man, and encouraged him to stop being a Christian and become a loyal Roman. Valentine would not deny his beliefs, and he refused. He was sent to prison until he could be executed. While he was in prison, he sent out letters to his friends and asked to be prayed for by writing *Remember your Valentine*.

Valentine was killed on the 14th or the 24th of February in the year 269 or 270. We celebrate Valentine's Day on February 14<sup>th</sup> in honor of St. Valentine.

Although it is not known whether this legend is factually true, it is a good story anyway. It is nice to think of someone who believed in marriage and was willing to risk death to do what he believed was right.

\*martyr comes from the Greek word *martus*, which means "witness". A martyr is a person who would rather suffer, and even die, than give up the things he or she believes in.

(Source: <http://www.abcteach.com>)

## Reading Two: Mount Everest

At an elevation of 29,028 feet (8848 meters) above sea level, Mount Everest is the world's tallest mountain. Mount Everest is relatively young, having been formed only 60 million years ago, and it is still growing a few millimeters every year!

Mount Everest is in the mountain range called the Himalayas. The summit ridge of Mount Everest separates Nepal and Tibet. Each place has a special name for this giant mountain. The Nepalese name is *Sagarmatha*, which means "goddess of the sky". The Tibetan name is *Chomolungma*, which means "mother goddess of the universe". In English, Mount Everest is named after Sir George Everest, the first person to record the height and location of the mountain.

A climb to the summit was attempted by George Mallory in 1922, who famously gave his reason for wanting to climb Everest as "because it's there." He attempted to reach the summit again in the company of Andrew Irvine in 1924, but on this trip both climbers disappeared.

The first successful ascent (and descent) of Mount Everest was accomplished by Sir Edmund Hillary and Tenzing Norgay on May 29th, 1953. The first ascent by a woman was on May 16th, 1975, by Junko Tabei from Japan.

Between 1921 and 2007, over two thousand people have climbed Mount Everest, some more than once. Since the first ascent in 1953, more than 600 climbers from 20 different countries have reached the summit. However, over two hundred climbers have died attempting to climb Mount Everest, most commonly from avalanches, but also from falls in crevasses, cold, or high-altitude sicknesses.

(Source: <http://www.abcteach.com>)

**APPENDIX F**  
**Questions for Semi-structured Interview One**  
**(English Version)**

**Notice:** The interviews are conducted in Thai and the following is the English version of the questions.

The interview is part of a research study on reading strategy instruction. The purpose is to collect your opinions about reading strategy instruction and the reading program you are taking part in. The interview will be audio-taped to enhance better record of data, but only those directly involved in the research will hear your response. Data here will be kept confidential and will not serve any evaluative purpose.

1. I am going to let you read the notes and the text studied in the last reading session to help you recall what you have learnt. (Allow the informants time for stimulated recall.)

Please tell me the reading strategies you learnt in the last reading session.

2. Do you see any benefits in learning the reading strategies? What are they?
3. Please recall, if any, one useful thing you have learnt from the discussion with the trainer / with the teacher?
4. Do you see any effects reading strategy instruction has on your reading comprehension? If yes, what are they?
5. Do you see any effects reading strategy instruction has on your reading speed? If yes, what are they?
6. Do you see any effects reading strategy instruction has on your recall of the content of a text? If yes, what are they?
7. Do you see any effects reading strategy instruction has on doing English comprehension exercises? If yes, what are they?
8. Of what help do you think the trainers' explanation has on your reading? (Of what help do you think playing the role of trainer has on your reading?)



9. Of what help do you think the teacher's explanation has on your reading?
10. Do you think learning these reading strategies have changed your views towards reading?
11. Do you think learning these reading strategies have changed your confidence in reading?
12. Do you think learning these reading strategies have changed your interest in reading?
13. Will you apply the reading strategies to your daily reading? Why and Why not?
14. Do you like and understand the last reading session?
15. Do you like and understand the text you read?
16. I am going to let you read the notes and the texts of the previous reading sessions to help you recall what you have learnt. (Allow the informants some time to read.) Please choose the reading strategy / strategies you find most useful.
17. Do you see any benefits in all these reading sessions and reading strategies? If yes, what are they?
18. Do you enjoy all the past reading sessions?

Thank you for your time and your participation

## Questions for Semi-structured Interview One (Thai Version)

คำชี้แจง: ใช้ภาษาไทยในการสัมภาษณ์ และ คำถามด้านล่างนี้เป็นคำถามในแบบภาษาอังกฤษ

การสัมภาษณ์นี้ เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการวิจัยเพื่อศึกษาวิธีการอ่าน จัดทำขึ้นเพื่อเป็นการรวบรวมข้อมูลความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับวิธีการสอนการอ่านและการใช้โปรแกรมการอ่านที่ท่านได้เข้าร่วม การสัมภาษณ์จะใช้เครื่องอัดเพื่อการเก็บข้อมูลที่มีประสิทธิภาพมากยิ่งขึ้น การตอบคำถามของท่านจะเผยแพร่เฉพาะผู้มีส่วนเกี่ยวข้องในการวิจัยเท่านั้น โดยข้อมูลทั้งหมดจะได้รับการสงวนสิทธิ์ไว้และจะไม่นำไปใช้เพื่อวัตถุประสงค์อื่นใด

1. เราจะให้ท่านอ่านบทความที่ได้เรียนไปเพื่อช่วยให้ท่านจดจำในสิ่งที่ท่านได้เรียนไป (ให้เวลาผู้เข้ารับการสัมภาษณ์เพื่อกิจถึงสิ่งที่ได้เรียนไป ) ท่านใช้กลวิธีการอ่านใดในบทเรียนที่ได้เรียนไป
2. ท่านได้รับประโยชน์ในการใช้วิธีการอ่านดังกล่าวหรือไม่ ประโยชน์ดังกล่าวมีอะไรบ้าง
3. ท่านคิดว่า ท่านได้รับประโยชน์ใดบ้างจากการสนทนาพูดคุยกับผู้สอน
4. จากการใช้วิธีการสอนการอ่านดังกล่าว มีผลช่วยเพิ่มความเข้าใจของท่านหรือไม่ ถ้าใช่ ผลที่เกิดขึ้นนั้นคืออะไร
5. จากการใช้วิธีการสอนการอ่านดังกล่าว มีผลช่วยเพิ่มความเร็วในการอ่านของท่านหรือไม่ ถ้าใช่ ผลที่เกิดขึ้นนั้นคืออะไร
6. จากการใช้วิธีการสอนการอ่านดังกล่าว มีผลช่วยเพิ่มความจำในเนื้อหาการอ่านของท่านหรือไม่ ถ้าใช่ ผลที่เกิดขึ้นนั้นคืออะไร
7. จากการใช้วิธีการสอนการอ่านดังกล่าว มีผลช่วยเพิ่มประสิทธิภาพในการทำแบบฝึกหัดของท่านหรือไม่ ถ้าใช่ ผลที่เกิดขึ้นนั้นคืออะไร
8. การอธิบายของผู้ฝึก ช่วยอะไรในการอ่านของท่านได้บ้าง
9. การอธิบายของผู้สอน ช่วยอะไรในการอ่านของท่านได้บ้าง
10. ท่านคิดว่าการใช้วิธีการอ่านนี้ช่วยเปลี่ยนทัศนคติของท่านที่มีต่อการอ่านหรือไม่
11. ท่านคิดว่าการใช้วิธีการอ่านนี้ช่วยให้ท่านอ่านได้เร็วขึ้นหรือไม่
12. ท่านคิดว่าการใช้วิธีการอ่านนี้ช่วยให้ท่านสนใจการอ่านหรือไม่
13. ท่านจะนำวิธีการอ่านนี้ไปประยุกต์ใช้กับการอ่านของท่านในชีวิตประจำวันหรือไม่ เพราะเหตุใด
14. ท่านชอบและเข้าใจบทเรียนข้างต้นหรือไม่ อย่างไร

15. ท่านชอบและเข้าใจบทอ่านที่ได้อ่านไปแล้วหรือไม่ อย่างไร
16. ให้ท่านอ่านข้อความและบทความในการสอนที่ผ่านมาเพื่อช่วยให้ท่านได้จดจำในสิ่งที่ได้เรียนไป (ให้ผู้อ่านได้มีเวลาในการอ่าน) จากนั้นให้ท่านได้เลือกวิธีการอ่านที่ใช้ในการอ่านบทความข้างต้น
17. ท่านคิดว่าการเรียนการสอนข้างต้นมีประโยชน์ในบทเรียนการอ่านและวิธีการอ่านหรือไม่ ถ้ามี โปรดระบุว่าประโยชน์ข้างต้นคืออะไร
18. ท่านสนุกกับการเรียนการสอน หรือไม่

ขอบคุณสำหรับความร่วมมือในการสัมภาษณ์

## **Questions for Semi-structured Interview Two (English Version)**

**Notice:** The interviews are conducted in Thai and the following is the English version of the questions.

The interview is part of a research study on reading strategy instruction. The purpose is to collect your opinions about reading strategy instruction and the reading program you are taking part in. The interview will be audio-taped to enhance better record of data, but only those directly involved in the research will hear your response. Data here will be kept confidential and will not serve any evaluative purpose.

1. Please recall one incident in which you have used the reading strategies you learnt last time.
2. Can you recall any incidents in which you have used the reading strategies you learnt in the previous reading sessions? (If no, please go to question 6)
3. Did you find the strategies helpful?
4. Did you find the strategies difficult to apply?
5. Have you learnt these strategies before? If yes, which one(s) have you learnt?
6. Which of the followings is or are the reason(s) for your not using the reading strategies?

**Notice:** you can choose more than one option.

- I don't know how to apply these reading strategies.
- I forgot I could use the reading strategies in my reading.
- I don't think using these reading strategies is helpful to my reading.
- I don't think these reading strategies are applicable to the readings I did.
- Others. Please specify:-----

Thank you for your time and your participation

## Questions for Semi-structured Interview Two (Thai Version)

**คำชี้แจง:** ใช้ภาษาไทยในการสัมภาษณ์ และ คำถามด้านล่างนี้เป็นคำถามในแบบภาษาอังกฤษ

การสัมภาษณ์นี้ เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการวิจัยเพื่อศึกษาวิธีการอ่าน จัดทำขึ้นเพื่อเป็นการรวบรวมข้อมูลความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับวิธีการสอนการอ่านและการใช้โปรแกรมการอ่านที่ท่านได้เข้าร่วม การสัมภาษณ์จะใช้เครื่องอัดเพื่อการเก็บข้อมูลที่มีประสิทธิภาพมากยิ่งขึ้น การตอบคำถามของท่านจะเผยแพร่เฉพาะผู้มีส่วนเกี่ยวข้องในการวิจัยเท่านั้น โดยข้อมูลทั้งหมดจะเก็บไว้เป็นความลับและจะไม่นำไปใช้เพื่อวัตถุประสงค์อื่นใด

1. ให้นึกถึงสถานการณ์ที่เกิดขึ้นในการเรียน โดยใช้วิธีการอ่านในการเรียนการสอนที่ผ่านมา
2. ท่านสามารถนึกถึงสถานการณ์ที่เกิดขึ้นในการเรียน โดยใช้วิธีการอ่านในการเรียนการสอนที่ผ่านมาหรือไม่ (ถ้า ไม่ ให้ข้ามไปตอบคำถาม ข้อ 6)
3. ท่านคิดว่า วิธีการอ่าน ที่ใช้นั้น เป็นประโยชน์หรือไม่?
4. ท่านคิดว่า วิธีการอ่านที่ใช้นั้น ยากเกินไปในการนำไปใช้ หรือไม่
5. ท่านเคยใช้วิธีการอ่านก่อนหน้านี้หรือไม่ ถ้าเคย ท่านใช้วิธีการอ่านแบบใด
6. เหตุผลใดที่ทำให้ท่านไม่ใช้วิธีการอ่านข้างต้น

**คำชี้แจง:** ท่านสามารถเลือกตอบได้มากกว่า 1 ข้อ

- ( ) ฉันไม่ทราบว่า จะนำวิธีการอ่านนี้ไปประยุกต์ใช้
- ( ) ฉันคิดว่าฉันสามารถนำวิธีการอ่านนี้ไปใช้ได้
- ( ) ฉันไม่คิดว่าการอ่านวิธีนี้เป็นประโยชน์สำหรับการอ่านของฉัน
- ( ) ฉันไม่คิดว่าวิธีการอ่านนี้จะสามารถนำมาใช้ในการอ่านของฉันได้
- ( ) อื่นๆ โปรดระบุ: \_\_\_\_\_

ขอบคุณสำหรับความร่วมมือในการสัมภาษณ์

## APPENDIX G

### Observation Form for Trainers' Meetings

(Note: More space is provided for writing down the notes in the actual form)

Date: \_\_\_\_\_ Time: \_\_\_\_\_ Venue: \_\_\_\_\_

Participants: \_\_\_\_\_ teachers; \_\_\_\_\_ trainers

#### A. Procedures of the Whole Session

Sequence of events	Time

#### B. Record of off-task Behavior and other observations during teacher's presentation

Types of off-task behavior	Frequencies (Counted any act of behavior conducted by different students, i.e. any type of off-task behavior committed by the same student would not be counted again.)
1. Talking about things not related to the tasks or topics in discussion	
2. Wandering around	
3. Physically disturbing others	
4. Going to washroom or other places	
5. Others	

**C. Observation Notes of the Teachers-fronted Peer-discussion:**

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**D. Other Remarks:**

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## APPENDIX H

### Observation Form for Peer-reading Sessions

(More space was provided for writing down the notes in the actual form)

Date: \_\_\_\_\_ Time: \_\_\_\_\_ Venue: \_\_\_\_\_

Participants: \_\_\_\_\_ Teachers: \_\_\_\_\_ Trainers: \_\_\_\_\_ Trainees \_\_\_\_\_

#### A. Procedures of the Whole Session

Sequence of events	Time

#### B. Record of off-task Behavior and other Observations during Teacher's Presentation

Types of off-task behavior	Frequencies (Counted any act of behavior conducted by different students, i.e. any type of off-task behavior committed by the same student would not be counted again.)	
	Arts Students	Science Students
1 Talking about things not related to the tasks / topics in discussion		
2 Wandering around		
3 Physically disturbing others		
4 Going to washroom or other places		
5 Others		



**C. Observation Notes of the Peer-tutoring Group Discussion (Group.....)**

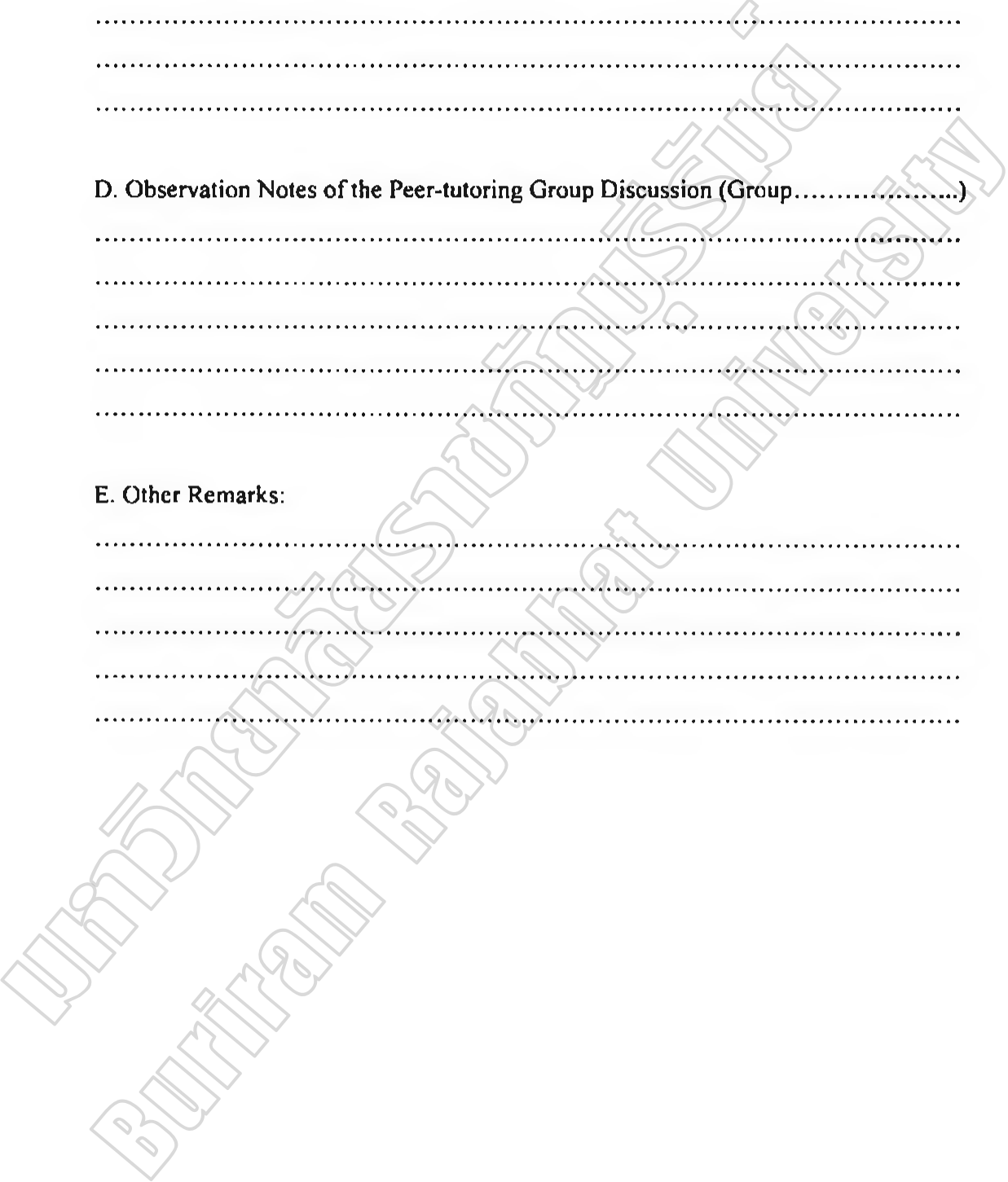
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**D. Observation Notes of the Peer-tutoring Group Discussion (Group.....)**

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**E. Other Remarks:**

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# APPENDIX I

## Questionnaire for the Participants of the Reading Program

We would like to know more about your opinions of the reading sessions and reading strategies to help us improve the reading program. The information you provide is for research purpose only and will be kept confidential. Please answer all questions in a clear and frank manner.

### Part I: We would like to know if you think the reading sessions are helpful to you.

1. Do you think the reading strategies taught in the reading sessions helpful? (Please tick the appropriate answer)

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

(If you tick "No", please go to Question 5)

2. Please choose the five reading strategies that you think are most useful and indicate your priorities by placing numbers in the blanks to indicate the ordering of your views. (1=the most useful, 2=the second most useful, and so on.)

- 2.1 Identifying problem / solution pattern \_\_\_\_\_
- 2.2 Charactering in comics \_\_\_\_\_
- 2.3 Identifying introduction-complication-resolution pattern \_\_\_\_\_
- 2.4 Identifying main events / main ideas about that character \_\_\_\_\_
- 2.5 Identifying points of view / the writer's personal judgment \_\_\_\_\_
- 2.6 Summarizing information using wh-words \_\_\_\_\_
- 2.7 Recognizing steps in a process \_\_\_\_\_
- 2.8 Recognizing words of order / words of relation \_\_\_\_\_
- 2.9 Identifying statements about the phenomenon \_\_\_\_\_
- 2.10 Generalizing rules \_\_\_\_\_
- 2.11 Predicting outcome \_\_\_\_\_
- 2.12 Previewing the text \_\_\_\_\_
- 2.13 Others (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

3. Please indicate your priorities by placing numbers in the blanks to indicate the ordering of your view, 1=the most important, 2=the second important, and so on.

The reasons why the reading sessions are useful are:

3.1 I can learn some reading strategies. \_\_\_\_\_

3.2 I can discuss with others. \_\_\_\_\_

3.3 The teacher teaches more books. \_\_\_\_\_

3.4 I can read more books. \_\_\_\_\_

3.5 Apart from learning the reading strategies, I can apply them in the reading sessions. \_\_\_\_\_

3.6 Others (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

4. What do you think are the values of learning the reading strategies? (You can tick more than one item.)

4.1 It increases my reading speed. \_\_\_\_\_

4.2 It helps me remember more the content of the texts read. \_\_\_\_\_

4.3 It helps me understand more the content of the texts read. \_\_\_\_\_

4.4 It helps me understand the main message of the writer. \_\_\_\_\_

4.5 I can do the reading comprehension exercise better than before. \_\_\_\_\_

4.6 It increases my confidence in reading. \_\_\_\_\_

4.7 It increases my interest in reading. \_\_\_\_\_

4.8 I read with a purpose. \_\_\_\_\_

4.9 Others (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

5. Do you find any reading strategies difficult to understand? (Please tick the appropriate answer.)

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

**Part II: We would like to know more about your application of the reading strategies.**

1. Please (✓) the situations in which you have used the above strategy

1.1 Reading the books during the classroom lessons. \_\_\_\_\_

1.2 Reading English subject textbooks. \_\_\_\_\_

1.3 Reading textbooks of other subjects. \_\_\_\_\_

1.4 Reading newspapers / magazines. \_\_\_\_\_

1.5 Reading other materials. (Please specify \_\_\_\_\_)

**Part III: We would like to know more about your reading and your overall opinions about the reading sessions.**

1. Have you learnt any reading strategies before you joined this program, (e.g. Preview the title or the illustration etc.) If yes, please specify.

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2. Have you learnt the reading strategies taught in the reading program before joining the program? If yes, please specify.

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3. Are there any improvements needed for the reading program? Please specify.

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4. Please state your opinions, if any, about the reading sessions.

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Name \_\_\_\_\_ Class \_\_\_\_\_

Please check to see if you have completed the questionnaire.

Thank you!

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## Curriculum Vitae

**Name:** Piyanut Chuamklang

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