

**THAI NGUYEN UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES**

NGUYEN THI THANH

**AN INVESTIGATION INTO READING STRATEGIES USED
BY EFL STUDENTS AT HIGH SCHOOL
(Nghiên cứu chiến lược đọc của học sinh THPT)**

M.A THESIS

Field: English Linguistics

Code: 8220201

THAI NGUYEN – 2019

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(APPLICATION ORIENTATION)**

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Supervisor: Nguyen Thi Dieu Ha Ph.D.

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STATEMENT OF AUTHORSHIP

The thesis entitled “*An investigation into reading strategies used by EFL students at high schools*” has been submitted for the Master of English language.

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. I have fully acknowledged and referenced the ideas and work of others, whether published or unpublished, in my thesis.

My thesis does not contain work extracted from a thesis, dissertation or research paper previously presented for another degree or diploma at this or any other universities.

Signed

Nguyen Thi Thanh

Date/...../2019

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Without their guidance and support, my research would not have gone smoothly.

ABSTRACT

Reading is one of the most difficult skills for most students at high schools, even university students find it challenged because readers must have some basic skills. Those skills include understanding the writing conventional and knowledge of the genres. This study firstly, attempts to investigate some difficulties that readers at high schools may have, the second focus of the study is finding the effective reading strategies that might help students to better comprehend a reading task. The study carried out among 75 students at some high schools in Quang Ninh. Most of the selected students reported that they have problems with vocabulary and understanding the subject matters. Reading under time pressure is also problematic. The results of the study suggest that appropriate reading strategies and sufficient reading practice might be solutions for the presented problems.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EFL:	English as a foreign language
ESL:	English as a second language
L2:	Second language
SL/FL:	Second language/ Foreign language
SORS:	Strategies of Reading Strategies
SSR:	Sustained silent reading

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Rationale

It is a fact that many high school students find reading comprehension one of the most challenges when they sit for graduation examination. The difficulties experienced by these language learners might be explained as lack of reading strategies and poor background knowledge of the given topics or of the world in general. It is easy to see that reading is an everyday ordinary task to which little thought is given, yet it is one of the most important skills that learners acquire at school as it forms the foundation for all further learning. Unlike the ability to speak, the one to read is not inborn, and a learner does not acquire it simply by watching and listening to others reading. Many of our day-to-day tasks require reading, and a person who can read well can function more effectively in everyday activities, yet for an illiterate person, many of life's seemingly mundane and ordinary tasks which many literate people take for granted can become insurmountable hurdles (Darrel, 2005:4).

Aebersold and Field (1997) explained the importance of reading skill by saying that reading skill has long been regarded as a prerequisite for foreign language acquisition since it functions as an essential source of input for other skills to develop.

Reading in a second or foreign language (SL/FL) has been a significant component of language learning over the past forty years (Zoghi, Mustapha, Rizan & Maasum, 2010). This significance has made reading education an important issue in educational policy and practice for English language learners (Slavin & Cheung, 2005). However, reading is a complex, interactive cognitive process of extracting meaning from text. In the reading process, the reader is an active participant, constructing meaning from clues in the reading text. Reading is also an individual process, which explains the different interpretations of different readers (Maarof & Yaacob, 2011). Cogmen and Saracaloglu (2009) reported that simple methods such as underlining, taking notes, or highlighting the text can help readers understand and remember the content. Their findings indicated that in reading text, good readers often use effective reading strategies to enhance their comprehension. According to the above reasons, learning to read is an absolutely necessary skill for understanding SL/FL texts. Readers may use useful strategies to help them read SL/FL texts as they

construct meaning. Using such strategies will not only help learners to understand general information in the reading text at very fast rates but also to remember new lexical items from the text.

Yukselir (2014) considers that reading is one of the most beneficial, fundamental, and central skills for students to master in order to learn new information, to gain access to alternative explanations and interpretations and to start the synthesis of critical evaluation skills. Hung and Ngan (2015) share the same ideas that reading is a basic skill that can improve students' vocabulary, fluency, speaking and writing, and finally can help them to master their target language. Therefore, it is a no-brainer to state that having good reading skills is essential for successful students.

Most learners have reading problems because they lack the specific strategies necessary for efficient reading. When foreign language reading is a laborious, unpleasant, and unsuccessful process, readers will often be unwilling to read in the target language. This explains why most EFL learners do not enjoy reading in English. They simply do not understand what they are reading (Arnold, 2009; Nuttall, 1982). In addition, most EFL learners encounter difficulties in reading text. In 1998, Vogel indicated that about 52% of adults with reading problems had difficulties in learning a foreign language. Schiff and Calif (2004) further explained that EFL students had reading problems because of a lack of knowledge and awareness of how to apply reading strategies. Consequently, EFL students need to master sufficient reading strategies to construct the meaning of the text.

Despite the perceived importance of reading and considerable efforts of teachers and other stakeholders, research findings indicate that many learners who experience reading difficulties hold negative learning attitudes towards language learning. The failure to develop the prerequisite skill and knowledge prevents them from becoming good language learners (Johnson, Pool & Carter 2013:1).

As a full-time teacher of English in Cam Pha high school, the researcher has observed that most learners in the area experience reading difficulties and as a result drop out of school. In some schools, the learners have to attend extra classes on Saturdays to compensate for their deficit in their reading skills. Locally, the problem

is often raised in principals' meetings, teacher forums, union meetings, in-service trainings/workshops and in the media. There have been many research carried out to investigate the causes of reading difficulties experienced by language learners all over the world. However, looking at the issues from cultural and psychological perspectives is none of previous studies. This motivated the researcher to conduct this study "*An investigation into reading strategies used by EFL students at high school in Quang Ninh*".

1.2. Aims of the study

The general aim of this study is to investigate the reading strategies used by senior secondary schools students who are learning English as a foreign language to enhance reading comprehension. More specifically, the research aims to find out reading difficulties perceived by English language learners from cultural and psychological perspectives and how to overcome these difficulties. In other words, we look for the appropriate strategies to deal with these obstacles. The variables will be examined both quantitatively and qualitatively, so that the research data can be triangulated when drawing conclusions. The findings from the study can be used as a guideline for teachers to select appropriate reading strategies to improve reading ability for their students.

1.3 Research question

With the aims stated above, the study focuses on answering these research questions:

- (1) What reading difficulties are experienced by students at high school?
- (2) What types of reading strategies are most/least preferable?

1.4. Scope of the study

The present study is carried out with students of grades 12 who will take the final exam by the end of the school year. The results of the exam will be of great importance for their university education. The aims of the study focus on these learners because the English language exam has long been a phobia for many students in Vietnam.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter is devoted to reviewing theoretical perspectives regarding the skill of reading. The review attempts to give a general presentation of the nature of reading skill as an interactive process as well as a comprehensive survey of different reading models. Here prominence is given to interactive models of reading and to schematic knowledge based literature on reading comprehension. This will be followed by a brief description of the main problems that foreign language readers might experience in the process of reading comprehension as well as characteristics of good readers. A number of reading difficulty studies will also be reviewed. Finally, strategies to enhance reading comprehension will be given briefly.

2.1. Definitions of reading

Reading is definitely an important skill for academic contexts but what is the appropriate definition of the word “reading”? Foreign language reading research has gained specific attention since the late seventies (Eskey, 1973; Clarke and Silberstein, 1977; Widdowson, 1979). Before that time, foreign language reading was usually linked with oral skills and viewed as a rather passive, bottom-up process which largely depended on the decoding proficiency of readers. The decoding skills that readers used were usually described in hierarchical terms starting from the recognition of letters, to the comprehension of words, phrases, clauses, sentences and paragraphs. In other words, it is a gradual linear building up of meaning from the smaller units to the larger chunks of text. The common assumption that reading theorists had about foreign language reading was that the higher the foreign language proficiency of readers the better their reading skills are. Knowledge of the foreign culture was also an important factor that enabled foreign readers to arrive at the intended meaning of texts (Fries, 1972; Lado, 1964; Rivers, 1968). Reading thus involves two main processes as suggested by Lunzer, Dolan & Wilkinson (1976).

Grable (1991) defines reading as an “interactive” process between a reader and a text which leads to automaticity or (reading fluency). In this process, the reader interacts dynamically with the text as he/she tries to elicit the meaning and where various kinds of knowledge are being used: linguistic or systemic knowledge (through bottom-up processing) as well as schematic knowledge (through top-down processing).

According to Pang, Elizabeth, Muaka, Angaluki, Bernhardt, Elizabeth B, Kamil, Michael L. (2003), reading is about understanding written texts. It is a complex activity that involves both perception and thought. Reading consists of two related processes: word recognition and comprehension. Word recognition refers to the process of perceiving how written symbols correspond to one's spoken language. Comprehension is the process of making sense of words, sentences and connected text. Readers typically make use of background knowledge, vocabulary, grammatical knowledge, experience with text and other strategies to help them understand written text.

During the reading process, reader must establish what the writer has said and he must follow what the writer meant. Accordingly, the readers use their linguistic background to see how words are put together. They will also use their ability to interpret as well as their knowledge of the world to extract the message the writer is trying to convey (Widdowson, 1978; Williams, 1984; Smith, 1985).

Nuttal (1982) defines reading as the ability to understand written texts by extracting the required information from them efficiently. While looking at a notice board, looking up a word in a dictionary and looking for special information from a text, normally we use different reading strategies to get what it means. Smith (1971) defines it as the act of giving attention to the written word, not only in reading symbols but also in comprehending the intended meaning. The writer and reader interaction through the text for the comprehension purpose is also viewed as reading by Widdowson (1979:105). What is significant in all these definitions is that there is no effective reading without understanding? So reading is more than just being able to recognize letters, words and sentences and read them aloud as known traditionally (although letter identification, and word recognition are of course essential). It involves getting meaning, understanding and interpreting what is read. What we need is reading that goes hand in hand with understanding and comprehension of what is read or in Smith's words "making sense" (Smith, 2008) of what one is doing.

Traditionally, reading is the reader's ability in answering the questions that follow a certain text. This happens especially in schools. However, recent approaches, as mentioned above, see reading from a different point of view. According to Smith (2008), before someone reads a text, the idea of questions is seen as important to

render the process of reading as a purposeful and more meaningful activity. Asking questions before reading makes it possible and relatively easy to look for answers. Smith (2008: 166) makes these issues clear:

The twin foundations of reading are to be able to ask specific questions (make predictions) in the first place and to know how and where to look at print so that there is at least a chance of getting these questions answered.

It seems obvious that this is a shift from reading to answering comprehension questions, which only measure the 'outcomes' without showing the process or purpose for why one reads. This shift has had a positive influence on the design of reading materials, tasks and activities. The idea of finding a precise and specific definition of reading is not an easy one. The reason for this have been attributed by Alderson and Urquhart (1984: xxvii) to the unquestionable complexity of the act of reading and to the fact that previous research had not approached the study of the reading process comprehensively from a number of inter-related perspectives, as they suggest should have been done:

It follows from our positing that reading is a complex activity, that the study of reading must be inter-disciplinary. If the ability involves so many aspects of language, cognition, life and learning then no one academic discipline can claim to have the correct view of what is crucial in reading: linguistics certainly not, probably not even applied linguistics. Cognitive and educational psychology are clearly centrally involved, sociology and sociolinguistics, information theory, the study of communication system and doubtless other disciplines all bear upon an adequate study of reading.

2.2. The comprehension process

Comprehension occurs as the reader builds a mental representation of the text (Perfetti et al., 2005). Comprehension is an active, constructive process in which the ultimate understanding of the text is determined by a combination of what is stated directly in the text and the reader's pre-existing knowledge related to the topic of the text. That understanding is reflected in the wording of the meaning construction goal above. The instructional goal is to help children to both develop the knowledge upon which comprehension depends and to become self-regulated learners who are motivated to understand the texts they read and hear and who, therefore, notice when

things are not making sense to them and take action to resolve the confusion that arises. Thus, instruction to foster comprehension goes beyond helping children comprehend a particular text at a particular point in time to helping them develop productive ways of thinking about texts that will enhance their comprehension of texts they encounter in the future.

In constructing the meaning of a text, readers may engage in different types or *levels* of thinking. Three levels of comprehension are typically identified: literal, inferential, and critical. *Literal comprehension* involves the understanding of information stated directly in the text. *Inferential comprehension* involves making inferences that bridge the information directly stated in the text with information that the reader already possesses. Effective readers draw on their knowledge to make inferences that fill in the gaps left by the author; ineffective readers fail to do so (Yuill & Oakhill, 1991). *Critical comprehension* involves evaluating the information in the text relative to what it means to the reader and relative to the intentions, expertise, and/or perspective of the author.

Reading comprehension is a psychological process which occurs in the mind. The mental process is invisible. This invisibility makes it difficult for the researcher to provide a concrete and clear definition. Kintsch (1998: 4) describes comprehension as occurring "when and if the elements that enter into the process achieve a stable state in which the majority of elements are meaningfully related to one another and other elements that do not fit the pattern of the majority are suppressed". In commonsense terms, the mental elements can be readers' prior knowledge, concepts, images or emotions. With the schematic processing perspective held by Johnston (1983: 17), reading comprehension can be defined as follows:

Reading comprehension is considered to be a complex behavior which involves conscious and unconscious use of various strategies, including problem-solving strategies, to build a model of the meaning which the writer is assumed to have intended. The model is constructed using schematic knowledge structures and the various cue systems which the writer has given (e.g., words, syntax macrostructures, social information) to generate hypotheses which are tested using various logical and pragmatic strategies. Most of this model must be inferred, since

text can never be fully explicit and, in general, very little of it is explicit because even the appropriate intentional and extensional meanings of words must be inferred from their context.

For Johnston (1983), reading comprehension can mean the reader's comprehension of the text results from using different strategies consciously and unconsciously and is evoked by various knowledge sources. Johnston (1983) discusses using strategies to comprehend the text and he emphasizes examining the process of comprehension. Another view of reading comprehension focusing on the result rather than the process can also be added for this current study. The result of reading comprehension may show what the reader understands from a text, what he/she fails to understand from a text, and how he/she transacts with the text.

Gunderson (1995: 27) differentiates three levels of comprehension including "literal or detail, inferential, and critical and evaluative, sometimes called applicative". Gunderson (2005: 28-31) provides explanations for the three levels of comprehension: literal-level comprehension requires little more than simple memory work and the remembering of details from the text; inferential-level comprehension involves "readers in thinking about what they've read and coming to conclusions that go beyond the information given in the text"; at critical and evaluative-level comprehension, readers are able to "evaluate whether a text is valid and expresses opinion rather than fact, as well as apply the knowledge gained from the text in other situations". This study, following Gunderson's (2005: 43) suggestion, avoids focusing on literal-level comprehension as the end goal of the study but rather intends to set up an EFL reading program which may "excite students and nurture their ability to use language in creative and meaningful ways".

2.3. Factors affecting reading comprehension

A study by Palincsar and Brown (1984: 118) showed that "reading comprehension is the product of three main factors". The three factors include firstly, reader-friendly or reader-considerate texts; secondly, the interaction of the reader's prior knowledge and text content; and thirdly, reading strategies which reveal the way readers manage their interaction with written texts and how these strategies are related to text comprehension (Palincsar & Brown, 1984).

Comprehension can be enhanced to the extent that the texts are well written, that is, they follow a structure which is familiar to the reader and their syntax, style, clarity of the presentation, and coherence reach an acceptable level in terms of the reader's mother language. Such texts have been called reader-friendly or reader-considerate (Anderson & Armbruster, 1984). Comprehension can also be influenced by the extent of overlap between the reader's prior knowledge and the content of the text. Research demonstrates the impact of schematic constructive processes on text comprehension. A number of studies suggest that text comprehension is dependent upon prior knowledge (Anderson & Pitchert, 1979; Anderson, Reynolds, Schallert, & Goetz, 1977, Bransford & Johnson, 1973; Dooling & Lacharnn, 1971; Fass & Schumacher, 1981). Voss and his colleagues (Spilich, Chiesi & Voss, 1979) provide a clear example of this in their research that describes how previously acquired knowledge influences college students' acquisition of new domain-related information. In their research, the performance of individuals with high baseball (HK) or low baseball (LK) knowledge is compared. Chiesi, Spilich and Voss (1979) indicate HK recognition performance is superior to LK, and that HK individuals need less information to make recognition judgments than LK individuals. Moreover, to enhance comprehension and overcome comprehension failures, some reading researchers focus on reading strategies. In Casanave's (1988) study of comprehension monitoring strategies, Casanave describes how successful readers employ effective strategies while reading; they usually propose a question, and elaborate their own knowledge and the content of the text. Casanave (1988: 290) also makes a distinction between routine and repair (non-routine) monitoring strategies- the task of routine monitoring strategies may include "predicting, checking understanding for consistency, and checking for overall understanding" whereas repair (non-routine) strategies may include "evaluating what the problem is, deciding how to resolve it, implementing the strategy as a result of the decision made, and checking the results". Other recognized strategies may include those identified in Zvetina's study (1987) for building and activating appropriate background knowledge, and those described by Block (1986) for recognizing text structure. The well-practiced decoding and comprehension skills of expert readers permit those readers to proceed relatively automatically, until a triggering event alerts them to a comprehension failure, but

when a comprehension failure is detected, readers must slow down and allot extra processing to the problem area (Spilich, Vesonder, Chiesi & Voss, 1979). To fully understand how a student learns from texts, the reading instructor cannot ignore any of these three main factors which Palincsar and Brown (1984) propose. However, in this paper, the researcher has chosen to concentrate most extensively on how the reader's prior knowledge may influence EFL students' reading comprehension

2.4. Reading comprehension models

2.4.1. Bottom-up reading model

Bottom-up approaches to reading include the assumption that reading begins with print and proceeds systematically from letters to words to phrase to sentence to meaning (Clay, 1972; Downing, 1984; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974). Bottom-up models suggest that "a reader starts with smaller elements of language (such as letters and words) and goes up to larger portions and meaning" (McCormick, S., 2003: 20). Bottom-up models operate on the principle that the written text is hierarchically organized on the letters, words and word groups, and that the reader first processes the smallest linguistic unit, gradually compiling the smaller units to decipher and comprehend the higher units, such as sentence syntax. A bottom-up reading model emphasizes a single-direction, part-to-whole process of text comprehension.

In a bottom-up model, the written or printed text plays an important role in leading the reader. As McCormick (1988: 2) mentions "the meaning of the text is expected to come naturally as the code is broken based on the reader's prior knowledge of words, their meanings and the syntactical patterns of his language". Reading is driven by a process that results in meaning. Gove, M. K. (1983: 263) describes the bottom-up strategy clearly:

- (a) readers must recognize each word in a selection to comprehend the selection;
- (b) readers should give primary emphasis to word and sound/letter cues in identifying unrecognized words;
- (c) reading acquisition requires a mastery of a series of word recognition skills;
- (d) letters, letter/sound relationships, and words should receive primary emphasis in instruction;
- (e) accuracy in recognizing words is significant; and
- (f) knowledge of discrete sub-skills is important.

A bottom-up reading model describes "the processing of text by our brain as occurring in separate, sequential (or 'serial') steps one after another, with no immediate interaction among the steps" (McCormick, S., 2003: 20). It is concentrated on a single-direction of processing a text and it proceeds from part to whole. For LaBerge and Samuels (1974), a reading process starts from visual information which is then transformed through a series of stages inclusive of visual, phonological and episodic memory systems, and ends when it is finally comprehended in the semantic system. The bottom-up model puts much emphasis on the reader's lower levels of knowledge, such as the meanings of words and the syntactic patterns of the language which are the major components in initial stages of the perceptual process. "The meaning of the text is expected to come naturally as the code is broken based on the reader's prior knowledge of words, their meaning, and the syntactic patterns of his language" (McCormick, 1988: 2).

2.4.2. Top -down reading model

Goodman, K. S. (1980: 127) describes reading as: a psycholinguistic guessing game. It involves an interaction between thought and language. Efficient reading does not result from precise perception and identification of all elements, but from skill in selecting the fewest, most productive cues necessary to produce guesses which are right the first time. Goodman, K. S. (1980) thinks the goal of reading is constructing meaning in response to a text. Top-down models describe "readers moving in the other direction [from bottom-up models], starting first by predicting meaning and then identifying words" (McCormick, S., 2003: 20). Top-down approaches assume that reading begins with knowledge and hypotheses in the mind of the reader. From this perspective, readers identify letters and words only to confirm their assumptions about the meaning of the text. Thus, the top-down approach is described as concept-driven. The top-down model emphasizes that reading is not simply a bottom-up process and that meaning is not entirely residing in the text. The knowledge, experience, and concepts that readers bring to the text are a part of the process. Reading in this context is more a matter of bringing meaning to, rather than gaining meaning from, the printed page (Dechant, 1991).

Kolers (1970: 111) points out that "words are perceived and remembered preferentially in terms of their meanings and not in terms of their appearances or sounds". The skilled reader "operates on the semantic or logical relations of the text he is reading" (Kolers, 1970: 109). Readers identify letters and words only to confirm their assumptions about the meaning of the text. Thus, readers deal with the text from the semantic level to construct meaning.

Since this model assumes that reading is a matter of bringing meaning to the text, the source of the meaning is the reader's use of his prior knowledge. "The reader brings to his reading the sum total of his experience and his language and thought development" (Goodman, 1980: 130). The domain of the reader's prior knowledge may include three kinds of information such as graphic input, syntactic information and semantic information (Goodman, 1980). During the process of reading, readers utilize not one, but all three kinds of information simultaneously (Goodman, 1980: 131).

2.4.3. Interactive reading model

Rumelhart (1977: 574) develops "a reading model that make use of a formalism allowing highly interactive parallel processing units". Skilled reader must be able to make use of sensory, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic information to accomplish the reading task (Rumelhart, 1977). Furthermore, Rumelhar emphasizes that a higher level processing (meaning) apparently effects our ability to process at lower level (the word level). An interactive reading model is proposed to combine the valid insights of bottom-up and top-down models. The interactive mode suggests that the reader constructs meaning by the selective use of information from all sources of meaning (i.e. graphemic, phonemic, morphemic, syntax and semantics without adherence to any one set order. The reader simultaneously uses all levels o processing, that is, the interaction of bottom-up and top-down processes simultaneously throughout the reading process (Dechant, 1991). The reader's utilizing of information from one source often depends on utilizing information from others.

The interactive model recognizes that bottom-up and top-down processes interact simultaneously throughout the reading process. This model is embedded in a

theoretical framework capable of accommodating the flexibility of reading (Just & Carpenter, 1980). Just and Carpenter (1980: 131) claim a theoretical framework for the interactive processes and structures in reading:

Reading can be construed as the coordinated execution of a number of processing stages such as word encoding, lexical access, assigning semantic roles, and relating the information in a given sentence to previous sentences and previous knowledge.

Some stages of reading seem to be partially or entirely skipped; some stages seem to be executed out of sequence; and some stages in higher or later levels seem to be able to influence the earlier or lower stages. In discussing Rumelhart's interactive model, McCormick, S. (2003: 20) comments that "readers simultaneously begin word identification and predict meaning-with both happening at the same time; the lower level processes (word identification) and higher level processes (meaning) help each other at the same time". A skilled reader must be able to make use of sensory, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic information to simultaneously and strategically accomplish the reading task. Furthermore, he emphasizes that higher level processing (meaning) apparently affects our ability to process at a lower level (the word level).

The interactive reading model emphasizes readers' prior knowledge. Rumelhart's model (1977) consists of a set of independent knowledge sources. Each knowledge source contains specialized knowledge about some aspects of the reading process". Readers' comprehension of the text is the final product of simultaneous interaction among all our knowledge sources (Rumelhart, 1977). Dechant (1991: 27) describes the process as one where "the reader constructs meaning by the selective use of information from all sources of meaning without adherence to any set order". Since the selective use of information from all sources of meaning is a major point in the interactive model, the development of the reader's prior knowledge is quite important in reading instruction. Prior knowledge may be considered as "what the reader brings to the text, a fund of past linguistic, literary and life experiences" (Rosenblatt, 1985: 38). Prior knowledge is needed to provide the reader with sufficient cues for recognizing words and figuring out the meaning of the text.

2.4.4. Socio-cultural reading model

Vygotsky (1978: 46) assumes that in the process of intellectual development, there are two qualitatively different lines of development differing in origin: the elementary processes which are of biological origin, and the higher psychological functions of socio-cultural origin. The history of children's behavior is born from the inter-weaving of these two lines. These two aspects include the interaction between changing social conditions, and the biological substrata of behavior underlying these conditions. For Vygotsky, thought has a social, external origin and language functions as a tool in the development of individual cognition from this external origin (Frawley & Lantolf, 1986). Vygotsky (1978) argues that in a supportive and interactive environment, the child is able to advance to a higher level of knowledge and performance than he or she would be capable of independently and concludes that language develops entirely from social interaction. People internalize language from social interaction.

Fagan (1987: iii) prefaces his book with the statement that "[knowledge] does not exist independent of the socio-cultural context (with all its complexities) of the knower". Au (1997: 182-183) claims that "people live in an environment that has been transformed by cultural artifacts, the work of past and present generations"; "language and literacy are considered to be cultural artifacts, and . . . serve to mediate people's interaction with the world". A basic premise of socio-cultural research on language learning is that "human activity, including literacy learning, can only be understood through the study of its social origins". For example, research on the reading process, a branch of literacy learning, should not just focus on cognition within the individual. Reading research should attempt to explore the links among current social contexts and "inter-psychological functioning" (Au, 1997: 182) which takes place between people.

From the socio-cultural point of view, reading always occurs within a particular socio-cultural context and readers have various strengths and weaknesses of a psychological, neurological, or environmental nature" (Fagan, 1987: 8). Reading comprehension needs to anchor learning to read in real life experience. Readers draw on the knowledge constructed from their life experience. Different readers coming to

the world of reading bring with them different levels of knowledge about language structure and use. That is, they bring different notions about the purpose of language use, different rules of conversational interaction, and different rules of discourse organization. These different levels of knowledge form a base for a reader to comprehend texts. In ESL/EFL contexts, English reading comprehension involves additional different levels of knowledge. ESL/EFL readers may bring with them various linguistic and cultural backgrounds. When readers come from sociolinguistic backgrounds that are similar to that in the text, then these differences create few problems for reading comprehension. In contrast, when readers come from sociolinguistic backgrounds that are markedly different from that in the text, then additional difficulties in reading comprehension can arise. Tseng (2002: 12) claims that "understanding the culture of the text is essential to successful language learning; without the appropriate cultural schema to aid understanding, what is learnt must necessarily be incomplete". Thus, a socio-cultural reading model focuses on cultivating readers' cultural knowledge in order to support reading comprehension.

2.5. Types of reading

2.5.1. Extensive Reading

There have been conflicting definitions of the term "extensive reading." (Hedge, 2003:202) Some use it to refer to describe "skimming and scanning activities," others associate it to quantity of material. Hafiz & Tudor (1989:5) state that:

The pedagogical value attributed to extensive reading is based on the assumption that exposing learners to large quantities of meaningful and interesting L2 material will, in the long run, produce a beneficial effect on the learners' command of the L2.

Hedge (2003: 128) also states that since extensive reading helps in developing reading ability, it should be built into an EFL/ESL programmes provided the selected texts are "authentic" – i.e. "not written for language learners and published in the original language" - and "graded". Teachers with EFL/ESL learners at low levels can either use "pedagogic" or "adapted" texts. Moreover, extensive reading enables learners to achieve their independency by reading either in class or at home, through sustained silent reading (SSR). Carrell & Eisterhold (1983: 567) argue that SSR

activity can be effective in helping learners become self-directed agents seeking meaning provided an SSR program is “based on student-selected texts so that the students will be interested in what they are reading. Students select their own reading texts with respect to content, level of difficulty, and length”.

Hedge (2003), however, argues that one is not sure whether Krashen’s comprehensible input hypothesis “facilitates intake” in SL learners since “it is difficult to know exactly how any learner will actually use the input available” (p. 204). However, “it can be seen as an input-enabling activity.” (ibid) No one can deny the fact that extensive reading helps greatly in “exposing” SL learners to English and especially when the class time is limited. Hedge (ibid: 204-205) briefs the advantages of extensive use in the following lines:

Learners can build their language competence, progress in their reading ability, become more independent in their studies, acquire cultural knowledge, and develop confidence and motivation to carry on learning.

2.5.2. Intensive Reading

In intensive (or creative) reading, students usually read a page to explore the meaning and to be acquainted with writing mechanisms. Hedge argues that it is “only through more extensive reading that learners can gain substantial practice in operating these strategies more independently on a range of materials.” (ibid, 202) These strategies can be either text-related or learner-related: the former includes an awareness of text organization, while the latter includes strategies like linguistic, schematic, and meta-cognitive strategies. Hafiz & Tudor (1989: 5) differentiate between extensive and intensive reading:

In intensive reading activities learners are in the main exposed to relatively short texts which are used either to exemplify specific aspects of the lexical, syntactic or discourse system of the L2, or to provide the basis for targeted reading strategy practice; the goal of extensive reading, on the other hand, is to ‘flood’ learners with large quantities of L2 input with few or possibly no specific tasks to perform on this material.

2.6. Causes of students' reading difficulties

By examining the causes of reading difficulties experienced by language learners, we can help them better comprehend the reading texts. Readers should be taught to read powerfully so that they become 'deep readers' who focus on meaning, as opposed to 'surface readers who focus on facts and information. Judith & Keith Roberts (2008: 126) explain that:

A good reader forms visual images to represent the content being read, connect to emotion, recalls settings and events that are similar to those presented in the reading, predicts what will happen next, asks questions and thinks about the use of language. One of the most important steps, however, is to connect the manuscript they are reading with what they already know and to attach the facts, ideas, concepts or perspectives to that known materials.

The comprehending process depends so much upon systemic knowledge which consists of structural and lexical elements and schematic knowledge i.e. prior knowledge and socio-cultural elements.

2.6.1. Systemic knowledge

To comprehend a text, Westwood (2001: 31) argues that readers must use information they already possess to filter, interpret, organize and reflect upon the incoming information they get from the text. He think that efficient interpretation of the text involves a combination of word recognition skill, linking of new information to prior knowledge, and application of appropriate strategies such as locating the main idea, making connections, questioning, inferring and predicting. Therefore, comprehending the English reading text is not an easy thing, so that is why there are many students find difficulties in comprehending the English text.

For lexical or grammatical meanings, readers may turn to a dictionary or a grammar textbook. It is the schematic meaning that is the most difficult for a reader to penetrate. Knowledge of language will enable us to decipher strings of symbols as sentences and is more commonly referred to as the linguistic competence that underlies the decoding view of comprehension. However, this knowledge in itself will not make it possible for us to comprehend language in use. This is because it also requires a realization of the particular meanings of signs in association with the

context of utterance. The sign in the utterance, according to Widdowson (1990: 102) actually functions as an index rather than as a symbol "... it indicates where we must look in the world we know or can perceive in order to discover meaning".

Widdowson (1990) is suggesting that there is a contextual level within the knowledge of language itself, 'a level of preparedness for use', and it is at this level that schematic knowledge functions.

2.6.2. Schematic knowledge

According to schema theorists, knowledge is stored in schematic structures which are organized representations of one's background experiences. These structures or schemata, which are influenced by the culture in which one lives, provide an interpretative framework which a reader may utilize when reading. This process is an active one in which readers use their background knowledge, the situational context, and the cues provided by an author to construct an interpretation of the meaning of a text. Therefore, a passage dealing with a culturally familiar topic will be easier to comprehend--all other factors being equal than a culturally unfamiliar one since the reader may activate and utilize the relevant schemata to facilitate comprehension. Numerous research studies have demonstrated this point (Johnson, 1982; Reynolds, Taylor, Steffensen, Shirley, & Anderson, 1982; Steffensen, Joag-Dev, & Anderson, 1979).

Reading difficulty refers to problem associated with reading and it was causing to fall behind in terms of reading requirements within the classroom (Oberholzer, 2005). It means that reading difficulty is the problems that are faced by the students in comprehending the text. This problem can have negative effect on their study especially in their reading ability.

Moreover, Kuswidyastutik (2013) said that someone's understanding of a thing can be measured by whether or not he was in answering questions related to it and the difficulty can be seen from the mistakes he did while working on the questions. The basic questions on the reading test is about the main idea, finding reference, understanding the difficult word and making inference based on the passage. The researcher considers that those questions are also the basic difficulties that are face by the students in comprehending the text. In the following parts the

researcher shows some of the causes of students' difficulties in comprehending the text according to Reis (2016).

2.6.3. Teachers' willingness to lecture over reading material

Smith (2008) stated that content area reading is the reading that a person usually a student needs to complete and understand in a particular subject area. Once students believe that a text is too hard for them, they assume that it is the teacher's job to explain the text to them. Since teachers regularly do so, it will deprive students of the very practice and challenge they need to grow as readers.

2.6.4. Failure to adjust reading strategies for different purposes

Inexperienced readers are also unaware of how a skilled reader's reading process will vary extensively depending on the reader's purpose. Some reading tasks require only skimming for gist, while others require the closest scrutiny of detail. Good readers varied their reading speed appropriately while poor readers do not discriminate in their reading time as a function of reading purpose.

2.6.5. Difficulty in perceiving the structure of an argument as they read

Inexperienced readers are less apt to chunk complex material into discrete parts with describable functions. They do not say to themselves, for example, "This part is giving evidence for a new reason," "This part maps out an upcoming section," or "This part summarizes an opposing view." These students are taking an ant's-eye view of the text-crawling through it word by word-rather than a bird's-eye view, seeing the overall structure by attending to mapping statements, section headings, paragraph topic sentences, and so forth.

2.6.6. Difficulty in reconstructing the text's original rhetorical context

Inexperienced readers often do not see what conversation a text belongs to-what exigency sparked the piece of writing, what question the writer was pondering, what points of view the writer was pushing against, what audience the writer was imagining, what change the writer hoped to bring about in the audience's beliefs or actions. They have difficulty perceiving a real author writing for a real reason out of a real historical moment.

2.6.7. Difficulty seeing themselves in conversation with the author

This problem is possibly because they regard texts as sources of inert information rather than as arguments intended to change their view of something. Inexperienced readers often do not interact with the texts they read. They don't ask how they, as readers, are similar to or different from the author's intended audience. They don't realize that texts have designs upon them and that they need to decide, through their own critical thinking, whether to succumb to or resist the text's power.

2.6.8. Difficulties with vocabulary and syntax

Inadequate vocabulary hampers the reading comprehension of many students. Using a dictionary helps considerably, but often students do not appreciate how context affects word meanings. Moreover, the texts they read often contain technical terms, terms used in unusual ways, terms requiring extensive contextual knowledge, or terms that have undergone meaning changes over time. Additionally, students have difficulty tracking complex sentence structures. Although students may be skilled enough reading syntactically simple texts, they often have trouble with the sentence structure of primary sources or scholarly articles.

2.7. Reading strategies

Language learning strategies in general and reading strategies in particular have been defined differently by different researchers.

Winograd & Hare, 1998 (as cited in Anderson, 1999) defined reading strategies as “deliberate actions that learners select and control to achieve desired goal or objectives”. According to Paris et al. (1983:293), reading strategies are "skills under consideration" which closely depend on specific reading contexts as well as readers' awareness, control and intention. A strategic reader is described to have three sources of knowledge: declarative knowledge (what the strategies are), procedural knowledge (how to use the strategies), and conditional knowledge (when and why to use the strategies). Block (1986:465) suggested that reading strategies indicate "how readers conceive a task, what textual cues they attend to, how they make sense of what they read, and what they do when they do not understand". Barnett (1988) defined reading strategies as the mental operations conducted by

readers when they purposely read a text for comprehension. Oxford and Crookall (1989) explained reading strategies as learning techniques, behaviors, problem-solving skills, or study skills that can lead learners to more effective and efficient learning.

There have been many attempts in finding the relationship between reading strategies and language proficiency. However, the results were different because of different subjects and different academic settings. Kate Tzu-Ching Chen and Sabina Chia Li Chen (2015) conducted a study about the use of reading strategies among high school students in Taiwan. The findings were that Students had a preference for global reading strategies, followed by problem-solving strategies and support strategies. Another study by Hung and Hoang (2015) at Northumbria University- UK investigated the relationship between reading strategies use and reading proficiency of Vietnamese students in the United Kingdom. The focus of the study was on the correlation between reading strategy use and reading competence, as well as the differences between higher-proficiency readers and lower-proficiency readers in terms of strategy utilization. The results show that Vietnamese student were medium strategy users, and there was no statistically significant association between overall strategy use and reading comprehension. Poole (2005) used the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) to explore the reading strategies of 248 university ESL students from the Midwest and South of the United States. The results revealed that problem-solving strategies were used with high frequency, while global and support strategies were used with medium frequency. Gorsuch and Taguchi (2008) found that Vietnamese college EFL students mostly used bottom-up, top-down, and cognitive strategies to assist comprehension in repeated reading sessions. Karbalaei (2010) compared reading strategy use in Iranian EFL and Indian ESL college students. They found that Indian ESL students used mostly global and support strategies, as well as meta-cognitive reading strategies, while Iranian EFL students used mostly problem-solving reading strategies.

Research in the field of EFL reading has identified some variables that influence the reading process. These variables include strategy choices, background knowledge, and reading proficiency in the first and second languages (Upton & Lee-Thompson, 2001). Of these variables, reading strategy choices is the one most often

discussed and studied. Several definitions of foreign language (FL) reading strategies can be found in the literature. Olshavsky (1977) defined FL reading strategies as purposeful means of comprehending the author's message. Wenden (1987) further defined FL reading strategies as problem-oriented actions and techniques used to achieve apprehension or production goals. Oxford and Crookall (1989) explained FL reading strategies as learning techniques, behaviors, problem-solving skills, or study skills that can lead learners to more effective and efficient learning. Grabe and Stoller (2001) defined the distinction between skills and strategies. In their definition, a FL reading skill could become a reading strategy when it was used intentionally, and a FL strategy could be relatively automatic in its use by a fluent reader. Using FL strategies has been shown to be a significant and viable approach to developing EFL ability (Day & Bamford, 1998), particularly in foreign language environments with limited sources of second language input, such as Taiwan, Vietnam, Japan, and South Korea. Reading strategies involve how FL readers consider a task, what textual clues they attend to, how much they are aware of what is read, and how they respond when they do not understand (Block, 1986). O'Malley & Chamot (1990) further explained that FL reading strategies are conscious or unconscious procedures, actions, techniques, or behaviors; readers apply these strategies to problems with their comprehension and interpretation. Carrell, Gajdusek and Wise (1998) described EFL reading strategies as what readers reveal in the ways they manage interactions with the text and how they use strategies to achieve effective reading comprehension. In this research, EFL reading strategies are defined as conscious processes, ones in which readers understand the use of EFL reading strategies as they read the text.

2.7.1. Categories of reading strategies

Traditionally recognized reading strategies include the following: skimming and scanning, re-reading, contextual guessing or skipping unknown words, tolerating ambiguity, making predictions, confirming or disconfirming inferences, using cognates, activating background knowledge or schemata, and recognizing text structure (Carrell et al., 1998). As reading research has progressed, researchers have been interested in identifying the variety of reading strategies used by language learners and classifying those strategies. However, the categories of the strategies vary from researcher to researcher.

There have been several different binary divisions in categorizing reading strategies: Block's (1986) "general comprehension" and "local linguistic"; Barnard's (1980) "global" and "local"; Hosenfeld's (1977) "main meaning line" and "word-solving strategies"; and Barnett's (1988) "text-level" and "word-level". Although those divisions use different terminologies, they have similar implications. The underlying framework in the division is from two primary reading models: "top-down" and "bottom-up" processing.

There is a widely accepted classification in research and education as to reading strategies: cognitive and metacognitive strategies. This distinction is based on the general learning strategies because much of research on reading strategies is part of a larger framework of the learning strategies. O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Mazanares, Russo, and Kupper (1985: 560) posit that;

Meta-cognitive strategies involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring of comprehension or production while it is taking place, and self-evaluation of learning after the language activity is completed. Cognitive strategies are more directly related to individual learning tasks and entail direct manipulation or transformation of the learning materials.

The cognitive strategies include adjusting speed of reading, guessing the meaning of unknown words, skipping a word, rereading the text to improve comprehension, and visualizing information in the text. However, Grabe (2009) recently claims that there are no distinct meta-cognitive strategies as a counterpart of cognitive strategies. Rather, readers use reading strategies with varying levels of meta-cognitive awareness according to their reading goals or purposes. Mokhtari and Sheorey's (2002) SORS uses another classification scheme to classify the reading strategies. SORS classifies the reading strategies into three different types of strategies: Global, Problem-solving, and Support strategies.

2.7.2. Strategies to enhance reading comprehension

According to Lerner (2006) the National Reading Panel of 2000 recognized several strategies that had a solid scientific basis of instruction for improving reading comprehension including:

Comprehension monitoring: Students learn how to be aware of their

understanding of the material.

Cooperative thinking: Students learn reading strategies together.

Use of graphic and semantic organizers, including story maps: Students make graphic representations of the materials to assist their comprehension.

Question answering: Students answer questions posed by the teacher and receive immediate feedback.

Question generation: Students ask themselves questions about various aspects of the story.

Story structure: Students are taught how to use the structure of the story as a means of helping them recall story content in order to answer questions about what they have read.

Summarization: Students are taught to integrate ideas and to generate ideas and to generalize from the text information.

Williams (1998) (as cited in Learner, 2006) however suggests that students with learning disabilities require a different type of comprehension instruction than typical learners and that just as students with learning disabilities need explicit structure instruction to learn word-recognition skills, they need explicit, highly structured instruction to learn reading comprehension skills. Williams (1998) emphasizes a “Themes Instruction Program”, which consists of a series of twelve 40 minutes lessons and each lesson is organized around a single story and is composed of five parts namely: pre-reading discussion on the purpose of the lesson and the topic of the story that will be read, reading the story, discussion of important story information using organized (schema) questions as a guide, identification of a theme for the story, stating it in general terms so that it is relevant to a variety of stories and situations and finally practice in applying the generalized theme to real-life experiences.

Olshavsky (1977) was among the first researchers to identify the reading strategies. He listed nine of them: personal identification, use of context, synonym substitution, stated failure to understand a word or a clause, rereading, inference, addition of information, hypothesis and use of information about the story. Olshavsky (1977) also claimed that readers with higher interest and higher level of proficiency used strategies more often than readers with lower interest and lower proficiency.

2.7.2.1. Predicting

Research on strategy use gave much focus and consideration to predicting. It is regarded as being basic, recursive and mostly omnipresent in the reading process. Readers in general never cease to use prediction throughout their reading materials. Smith (1988) conceives it as the core of reading comprehension because it is central to the top-down model of the reading process as it orientates any reading act. Prediction or anticipation refers to foreseeing what is to be read ahead. It is a mental activity that requires prior activation of background knowledge or 'knowledge of the world' as Smith (1988) calls it and relating it to the materials found in the text (Greenall and Swan, 1986). In addition to prior knowledge, the title, the introduction list of contents, abstracts of articles, diagrams, tables all together assist readers to using predictive thinking. These features are common in scientific writings. The top-down model stresses the importance of prediction. Goodman (1970) brought new insights to reading. His definition of reading attributes paramount importance to prediction. He states "reading is a psycholinguistic game in which the reader contributes as best as he can a message which has been encoded by a writer as a graphic display" (quoted in M. Eskey et al 1974). Readers draw hypotheses about what they are reading and what is coming next; they do not have to read all the sentences and all the words. That is why it is possible for them to renew their hypotheses if the previous ones are not confirmed. Goodman (1970: 13) explains this in cognitive terms which are that the brain employs four strategies in reading:

a. Recognition Initiation: The brain must recognize a graphic display in the visual field as written language and initiates reading.

b. Prediction: The brain is always anticipating and predicting as it seeks order and significance in sensory inputs.

c. Confirmation: If the brain predicts, it must also seek to verify its prediction. So it monitors to confirm or disconfirm with subsequent input what is expected.

d. Correction: The brain processes when it finds inconsistencies or its predictions are disconfirmed.

2.7.2.2. Getting the idea quickly

This is an important first simple and quick strategy which helps readers predict meaning and exactly what they need or want to understand, and it allows them to disregard the rest or use it as background information only. Two techniques constitute this strategy, and it is appropriately used with informational texts with illustration. The previewing/surveying activity includes reaching the title, the heading and subheading, examining the visual aids such as charts maps, graphs illustrations as well as any words in italics and bold face print. It also requires a quick reading of any introductory and concluding paragraphs by which the reader makes a kind of general survey about the material in hand. Two preliminary strategies are used in this activity; they are namely skimming and scanning. Skimming and scanning are two specific speed, reading techniques, which enable covering a vast amount of material very rapidly. These are similar in process but different in purpose. 'Quickly looking' over the text or an article is neither skimming nor scanning. Both require specific steps to be followed. Mastering the art of skimming and scanning effectively requires that you use them as frequently as possible.

2.7.2.3. Skimming

Skimming means “glancing rapidly through a text to determine its gist” (Baudoin et al 1997: 70). It involves searching for the main ideas by reading the first and the last paragraphs, nothing other organisational cues such as summaries used by the author. By skimming a particular material a person can decide whether it is relevant to this purpose or not, therefore, he or she can save much of the time which otherwise would have been in reading useless texts or passages (Baudoin et. Al 1997:70).

2.7.2.4. Scanning

When scanning, we only try to locate specific information and often we do not even follow the linearity of the passage to do so. We simply let our eyes wander over the text until we find what we are looking for, whether it is name, a date, or a less specific piece of information (Grellet, 1996: 19). Scanning is a quick unfocused reading where the reader searches for a particular detail such as a name, a date, a number....etc (Wallace, 1980:27). Some researchers advise to follow some steps when scanning a text for a specific bit of information:

- The reader limits the targeted datum clearly, before starting looking for it.
- The reader uses the appropriate source.
- The reader lets his eyes run over the print, skipping all unnecessary words and he stops only at the information needed and picks it up without going beyond.

2.7.2.5. Inferring

Knowing how to make inferences is very important, very valued and indispensable in reading. Inferring requires actively interacting with the words in a sentence, and among sentences (Kristin et.al., 2009). They suggested that inferring includes such sub-skills as: (1) Pronoun reference (knowing what a pronoun in a sentence refers back to) (2) Forming hypothesis about what is coming next in the text (3) Guessing the meanings of unknown words or phrases (4) Forming impressions about character motives and behaviors across multiple locations in text (5) Knowing the subtle connections of words as they are used in particular contexts (6) Understanding cause-effect relationships of events mentioned at different times in a text (7) Drawing upon background knowledge in to fill in gaps within a text.

2.7.2.6. Guessing word meaning

Early research on training SL learners to use RS was restricted to application with vocabulary tasks (Cohen and Apeh, 1980, 1981). This suggests that unknown words create obstacle to learners, and their comprehension breaks- down totally. Guessing the meaning of unknown words, and memorizing them later have always been overwhelming tasks for students. Guessing the word meaning is never done randomly as “active reading constantly involves guessing, predicting, checking and asking one-self questions” (Grellet, 1984: 8).

- Guessing word meaning from context: it is the words and ideas that surround a particular word or a phrase to help express its meaning.

- Reducing anxiety when attending difficult words by simply skipping them. The reader while progressing in reading overcomes the obstacle by using anaphoric and cataphoric techniques that are the reader should examine the sentences which surround the vocabulary item for hints that may help him understand what it means. Guessing word meaning from its morphology the reader has to examine the parts

forming up the targeted words (roots, stem, affixes) by breaking down affixes from stems (Baudoin et. Al 1997: 9).

2.7.2.7. Self-monitoring

It refers to the awareness of using strategies when encountering with some written materials. Self-monitoring implies the learners self directing and taking the charge of their learning especially when the teacher is not around guiding them. This promotes the ability of reading (Kern, 1988).

2.7.3. Strategies for teachers

Throughout any reading course, instructors should be aware of the important task that teaching students to read. Bell (1998) suggests sixteen reading strategies for teachers to help the reader gain confidence and which could encourage and help students develop a better understanding and perspective for reading. Each of these strategies were followed during the tutoring lessons.

1. Read to your students	Students will learn reading from the modelling of it. Make it fun and exciting for them.
2. Uninterrupted reading	Do not correct them on every single mistake. Focusing readers on reading to make sense is what is important.
3. Skip and go on.	When students come to an unknown word, encourage them to continue reading to obtain meaning from context. Reading is meaning construction. Knowing how to say a word is less important than knowing what the sentence says in a particular context.
4. Predict to make sense.	If the student comes to an unknown word or sentence; through context prediction could be used for a meaningful substitution of a word.
5. Modified Cloze Procedure	Words that could easily be predicted based on meaning can be blocked out. The reader should be more than willing to predict instead of sounding out.
6. Line Maker	Some students have a hard time focusing on lines of text and easily get distracted. A pencil, ruler or index card will act as a guide to stay focus.
7. Retelling	After the reader has completed a text or a piece of it, have him/her retell what he just read. This strategy will give a good indication whether the student is understanding what he/she is reading even though he might have miscues.
8. Responsive writing	Ask the reader to write about the part of the story they liked best and share their writing. Open ended questions could be made – make sure they are not an inquisition.
9. Rereading	Students can develop confidence by rereading pieces of work he feels confident with.
10. Reading is fun	Make reading sound like language by reading easy and fun jokes, poems, riddles etc.

11. Language experience	The teacher can write what the student orally produces; eg: a story or poem. This will allow the student to read something he is familiar with.
12. Echo-reading and partner reading.	The child and teacher read a piece together in a duet. This strategy helps children become more fluent, support her/his efforts, and help them move to becoming independent readers.
13. Reading to others.	Having your reader read to a younger group of students or into a tape recorder can help them achieve the fluency needed to develop good comprehension. This fits reading for a „purpose“. They must read properly so it can be understood by their listening audience.
14. Sustained Silent Reading.	Being exposed to a variety of materials and reading them silently for his own pleasure or information will contribute to the proficiency and efficiency of your reader.
15. Previewing a text	Previewing a text using pictures, graphs, chapter questions and charts is an excellent strategy to familiarize with the text. If the content is something he is familiar with, he can begin by making connections.
16. Journal Writing	Journal writing can benefit reading and writing because it connects them and thoughts about the content, personal background and experience can be expressed.

Table 1: Reading: Strategies for teachers and parents (Bell, 1998)

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the research design, population, and the sample of this study. It also describes the data collection and data analysis methods, as well as some considerations before and during the data collection process.

3.1. Research design

The research design is one of the most important frameworks to find the answers to the intended research questions. Schinder (2003: 354) states that;

"... a research design is a plan and structure for investigations to obtain answers to research questions and may be compared to a blueprint for collection, measurement and analysis of data. In addition, the research design includes all the procedures selected to answer a particular question."

Schinder (2003: 355) views the research design as "a mental plan of the research that highlights basic strategies applied to obtain relevant data to the research". According to Gay, Mills and Airasian (2009) a research design is a detailed description of a study proposed to investigate a given problem.

This study adopted both the quantitative and qualitative research approaches. According to Christenson and Johnson (2008), the qualitative research approach relies on the collection of non-numerical data, while for Gay et al. (2009) it is the collection, analysis, and interpretation of comprehensive narrative and visual data to gain insight into a particular phenomenon of interest. Best and Khan (2006) describe the quantitative approach as the collection and analysis of numerical data to describe, explain, predict, or control phenomena of interest.

The interpretive qualitative research approach was regarded as most suitable to realize the aims of this study, that is, to investigate the reading difficulties among the grade 12 learners. It seeks to produce descriptive analysis that emphasizes deep understanding of social phenomena (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). The qualitative method of observation was used to gain insight into the English teaching and general environment classrooms at selected secondary schools, while positivist quantitative approach (Christenson & Johnson, 2008) was used for gathering quantitative data. The combination of research designs for collecting and analyzing data allowed the researcher to gain a more comprehensive insight into the problem under study.

3.2. Population

The criteria that the researcher used for site selection were related to appropriate for the research problem and purpose. For this study, students of grade

12 were selected. Those students are chosen from three schools in Quang Ninh Province namely; Van Don High school (VDS), Cam Pha High school (CPS) and Uong Bi high school (UBS). All of these students are about to take the graduation examination in which English is one of the compulsory subject. The number of students involved in the present study is seventy five (75). Twenty (26.6%) students from VDS, another thirty (40%) students come from CPS and twenty-five (33.3%) students are from UBS.

3.3. Procedures

In order to find the answers for the proposed research questions, the researcher carried out the study in two phases: the investigation and intervention phases. In the first phase, the questionnaires of reading difficulties were delivered to examine reading difficulties that the selected populations are facing. After that, questionnaires of reading strategies were presented to students to find out what reading strategies are applied for reading comprehension process. During phase 1, the researcher delivered a reading test which is adapted from PET examination (T1). In the next phase, the intervention, the researcher introduces students with reading strategies such as global reading strategies (GRS), problem solving reading strategies (PSRS) and supported reading strategies (SRS). After the intervention, another PET reading test was delivered to the selected students (T2). The PET reading test consists of 35 items (see Appendix D). The results are ranked F (less than 5 correct answers); P (from 6 to 10 correct answers); E (from 11 to 15 correct answers); D (from 16-20 correct answers); C (from 21 -25 correct answers); B (from 26-30 correct answers); A (from 31-35 correct answers). In the last place, the researcher compared the results of T1 and that of T2.

3.4. Data collection instruments

The first questionnaire is delivered to the students to investigate types of difficulties they encounter during the reading comprehension (see Appendix A). The questionnaire consists of 15 questions which are accompanied with a 4-point Likert scale; *1 means never true for me, 2 means sometimes true for me, 3 means often true for me, 4 means always true for me.*

The second instruments used in this study was the Meta-cognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSII) version 1.0, which was originally developed by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) as a tool to measure native English

language learners' awareness of reading strategy usage. Some of the items have been altered or reworded to be closed to the reading texts in school textbook. The MARSI consists of 30 items that measure awareness reading strategies (see appendix B). In this questionnaire each item is accompanied with a 5-point, Likert-type scale; 1 (never or almost never do this), 2 (only occasionally do this), 3 (sometimes do this), 4 (usually do this), 5(always or almost always do this) in which scores of 2.4 or below demonstrate low strategy use, 2.5 to 3.4 show moderate strategy use, and 3.5 or above signifies high strategy use.

The Cronbach alpha is 0.766 and Cronbach alpha based on standardized item is 0.826 reveal that the questionnaires are highly reliable. (Table 2)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.766	.826	30

Table 2: Reliability statistics

In this study, the MARSI was translated into Vietnamese to facilitate respondents' understanding. The translated version was then delivered to the students who participated in the study. The quantitative data were collected and analyzed using SPSS 20.0. Descriptive analysis was used to find out participants' preferred reading strategies; Global reading strategies (GRS), Problem solving reading strategies (PSRS) or Support reading strategies (SRS).

CHAPTER IV: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1. Results for research question 1

A hundred copies of questionnaire have been delivered to students in three high schools in Quang Ninh. The researcher received 75 valid papers back. There are some students who cannot even specify their problems so they left the column blank. The results of the first questionnaire are as shown in the table 3 below.

No.	Statement	Scale			
		4	3	2	1
1	I have problems understanding words in the readings.	36 48%	23 31%	16 21%	0 0%
2	I have problems understanding grammatical points.	12 16%	44 59%	19 25%	0 0%
3	I have problems inferring information in the readings.	19 25%	28 37%	15 20%	13 18%
4	I have problems getting the main points of the readings.	18 24%	29 39%	17 23%	11 14%
5	I have problems deducing meaning from context.	20 27%	27 36%	19 25%	9 12%
6	I have problems selecting specific relevant information.	17 23%	30 40%	16 21%	12 16%
7	I have problems predicting information from readings.	29 39%	18 24%	20 27%	8 10%
8	I have problems handling lengthy readings.	31 41%	23 31%	12 16%	9 12%
9	I have problems recognizing writing styles.	14 19%	29 38%	30 40%	2 3%
10	I have problems with different subject matters.	34 45%	26 35%	10 13%	5 7%
11	I am not interested in reading texts in English.	26 35%	15 20%	27 36%	7 9%
12	I do not have enough external supports such as peers, parents and teachers.	15 20%	11 15%	18 24%	31 41%
13	I lack of exposure to authentic reading materials.	8 11%	19 25%	27 36%	21 28%
14	I do not have motivation with readings.	2 3%	30 40%	25 33%	18 24%
15	I am always under time pressure during readings.	45 60%	26 35%	4 5%	0 0%

Table 3: Results of the difficulty experienced by EFL students

For the first item ‘I have problem understanding words in the reading’ nearly half of the students (48%) agreed that understanding words is problematic. However,

in the second item only 12 students said that understanding grammar points is problematic. It can be inferred that the teaching of grammar at schools is good, but the vocabulary acquisition needs more attention.

The results also show that among the difficulties experienced by students in the study, the majority belongs to time management while doing the reading comprehension (45 students, 60%). This also means that students lack of appropriate strategies in dealing with time allocation.

The second biggest challenge falls into word understanding (36 students, 48%). This is one of the big problems for language learners at schools. The insufficient of vocabulary in the reading passages does great affects for the understanding. Besides, students are not familiar with strategies to work out the meaning of words from context hinder considerably their comprehension. Another difficulty is the subject matter (34 students, 45%). The fact is that most of the reading passages come from English speaking communities that explain the reason why some topics discussed in those readings unfamiliar to Vietnamese learners of English. 41% of the students said that they have problem with long reading passage. This can be inferred that they are unable to connect information from the beginning to the end of the reading texts. The reason for high percentage of the issue is that they do not have enough vocabulary and strategies to grasp the key ideas of the readings. It is interesting that just a few (2 students) said that they do not have motivation for reading. That means they tried hard to fulfill the assignment. This will be discussed in more detail in the next part.

The results of T1 are as followed:

	F (below 5)	P (6-10)	E (11-15)	D (16-20)	C (21-25)	B (26-30)	A (31-35)
N =75	3 4%	21 28%	25 33%	17 23%	6 8%	3 4%	0 0%

Table 4: Results of test 1 (T1)

4.2. Results for research question 2

The descriptive statistics (Table 4) shows that most of the strategies are reported using at moderate and high level, except for GRS2, GRS3 and PSRS3 ($M < 2.5$). The most preferred strategies include PSRS7 "*When text becomes difficult, I re-read to increase my understanding*", PSRS8 "*I try to guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases*", SRS1 "*I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read*", SRS2 "*When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read*", SRS6 "*I use reference materials such as dictionaries to help*", SRS7 "*I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read*", SRS9 "*I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text*" ($M > 3.5$). The least preferable strategies include GRS2 "*I think about what I know to help me understand what I read*" and GRS3 "*I preview the text to see what it's about before reading it*" ($M < 2.4$)

The statistics show that the most preferable and the least preferable match well with the difficulties they stated in the first questionnaire. For the GRS2, this is one of the strategies that connect the schemata and the current reading task. However, the background knowledge is limited so students find it difficult to comprehend the passage. GRS3 requires students to follow the top-down reading model. However, they focus on the minor details then miss the overall understanding. For the most preferable strategies which include PSRS7 and SRS6, students re-read and use references while they are reading. This leads to time pressure. These activities are time-consuming, if learners are unable to guess the meaning or grasp the key ideas that will limit their understanding in a time allowance. However, there is contradict between what they said in the first questionnaire and the reported strategy used in PSRS8. This might be that they do not really guess the meaning but they said that they used this strategy more just because it sounds like a good strategy. The PSRS7; PSRS8; SRS1; SRS2; SRS6; SRS7; SRS9 are reported with high frequency of using 3.67; 3.64; 3.77; 3.71; 3.84; 3.88; 3.79 respectively. These strategies require time to do the tasks. It is appropriate with answers in the research question 1 (*I am always under time pressure during readings*) (60%).

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
GRS1	75	1	5	3.12	1.542	2.377
GRS2	75	1	5	2.19	.940	.884
GRS3	75	1	5	2.12	.958	.918
GRS4	75	1	5	2.97	1.385	1.918
GRS5	75	1	5	2.85	1.430	2.046
GRS6	75	1	5	3.28	.938	.880
GRS7	75	1	5	3.15	1.402	1.965
GRS8	75	2	5	3.47	.920	.847
GRS9	75	1	5	3.49	.876	.767
GRS10	75	2	5	3.71	.731	.534
GRS11	75	1	5	3.40	.870	.757
GRS12	75	1	5	3.37	.897	.805
GRS13	75	1	5	3.40	.885	.784
PSRS1	75	1	5	2.69	1.013	1.026
PSRS2	75	1	5	3.24	.956	.915
PSRS3	75	1	5	2.47	1.031	1.063
PSRS4	75	1	5	2.75	1.116	1.246
PSRS5	75	1	5	2.71	1.075	1.156
PSRS6	75	1	5	2.87	1.166	1.360
PSRS7	75	1	5	3.67	.935	.874
PSRS8	75	1	5	3.64	.939	.882
SRS1	75	1	5	3.77	.924	.853
SRS2	75	1	5	3.71	.882	.778
SRS3	75	1	5	2.92	1.440	2.075
SRS4	75	1	5	3.07	1.536	2.360
SRS5	75	1	5	3.05	1.506	2.267
SRS6	75	1	5	3.84	.855	.731
SRS7	75	1	5	3.88	.900	.810
SRS8	75	1	5	3.23	1.503	2.259
SRS9	75	1	5	3.79	.890	.792
Valid N (listwise)	75					

Table 5: Descriptive statistics of the mean scores of the use of reading strategies

I can be concluded that students do use some strategies for their reading comprehension. However, the understanding of the subject matter needs more attention. Besides, there should be extra practice to enrich vocabulary, especially active vocabulary which help students create a link between what they have read and the reading text.

4.3. The intervention

Having seen the weaknesses of the students in reading comprehension, the researcher design some reading activities which highlight the practice of skimming, scanning, getting the main ideas ... Besides, before each reading task students are asked questions related to the topics that they are going to read in order to activate their general understanding of the topics. Students have opportunities to practice short reading with many grammatical references and other writing conventions so that they have better comprehending of the task. These strategies instructions and practice takes a semester to complete.

The results of test 2 (T2) showed a great improvement in reading comprehension. The results are as followed;

	F (below 5)	P (6-10)	E (11-15)	D (16-20)	C (21-25)	B (26-30)	A (31-35)
N =75	0 0%	8 11%	18 24%	20 27%	16 21%	8 11%	5 6%

From the given results we can say that if the teachers understand their students; difficulties and know how to help them, then the results will be improved.

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Reading as one of the basic skills, is considered as an crucial element for everyday life. As stated in earlier chapters, the aim of this dissertation was to investigate various reading difficulties faced by high school students in Vietnam and to explore what reading strategies they use to overcome reading difficulties in silent reading time. The standard of reading skill is not satisfactory for all the students and have multifaceted difficulties. The study has tried to find out those difficulties and strategies use by them in detail. This study encompasses both quantitative and qualitative approaches to collect data. Based on the findings it can be said that students need to grow habit of reading from early childhood as it has connection with vocabulary development and reading comprehension. Also attention needs to be given on adult students with difficulties and they should be taught reading strategies so that they can master English language.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the reading strategies used by senior secondary schools students who are learning English as a foreign language to enhance reading comprehension. More specifically, the research aims to find out reading difficulties perceived by English language learners from cultural and psychological perspectives and how to overcome these difficulties. In other words, we look for the appropriate strategies to deal with these obstacles. The variables will be examined both quantitatively and qualitatively, so that the research data can be triangulated when drawing conclusions. The findings from the study can be used as a guideline for teachers to select appropriate reading strategies to improve reading ability for their students.

The results of the surveys reveal that being under time pressure is the most challenge while doing the reading comprehension (60%). This is similar to the second problem lies in understanding individual words while reading (48%). Understanding subject matter goes in the third place (45%). Fourthly, the length of the reading is a problem for students in understanding the reading texts. However, as the result show, students are still motivated with learning to read, only 3% said that they do not have motivation in reading.

The results also indicate some of the reading strategies are reported using the most and some are reported using the least. The least preferable strategies explain well the difficulties they mentioned in the first questionnaire, except for the PSRS8 where they said that they used the guessing a lot but in the first questionnaire they find that this is one of their difficulties.

By carrying out the study, the researcher would like to propose some recommendation as followed for better reading comprehension:

- Teachers at high schools should be aware of the strategies while teaching reading comprehension. Such strategies include guessing unknown words from context.
- Assign more readings of many topics from elementary level to higher levels. This is crucial because the reading will enrich their background knowledge or the schemata.
- There should be extra lesson on how to use specific strategies for different types of readings. This will help students allocate time effectively.

The researcher suggests to do further research on reading difficulties. The reasons are:

- This work has focused on high school students only, so primary and secondary levels can be examined to get holistic picture of Vietnam.
- More teachers can be included for further research.

In conclusion, reading comprehension is the most important skill for students to get improved in English language learning. It is the language input for the expected output. The reading comprehension requires many efforts from language, cultural and subject matters perspectives. Teachers at high schools should motivate students to read more by introducing effective reading strategies as well as reading practice to enrich their schemata. Once their understanding of as many areas is good, the comprehension becomes less challenged.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR READING DIFFICULTIES

(English version)

DIRECTIONS: Listed below are statements about difficulties when doing reading comprehension tasks. Four numbers follow each statement (1, 2, 3, 4)

and each number means the following:

- 1 means “Never true for me.”
- 2 means “Sometimestrue for me.”
- 3 means “Oftentrue for me.”
- 4 means “Always true for me.”

After reading each statement, **circle the number** (1, 2, 3, or 4) that applies to you using the scale provided. Please note that there are **no right or wrong answers** to the statements in this inventory.

No	STATEMENTS	SCALE			
1.	I have problems understanding words in the readings.	4	3	2	1
2.	I have problems understanding grammatical points.	4	3	2	1
3.	I have problems inferring information in the readings.	4	3	2	1
4.	I have problems getting the main points of the readings.	4	3	2	1
5.	I have problems deducing meaning from context.	4	3	2	1
6.	I have problems selecting specific relevant information.	4	3	2	1
7.	I have problems predicting information from readings.	4	3	2	1
8.	I have problems handling lengthy readings.	4	3	2	1
9.	I have problems recognizing writing styles.	4	3	2	1
10.	I have problems with different subject matters.	4	3	2	1
11.	I am not interested in reading texts in English.	4	3	2	1
12.	I do not have enough external supports such as peers, parents and teachers.	4	3	2	1
13.	I lack of exposure to authentic reading materials.	4	3	2	1
14.	I do not have motivation with readings.	4	3	2	1
15.	I am always under time pressure during readings.	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

(Vietnamese version)

HƯỚNG DẪN: Dưới đây là những khó khăn người học gặp phải khi đọc hiểu. Mỗi số (1, 2, 3, 4) tương ứng với các nội dung sau:

- 1 có nghĩa “**Không bao giờ đúng với tôi**”
- 2 có nghĩa “**Thỉnh thoảng đúng với tôi**”
- 3 có nghĩa “**Thường đúng với tôi**”
- 4 có nghĩa “**Luôn luôn đúng với tôi**”

Sau khi đọc các nội dung, **khoanh vào số** (1, 2, 3, hoặc 4) mà bạn cho là phù hợp. Lưu ý rằng không có **câu trả lời đúng hay sai** trong bảng khảo sát này.

TT	Nội dung	Lựa chọn			
1	Tôi gặp khó khăn trong việc hiểu các từ trong bài đọc.	4	3	2	1
2	Tôi gặp khó khăn trong việc hiểu các hiện tượng ngữ pháp.	4	3	2	1
3	Tôi gặp khó khăn trong việc suy luận thông tin trong bài đọc.	4	3	2	1
4	Tôi gặp khó khăn trong việc tìm ý chính của bài đọc.	4	3	2	1
5	Tôi gặp khó khăn trong việc suy luận nghĩa từ ngữ cảnh.	4	3	2	1
6	Tôi gặp khó khăn trong việc lựa chọn những thông tin thích hợp.	4	3	2	1
7	Tôi gặp khó khăn trong việc đoán thông tin từ bài đọc.	4	3	2	1
8	Tôi gặp khó khăn trong việc đọc những bài đọc dài.	4	3	2	1
9	Tôi gặp khó khăn trong việc nhận diện hành văn.	4	3	2	1
10	Tôi gặp khó khăn trong việc đọc những chủ đề khác nhau.	4	3	2	1
11	Tôi không hứng thú với những văn bản được viết bằng tiếng Anh.	4	3	2	1
12	Tôi không nhận được sự động viên từ phía bạn bè, bố mẹ hoặc giáo viên.	4	3	2	1
13	Tôi thiếu những nguồn tài liệu đọc chính thống.	4	3	2	1
14	Tôi không có động cơ để đọc.	4	3	2	1
15	Tôi thấy việc đọc rất áp lực.	4	3	2	1

APPENDIXC: (MARSI –English version)
Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (Version 1.0)

Kouider Mokhtari and Carla Reichard © 2002

DIRECTIONS: Listed below are statements about what people do when they read academic or schoolrelated materials such as textbooks, library books, etc. Five numbers follow each statement (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) and each number means the following:

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

After reading each statement, **circle the number** (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) that applies to you using the scale provided. Please note that there are **no right or wrong answers** to the statements in this inventory.

PART 1: GLOBAL READING STRATEGIES

#	STRATEGIES	SCALE				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	I have a purpose in mind when I read.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I preview the text to see what it’s about before reading it.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I use context clues to help me better understand what I’m reading.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I use typographical aids like bold face and italics to identify key information.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I check my understanding when I come across conflicting information.	1	2	3	4	5
12	I try to guess what the material is about when I read.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.	1	2	3	4	5

PART 2: PROBLEM SOLVING READING STRATEGIES

#	STRATEGIES	SCALE				
1	I read slowly but carefully to be sure I understand what I'm reading.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I try to get back on track when I lose concentration	1	2	3	4	5
3	I adjust my reading speed according to what I'm reading.	1	2	3	4	5
4	When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I'm reading.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I stop from time to time and think about what I'm reading.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
7	When text becomes difficult, I re-read to increase my understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I try to guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.	1	2	3	4	5

PART 3: SUPPORT READING STRATEGIES

#	STRATEGIES	SCALE				
1	I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
2	When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I summarize what I read to reflect on important information in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I discuss what I read with others to check my understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I use reference materials such as dictionaries to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	1	2	3	4	5

Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory SCORING RUBRIC

Student's Name: _____ Date: _____

1. Write your response to each statement (i.e., 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) in each of the blanks.
 2. Add up the scores under each column. Place the result on the line under each column.
 3. Divide the score by the number of statements in each column to get the average for each subscale.
 4. Calculate the average for the inventory by adding up the subscale scores and dividing by 30.
 5. Compare your results to those shown below.
 6. Discuss your results with your teacher or tutor.
-

KEY TO AVERAGES:

3.5 or higher = High 2.5 – 3.4 = Medium, 2.4 or lower = Low

INTERPRETING YOUR SCORES: The overall average indicates how often you use reading strategies when reading academic materials. The average for each subscale of the inventory shows which group of strategies (i.e., global, problem-solving, and support strategies) you use most when reading. With this information, you can tell if you are very high or very low in any of these strategy groups. It is important to note, however, that the best possible use of these strategies depends on your reading ability in English, the type of material read, and your purpose for reading it. A low score on any of the subscales or parts of the inventory indicates that there may be some strategies in these parts that you might want to learn about and consider using when reading (Adapted from Oxford, 1990: 297-300)

Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (Version 1.0)

Kouider Mokhtari and Carla Reichard © 2002

Dưới đây là những nhận định những điều mà người học làm khi họ đọc hoặc những chủ đề liên quan đến việc học như sách giáo khoa, sách học thuật ... Các nhận định trên được đánh số từ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5:

- 1 có nghĩa là “Tôi gần như **không bao giờ** làm việc này.”
- 2 có nghĩa là “Tôi **thi thoảng** làm việc này.”
- 3 có nghĩa là “**Đôi khi** tôi làm việc này.” (Khoảng 50%)
- 4 có nghĩa là “Tôi **thường xuyên** làm việc này.”
- 5 có nghĩa là “Tôi **luôn luôn** hoặc gần như luôn làm việc này.”

Sau khi đọc những nhận định trên, hãy khoanh tròn các số từ 1 đến 5 ứng với bạn. Lưu ý **không có câu trả lời đúng hoặc sai** cho những nhận định trên.

PHẦN 1: CHIẾN LƯỢC ĐỌC TỔNG QUÁT

#	Chiến lược	Lựa chọn				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	Tôi luôn đọc có mục đích.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Tôi nghĩ về những điều tôi đã viết trước khi đọc	1	2	3	4	5
3	Tôi đọc trước bài đọc để tìm hiểu ý chính về bài đọc.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Tôi nghĩ xem liệu nội dung bài đọc có phù hợp với mục đích đọc của tôi không.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Tôi đọc nhanh bài đọc bằng cách ghi chú các đặc điểm ví dụ như độ dài, cấu trúc của bài đọc.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Tôi quyết định đọc chi tiết phần nào và bỏ qua phần nào.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Tôi sử dụng biểu bảng, sơ đồ và các hình minh họa để tăng sự hiểu biết.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Tôi sử dụng ngữ cảnh để giúp cho việc hiểu những điều tôi đang đọc.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Tôi sử dụng các ký hiệu đặc biệt ví dụ như in đậm, in nghiêng để xác định ý chính.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Tôi phân tích và đánh giá những thông tin được trình bày trong bài đọc.	1	2	3	4	5

11	Tôi kiểm tra việc đọc hiểu khi gặp những thông tin trái ngược.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Tôi cố gắng đoán nội dung của tài liệu đọc khi tôi đọc.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Tôi kiểm tra xem liệu việc suy đoán của tôi về bài đọc đúng hay sai.	1	2	3	4	5

PHẦN 2: CHIẾN LƯỢC ĐỌC GIẢI QUYẾT VẤN ĐỀ

#	Chiến lược	Lựa chọn				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	Tôi đọc chậm nhưng cẩn thận để chắc chắn rằng tôi hiểu những điều tôi đang đọc.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Tôi cố gắng đọc lại khi mất tập trung.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Tôi điều chỉnh tốc độ đọc theo những điều tôi đọc.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Khi gặp bài đọc khó tôi chú ý hơn.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Thỉnh thoảng tôi dừng lại để nghĩ về những điều tôi đang đọc.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Tôi cố gắng hình dung thông tin dưới dạng hình ảnh để giúp hiểu hơn những điều tôi đang đọc.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Khi gặp bài đọc khó tôi đọc đi đọc lại để hiểu hơn.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Tôi cố gắng đoán nghĩa của những từ mới trong bài.	1	2	3	4	5

PHẦN 3: CHIẾN LƯỢC ĐỌC HỖ TRỢ

#	Chiến lược	Lựa chọn				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	Tôi ghi chú trong khi đọc để hiểu bài đọc.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Khi gặp bài đọc khó tôi đọc to thành tiếng để hiểu hơn.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Tôi tóm tắt những điều tôi đã đọc để phản ánh những thông tin quan trọng trong bài.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Tôi thảo luận những điều tôi đã đọc với những bạn khác để kiểm tra độ hiểu của mình.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Tôi gạch chân hoặc khoanh tròn những thông tin trong bài để ghi nhớ.	1	2	3	4	5

6	Tôi sử dụng những tài liệu tham khảo ví dụ như từ điển để hiểu từ mới.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Tôi diễn đạt lại ý trong bài bằng ý hiểu của mình để hiểu rõ hơn.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Tôi đọc đi đọc lại để tìm ra mối quan hệ giữa các ý trong bài.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Tôi tự đặt ra các câu hỏi mà tôi thích để trả lời các nội dung trong bài đọc.	1	2	3	4	5

Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory

CÁCH TÍNH ĐIỂM

Họ và tên: _____ Ngày: _____

1. Viết câu trả lời vào mỗi ô trống.
2. Cộng điểm dưới mỗi cột. Ghi kết quả dưới mỗi cột.
3. Chia kết quả theo số câu hỏi để tìm ra điểm trung bình.
4. Tính số trung bình bằng cách cộng tổng và chia cho 30.
5. So sánh kết quả như dưới đây.
6. Thảo luận kết quả với giáo viên.

CÁCH TÍNH ĐIỂM TRUNG BÌNH

3.5 hoặc cao hơn = Cao 2.5 – 3.4 = Trung bình 2.4 hoặc thấp hơn = Thấp

APPENDIX E:

(Cambridge Preliminary English Test 6)

Test 1

PAPER 1 READING AND WRITING TEST (1 hour 30 minutes)

READING

Part 1

Questions 1–5

Look at the text in each question.

What does it say?

Mark the correct letter **A**, **B** or **C** on your answer sheet.

Example:

0



A Buy three films for the price of two.

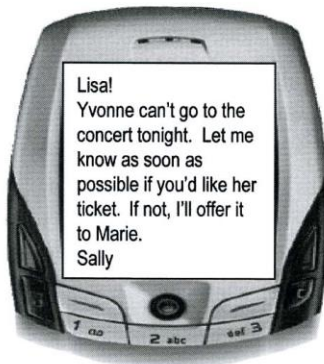
B Get a free film with every one you buy.

C Films bought here are printed free.

Answer:

0	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> A	<input type="checkbox"/> B	<input type="checkbox"/> C
---	--	-----------------------------------	-----------------------------------

1



Who should Lisa contact if she wants to go to the concert?

A Yvonne

B Marie

C Sally

2

Parking Form

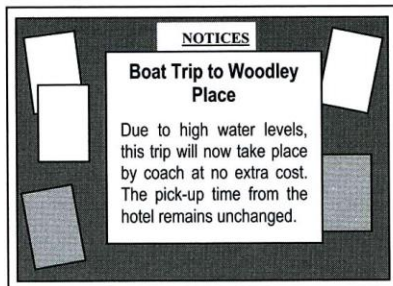
Complete and place in lower left-hand corner of windscreen

Car registration

Date

- A Register your car here by filling in this form.
- B Put this form in your car windscreen after filling it in.
- C Place the completed form at the top of your car windscreen.

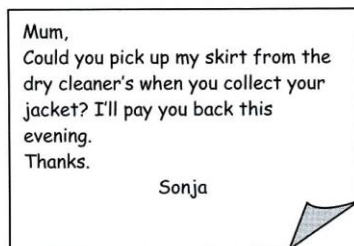
3



What has changed about the trip to Woodley Place?

- A the transport
- B the price
- C the departure time

4



What will Sonja's mother do?

- A receive money for the dry cleaning from Sonja tonight
- B fetch Sonja's jacket from the dry cleaner's for her
- C deliver her own clothes to the dry cleaner's

5



- A Each tour of the castle lasts less than two hours.
- B Two hours is the minimum time recommended for a visit to the castle.
- C Visitors are only allowed to spend two hours inside the castle.

Part 2

Questions 6–10

The people below live in London and are all interested in keeping fit.
On the opposite page there are descriptions of eight websites for people wanting to keep fit.
Decide which website would be the most suitable for the following people.
For questions 6–10, mark the correct letter (A–H) on your answer sheet.

6



Klara has recently moved to London and enjoys serious running. She is looking for a club where she can take part in competitions.

7



Sami wants to find some ideas for keeping fit at home and communicate online with other people doing the same thing. He doesn't want to have to pay for using the website.

8



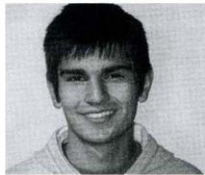
Kumiko is a member of a local gym where she goes at least twice a week. She does not get much time to shop, so wants to buy gym clothes and shoes online.

9



Peter loves the outdoors and cycles to different places each weekend to keep fit. He wants a website which will give him suggestions for a range of suitable destinations.

10



Stefano is a student and is looking for a gym where he can keep fit. He wants to pay each time he visits the gym rather than paying a fee to become a member.

FIND THE PERFECT WAY TO KEEP FIT WITH THESE WEBSITES

- A www.activelife.co.uk** This site is perfect for those who like to combine living a healthy lifestyle with enjoying the countryside. Type in the name of the town and you get a list of locations that offer routes for cycling or exploring the area on foot. There is also information on cycling competitions in Britain.
- B www.fitinfo.com** This online shop offers books, magazines, DVDs and software connected to keeping fit. You simply type in the aspect of keeping fit that you are interested in, such as 'keeping fit outdoors', and a super selection is displayed.
- C www.fitnet.co.uk** Steve Amos started this site for busy people wanting to keep fit. Fill in a questionnaire and Steve will create a fitness programme for you. Although Steve's fee is high, you can email him for advice whenever you want. In addition, Steve has designed a range of fitness clothes and footwear, which anyone can order (48-hour delivery).
- D www.NAG.co.uk** The National Athletics Group is a site for people interested in athletics. It allows you to find out where your nearest athletics club is and provides information about races and other athletics events around the country. There is a popular chatroom where athletes exchange suggestions and ideas.
- E www.swavedon.com** Swavedon is a national park with a lake, which offers many different ways of keeping fit in the great outdoors. There are three cycle routes, a jogging track around the lake and several woodland walks.
- F www.fitnessonline.co.uk** This is a free government website that encourages people to keep fit. It gives diet advice, and allows you to work through a fitness programme without leaving your house. It also offers advice on gym equipment to buy and has a chatroom, where you can compare experiences with others.
- G www.fitnessclub.co.uk** This website tells you all you need to know about this chain of gyms, including where your nearest Fitnessclub gym is, how you can become a member and how much the yearly fee is. Advice is given on everything from using a running machine to buying the right equipment. Each gym has a swimming pool and a shop selling gymwear.
- H www.sportsarena.co.uk** This website tells you how you can keep fit at this group of London sports centres. You don't have to be a member - these centres operate a pay-as-you-go system. They all have a pool, squash courts, gym and outdoor tennis courts. The website includes details of locations, opening times and prices.

Part 3

Questions 11–20

Look at the sentences below about a book club.

Read the text on the opposite page to decide if each sentence is correct or incorrect.

If it is correct, mark **A** on your answer sheet.

If it is not correct, mark **B** on your answer sheet.

- 11 By ordering a book, you qualify to become a member of the International Book Club.
- 12 Every new member can request a watch from the book club.
- 13 You can buy a DVD more cheaply when you join.
- 14 All club books cost half the publisher's price.
- 15 Each club magazine gives you a choice of over 1,000 books.
- 16 You get a different choice of books if you order from the website.
- 17 One special book is recommended every month.
- 18 You may receive a book that the club has chosen for you.
- 19 You must pay the postage when sending your application to join the club.
- 20 You should pay as soon as you receive your books.



International Book Club



Have you ever thought of joining a book club and buying new books through the post? Here at the International Book Club, we already have many members buying books from us by mail.

To join:

You just need to send us your first order from our book list.

Immediate benefits:

- As a special offer, you may choose any reduced-price books from our new members' book list, to the value of £6 in total (plus postage and packing). By doing this, you will save pounds on the publishers' prices.
- Tick the box on your form to order a free watch.
- If you reply within seven days, we will send you another free gift carefully chosen from our book list by our staff.
- Order a DVD from the many on offer in our list, at half the recommended retail price.

When you've joined:

As a member, you'll enjoy savings of between 30% and 50% off the publisher's price on every book you buy, and what's more, they'll come straight to your door. Your free club magazine arrives once a month, to keep you up to date with the latest best-sellers. This means that every year we offer over 1,000 books to choose from. On the Internet, you can find all our titles for the year on our exclusive members' website.

Being a member:

All we are asking you to do while you are a member is to choose four books during your first year. After that, you can decide on the number of books you wish to take.

In each of our monthly club magazines, our experienced staff choose a Club Choice book – a work of fiction or a reference title which they feel is particularly worth buying, and which is offered at an extra-special price. However, if you do not want this book, just say so in the space provided on the form. We will always send the book if we do not receive this.

So, return your application form today, but hurry – it's not every day we can make you an offer like this. To apply to become a member, all you need to do is simply fill in the enclosed form and return it in the postage-paid envelope supplied.

Before you know it, your books will be with you. Please don't send any money now, as we will send you your bill with the books. And remember, you have up to a fortnight to decide if you wish to keep the books you have ordered. You should then either return the books or send your payment.

Part 4

Questions 21–25

Read the text and questions below.

For each question, mark the correct letter **A, B, C** or **D** on your answer sheet.



Rock Band

Two years ago, our 14-year-old son, Ben, asked us for a set of drums for his birthday. At first, we were very much against the idea because of the noise. 'It's better than watching television or playing computer games in my free time,' Ben argued, 'and it'll keep me out of trouble.' In the end we gave in. 'All right,' we said, 'but you must consider the

rest of the family and the neighbours when you play.'

That was just the beginning. Because drums are not the easiest instruments to transport, the other members of Ben's band started appearing at our home with their guitars and other electrical equipment. And so, for several hours a week, the house shakes to the noise of their instruments and their teenage singing.

At least Ben's hobby has been good for our health: whenever the band start practising, my husband and I go out for a long walk. And I must admit that, although their music may sound a little strange, they are a friendly and polite group of young men. I cannot judge their musical skill – after all I didn't expect my parents' generation to like the same music as I did when I was a teenager – but they do play regularly in local clubs for young people.

Our main worry is that they won't spend enough time on their school work because of their musical activities, though this hasn't happened yet. I am always stressing to Ben how important his studies are. But one thing is certain – Ben was right: it has kept him out of trouble and he is never bored.

- 21 What is the writer trying to do in this text?
- A complain about her son's friends
 - B give advice to teenagers
 - C describe her son's hobby
 - D compare herself with her parents
- 22 Why did the writer give Ben the present he wanted?
- A She wanted to reward him for working hard.
 - B He already had too many computer games.
 - C She knew he would use it sensibly.
 - D He persuaded her it would be a good idea.

23 Why do the band always practise at Ben's house?

- A It is difficult for Ben to move his drums.
- B The neighbours don't mind the noise.
- C Ben's parents enjoy listening to them.
- D They can leave their equipment there.

24 What does the writer say about the band members?

- A Their influence on her son worries her.
- B Their taste in music is different from hers.
- C They play their instruments well.
- D They avoid any contact with her.

25 What might the writer say to her son?

A

Your teacher has just phoned. He wants to know why you weren't at school today.

B

When are you playing at the club next? Dad and I would love to come along again.

C

If you don't know what to do with yourself, there's a good programme on the television in a few minutes.

D

Are you sure you've finished your homework? It's more important than band practice.

Part 5

Questions 26–35

Read the text below and choose the correct word for each space.
For each question, mark the correct letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your answer sheet.

Example:

0 **A** most **B** more **C** best **D** better

Answer: 0


A	B	C	D
█			

Tom Cruise

Tom Cruise is one of the (0) successful actors in cinema history. However, life hasn't always been that easy for him. As a young boy, Tom was shy and had (26) in finding friends, although he really enjoyed (27) part in school plays.

(28) he had finished High School, Tom went to New York to look for work. He found employment as a porter, and at the same time he (29) drama classes. In 1980, the film director Franco Zeffirelli (30) Tom his first part in a film. Ten years later, he had become (31) successful that he was one of the highest-paid actors in Hollywood, (32) millions of dollars for (33) film.

Today, Tom (34) appears in films and is as (35) as ever with his thousands of fans from all around the world.



- | | | | |
|-----------------------|--------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| 26 A worry | B problem | C fear | D difficulty |
| 27 A making | B holding | C taking | D finding |
| 28 A While | B During | C After | D Until |
| 29 A prepared | B waited | C attended | D happened |
| 30 A suggested | B offered | C tried | D advised |
| 31 A so | B such | C too | D very |
| 32 A paying | B earning | C winning | D reaching |
| 33 A another | B all | C each | D some |
| 34 A yet | B ever | C already | D still |
| 35 A popular | B favourite | C preferred | D approved |

Test 2

PAPER 1 READING AND WRITING TEST (1 hour 30 minutes)

READING

Part 1

Questions 1–5

Look at the text in each question.

What does it say?

Mark the correct letter **A**, **B** or **C** on your answer sheet.

Example:

0

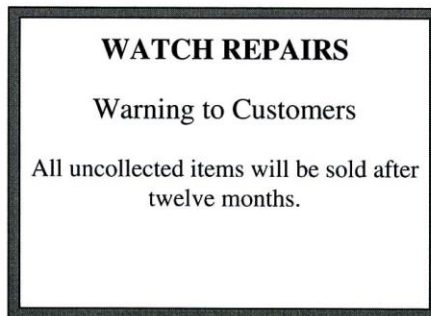


- A Do not leave your bicycle touching the window.
- B Broken glass may damage your bicycle tyres.
- C Your bicycle may not be safe here.

Answer:

0	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	A	B	C

1



- A This shop will sell customers' watches within twelve months.
- B This shop will keep customers' watches for up to twelve months.
- C This shop will look after customers' watches for more than twelve months.

2

Philippe,

Couldn't wait any longer, didn't want to miss the start of the match! Problem at work? Here's your ticket – see you at the stadium.

Stefano

- A Philippe and Stefano missed each other at the stadium.
- B Stefano had to leave without Philippe to get to work.
- C Stefano has given up waiting for Philippe to arrive.

3

PARENTS:

Complete and return your child's form for next month's school trip by Friday

- A Parents must return forms this week if their child is going on Friday's trip.
- B Parents cannot go on next month's trip unless they return their forms by Friday.
- C The last day for returning completed forms for the trip is Friday.

4

From:	Gabi
To:	Jo
I'll be in town on business on Wednesday, so could we meet for dinner then, instead of on Thursday as usual?	

Gabi wants Jo to

- A change an arrangement.
- B cancel a regular event.
- C come to a business meeting.

5



- A It is not possible to use the lift above the ground floor today.
- B The lift will not be going to the basement today.
- C The stairs between the basement and the ground floor are closed today.

Part 2

Questions 6–10

The people below all want to visit a park.

On the opposite page there are descriptions of eight parks.

Decide which park would be the most suitable for the following people.

For questions **6–10**, mark the correct letter (**A–H**) on your answer sheet.

6



Isabel works in the city centre and likes painting and drawing in her free time. She wants to practise her hobby in a small, quiet park near her office.

7



Mr Martin wants to take his eight-year-old pupils to a park anywhere within the city, with lots of organised activities which allow the children to read about local wildlife they may see.

8



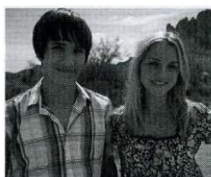
Kumiko and Atsuko would like to visit a park which they can get to by boat. They want to buy lunch there and then enjoy a short walk accompanied by an expert leader.

9



Hans and Birgit Kaufmann and their family want to visit a park which is historically important. Their teenage children would like to try a water sport.

10



Melanie and Stefan are students who need to visit a busy park for a college project. They want to draw people taking part in team sports and watching entertainment.

PARKS IN AND AROUND THE CITY

A Hadley Park

This park is in the peaceful village of Cranford, 20 km outside the city. The park has large green spaces for football and there is also an area of woodland, a boating lake, fish ponds and a variety of local wildlife. The public car park is free.

C Brock Park

A beautiful park on the edge of the city, Brock Park attracts huge crowds. The open-air theatre has a programme of plays suitable for school groups. There is a well-used basketball court and baseball field, a children's playground and a café. Climb Harry's Hill to admire the beautiful fields and forests beyond the city.

E Boscawen Park

This small and peaceful park offers guided tours, given by the knowledgeable Environment Officers, and evening visitors to the park may be lucky enough to see rare frogs and bats. It is situated on the River Elton and can be reached in about 30 minutes from the city centre by river taxi. There is a snack bar and gift shop.

G Victoria Park

This quiet park, on the edge of the city and easy to visit by public transport, has boats for hire on the lake, a skateboard park, basketball and tennis courts and a picnic area. Often seen in postcard views of the city, Victoria Park contains one of the oldest windmills in the country - the museum should not be missed.

B Highdown Park

The largest and most popular open space in the city, Highdown has many paths for keen walkers, as well as horse-riding and golf. The much-visited 19th-century glasshouses contain an interesting exhibition about birds from around the world.

D Lilac Park and House

This busy city-centre park has a long history dating back to the 1700s, when it belonged to the writer Thomas Crane. The house is open to the public and a guided visit can also include a walk around the famous rose gardens, finishing at the popular Butterfly Café.

F East Bank Park

This is a tiny, little-known park in the heart of the city, with gardens filled with sculptures, trees and flowers. It makes a perfect resting place, popular with local artists, and is within minutes of the theatre and entertainment district.

H Elmwood Park

At Elmwood Park, there are walks on well-made paths and cycle rides for all abilities. Elmwood is just inside the city limit and has an area of quiet woodland, which is home to deer and other animals. The visitor centre, numerous display boards and a fun quiz make this a positive learning experience for all ages.

Part 3

Questions 11–20

Look at the sentences below about the Iditarod Trail in Alaska.

Read the text on the opposite page to decide if each sentence is correct or incorrect.

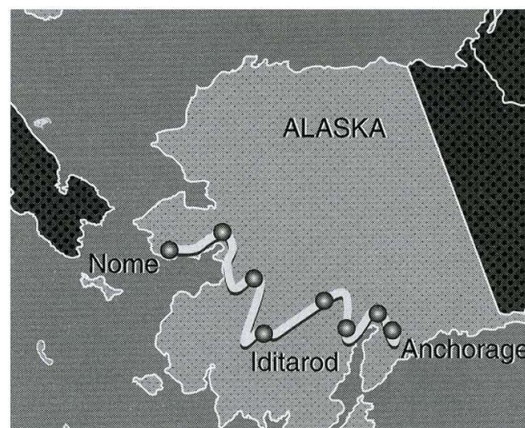
If it is correct, mark **A** on your answer sheet.

If it is not correct, mark **B** on your answer sheet.

- 11 The population of Alaska remained the same throughout the 1880s.
- 12 For a short time, more people lived in Iditarod than in any other city in Alaska.
- 13 After 1910, it became possible to deliver letters in winter as well as summer.
- 14 When travelling on the Iditarod Trail, drivers had to take food for the dogs with them.
- 15 In the 1920s, aeroplanes were used more often than boats and dogs.
- 16 Doctors in Nome had a good supply of medicine to cure diphtheria.
- 17 The pilot Carl Eielson refused to fly his plane because of the cold weather.
- 18 Leonhard Seppala's dog was able to lead him safely to his destination.
- 19 Balto fell into some icy water but managed to save himself.
- 20 The Iditarod race takes a different route every year.

THE HISTORY OF THE IDITAROD – THE LAST GREAT RACE ON EARTH

In the 1880s, gold was discovered in what is now the most northern state of the USA, Alaska. Many people came to the area hoping to get rich. New towns were built and grew quickly. One such town was called Iditarod, which means 'far, distant place'. This town grew so quickly during 1909 that it briefly became the largest city in Alaska. In the summer months, essential supplies could be delivered to these towns by boat, but in the winter the rivers and the ocean froze and there was no way to get to them. So, in 1910, a winter track was built which would be used by teams of dogs pulling sleds. They would take mail, food and clothes to the gold miners.



The track became known as the Iditarod Trail. It took a team of dogs about three weeks to travel across Alaska. They stopped at 'roadhouses' where the drivers could get a warm bed for the night and something to eat for both themselves and their dogs. The trail was used every winter until the 1920s when aeroplanes replaced steam boats and dog teams as the main form of transport.

However, the dogs had one last taste of fame in 1925, when a disease called diphtheria hit the city of Nome. The disease could be cured, but, unfortunately, the closest medicine that could be found was in Anchorage, right on the other side of Alaska. Aeroplanes were still quite new, so no-one knew if they could fly in such cold weather. Also, Carl Eielson, the only pilot considered skilled enough to manage the flight, was away on a trip at the time. It was therefore agreed that the medicine would be transported using teams of dogs instead.

The trip covered over 1,000 kilometres, most of it along the Iditarod Trail. It took twenty teams just six days to complete the journey. Leonhard Seppala, a Norwegian who had come to Alaska looking for gold, travelled the first 400 of those kilometres. He had to trust his dog Togo's ability to find his way in the blinding snow and Togo turned out to be a reliable guide. The last part of the journey was done by Gunnar Kaasen who had driven dog teams in Alaska for 21 years. His lead dog was Balto. At one point Balto refused to go any further, and saved the team from falling into icy water. The diphtheria was stopped and Balto became a hero.

Nowadays a dog sled race is held every year from Anchorage to Nome, following the route of that famous journey in 1925. It is called the Iditarod and has become known as 'The Last Great Race on Earth'.

Part 4

Question 21–25

Read the text and questions below.

For each question, mark the correct letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your answer sheet.

Craigie Aitchison

The painter Craigie Aitchison was born in Scotland. He came to London intending to study law, but went to art school instead. There he found the traditional drawing classes difficult, but still kept on painting.

In his late twenties he was given money by the Italian government to study art, and became interested in early Italian artists, which shows in some of his work. He loved the greens and browns of the Italian fields and the clear light there, and wanted to put this light into his paintings.

This led him to paint colours thinly one on top of another from light to dark, but he insists he's never sure what the results will be. He says, 'It's a secret – because I don't know myself. I don't start by painting yellow, knowing I'm going to put anything on top.' Like most talented people, Aitchison makes it sound easy. 'Anyone can do the colours – you can buy them. I simply notice what you put the colours next to.'

Unlike some artists, he never does drawings before he starts a painting, as he feels that if he did, he might get bored and not do the painting afterwards. Instead, Aitchison changes his paintings many times before they are finished. This explains why his favourite models are people who don't ask to see their pictures while he's painting them. 'If I feel they're worried and want to look at the painting, I can't do it.'

Since moving to London years ago, he has not felt part of the Scottish painting scene. He says he is not interested in following any tradition, but just paints the way he can. However, his work still influences young British painters.

- 21 What is the writer trying to do in the text?
- A describe particular works by Craigie Aitchison
 - B teach readers how to paint like Craigie Aitchison
 - C introduce readers to the artist Craigie Aitchison
 - D explain how Craigie Aitchison has made money from painting
- 22 What can the reader learn about Aitchison from the text?
- A He works in a different way from other artists.
 - B He often gets bored with his paintings.
 - C He improved his drawing by going to art school.
 - D He did some paintings for the Italian government.

- 23 What does Aitchison say about his use of colour?
- A He likes starting with the darkest colours first.
 - B He knows the colours he's aiming for when he begins.
 - C He prefers to paint with yellows, greens, and browns.
 - D He understands how different colours work together.
- 24 Aitchison prefers models who don't
- A keep talking to him while he's working.
 - B ask him about his strange method of working.
 - C worry about how long the work will take.
 - D feel anxious to see the work as it's developing.
- 25 What might a visitor at an exhibition say about Aitchison's work?

A

I love his recent paintings of Scotland, which are very similar to a number of other Scottish painters

B

You can still see the influence of his trip to Italy in some of these pictures.

C

You can tell he spent a lot of time drawing the picture before he started painting.

D

I wonder if his law training helps him at all, especially in selling his work.

Part 5

Questions 26–35

Read the text below and choose the correct word for each space.

For each question, mark the correct letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your answer sheet.

Example:

0 **A** keep **B** stay **C** hold **D** rest

Answer:

0	A	B	C	D
	■	□	□	□

ZOOS

People began to (0) animals in zoos (26) 3,000 years ago, when the rulers of China opened an enormous zoo called the Gardens of Intelligence. In many of the early zoos, animals (27) taught to perform for the visitors. This no longer (28) and it is accepted that the purpose of zoos is for people to see animals behaving naturally.

Today, most cities have a zoo or wildlife park. However, not (29) approves of zoos. People who think that zoos are a good idea say they (30) us with the opportunity to (31) about the natural world and be close to wild animals. Both of (32) would not be possible (33) zoos. On the other hand, some people disapprove of zoos because they (34) it is wrong to put animals in cages, and argue that in zoos which are not (35) properly, animals live in dirty conditions and eat unsuitable food.

- | | | | | |
|----|------------|-------------|------------|-----------|
| 26 | A above | B over | C more | D beyond |
| 27 | A are | B have | C were | D had |
| 28 | A appears | B becomes | C develops | D happens |
| 29 | A somebody | B everybody | C nobody | D anybody |
| 30 | A produce | B bring | C provide | D make |
| 31 | A discover | B learn | C find | D realise |
| 32 | A that | B what | C whose | D these |
| 33 | A without | B instead | C except | D unless |
| 34 | A hope | B expect | C imagine | D believe |
| 35 | A ordered | B managed | C decided | D aimed |

APPENDIX F:
(ANSWERS)

Test 1

PAPER 1 READING AND WRITING

READING

Part 1

1 C 2 B 3 A 4 A 5 B

Part 2

6 D 7 F 8 C 9 A 10 H

Part 3

11 A 12 A 13 A 14 B 15 B 16 B 17 A 18 A
19 B 20 B

Part 4

21 C 22 D 23 A 24 B 25 D

Part 5

26 D 27 C 28 C 29 C 30 B 31 A 32 B 33 C
34 D 35 A

PAPER 2 LISTENING

Part 1

1 A 2 A 3 C 4 B 5 A 6 B 7 A

Part 2

8 A 9 C 10 C 11 A 12 A 13 B

Part 3

14 T/tiger(s)
15 A/aug(ust) (evenings)
16 1765
17 K/kitchen(s)
18 (old) F/fishing
19 S/sweet(s)(es)(ies) C/candy(s)/C/candies

Part 4

20 B 21 B 22 A 23 B 24 A 25 B

Test 2

PAPER 1 READING AND WRITING

READING

Part 1

1 B 2 C 3 C 4 A 5 B

Part 2

6 F 7 H 8 E 9 G 10 C

Part 3

11 B 12 A 13 A 14 B 15 A 16 B 17 B 18 A 19 B
20 B

Part 4

21 C 22 A 23 D 24 D 25 B

Part 5

26 B 27 C 28 D 29 B 30 C 31 B 32 D 33 A 34 D
35 B

PAPER 2 LISTENING

Part 1

1 B 2 A 3 B 4 C 5 B 6 B 7 A

Part 2

8 A 9 A 10 C 11 B 12 B 13 A

Part 3

14 O/opera(s)
15 T/ten (students) /10
16 (to) R/relax
17 C/classic(al) (s) (songs)
18 (the) S/salad (s) (bar)
19 T/Tuesday T/tues

Part 4

20 B 21 A 22 B 23 A 24 B 25 B