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國小學童閱讀理解策略運用之個案研究

A Study of a Sixth Grader's Manipulation of English Reading Strategies

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To Dr. Ming-chung Yu

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國立政治大學英國語文學系碩士在職專班

碩士論文摘要

論文名稱：國小學童閱讀理解策略運用之個案研究

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論文提要內容：

本個案研究探討個案在閱讀不同文體及主題的文章時策略之運用；另一方面觀察他與同儕一起閱讀的情境中和個人閱讀的情況下策略使用的情形，同時討論英語能力、年齡和其閱讀策略運用的關係。文章體材包括故事、說明文和描寫文三類。觀察及分析的閱讀策略含總體性、問題解決性及支持性等。資料分析工具包括教師觀察及筆記、訪談及閱讀策略問卷，輔以自我效能問卷、標準測驗等。先前國內較少以國小學生為對象進行英語閱讀策略運用的個案研究，希望本研究結論可以提供學生自我成長和相關領域教學者在設計閱讀策略教學時的參考。

研究結果顯示，閱讀策略教學能拓展學習者對增進閱讀理解力之策略的認識；對各種不同文體的文章，個案最常使用的是總體性策略，最少使用支持性策略；策略的使用主要和學習者對文章內容的興趣、生活經驗、閱讀習慣、學習工具有關；當個案和能力相當的同儕一起學習時，常表現出更強的學習動機，也樂意嘗試較多的策略。但在個人閱讀的情況下，個案顯露出獨立閱讀者的特質，也讀得更快。從結果也顯示以科技輔助教學並結合聽說寫等能力的學習活動，更能激發學生的學習意願。

建議未來可囊括較多異質性學習者來進行實驗；給予學生自己選擇文本的機會；也可更有計畫地設計分組方式來檢測學生最佳的閱讀策略使用情境。

關鍵字：閱讀策略、閱讀策略教學、文體素材、與同儕閱讀、個人閱讀

Abstract

The purposes of this research were to explore a young reader's manipulation of reading strategies while reading different types/topics of texts and to determine the differences between his strategy use in a peer reading situation and that in an individual reading situation. How the student's English proficiency and age influenced his strategy use is also discussed. Three categories of reading strategies were observed: global reading strategies, problem-solving strategies, and support strategies. Data were collected through the teacher's observations and notes, interviews, the participant's strategy questionnaires, and tests.

The results revealed that the participant's strategy use was related to his interests toward the reading text, his background knowledge, reading habits, learning tools, and reading situations. Global strategies were used the most often, while support strategies were used the least. The participant demonstrated a higher willingness to manipulate more strategies when he worked with someone of equal English ability; however, he was more of an autonomous reader and read faster in an individual reading situation. In addition, learning with technology highly motivated the participant to try out different strategies.

For future studies, the involvement of diverse backgrounds and student personalities to increase the credibility of the results is recommended. It is also worth a try to give children the freedom to choose what they would like to read. Moreover, grouping can be more carefully designed to examine the optimal environment in which students' strategy use can be exerted to the full.

Keywords: reading strategies, reading strategy instruction, reading texts, reading with peers, individual reading

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background and Motivation

The expression “Reading opens the door to the world of knowledge” is heard very often (Lin, 2009, p. 52). By reading people can experience different cultures and expand their knowledge. Reading ability has long been considered an indicator of a country's competitiveness (Huang & Lin, 2009). Low reading ability foreshadows high rates of unemployment, crime, drug abuse, and many other social problems. In this digital age, being able to access information quickly and effectively becomes a prerequisite (Chen, Jian, & Zeng, 2005; Schmidt, 2010).

Evidence shows that reading ability is highly valued in many countries. For example, in Finland, the density of libraries is the highest in the world; in South Korea, students have been reading for 10 minutes every morning since 2004; in Canada, reading has been integrated as an extracurricular activity for students and the government encourages parents to read with their children after work (Chen & Shieh, 2012). In Taiwan, the Ministry of Education (MOE) makes every endeavor to advocate reading activities, such as organizing workshops on effective instruction strategies for in-service teachers, holding national reading contests, and funding school libraries for book purchases. Despite these investments of time and money, not everyone has demonstrated improvements in reading ability. Many struggling readers are still found in different levels of schools.

For students learning English as a foreign language (EFL), time of exposure to English in everyday life is limited; hence, providing students with sufficient reading materials and teaching them how to use reading strategies are essential. Young readers tend to become frustrated and stop reading when they do not comprehend what they are reading (Carrell, 1998). This breakdown might be due to readers' lacking adequate

knowledge in aspects like vocabulary, culture or experience. Occasionally, readers can pronounce isolated words perfectly, but they cannot comprehend the main concepts of the material they are reading. In such cases, it is not “real” reading (Lan, 2010). When students encounter such problems, an appropriate reading strategy instruction might assist them in overcoming this reading difficulty. With the strategy training, students’ ability of manipulating reading strategies and their reading comprehension are supposed to be fostered and enhanced (Padrón, 1992; Palinscar & Brown, 1984).

Rosenblatt (1938) mentioned that each person has a unique method to read a text. Various strategies should be manipulated flexibly to achieve efficient reading for different texts (Carrell, 1987). Since English is a compulsory subject in school, it is natural that most reading behavior occurs in a classroom environment. Many schools have integrated reading strategy instructions into their curricula (Brown, 2007). When reading in a classroom, students are often asked to either work with classmates or work individually. Whether the reading activities are interesting, meaningful and challenging or not often lead to the learner’s continuous reading or withdrawal. In other words, students' engagement in reading activities plays an important role in their learning motivation and language development. Teachers need to create diverse reading activities which can fit any situation. According to Vygotsky's theory of zone of proximal development (1978) and other related studies (Norton & Toohey, 2001; Rodger & Johnson, 1994), a learner's performance can be enhanced through interaction with people in the environment. Thus, to observe students’ strategy employment in reading with peers and in individual reading situations may give teachers useful ideas in designing reading strategy instruction.

Besides the reading environment, children's strategy use might be influenced by the contents of reading texts as well. English textbooks used at school tend to focus on the practice of limited, certain sentence patterns. This kind of practice seems to lack

challenge for advanced learners. Moreover, the fixed pattern of sentences contradicts young learners' fun-loving characteristic. Therefore supplying appropriate extra reading materials to learners is recommended. Based on Krashen's $i+1$ input theory (1985), learning materials with slightly higher level of difficulty than a learner's current level of ability are considered to be beneficial for his language development. Nevertheless, in order to achieve fluent reading, the difficulty level of reading materials should not be too high for children to handle. Young readers need a sense of achievement to encourage themselves to improve further (Silberteint, 1993). For children growing up in the technology age, online reading materials and digital learning resources should also be adopted (Sipe, 2002).

The importance of reading is indubitable. For young EFL learners, reading English could be very challenging. As young readers have shorter attention spans (Brown, 2007), the strategies they use are assumed to be different from those used by older or more experienced readers (Ehrman, Leaver, & Oxford, 2003; Hsiao & Oxford, 2002; Vann & Abraham, 1990). Strategies used by proficient readers are often referred to as models for less proficient readers (Nisbet, Tindall, & Arroyo, 2005; Wurr, 2003). Teachers have the responsibility to help their students acquire the strategies that proficient readers use (Duke & Pearson, 2002). Therefore, an appropriate reading strategy instruction should be integrated into the language curriculum. The instruction program should address students' affective needs and give them opportunities for social contact. A proper learning environment and sufficient reading materials are equally important (Carrell, 1998).

In Taiwan, many studies have been conducted to investigate junior high school students' or above-leveled students' use of reading strategies (Cai, 2004; Lai, Tung, & Luo, 2008; Li & Wang, 2010; Su, 2004); nonetheless, the research on the use of reading strategies at the elementary level remains insufficient.

Furthermore, earlier works concerning reading strategies have mostly been quantitative research studies that were completed within short durations (Cai, 2004; McNeil, 2011). The participants in these studies were often divided into control groups and experiment groups (Cai, 2004; Lu & Huang, 2006). Little qualitative research has investigated the differences between young readers' use of reading strategies in a peer reading situation and that in an individual reading situation.

In addition, reading materials in earlier studies were often chosen specifically for academic purpose and were restricted to a certain type. However, in real life, children inevitably have contact with different kinds of reading texts. Therefore, it is worth further study on elementary students' use of reading strategies among different types of reading materials.

Research Purposes

The study aimed to explore young learners' manipulation of reading strategies among different types/topics of texts. Another purpose of the research was to find out successful readers' manipulation of strategies in individual reading and in peer reading situations. It is expected that not only the average readers can learn from the successful readers' experience on how to use reading strategies efficiently, but also teachers in related fields can benefit from the findings when it comes to the strategy instruction design.

Research Questions

Since reading is a complicated and dynamic process, researchers need to observe students' reading behavior closely and constantly over a period of time in order to get a thorough understanding of their strategy use (Nunan, 1992). However, it is not easy to obtain an in-depth result if a research contains several participants. Therefore, a single case study was adopted for this research.

Two research questions are presented as follows:

- 1) What reading strategies are used by the participant when he reads different types/topics of texts after the reading strategy instruction?
- 2) How does the participant's strategy use in peer reading situations differ from that in individual reading situations?





CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Previous research concerning reading and strategies are reviewed. Five sections in this chapter are as follows: earlier research on reading and comprehension, studies about classification of reading comprehension strategies and the relationship between reading strategies and language proficiency, age and gender, the interaction between reading comprehension and reading materials, research of collaborative and cooperative learning, and studies on reading strategy instruction.

Reading and Comprehension

Reading is a complex process, which is affected by readers' reading abilities, background knowledge, purpose of reading, processing strategies and text types. Reading is a communicative activity because of its interactive nature. The interaction between the text and the interlocutor creates the meaning of a text (Silberstein, 1993). From a psycholinguistic point of view, reading can be identified as a cognitive process through four approaches: bottom-up processing, top-down processing, interactive approach and compensatory approach (Anderson, 1999; Bernhardt, 2005; Carrell, Pharis, & Liberto, 1989; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974). Some researchers believed that L1 reading and L2 reading share some aspects in common, and those aspects in reading process are universal (Goodman, 1982). Another viewpoint concerning reading is schema-driven theory, which perceives reading as an interactive meaning construction process between readers, writers and texts. Some researchers believed nonlinguistic factors such as a reader's perception toward L1 and L2 readings, motivation, attitude, and personality should all be included in explaining the process of reading (Goodman, 1982; Wurr, 2003).

Reading should be meaning based. Readers read to achieve particular goals like

looking for information, passing an exam, communicating with others or just pursuing pleasure (Hudson, 2007). While reading, learners constantly make inferences about things, events and people in the text to construct meaning (Silberstein, 1993). Reading is a dynamic process, not a static product. Uncertainty gradually reduces when readers progress through a text (Smith, 1971). An important feature of reading is its role in social interaction, same as listening, speaking and writing; therefore, it should be integrated with the three language skills (Wallace, 1992).

The social interactive feature in the process of reading can be viewed from two perspectives, social and individual. Reading behavior is associated with the reader's purpose of reading, social expectation and situational context (Wallace, 1992). Effective reading means flexible and appropriate response to reading material and this is guided by the reader's purpose. Effective readers constantly tune out irrelevant information in the reading texts and they are willing to reflect on what they read (Lunzer & Gardner, 1979; Smith & Goodman, 1971). Reading was once considered as a passive or receptive activity, but it was discussed and viewed as an active problem solving process by some researchers (Goodman, 1967; Smith & Goodman, 1971).

There are two main parts of reading: word recognition and comprehension. People start reading by learning how to recognize phonemes, read aloud through phonics, and spell out the words. Then they continue to construct sentences from the words, connect sentences into paragraphs, and make meanings out of the texts to reach comprehension (Lan, 2010). According to Grabe (1991), reading was considered an interaction between two cognitive skills: Lower level skills, which are the reader's rapid recognition of words; and higher level skills such as a reader's comprehension and interpretation of the words. Teachers often ask students to read aloud, but it is worth noting that reading comprehension could be impeded by a learner's struggle to pronounce unfamiliar words. While learners strive to make a connection between letters and sounds, this struggle

interrupts the process of constructing meaning from the text (Hudson, 2007). To understand a reading text, people need more than linguistic competence. Knowledge of the world, the context information and extra-linguistic information are all required (Krashen, 1982). Some researchers believe that comprehension consists of three levels: the literal understanding level, the interpretive level, and the evaluative level (Hurry & Parker, 2007; Fisher, 2008). Readers must make use of all kinds of possible language clues to construct meanings from the written texts.

Each individual's way of approaching a text is unique (Rosenblatt, 1938). This kind of background is called schema. People may interpret same reading texts in different ways because they bring their own schemata to explain the texts (Wallace, 1992). Schema theory proposes that comprehending a text is an interactive process between the reader's background knowledge and the text (Grabe, 1991). Schemata are hierarchically organized, from most general at the top to most specific at the bottom. As these bottom-level schemata converge into higher levels, more general schemata become activated. Top-down processing, however, occurs as the system makes general predictions based on higher level general schemata and then searches the input for information to fit into these partially satisfied, higher order schemata. The comprehension process goes back and forth between top-down and bottom-up approaches to achieve real comprehension (Soto & Delgado, 2003). Both bottom-up process and top-down process occur at all levels simultaneously (Carrell, 1983; Silberstein, 1993). Readers must know how to think about and make decisions about a text, and then use logic and reasoning to understand a text.

Linguistic elements of reading, psycholinguistic factors like readers' cognitive process and social cultural factors are all important to understand first and second/foreign language reading (Hudson, 2007; Pardo, 2004). Studies showed that readers' second or foreign reading ability is greatly influenced by their proficiency in

that language (Madhumathi & Ghosh, 2012). Once learners pass a certain threshold of foreign language ability, they will read well in the foreign language. For languages with similar orthographies like English and Spanish, learners' language learning can be facilitated by their original good language skills.

Reading Comprehension Strategies

Strategies are the intentional attempts learners employed to achieve a certain goal (Gambrell, 1996). Learners make use of strategies consciously or unconsciously when they learn a language or use a language. People employ specific strategies to solve a given problem (Brown, 2007). Reading strategies are deliberate, planned activities undertaken by active readers to remedy cognitive failures (Garner, 1987). They are chosen actions which activate effective reading at any level of reading process.

Strategies vary considerably within each individual according to the situation, the nature of reading text and the reader's purposes (Wallace, 1992). Effective comprehension strategies mean consciously monitor reading process through self-questioning, inferring and evaluating to figure out the main ideas and purposes of reading texts. Strategies are chosen to facilitate and evaluate comprehension. There are no step-by-step strategies to follow when people approach a reading text. Strategies could be manipulated flexibly as long as they can help readers reach better comprehension.

Categories of Reading Strategies

Some researchers divided reading strategies into macro strategies and micro strategies (Cole, 2006; Gallini, 1993). Effective readers are believed to use both of the strategies. Macro level strategies are those related with texts and among texts, while micro level strategies deal with unrecognized words readers see in a text.

Another theory explored reading from cognitive psychology's point of view. It claimed that reading strategies include cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Flavel

(1979) advocated that metacognition includes two aspects: knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition. Knowledge of cognition consists of knowledge of person, knowledge of task and knowledge of strategies, which are interchangeably used with declarative knowledge (knowing what), procedural knowledge (knowing how) and conditional knowledge (knowing why). Regulation of cognition refers to planning, monitoring, testing, revising and evaluating the strategies employed by the reader during reading (Paris, Cross, & Lipson, 1984; Carrell, 1998). Compared to metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies are more like direct manipulation on reading material itself (Fisher & Frey, 2007).

Bouvet (2002) claimed that reading strategies can be put into technical-aid moves, clarification and simplification moves, coherence-detecting moves and monitoring moves. Cohen (1990) classified strategies into support strategies, paraphrase strategies, strategies to supervising and strategies for establishing coherence in text.

Two early models of information processing called bottom-up (or text-driven) and top-down (or knowledge-based, conceptually driven). Bottom-up is perceived as low-level process emphasizing identifying words and constructing meaning at the word or phrase level. Top-down explains meaning at the text-level and activates schemata to support comprehension (Carrell, 1983). From 1990, reading comprehension has been perceived as a complex interaction among the reader, text, setting, background knowledge and the reader's decision making. A reading model called interaction emerged, which indicates that reading strategies come back and forth between bottom-up and top-down, depending on different learners and variables in the context (Cohen & Macaro, 2007).

Goodman (2003) continued Pearson's research (1991) which mentioned seven critical reading strategies: activating prior knowledge, deciding which is important in the text, integrating information in the text, inferring during and after reading, reflecting on

readers own comprehension, correcting misunderstanding and self-questioning.

Goodman added two strategies, building up vocabulary and cultivating fluency, to complete the comprehension strategies.

A highly addressed strategy system is Oxford's study (1990). Oxford classified strategies into six categories: affective, social, metacognitive, general cognitive, memory-related and compensatory strategies. Grabe (1991) pointed out that readers' knowledge of cognition and the ability to monitor their comprehending processes can help them adjust the strategies they use and achieve successful reading.

In this study, the researcher revised a strategy questionnaire developed by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) and used it to examine readers' strategy manipulation. Two other questionnaires were also referred to. A more detailed description is in chapter three. The reasons why the researcher adopted these questionnaires are the simplicity and the clear categorization characteristics of them. It should be easier for a young reader to understand the meaning of each strategy. Three subcategories of strategies are included in the questionnaire. They are global strategies, problem-solving strategies and support strategies.

English Proficiency and Reading Strategies

Previous studies showed that learners at different proficiency levels use different strategies, and the strategies used by learners at early stages of a foreign language development may be different from those used by more proficient learners (Green & Oxford, 1995; Hsiao & Oxford, 2002; Vann & Abraham, 1990). One of the earliest studies investigating the relationship between strategy use and proficiency revealed that three strategies, practicing, inferring and monitoring strategies are responsible for high school students' achievement in reading, listening and grammar tests (Bialystok & Fröhlich, 1978). Another research revealed that students' use of metacognitive strategy was significantly correlated with their TOEFL scores (Nisbet et al., 2005); however, data

revealed from other research showed the relationship between language proficiency and strategy use was not clear (Oxford, 1996).

Wurr (2003) found that good readers tend to use more contextual clues to comprehend difficult parts in texts. They are more tolerant of ambiguity and they focus on meaning-making instead of decoding or translating separate words or sentences. Successful readers are able to contextualize and operate strategies, so they know how to apply and orchestrate strategies successfully (Carrell, 1998). Skilled readers reflect on how they plan, monitor, evaluate and make use of information available to them when they read. Those efficient readers are depicted as strategic or constructively responsive readers by Pressley and Afflerbach (1995).

Good readers are said to use more strategies than poor readers; furthermore, better self-regulated reading behaviors are much easier to be observed in good readers. This ability to self-regulate one's own learning has a direct effect on deep-level processing (Finkbeiner, 2006). Successful learners are said to be more capable of using elaboration strategies to strengthen their deep-level processing ability. Elaboration strategies are methods of engaging learners in creating stronger connections with the reading texts and thus the information learned would go to long-term memory for deep understanding. Successful readers use so-called *main meaning strategies* in reading. For instance, they read and translate in broad phrases, they skip unknown words and infer meaning from context, and they seldom look up words in dictionary. In contrast to good readers' strategy use, poor readers tend to view all words as equal when accessing the contribution of words to the total phrase meaning and they forget the meaning of sentences once the sentences are decoded (Brantmeier, 2002; Cohen & Macaro, 2007).

Several studies found that proficient readers tend to employ more top-down or context-related strategies like making inferences and relating what they read to prior knowledge. Poor readers, on the other hand, tend to use more bottom-up or

lexical-related strategies such as translating words into first language and looking up unknown words in a dictionary (Lai, 2013; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Sadoski, 1999). The results from those studies found that limited vocabulary knowledge is the most common reading problem detected among college students. Hirsch (2003) also claimed that vocabulary knowledge is important for becoming good readers.

Proficient readers know and use a diversity of strategies when they read, and they interpret and integrate what they read across the text. Furthermore, good readers tend to have a positive self-concept. On the contrary, poor readers had negative self-concept. Skilled readers interact with the texts during the reading process. They adjust the strategies when confronting a reading problem and use appropriate strategies to meet the demands of reading. In other words, good readers are flexible and always ready to change (Carrell, 2000). Grabe (1991) indicated that no particular set of strategies were found to account for successful reading. Generally, successful readers were better at monitoring the success of strategies, which is a kind of metacognitive strategy. It is worth noting that if readers apply incorrect strategies or use strategies inappropriately in interpreting reading texts, their comprehension will be adversely affected (Singhal, 2001)

Age and Reading Strategies

Age plays an important role in children's learning. Learners at an early age depend more on teachers' or parents' assistance concerning the selection of reading materials. As children grow old, the influences from peers increase. Previous research indicated that as readers mature over time, their awareness and use of reading strategies improve (Garner, 1987). Mature readers are more able to recognize the errors they make during reading and to adopt proper strategies to enhance comprehension (Paris & Myers, 1981). Older readers were found to use more strategies than young readers, and strategies used by the two groups (young and older) were found to be different (Pawlak, 2011).

Some researchers discovered that sixth graders, specifically, are more sensitive to text structures and factors which influence their reading than second graders. Moreover, sixth graders tend to have a clear purpose on mind when they read (Paris & Myers, 1981). Similar studies were also conducted and found that children move from basic awareness to actual use of reading strategies throughout grades 3, 4, and 5 (Cross & Paris, 1988). Younger students may have awareness of a certain reading strategy and know how to describe it, but this does not mean that they know how to actually use it (Garofalo & Lester, 1985). Comparatively, strategy monitoring of young learners was reported to be inferior to that of older learners. In another word, it is more difficult for younger learners to use metacognitive strategies in reading, and thus affect their comprehension performance.

A previous research indicated that children from 11 to 14 learn strategies more effectively than other children (Shieh, 2002); yet, higher level language functions such as semantic relations and strategy manipulation were reported to be better developed at a later age (Brown, 2007). A surprising gap was found between strategies young readers claim used and those they actually perform during reading (Brown, 1978). But the gap may narrow as readers reach adulthood (Gambrell & Heathington, 1981). Older and fluent readers tend to be more able to adjust strategies like slowing down or rereading to clarify the incompatible parts in texts which cause confusion (Davis, 1995).

Evidence showed that older and more experienced readers employ more and complex strategies to enhance their comprehension (Gertz, 1994). It seems that when a learner enjoys reading, he/she is more willing to adopt various strategies to overcome comprehension difficulties during the reading process. One evident characteristic of young learners is short attention span. Usually, young learners lose interests quickly if they feel the reading materials are boring or useless. A solution to this problem is to integrate a variety of activities into strategy learning and put strategy practice to real life

contexts (Brown, 2007).

According to Chall (1996), reading ability of children between eleven to thirteen years old has developed from learning to read to reading to learn. In this transitional stage, learners' reading skills move from word decoding and recognition to higher level of reading comprehension skills such as summarizing and inferring (Cohen & Macaro, 2007).

Younger learners were reported to use more social strategies than older learners. Older learners tend to use more cognitively complex strategies than young learners (Victori & Tragant, 2003). Evidence from previous studies suggested that contextual difference might influence the relationship between age and strategy use (Cohen & Macaro, 2007). In contrast with adult learners, children's spontaneous and peripheral attention to language forms is one of the factors which lead to their success in acquiring a second or foreign language. Although younger or beginning readers are less competent at recognizing incomplete information (which brings about breakdowns in comprehension), their ability to pick up the cues and construct meaning in a text would advance with time and experience (Davis, 1995). Older readers are perceived to be more adept at adjusting strategies and their ability of sensing how and when to use what strategies can be enhanced by training and repeated practice. Upper primary years are considered a proper time when students make considerable gains in comprehension. Thus, this is a good time to teach children comprehension monitoring strategy (Clark, 2012).

Gender and Reading Strategies

In a study conducted by Chiu and McBride-Chang (2006), girls were found to enjoy reading far more than boys. Their study also showed that reading texts which interest both genders are quite different as well. Higher motivation in reading was reported among female students. However, there was no significant difference revealed on both

genders' reading skills. Males liked to be labeled as "masculine," as comics and humorous books were their favorites. In both genders, large number of students felt embarrassed when reading aloud. A national survey carried out in the US in 2000 revealed that girls in sixth grade read two times as many books as boys.

Researchers have conducted many studies on the role of gender in learners strategy use from late twentieth century. However, studies on the gender issue reported remarkably different results among males' and females' strategy use. For example, boys were reported to use fewer strategies than girls based on the data from questionnaires and think-aloud technique (Wu, 2006). Female students were found to use more social/communicative/interactional strategies than male students (Cohen & Macaro, 2007). Ehrman, Nyikos and Oxford (1988) attributed this finding to women's better verbal ability and higher willingness to accept existing norms. Furthermore, women were more inclined to crave for social approval.

A previous study conducted in a university in Thailand showed that female and male students performed equally on reading comprehension and use of cognitive reading strategies, but male students were found to use more metacognitive reading strategies than females. No significant gender difference was reported among students with same level of language ability (Phakiti, 2003). Another finding in a previous study indicated that both mature and female learners tended to use a variety of cognitive strategies more often (Padrón, 1992; Palinscar & Brown, 1984). Boys were reported to be more selective, whilst girls appeared to be less picky and tended to read various types of texts. The discrepancy on the strategy use of males and females might be attributed to the effect of specific cultural contexts of learning (Radwan, 2011).

Reading Texts and Comprehension

People receive a large quantity of information every day through various platforms, advertising brochures, newspapers, magazines, and social networks like face book,

twitter or blogs. However, this huge intake of reading is not definitely equal to good reading ability. Teachers should help students learn how to use text structures to enhance learning skills (Brown, Campione, & Day, 1981). EFL students need to make extra efforts in comprehending reading texts, as average readers lack enough background knowledge. Some researchers indicated that to reach a meaningful interpretation of a text, reading process might go either top-down or bottom-up, to achieve real comprehension. The two models need to be interactively manipulated (Soto & Delgado, 2003).

Reading texts in a foreign language classroom serve two purposes: deferred purpose and immediate purpose. The former means the language learned at present will be used some time in the future. Readers with deferred purpose in mind learn the language system and skills. The latter means the language which is being learned will meet learners' immediate needs. When reading with immediate purpose, readers need to look for information in particular texts to solve urgent problems or to obtain ideas in the texts to meet their immediate needs (Johns & Davies, 1983). Efficient readers have the ability to relate the textual material to their own knowledge.

Written materials are supposed to teach the language or teach reading. Furthermore, materials should contain the function of informing, instructing and entertaining readers (Wallace, 1992). To retain learners' delights in reading, especially young readers, it is important to provide them with a wide variety of reading materials to meet their different needs. Besides, allowing them to choose what they are interested to read is important as well. A previous study which investigated how publishers grade books found that readers tend to choose books for pleasure reading; but teachers are more concerned about if they can teach vocabulary and grammar through graded books to enhance readers' linguistic ability (Claridge, 2012). From the reader's point of view, the difficulty level of language used in the reading texts should be i-1 to ensure fluent reading; from

the teacher's point of view, the difficulty level should be $i+1$ to help learners' ability be improved.

Language in reading texts need to be context embedded. For instance, real-life conversation, story lines, familiar situations and characters which have meaningful purposes, all these will build up a context within which language can be received and sent (Brown, 2007).

Wallace (1992) believed that reading is a dynamic process as the emphasis is placed more on readers' progression through a text rather than the text itself. The process view of reading investigated how readers interpret the text according to their purpose of reading, schemata and language proficiency. Texts refer to the text features of reading materials. The arrangement of ideas in the text, the author's intention, syntax, familiarity with the content and vocabulary are all factors which affect readers' comprehension (Freebody & Anderson, 1983).

Reading texts can be discussed on a number of variables: text types, length, readability, range of vocabulary, grammar, forms and topics depending on the content validity of the texts to be representative for learners to read successfully (Hughes, 1989). When a text is produced, the underlying meaning of the text will be interpreted differently according to readers' purpose and social context. Besides, cognitive, affective and psychological factors all influence the interpretation of texts. Ambiguous words or confusions within the text affect cognitive processing. With or without readers' awareness, text structures also influence learning.

Strategies that ensure readers' deep processing of texts, enable readers to organize knowledge in storage, and finally use them in a meaningful way are believed to be positively related to reading achievement (Padrón, 1992). Successful readers not only can identify which strategy to use for different types of reading texts, but also can employ strategies that work for them. To ensure better conscious control of strategy use,

one requirement readers need to remember is the knowledge of the effect of text structure (Davis, 1995).

Muth (1987) indicated that the strategy of reading with the help of text structures is used most often in expository texts like content-based textbooks. She designed three strategies to raise students' awareness towards text structures and helped students read and comprehend reading texts. These strategies include hierarchical summaries, conceptual maps, and thematic organizers. For young learners, a more challenging type of reading is poems as readers need to explore the implicit meaning of the abbreviated and condensed language in a poem (Silberteint, 1993).

The content of reading texts should be interesting and closely relate to life experience of readers. This is because rich semantic input can compensate for the lack of syntactic knowledge. The second/foreign language acquisition could be much easier and more effective if reading texts are enticing. Evidence in previous study indicated that learners tend to read faster and remember better if the reading materials interest them (Gambrell & Heathington, 1981).

If the content is highly specialized like economics or law-related studies, a lack of this specific knowledge might cause poor comprehension for some readers (Soto & Delgado, 2003). Since all texts contain other texts, readers cannot interpret without referring to related texts (Wallace, 1992).

Authentic texts are generally assumed to be more interesting than those written for pedagogical purposes. The interest and background knowledge will enable the reader to comprehend at a proper rate and keep him/her involved in the text regardless of its syntactic difficulty (Coady, 1979). Therefore, providing good written texts as models for readers to imitate is another advantage learners can benefit from good reading materials (Harmer, 2008). Besides writing, reading texts can be exercised to the greatest by integrating class/group discussions and oral presentation into the reading activities as

well (Harmer, 2008; Wallace, 1992).

Texts with an appropriate level of challenge may offer students opportunities to experience a certain degree of success (Silberstein, 1993). Krashen (1982) proposed that language learners should be provided with language inputs which are one level advanced than their current level. One way to evaluate text difficulty is to check if there are a certain number of unknown words in the texts, but this way of evaluation remains problematic. Some people misconceive that as long as they know a large amount of words, they would become reading experts. The fact is that people learn new words largely through extensive and constant reading. People do not learn words in isolation and then become professionals overnight (Carrell, 1998; Wallace, 1993).

Another way to gauge text difficulty is to take length of words and sentences as criteria. The longer of the average length, the harder a text will be. However, one of the drawbacks about this text evaluation is that it neglects factors as reduced clauses and culture-bound usage, which comparably create more difficulty for children's reading. In such cases, teachers have the responsibility to choose quality, appropriate, and interesting reading materials for students.

Children were found to be more attracted by story type of reading. Stories with beautiful illustrations seem even more tempting to children (Mohr, 2006). However, in today's world, young learners are expected to have the ability to read different types of texts. The importance of reading nonfiction type of texts is getting more attention. Language teachers need to know readers' expectations and background knowledge and help readers relate language clues to their prior experience. Furthermore, teachers should enrich students' vocabularies, especially in their desired working fields, and help students familiarize themselves with the conventions of writing (Silberstein, 1993).

Online resources are good reading materials as well (Tunnell, Jacobs, Young, & Bryan, 2008). In this technology age, people are becoming more and more dependent on

computers, smart phones, tablets, and the like. Huge information is accessible by a click on the keyboard or a touch on the screen. The visual and verbal effects embedded in multimedia learning resources were reported to have positive effects on children's reading comprehension (Chun & Plass, 1996), though adverse effects also come along. Students get distracted much easier than before when the enticing animation combined with fascinating sound effects keeps popping up in front of them. As a result, students' deep reading that used to come naturally has become a struggle (Jacobs, 2011). However, online reading has inevitably become a part of this generation, so reading strategies which assist in obtaining key information efficiently must be adopted and developed (Coiro & Dobler, 2007).

Cooperative, Collaborative & Peer Assisted Learning

Children tend to use a lot of cognitive and affective strategies to internalize first and second language in a subconscious way. Early adolescent students are developing cognitive abilities as well as a desire to make decision and have more control of their learning. However, young learners' short attention span and naturalness seem to limit the effectiveness of classroom instruction (Brown, 2007). Mismatch between students' needs and school's curriculum might cause students' withdraw from learning. Involving peers in learning activities has positive influence on both students' attitudes toward school and their behavior in school (Stevens & Slavin, 1995). Stevens (2003) suggested that meaningful learning activities, appropriate learning materials and learning environment influence the intensity of motivation.

Cooperative learning has been studied for several decades and has been proved to be beneficial to students' learning. Five essential elements are needed for cooperative work: positive interdependence, individual accountability, face-to-face interaction, social skills and group processing (Johnson & Johnson, 2000). Cooperative learning gives students a reason to talk and makes learning processes more active as students

discuss tasks with one another (Stevens, 2003).

A form of cooperative learning called Jigsaw was found to be able to develop learners' metacognitive awareness. When learning in Jigsaw, each learner of a group is assigned a part of an article. They find the others who get the same part and form an expert group. After discussion, each member in the expert groups goes back to the original group and teaches the other group members their shared part of the article. Jigsaw cooperative learning places emphasis on learner-centered, teacher-facilitated and interdependent communication (Meng, 2010). Some poor readers trained in small groups with metacognitive reading strategies significantly improved their performances associated with decoding, reading comprehension, and cognitive processing (Johnson-Glenberg, 2005). Different discussion opportunities are provided to students according to how they are grouped. For example, several people work together or work in pairs, and then teachers adjust the way they lead the discussion accordingly (Prado-Olmos, 1993).

Bejarano (1987) introduced another form of cooperative learning called Student Teams and Achievement Divisions (STAD), which is a peer-tutoring technique aiming to raise students' motivation of learning by organizing small heterogeneous groups in the class, assigning group work on a worksheet, computing each team's score and rewarding the winning team. Each student has an equal opportunity to contribute to the team achievement.

Discussion Group (DG) technique is also a method used in cooperative learning. It is carried out as follows: Students choose a topic of interest and form groups based on the interests. Then they examine learning task and plan how to carry it out. Finally they evaluate the overall group products and report to the class.

Slavin (1996) defined four theoretical perspectives on cooperative learning and achievement. They include: motivational perspective, which presumes all learning

process is driven by motivation. Group goal and reward are the most emphasized. Cognitive perspective indicates that students' achievement will be increased through group members' interaction on mental processing of information. Social cohesion perspective supports the belief that the effects of cooperative learning on achievement are mediated by the cohesiveness of the group. Group members help each other to succeed because they care about the group and identify with the group. Developmental perspective is developed on Vygotsky's scaffolding theory (1978), which claimed that cooperative activities among children promote growth because children are likely to operate within one another's proximal zones of development. This interaction between children increases their mastery of critical concepts (Slavin, 2010).

In essence, cooperative learning requires students to work in small groups to help each other learn. Each member of a group takes on a shared responsibility and works together to achieve the group's ultimate goal (Johnson & Johnson, 2000). Consequently, students' achievement will increase if group goal and individual accountability are integrated in cooperative learning (Slavin, Chamberlain, Daniels, & Madden, 2009).

People sometimes use collaborative learning and cooperative learning interchangeably, but there is a slight difference between them. A broad definition of collaborative learning is that it is a situation in which two or more persons learn something together. In this situation, an interaction among them is expected to occur. The probability of making the interaction occur could be increased by setting up initial conditions and regulations, encompassing interaction rules and enhancing the teacher's monitoring (Dillenbourg, 1999).

In cooperative learning, students split a task. After completing individual sub-tasks, students combine the partial results to make a final output. In contrast, collaborative learning encourages students to do the work together. Team collaboration is expected to induce more metacognitive thinking, higher self-esteem, better learning and positive

attitudes. However, sometimes capable members might take on more responsibility than others and thus 'free rider' effect is likely to occur (Salomon & Globerson, 1989).

Collaborative learning has been integrated with technology and been applied in various areas of research for several years. The increasing popularity of the Internet related software brings spatially distributed people together to work on problem-solving joint activities (Stahl, Koschmann, & Suthers 2006). In team projects, people intellectually explore and socially interact with one another in small groups. The number of group members should be big enough to involve diverse opinions to reach a convincing result but not be too big to make discussion go astray (Rummel & Sapda, 2005). To ensure effective collaboration, a few things are important: time management, labors allocation, and the balance between individual and joint work. In addition, establishing and sustaining mutual understanding among group members should also be considered.

Peer assisted learning (PAL) can be defined as people of similar social groupings acquire knowledge and skills through active helping and supporting each other. Some researchers believed PAL possesses features which comply with the principles of effective instruction. PAL's structured, one-to-one interaction between partners "offers social support and encouragement, increases students' academic engaged time, facilitates immediate corrective feedback, and permits frequent opportunities to respond (Fuchs, Fuchs, Mathes, & Simmons, 1997, p. 202)." Peer tutoring (PT) is a kind of peer assisted learning. It is an effective learning strategy which promotes students' academic achievements and enhances their social skills. PT improves interaction among students and creates positive atmosphere in the classroom. PT also increases students' engagement in learning tasks and maintains students' attention to the reading texts for longer periods of time (Smith, 2013). Reciprocal peer tutoring (RPT) allows students to take turns playing the roles of tutor and tutee. When students learn with more

knowledgeable peers, they expand visions and gradually they will become knowledgeable too.

In this research, reading with peers was more like a form of collaboration. Students were not teamed up intentionally and the participant was not required to teach others. The focus was placed on the participant's strategy use in peer reading situations, not on how to grade each member in a team or how to evaluate each person's contribution to the team. So students were sometimes grouped heterogeneously and sometimes homogeneously.

Reading Strategies Instruction

Previous research indicated that learners are more likely to learn what they are taught than what they are not taught (Allington, 1983). Many researchers suggested that language learners can be trained to use specific strategies to improve their language performance (O'malley, Chamot, Stewner, Russo, & Küpper, 1985). Students' awareness of their own reading comprehension process could be enhanced through systematic, direct instruction (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002). Dreyer and Nel (2003) found that both good and at-risk students obtained higher comprehension scores after an experiment on development of strategy use with the aid of study instruction.

From the cognitive psychological point of view, people achieve reading comprehension through a complicated process of manipulating reading strategies (Dillenbourg, 1999). According to the results of Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) in 2006, children demonstrated much better in direct comprehension than in explanatory comprehension. In other words, children may know the meaning at words level, but they may not understand the implications, as they may have trouble reading between the lines. To help children read more efficiently, Shieh (2002) stated that reading strategies must be taught intentionally. Strategy learning has been included in many Chinese text books for a long time, but the English ability

indicators in the 9 year-academic-curriculum (2003) did not include reading strategies learning (see Appendix H).

Having general awareness of reading strategies does not mean learners can actually put strategies into use (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). Cubukcu (2008) found that explicitly teaching students about metacognition may assist students in various reading tasks. Teachers often refer to successful readers' strategy use when they design reading strategy instruction.

Baker and Brown (1984) suggested that strategy training should include (a) skills training in using specific strategies, (b) training about the usefulness and significance of those strategies, and (c) self-regulating the use of strategies. When strategies are appropriately modeled to students and opportunities of practice are sufficiently provided, students' comprehension usually will improve (Padrón, 1992; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998).

Teachers' instruction is an important source of input which offers meaningful communication among the reader, the reading text and the writer in an appropriate context (Brown, 2007). Earlier studies suggested that strategy instruction positively affects learners' reading comprehension (Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Williams, 2002). Students need to know how to learn. One of the most important goals of language teaching should be facilitating learners' autonomy. An instruction approach called strategies-based instruction (SBI) was first addressed by Cohen (1998) and McDonough (1999). It basically means teaching learners how to learn. Learning strategies were believed to be an important factor which helps learners to achieving the final goal of becoming autonomous learners (Wenden, 1998).

Auerbach and Paxton (1997) claimed that students' conceptions, awareness, feelings, and strategies in English learning were positively affected by instructor's attempt to bring metacognition into language reading class. With a fair degree of

guidance and modeling, readers can develop different reading comprehension skills; furthermore, providing readers opportunities to discuss and practice applying the strategies, readers would have a better chance of becoming critical readers. Teachers are entrusted with the responsibility to encourage students not to be afraid of making mistakes and to take risks. Students need to set goals for a particular reading and choose appropriate strategies to achieve comprehension (Silberstein, 1993). Paris and Winograd (1990) maintained that the consciousness-raising instruction can transfer the responsibility of monitoring learning from teachers to students and thus foster students' independent learning (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002).

Explicit reading instruction is not about teaching students to guess the answers to a formal exercise after reading a text (Lueg & Lueg, 2014). It is about increasing students' awareness about their own learning (Schmidt, 2010). A higher level of awareness leads to better learning outcome. To ensure success in reading comprehension, learners need not only the knowledge and the awareness of reading strategies, but also the ability to regulate the strategies. It is worth noting that teachers' conceptualization of which strategies would be most effective on improving students' comprehension will decide what strategies to be taught (Cohen & Macaro, 2007). Reading strategies can be developed to compensate for insufficient reading ability (Wallace, 1992).

Strategy instruction should satisfy students' needs and students need to be taught on how to use metacognitive strategies to improve comprehension (Cohen & Macaro, 2007). Explicit explanation, teacher modeling and students' self-regulated strategy use should be taken into consideration when teachers implement the strategy instruction (Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Cohen, 1998; Fisher & Frey, 2002; Graham, 1997; Oxford, 1990). Previous research supported that readers can be taught to develop both self-awareness and control of learning (Davis, 1995). Awareness of metacognitive skills can be developed through instruction. One important factor to differentiate successful and

unsuccessful strategy training is if metacognition is included (Carrell, 1998). Teachers can help students learn from reading and encourage students to take an active role in reading. The goal is to develop active, independent learners. Integrating metacognitive skills into classroom instruction can make that goal attainable.

Winograd and Hare (1988) suggested that a careful and complete explanation by an instructor needs to have five elements. First, teachers should describe and define the features of each strategy; second, teachers should explain why a strategy should be learned; third, teachers should explain and demonstrate how to use various strategies; fourth, teachers should advise students on when and where the strategies can be used; fifth, teachers should instruct students to evaluate if strategies are successfully employed and give them suggestions on how to resolve remaining problems. Carrell (1998) agreed that the above five elements precisely reflect Flavell's (1979) definition about metacognition. Although the strategy instruction in this research adopted the instruction model presented by Baker and Brown (1984), it carries the same meaning as Winograd and Hare's opinions about instruction.



CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this research was to probe into a student's reading strategy use towards different types/topics of reading texts in both peer reading situations and in individual reading situations after the strategy instruction. To obtain in-depth results, a case study was adopted for this research---to investigate how a student or phenomenon functions in a context over a period of time (Nunan, 1992). Eight sections comprise this chapter, including the criteria used to choose the participant, the participant's background, the research context, the data collection methods, the reading materials used in this study, the strategies students learned during the instruction, the data collection procedure and the data analysis.

Criteria of Selecting the Participant

After observing the interaction among the students in the researcher's fifth grade classroom for several months, the researcher had a general understanding about the students' background, strengths and weaknesses, and their difficulties in learning English. A participant, Joel (a pseudonym), was selected based on the following criteria. First, he always showed great motivation on learning English and had positive attitude toward learning the foreign language and its culture (see Appendix E). Therefore, he was usually the first one volunteering to explain meanings of a reading passage when the other students were still at loss. Second, Joel did not spend much time on reading English and he did not work as hard as the other students; however, he greatly outscored his peers on many academic tests. Third, his good English ability made him qualified to be the participant of this research because most of the other students had difficulty reading a text with more than 100 words.

The Participant

Before entering kindergarten, Joel hardly read any English books except the word cards his mother bought for him. Those cards had Chinese on one side and English on the other. At around four years old, Joel went to a kindergarten where English was the only language spoken. Joel learned with English teachers during the three years of kindergarten. He perceived learning English as an enjoyable activity. He had a very positive attitude towards the language and its culture.

After Joel graduated from kindergarten, he kept learning English at a private English cram school two times a week after formal school hours, about two hours of learning each time. The learning at cram school was academic-oriented. Joel knew very well about the purpose of learning English and the benefits of learning a foreign language. He has a very supportive family. His parents run a trading company and English is the main language they use to communicate with customers in everyday business. Sometimes, Joel's father gave him business letters and let him practice translating. His parents' encouragement and love created a positive atmosphere in the family and helped develop Joel's reading literacy at an early age.

Joel's English academic records at school were 100 in first grade and 97 in grades two through six. Joel passed the "Movers" level of Cambridge Young Learners English Tests (YLE) and got the certificate in 2012 when he was in the fifth grade. One year later, he reached the advanced level and received a "Flyers" certificate. He passed an examination which qualified him for becoming a member of his dreamed junior high school's English gifted class. When this research started, Joel already knew all the 300 vocabulary required for an elementary graduate. He was able to pronounce those words without problems.

Joel always paid close attention to the teacher's instruction and was very active in class activities. His great confidence and positive learning attitude were revealed in an

interview. He said,

“Learning English is so much fun! English is never a problem for me. I’m the youngest student in the class of my cram school and that makes me feel proud of myself.”
(June, 2013)

As Joel's English teacher and class teacher, I was able to closely observe his behavior on academic learning and social interaction with classmates. He is optimistic, energetic and easy going. Because of this pleasant personality, he got along very well with classmates. However, he got distracted easily at things happened on the playground outside. Joel was not afraid of losing face and did not feel embarrassed when the teacher corrected his mistakes.

Before the reading strategy instruction began, the researcher noticed that Joel already used some strategies on both Chinese reading and English reading, such as predicting meaning from book titles and guessing unfamiliar words from context. Joel seemed to learn best visually, but he did not depend too much on visual aids to reach comprehension. The researcher noticed that when Joel was eager to express his opinions, he would stutter. In addition, he used some words repeatedly in his spoken English, which revealed that his speaking ability was not as good as his reading ability.

Upon seeing his outstanding performance in English, people tended to think that Joel must have read lots of English books. Surprisingly, except the reading homework assigned by teachers, he did not spend extra time reading English.

The Context

The research was conducted in the researcher's class, which consisted of twenty-eight students, sixteen boys and twelve girls. High achievers, medium achievers and low achievers were equally allocated to this class according to their academic performance in the previous year. This is a public elementary school in Taipei. All students started learning English from the first grade. Some even started earlier from

kindergarten. Students received English instruction two sessions per week in grade one and grade two, three sessions per week from grade three to grade six. According to the reading Competence Indicators of Grade 1-9 Integrated Curriculum announced by MOE, elementary students are expected to acquire the ability to read sentences in the textbooks and understand simple stories and dramas, as well as the ability to guess or infer the meaning of a book's content from its cover, title or illustrations.

Extra readings are highly recommended to be integrated in the English program, but teachers have the freedom to decide how much extra reading to be included in class. The MOE has a certain budget for school libraries to purchase books. Several organizations also provide supplementary reading materials for school teachers to use.

The reading strategy instruction was carried out in two sessions of language class per week for about six months. One session is English class and the other session is alternative language learning. As for the participant's individual reading, recess time between classes was usually the option. To remove the test-taking pressure from the participant, there was no time limit for the individual reading. It was impossible to ask the participant to stay after school because he had very busy schedule and teachers are recommended not to keep students in the campus after school.

Data Collection Methods

To get a thorough record about the participant's use of reading strategy, the data collection methods included teacher's notes and observations, one-on-one semi-structured interviews, and student's self-report questionnaires. Think-alouds, comprehension tests and standardized tests were used as supplements.

The data collection methods are elaborated as follows.

Semi-structured Interviews

Interview is a useful tool to collect unknown information on a specific subject. It is also considered one of the major sources of case study information (Wu, 2012).

Semi-structured interview allows “interviewees a certain degree of power and control while the interviewer has a great deal of flexibility and a privileged access to other people’s lives” (Nunan, 1992, p. 150). Compared with speaking, reading is more of a receptive activity. What really goes inside a reader’s head can be invisible and unobservable; therefore, interviews served as ways to elicit the participant’s thinking and to help him reflect on his own reading process.

The interview questions in this research were designed based on the principle that they should be able to generate information which could contribute to the research questions (see Appendix F). The questions were double checked by another experienced elementary school English teacher.

In order to achieve an in-depth understanding about the participant’s strategy use, a total of thirteen one-on-one interviews were conducted. Each interview took about five minutes. The first one was conducted right after the reading strategy instruction to get the participant's background information. The questions included his English learning experience, his and his family's attitudes toward English learning, the methods he used to overcome reading problems and his preferences on different types of reading texts.

Interviews two to thirteen were conducted after each reading practice and questions in these interviews were similar. First, the researcher checked the participant’s comprehension by asking him the meaning of a reading text. Second, the participant was examined on what strategies he employed to solve reading problems and how he used the specific strategy. Third, the participant was encouraged to evaluate his strategy manipulation. Since the participant was very young, this process was guided with concrete questions in Chinese to avoid ambiguity. In the last interview, the participant was asked how differently he used strategies when he read different kinds of texts. His opinions on reading with peers and reading individually were investigated as well. The researcher also consulted the participant’s mother about her son’s English learning at

home. By doing this, the researcher wished to obtain a complete understanding of the participant's reading experience. All of the interviews were taped-recorded and partly transcribed for later analysis.

The Researcher's Observations & Field Notes

Observation is an ongoing process that is continually moving and evolving. One reason to use observational method is it informs the influences of the physical environment (Mulhall, 2003). Chang (2014) indicated that observing students' interaction and the activities in a classroom can help the teacher assess students' learning.

The researcher paid close attention to the participant's every subtle reaction to the reading texts. How his eyes moved across the sentences usually revealed if he employed rereading strategy or adjusting speed strategy. What questions he asked during the reading and how he interacted with classmates often indicated how much he comprehended and what his problem was. The researcher tried to record all possible evidence to avoid missing any important information. With instant questioning, the researcher was able to confirm what she observed and collect more precise data.

Some researchers explained field notes in ethnography as accounts describing bits and pieces of incidents the researcher observes while participating in an intense and involved manner (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995). Blackstone (2012) reminded researchers to note as much as he/she observed in the field because something might seem unimportant at the time, but it might turn out to be crucial evidence in later analysis.

To avoid any lapse of memory, the researcher kept a notebook at hand and took down everything related to the participant's use of reading strategies she observed. In order to obtain unbiased results, the researcher constantly reminded herself to keep an

objective attitude and not to concentrate only on positive outcome.

Think-alouds & Self-report Questionnaires

Think-aloud protocol is a version of a verbal report in which readers state their thoughts and behaviors. This technique is supposed to identify the detailed reading process of the reader, as it makes reading process audible and visible (Wilhelm, 2001).

Besides observations and interviews, the researcher initially planned to use the participant's think-aloud as another major source of data; but probably due to a lack of training or the participant's limited linguistic and verbal ability, the think-aloud turned out to be like sentence by sentence translation labor. Therefore, it was just used occasionally as a supplement. In order to make up for the loss, more emphasis was placed on interviews and observations. Moreover, a retrospective questionnaire which allows the participant to check his strategy use on written paper was adopted.

Self-report questionnaires were commonly used to investigate learners' strategy use (Cohen, 1998; Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford, 1996). The strategy questionnaire used in this research was revised from three questionnaires. The first one was Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) designed by Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001), aiming to measure ESL/EFL students' awareness of reading strategies. The second one was Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARS), which was originally designed to measure native speakers' awareness of reading strategies while reading academic or school-related materials. The third one was a questionnaire designed by Chen (2004), which was used to investigate local students' use of reading strategy.

Strategies were grouped into three categories: Global strategies, problem-solving strategies and support strategies. Readers use global strategies to analyze texts in a global manner. Problem-solving strategies are used to solve reading problems when texts become difficult to comprehend. Support strategies mean using outside reference materials to help understand texts (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002; Yau, 2009). The

participant was not told which strategy belongs to which category. A complete reading strategy questionnaire can be found in Appendix D.

Thirteen questionnaires were carried out in the entire research. The first one was done at the beginning of the study to check students' initial awareness and knowledge about reading strategies. Each of the other twelve questionnaires was conducted right after each reading class. The researcher took off one global strategy from the original questionnaire because it seems too complicated for a young learner. A redundant problem-solving strategy was deleted and a support strategy which was more like dealing with the problem in the text itself than using outer resources was moved to problem-solving category. The number displayed in each square of the questionnaire represents how often the participant reported using the strategy. Zero means "never used"; one is "rarely used"; two means "sometimes used"; and three means "used very often." All strategy items were presented to the participant in Chinese to avoid possible misunderstanding.

Comprehension Test & Proficiency Test

A comprehension test used before and after the research was treated as a reference to see if the participant made progress during this period. Six short reading passages were included. Attached at the end of each reading are a couple of questions to assess students' comprehension (see Appendix C). The comprehension test was examined by another experienced English teacher.

The participant's English proficiency was assessed by YLE, which is an internationally recognized standardized test developed by Cambridge English Language Assessment. The scoring system of the test is stated on the certificate as, "For each shield, a candidate is awarded between 1 and 5 shields. If a candidate gets 1 shield, it means they need to improve a lot in this skill. If they get 3 shields, it means they answer many of the questions correctly, but can still improve. If a candidate gets 5 shields, it

means they did very well and answered most of the questions correctly.”

Reading Materials

Children would be engaged better in learning English if they find the reading materials are useful and enjoyable (Stevens, 2003). The MOE-certified English textbooks adopted by the researcher’s school for the fifth grade were New Wow English, which contains a series of ten levels. Sentences in the textbook focus on basic communication skills, which are practical but not interesting.

The reading materials used in this research include a variety of topics. They came from resources like popular children literature, reading materials in General English Proficiency Test (GEPT), online readings, Scholastic & Primary Reading publishing series of books, and the operational manual. Three types of readings, stories, expository texts and descriptive texts were included.

Vocabularies in stories are more familiar to readers than those of other types of readings. Readers tend to think about the characters, places and events when they read a story. For example, a story called *Love You Forever* was adopted because Mother’s Day was around the corner at that time, so the story served the role of culture learning too; another story titled *Trouble at School* was chosen for the participant’s storytelling contest because the content is highly related to students’ life. This picture book contains a rich amount of vocabulary and has colorful illustrations.

Expository reading provides information and its vocabularies are more specialized and technical (Ke, 2009). This type of reading presents material to expand knowledge and solve problems. Expository readings are often written in third person, and readers need to interact with subject matter. For example, the participant read a bulletin which was a two-day trip to Ken-ting National Park. The researcher chose this article under the consideration that the participant was going to study at a prestigious bilingual junior high school and he would have abundant opportunities to

read these kinds of bulletins in campus. This practice could prepare him for the future reading. Another expository reading was found on a website called AdaptedMind. Learning resources are categorized into subject, age and grade. Students can do the practice anytime, anywhere as long as they have Internet connection. For children growing up in this digital age, learning with technology seems very natural. The second online reading is a science experiment. The researcher chose this article because school teachers have always been encouraged to involve other subjects into language learning; besides, children enjoy learning things by doing. The materials of this experiment are easy to prepare.

Description is used in all forms of writing to create a vivid impression of a person, place, object or event. Each reading text used in this research was at least 200 words in length and was selected without preference to gender (Poole, 2005). An article was excerpted from a magazine called "On the Go" which is a Studio classroom book series. This magazine introduces famous tourist attractions and local cuisines. It is not difficult for students to activate their background knowledge because the foods and place are all here in Taiwan. The last reading is the original English version for a lesson in the students' Chinese textbook. The article was chosen because of two reasons: First, the researcher wanted to give students a chance to appreciate the famous writer's original work. Second, the researcher wanted to see if the participant manipulates reading strategies in a different way when he reads the English version of this lesson. As Nishino (2007) mentioned, prior knowledge often works wonders in helping readers comprehend a text. By being allowed to refer to the Chinese textbook, the participant was expected to understand the English version more efficiently.

Three examples of reading texts used in this research can be found in Appendix C.

Reading Strategies & Instruction

To help students acquire the ability of manipulating reading strategies, teachers' constant and repeated demonstration are necessary (Barrentine, 1996). The students were reminded that the employment of strategies does not go in a step-by-step linear way. Strategies should be manipulated flexibly as long as they can contribute to better understanding. Strategies students learned in the instruction period were predicting, guessing from context, inferring, identifying main ideas, summarizing, using pictures/graph/table aids, locating similarities and differences in an article, activating background knowledge, looking up words in dictionary, rereading/adjusting speed of reading, self-questioning, sequencing, identifying cause/effect relationship, scanning and skimming, reading aloud and taking notes. Brief definition of each strategy excerpted from Learner's Publishing (2008) and simplified teaching activities are stated beneath the title of each strategy in Appendix A. A detailed lesson plan of "Guessing from context" strategy can be found in Appendix B. The strategy instruction includes presentation, modeling, practice and evaluation.

Seat arrangement was adjusted when necessary. When students read with peers, the slow learners were supposed to learn from the fast learners. Meanwhile, the fast learners would have a chance to evaluate their own reading process by sharing their thinking with other group members.

Data Collection Procedure

Research data were gathered from interviews, the researcher's observations and notes, and the participant's self-report questionnaires. Occasional think-alouds were used as supplements. A table of data collection procedure is shown below.

Table 1.

An overall picture of data collection procedure

Time	Materials	Data collect	Instrument	Focus
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December 2012 - April 2013 (instruction phase)	Story, expository and descriptive reading		R's observation	whole class strategy learning
June 2013		P's background information P's English ability P's use of three types of strategies	Interview Test P's self report questionnaire	Selection of the participant
Sept 2013 (phase one)	story expository descriptive readings	P's use of global strategies, problem-solving, and support strategies	R's notes Observation P's self report questionnaire & think-aloud Interview	Strategy use on three reading texts Read with peers
Dec. 2013 (phase two)	story expository descriptive readings	P's use of three types of strategies	R's notes Observation P's self report questionnaire Interview	Strategy use on three reading texts Read individually
March 2014 (phase three)	story expository descriptive readings	P's use of three types of strategies	R's notes Observation P's self report questionnaire Interview	Strategy use on three reading texts Read with peers
May 2014 (phase four)	story expository descriptive readings	P's use of three types of strategies	R's notes Observation P's self report questionnaire Interview	Strategy use on three reading texts Read individually

Note. R: the researcher P: the participant

This case study covered a period of sixteen months to get a thorough and in-depth record about the participant's manipulation of reading strategies. As displayed in Table one, the reading strategy instruction started at the fifth week of the first semester in 2012 and lasted for six months. Students learned one or two strategies every two weeks. A reading comprehension test and a strategy use questionnaire were conducted to check the students' initial English ability and strategy use before the instruction began. Two reading passages were given to the whole class to practice for each strategy. The researcher used one text to demonstrate how to use a strategy and the students used the

other text to practice in pairs or in small groups. The strategy instruction was conducted in Chinese to reduce students' level of anxiety as they might allocate extra mental resources to figure out the language part.

After the strategy training, a student was selected as the participant for this research. Research data were formally collected from this day onwards. The reading practice was carried out in four phases, and each phase was about one month. In phases one and three, the participant was asked to work with peers. In the other two phases, he worked individually. Three reading texts including a story, an expository text and a descriptive text were used in each phase. The researcher wrote down everything about the participant's strategy use in class. Following each reading practice was a one-on-one interview and a participant's self-report strategy questionnaire. At the end of the research, the comprehension test was done again and used as reference to check the participant's language improvement. The participant's English proficiency was assessed with Cambridge YLE test at the beginning and at the end of the research.

Data Analysis

Data analysis of this case study followed the procedure of qualitative analysis proposed by Dey (2003). He perceived qualitative analysis as a circular process that includes describing, classifying, and connecting the data. The circular process of the present research started with the development of a thorough and comprehensive description of the participant's use of reading strategies toward three types of reading texts. Next, the initial description of the data was trimmed, and then the researcher looked for patterns among the strategies used for the three types of reading texts and classified the strategies into three main categories. Finally, the researcher attempted to explain how the strategies functioned in a particular type of reading and how other variables influenced the participant's strategy use in that particular situation.

Examining the data from another perspective, the researcher analyzed the data in a

quasi-statistical way. Quasi-statistical analysis is a kind of content analysis (Chang, 2010; Miller & Crabtree, 1992), which means that the researcher selects specific terms from the raw data based on a predetermined categorizing system. Then, each term is marked under its category and analyzed. The researcher investigates the interconnections among the analyzed data. Finally, the data from multiple instruments, such as interviews, observations, and questionnaires, are triangulated to verify the validity and accuracy of the conclusion (Maxwell, 2008).

In this study, data of the participant's use of reading strategies were collected from field notes, observations, interviews, and questionnaires. Tape-recorded data were transcribed into written words (the raw data). The researcher quickly read through the words and deleted trivial information that was unrelated to the research questions. She then checked and compared the data sentence by sentence again to search for patterns among the descriptions about the participant's strategy use. The reading strategies in this research fall into three categories: global strategies, problem-solving strategies and support strategies. These are the predetermined categories. The researcher used a specific color to represent a kind of strategy, marked the statement with the color, and wrote the strategy name in parentheses beside the statement. When the next similar strategy use emerged from the data, it was also marked with the same color and strategy name. In other words, the marking differentiation represents the coding or categorizing of the data.

The collection and analysis of the data were conducted simultaneously during the entire study. In doing so, the researcher could clarify the ambiguous parts immediately, and the participant's intention toward the use of a particular strategy would not be misunderstood. With continual data collection and analysis, the researcher could modify the interview questions and instruction techniques if necessary in order to elicit the important information missed in the previous round of analysis.

The frequencies of the three categories of strategy use are displayed in Table 3 and 4. Tables are recommended for qualitative research reports because they not only present the data and the analysis but also serve the function of contrasting data (Chang, 2010). The researcher's observations of the participant's strategy use and his perceived use of strategies were compared side by side for later discussion.

For Research Question One, the participant's strategy use for three types/topics of reading texts was studied. His strategy use for each type of reading, and when and how he used the strategies are described chronologically in the next chapter. The results are further discussed in chapter five.

Research Question Two assessed the participant's strategy use in peer reading and individual reading situations. The focus was on the strategies that he used in the peer reading situation and in the individual reading situation. How often and why he used or did not use the strategies were also examined.

In addition to the types of reading texts and reading situations, other factors like age, language proficiency, and personality were also included to determine their influence on the participant's strategy use.

After a discussion of the results, the limitations and pedagogical implications of the study are reported. A few suggestions for future study are presented at the end of the last chapter.



CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter provides results on the two research questions. Research Question One examines the participant's strategy use toward different types/topics of reading texts. Research Question Two reports the participant's strategy use in both individual reading and peer reading situations. Reading texts include stories, expository texts, and descriptive texts. Students at this age are developing cognitive ability and need to be offered various kinds of reading texts in order to expand their knowledge. The results of each reading practice are described in chronological order. Data gathered from interviews, teacher's observations and notes, the participant's self-report strategy questionnaires and supplemented with occasional think-alouds. Interviews are transcribed into English in this chapter but they were conducted in Chinese for the sake of not causing the participant misunderstandings. Reading strategies include global strategies, problem-solving strategies and support strategies. Each category has nine strategy items. Students learned all the strategies during the instruction period. Strategies written in the parentheses indicate the participant used the strategy at that particular part of the reading text.

The following abbreviations are used in the subsequent transcripts:

GLOB: global strategies

R: the researcher

PROB: problem-solving strategies

P: the participant

SUP: support strategies

Research Question One: What reading strategies are used by the participant when he reads different types/topics of texts after the reading strategy instruction?

Strategy Use on Story Reading

Story #1 "A Dark Dark Tale" 120 words, read with peers in September, 2013

Teacher's observations and notes

The story was printed on a piece of paper and passed to each student. The researcher asked the students to have a quick look at the story in three minutes. Joel (pseudonym of the participant) was found turning this paper to see how long the story was (GOLB 5). After glancing around the printed words (GLOB 1), Joel read through the story within two minutes. When three minutes' time was complete, the researcher checked the students' understanding. Joel raised his hand and said that the story talked about a house situated in the woods, where a mouse in a box lived. The story happened at night because the word *dark* was mentioned several times (GLOB 4).

Then the researcher asked the whole class not to look at the words on paper and just listen to the online video read through the story without seeing the pictures. So the students heard the verbalized story. Since the verbalization contained a lot of sound effects and mysterious background music, the students all held their breaths and listened carefully.

When the story ended, the researcher quickly asked students how they felt about the story. Some said it was spooky whilst others said it sounded like a horror movie. Then the teacher had the students read the written words and explain the difficult parts. Joel asked if there was anyone else that was living in the house. The house seemed empty and quiet, yet the story ended with a surprising shout "Mouse!" which revealed a feeling of sarcasm. Joel said,

"Before the mouse was found, the author led readers to go through a lot of uncertainty and scares. Naturally, it makes people feel something unusual will appear (GLOB 9 & SUP 6). But out of everyone's surprise, it turns out all the horrible atmosphere is just illusion, and there is nothing but a small mouse."

Finally, the researcher played the online video again. This time, both pictures and sounds were presented. When the words and sound combined, the remaining doubts on some of the students' minds seemed to be dispelled. Joel looked excited and involved

himself in the learning activity, but he did not ask any questions.

Excerpt of Interview #2

R: What was your first impression when you looked at this reading text?

P: I understood it is a story as soon as I read the first sentence (GLOB 7). A story usually starts with the phrase “Once upon a time” or “Long long time ago.”

R: Did you have any difficulties understanding this story? Why?

P: Not at all. This one is easy. I saw many repetitive words such as *there was* (GLOB 4), I had learned this sentence pattern at cram school, and it means *had*. Except the word *moor*, I recognized all the words in the story.

R: Great! How did you figure out the meaning of *moor*?

P: I still don’t know the exact meaning of it. But I guessed from the sentences around it (PROB 8). It should be kind of a piece of land where a house can be built on.

R: What do you feel about the story? Does the author’s writing style affect your understanding?

P: The writer describes things from farthest to closest. It adds mystery to it and it helps me predict what is probably going to happen (PROB 6).

R: Did you use any reading strategies to help you comprehend?

P: As I said, this story is easy to read, I didn’t even feel I used any strategy. I remember another story called *Funny Bones*, which we just read the other days. Both of the stories have a few things in common (GLOB 2), for example, sentence patterns and mysterious atmosphere. It’s a bit scary but funny.

Participant’s self-report questionnaire

Table 2.1

Participant’s self-reported use of strategies

Strategy item										
Strategy category	Item one	Item two	Item three	Item four	Item five	Item six	Item seven	Item eight	Item nine	Total
Global	1	2	3	1	1	0	3	3	2	16

Problem solving	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	2	6
Support	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	2	4

Note. The description for each strategy item can be seen in Appendix D.2, p. 126.

Numbers in each square: 0 “never used”; 1 “rarely used”; 2 “sometimes used”; 3 “used very often”

This table shows that the participant most often reported the use of global strategies. Support strategies were used the least. Although the participant felt that he very often used typographical features (GLOB 3) and context clues (GLOB 8) to help himself understand, he actually did not use these strategies that much; nevertheless, he used pictures in the text to increase his comprehension many times (GLOB 7), which is the same as what the researcher observed. With the help of the colorful pictures in the book and the video that he watched in class, he had no difficulty in understanding the meaning of the story.

Story #2 "Trouble at School" around 1300 words, read individually in December, 2013

Teacher's observations and notes

Joel was asked to completely understand each word and to pronounce all words correctly because this was the story he prepared for the storytelling contest. When Joel got the book, he looked at the cover and the title (GLOB 7). The cover was a boy holding a report card with a terrible grade on it and his father looking pretty disappointed. Joel said,

“His dad must be very mad at his poor grade.”

Joel laughed when he read about how the little boy pretended to be sick at home, because he could relate (GLOB 2).

The researcher noticed that when Joel turned a page, he always glanced at the pictures first, and then started reading (GLOB 7). He read silently and quickly. He even skipped a couple of sentences (GLOB 6). Sometimes he flipped back to previous pages looking for clues he missed (PROB 3). Although the researcher prepared a dictionary for him, he rarely used it. He usually referred to the surrounding words or sentences when

encountering an unknown word (GLOB 7, 8 & PROB 8).

There were a few times he chose to seek instant help from the teacher (SUP 6). If the teacher asked him to try harder, then he would reluctantly pick up the dictionary and look up the words (SUP 4). Joel usually read through an article without pointing at any single words, but he looked a bit confused when he read a paragraph which contained many unknown words. He slowed down and read back and forth in order to figure out the meaning of the words (PROB 1, 4, 5).

Conditional sentences seemed to be more challenging for Joel. When he read the sentence *I would have passed the exams if I had studied hard*, he paused for a second to think, read it again, and continued to read anyway until the end. He said,

“What does would have mean? I’m a little confused. Does it mean he passed the exam? Although I’m not so sure, I keep reading the following events. For some reasons, I realize that it means he failed because he didn’t study hard (GLOB 6, 8).”

Excerpt of Interview #3

R: Is this story easy or difficult for you?

P: It’s a little difficult because it’s too long, and it has several unfamiliar words. The good thing is that there are many pictures in the book. Those pictures helped me understand better (GLOB 7).

R: What does the story talk about? (This question aimed to check Joel’s comprehension)

P: It’s about a boy who was sick at home. After staying in bed for a few days, he’s kind of used to enjoying the relaxing feeling. He was afraid of not being able to catch up with the school works. So he made excuses not going to school. Fortunately, he had a wise grandpa, who gave him advice and helped him to get back on the right track.

R: Good. When you read this story, what strategy did you use most often? Was there any special way you used to help you reach better understanding?

P: I didn’t use any strategies on purpose. When I felt confused on some words, I referred to the pictures or just skipped the unfamiliar words/phrases (GLOB 6). These

unfamiliar words didn't seem to interfere with my reading.

R: Did you pay special attention to the structure of a reading?

P: I didn't read that carefully. But I would read closely about the main characters. Is it he, she or they? I would see who goes where, what happens at where? Sometimes I would notice if the verbs are present tense or past tense (GLOB 4, 5 & 8).

R: What do you think made the boy go back on the right track and give himself a second chance?

P: Well, I'm not sure...Is that because of the sentence said by his mom "It's never too late to correct a mistake? (GLOB 9 & SUP 6)"

Table 2.2

Participant's self-reported use of strategies

Strategy category	Strategy item									Total
	Item one	Item two	Item three	Item four	Item five	Item six	Item seven	Item eight	Item nine	
Global	1	2	2	1	1	3	3	3	1	17
Problem solving	1	0	2	1	1	0	1	3	1	10
Support	0	0	0	3	0	3	0	0	2	8

Note. The description for each strategy item can be seen in Appendix D.2, p. 126.

Numbers in each square: 0 "never used"; 1 "rarely used"; 2 "sometimes used"; 3 "used very often"

This table displays more global strategies were used by Joel, especially items six, seven, and eight. As Joel expressed in the interview, he skipped some unknown words because he believed it would not interfere with his understanding. The researcher observed more problem solving strategies used by Joel than he thought. For example, he repeatedly read certain parts of the story (PROB 3) and he read slowed and closely at some sentences which confused him (PROB 1).

Story #3 "The Gym Teacher from Black Lagoon" about 400 words, read with peers in March, 2014

Teacher's observations and notes

Joel picked up the book and quickly glanced at the front and the back cover (GLOB

7). He noticed that the book was one of Lagoon series of books (GLOB 2). Since Joel loved PE class, he opened the book immediately and started reading with great anticipation (GLOB 1). When Joel read the sentence *His nickname is COACH KONG and no one has actually heard him speak any words*, he tried to pronounce the capital letter name (GLOB 3). He said,

“It sounds like King Kong (PROB 9, SUP 2).”

He laughed a lot at the funny illustrations, which vividly display a little boy’s wild imagination.

“Wow, this cannot be true! You can never make a little boy do the pull-ups, push-ups, and all the other cruel exercises. It’s not humane!”

Joel enjoyed reading this interesting book. For a sporty boy like him, this topic caught his attention easily.

Extract of think-aloud

“The kids say he’s big, he’s mean, he’s rarely seen...at this moment, I seem to see this monster-like gym teacher walking back and forth on the corridor mumbling in a deep voice ‘I’ll get you.’ They say he’s very hairy and his knuckles touch the ground, Mmm... he must be like the chimpanzee I saw in a cage last week when my grandfather took me to the zoo (GLOB 2)...They say he has a little office full of balls and clubs and tires...from the illustration on this page I can imagine how terrible the gym teacher must be or...maybe the little kid is just too worried about what the new teacher will do (GLOB 7)? ...then every child has to climb THE ROPE as the gym teacher commands, if you don’t reach the top, he sets the bottom on fire! Ha, ha! This is funny. The kid really has great imagination. The drawing is fabulous and it helps me to understand the story. Anyway, I don’t think there will be a gym teacher like this in the world!”

When Joel was asked if there were images related to the story that emerged in his mind during his think-aloud process, Joel pondered for a while and said,

“Probably, but I didn’t try to create a picture on purpose. It came naturally (PROB

6)!”

Excerpt of Interview #4

R: Do you like this book? Why? What’s the story about?

P: Oh, I like it. It’s not difficult. Because it talks about sports, I can easily relate it to my life (GLOB 2). It’s about a little boy’s fantasy and a new PE teacher at school. The new teacher was perceived as a monster in this little boy’s mind. He imagined that all students would be asked to do terrible training in PE class. But when they finally met, the teacher was actually a very nice person.

R: When you read this story, what strategies did you use most often? You didn’t seem to have any problems.

P: I love the pictures in the book. They’re very funny. I believe they help me comprehend the meaning of the unfamiliar words.

R: Do you know what the word *beam* means? (The researcher asked Joel without showing him the picture in the book)

P: No.

R: Do you know its meaning now? (The researcher opened the book and let Joel see the word in a sentence *he walks on the beam*, accompanied with colorful pictures)

P: Oh, right (PROB 8). It’s like a piece of wood. How amazing! I didn’t even sense I had difficulty understanding this word.

Table 2.3

Participant’s self-reported use of strategies

Strategy item										
Strategy category	Item one	Item two	Item three	Item four	Item five	Item six	Item seven	Item eight	Item nine	Total
Global	2	1	3	1	1	1	3	3	2	17
Problem solving	2	0	2	2	1	2	2	3	2	16
Support	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	3

Note. The description for each strategy item can be seen in Appendix D.2, p. 126.

Numbers in each square: 0 “never used”; 1 “rarely used”; 2 “sometimes used”; 3 “used very often”

This table shows that Joel felt he rarely used support strategies, and this corresponds with what the researcher observed. Joel did not seem to use as many problem-solving strategies as he thought because the topic of the story was familiar to him (GLOB 2) and the difficulty level was not too high. Since he could relate to the content, he naturally used the strategy “visualizing” many times. Again, the illustrations contributed a lot to his comprehension. He read through the story without even blinking his eyes.

A few days later, I gave Joel another story called *Cafeteria Lady from Black Lagoon*, which is one of Lagoon series of books. I first gave Joel a print-out of this story without any vocabulary or pictures on it. Joel seemed reluctant to continue reading after just a few seconds. He said,

“There are too many unknown words! I don’t want to read it.”

After being encouraged by the researcher and being instructed a couple of words, Joel understood the message the article wanted to convey and he looked much more confident to continue reading. The researcher noticed a rarely used strategy “reading aloud” was adopted on some words (SUP 2). The participant explained,

“Well, because most of the words here are written in lowercase, but this word is written in all capital letters. I’m not used to reading uppercase words, so I try to pronounce it and hope the sounds can bring back my memory of this word.”

A few minutes later, the researcher presented him the picture book, and he quickly flipped through the book. He said,

“See! I know it’s not that difficult!”

Obviously the illustrations in stories can not only add flavors to the story, but also help Joel to understand the text (GLOB 7, PROB 6).

Story #4 "Love You Forever" around 700 words, read individually in May, 2014

Teacher’s observations and notes

When Joel glanced over this reading text (GLOB 1, 5), he cried out,

“It’s too long!”

Then he noticed some words and sentences are repeated several times (GLOB 4).

The italics caught his eyes (GLOB 3),

“Why are these words in italics? It’s a song, right? His mother never gets tired singing.”

Joel pointed at the words with his pencil while reading this story, which was unusual (SUP 3).

“The son grows up, but the mother gets old.”

He noticed the contrasting description (PROB 3). The researcher let Joel listen to the lullaby on CD and he was able to sing along. A follow-up activity was given to Joel to check his comprehension. The researcher wrote each growing stage of the boy on a piece of paper, and then asked Joel to put the pieces of paper in chronological order (PROB 3). He successfully finished the task. It showed that his comprehension was good and he was able to use the strategy of “sequencing.”

Excerpt of Interview #5

R: How do you feel about this story? Is it difficult?

P: Not really. I think I read smoothly, though it looked a little long at first. Once I started reading, I found many words and sentences were repeated several times. If we delete those repeated parts, this story will be half long.

R: Do you remember how often it mentions the age of the son? How do you remember?

P: Four or five times. I retrieve the images from my memory (PROB 6). A boy grows up year after year and makes a lot of troubles. However, his mom’s love for him never changes.

R: Is the story familiar to you?

P: I never read this story before. But the content is close to people’s life. Isn’t that what a mother would do? Mothers are willing to do anything for their children and they

always forgive their children. My mom is like that (GLOB 2).

R: I found that you used dictionary this time (SUP 4), any special reasons?

P: Ha, ha! I don't know. Probably I just didn't want to bother you.

Table 2.4

Participant's self-reported use of strategies

Strategy category	Strategy item									Total
	Item one	Item two	Item three	Item four	Item five	Item six	Item seven	Item eight	Item nine	
Global	3	2	2	3	1	2	1	2	2	18
Problem solving	1	0	3	1	1	2	1	2	2	13
Support	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	2	2	7

Note. The description for each strategy item can be seen in Appendix D.2, p. 126.

Numbers in each square: 0 “never used”; 1 “rarely used”; 2 “sometimes used”; 3 “used very often”

The table indicates that Joel used global strategies most often. He was surprised at the length of the story at first. But when he noticed several repeated sentences (GLOB 4), he felt relieved and skipped those repetitive parts (GLOB 6). The text structure caught his attention. Joel was able to relate the story to his experience (GLOB 2). Although he was not sure about a couple of words, he used the dictionary to check the unfamiliar words (SUP 4) and then kept reading.

Strategy Use on Expository Reading

Expository #1 "Trip to Ken-ting National Park" around 200 words, read with peers in September, 2013

Teacher's observations and notes

Joel glanced over this article for about ten seconds (GLOB 1) and he read the boldface words first (GLOB 3). He paid attention to the places where the club members plan to visit and the activities they will do at Ken-ting (GLOB 4). Next, he scanned the following two days' schedule and went straight to the questions. The first question asked whom this notice addressed to. Joel went back to the first paragraph and quickly found the key sentence (GLOB 4). He underlined the sentence with a pencil (SUP 3), marked

the answer, and went to the other questions. He quickly found the answers and underlined the words (SUP 3). Perhaps this text was too short and was clearly written, more than half of the students were able to read on their own. After correcting the students' answers, the researcher asked students to imitate the structure and write a travel notice to a place they wanted to go.

Excerpt of Interview #6

R: Do you think you used some of the reading strategies we've learned so far?

P: I looked at the title of each paragraph and scanned for important information. Also I noticed the key words or sentences (GLOB 1, 4).

R: Great! How did you find the answers to the three questions?

P: Just look at the boldface words, usually they represent important information. For a travel notice, the sentence printed after the time indicates places and activities. If you want to know how much the travel will cost you, search for the dollar sign is a good idea (GLOB 7).

R: What do you think about the follow-up writing?

P: It's good because it helped me to recall what words are suitable for writing a bulletin and what information should be included (GLOB 4, SUP 3).

Table 2.5

Participant's self-reported use of strategies

Strategy item										
Strategy category	Item one	Item two	Item three	Item four	Item five	Item six	Item seven	Item eight	Item nine	Total
Global	3	1	2	3	1	0	1	2	1	15
Problem solving	0	0	2	0	1	1	0	1	0	5
Support	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	2	4

Note. The description for each strategy item can be seen in Appendix D.2, p. 126.

Numbers in each square: 0 “never used”; 1 “rarely used”; 2 “sometimes used”; 3 “used very often”

The participant self-reported use of problem-solving strategies such as visualizing, stopping from time to time to check, and guessing unknown words from the context, but

the researcher did not observe these strategies been used. The information in this bulletin is simple and well-organized. Therefore, the reason why Joel used these strategies was he wanted to correctly answer the questions. This bulletin has a very clear layout, so it seemed natural for Joel to notice the typographical features. Especially when the students were asked to write a bulletin of their own, Joel was found referring to the text structure several times.

Expository #2 "Fun English Games Online" about 200 words each, read individually in December, 2013

Teacher's observations and notes

This expository reading was on the website called AdaptedMind, which is developed by JumpStart. When the researcher introduced this website to Joel, he looked excited. Before long, he already looked like a professional. He hardly consulted the researcher about anything on the website. He kept trying different games on different subjects (GLOB 1, 4, 7, 8, 9). When he read the instructions, the researcher noticed that he stopped from time to time to figure out how the game or practice worked (PROB 1, 3, 4, 5).

Excerpt of Interview #7

R: What do you think is the difference between learning online and on paper?

P: Learning online gives me the freedom to choose what I want to learn. I can read anytime, anywhere as long as I have a smart phone and the Internet connection.

R: When you read the instruction about how to play a game, did you ever have hard time understanding?

P: Sometimes. But I usually ignore the unknown words (GLOB 6). Once I started playing, all the uncertainty disappeared (PROB 8). Besides, I can always look up the words with online dictionary (SUP 4).

R: Did you use any strategies we learned when you read the instruction?

P: As I said, I usually ignore the unknown words because I know once I start playing the

game, everything will be fine. The sounds and animations make the reading a lot easier (GLOB 7). Even if I misunderstand the message, I can always go back, try again and again.

Table 2.6

Participant's self-reported use of strategies

Strategy category	Strategy item									Total
	Item one	Item two	Item three	Item four	Item five	Item six	Item seven	Item eight	Item nine	
Global	0	1	1	2	0	1	3	2	2	12
Problem solving	0	0	2	3	1	2	2	0	0	10
Support	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1

Note. The description for each strategy item can be seen in Appendix D.2, p. 126.

Numbers in each square: 0 “never used”; 1 “rarely used”; 2 “sometimes used”; 3 “used very often”

From the teacher's point of view, the participant actually applied more strategies than he reported in this table. He was highly involved in playing the games and focused on how to make it through to the final level. The researcher noticed that he often went back to look for key words in the instruction, and sometimes he reread the user's guide (PROB 2, 5, 7). He used online dictionary to check unfamiliar words several times (SUP 4). He was found talking to himself once in a while (SUP 7) and he did not notice it himself.

Expository #3 "How to Use a Fire Extinguisher" around 600 words, read with peers in March, 2014

Teacher's observations and notes

Every elementary school is required by the government to hold a disaster prevention drill every semester. Therefore, fifth grade students have participated in this drill many times. They are familiar with the knowledge and procedure. Before the reading, the whole class watched an educational video about fire safety. Students sat in groups. High achievers and low achievers were mixed together. The researcher passed out a reading text about how to use a fire extinguisher to each team and had students

read together. This article contains illustrations which showed the users step-by-step operations. The researcher noticed that Joel glanced over the whole reading first (GLOB 1). He quickly scanned each paragraph and gently marked the titles printed in boldface (GLOB 3).

While Joel read the paragraphs, he referred to the pictures beside them (GLOB 7). He kept turning his head left and right to check if his understanding was correct (GLOB 9). One member on his team looked a little confused about whether he should pull off the pin first or tilt the tank first. So they started talking about the drill experience to recall their memory.

Moments later, Joel asked if his team could go outside and have a look at a real fire extinguisher on the corridor. This article, though well-organized, is actually kind of challenging for students in elementary grades because it contains several compound and complex sentences. The researcher noticed that the participant stopped from time to time (PROB 5), pondered on some specific words (PROB 1, 4), murmured to himself (PROB 9), and sometimes went back and forth on a particular paragraph (PROB 3).

Upon seeing the struggling among the readers, the teacher divided the reading into seven parts and assigned each team a part. The researcher helped the students review all the reading strategies they learned before, set a time limit of ten minutes, and allowed students to use any learning resources they could find in the classroom. Joel was seen using Google translation software on his smart phone to translate some English to Chinese (SUP 4). After ten minutes, each team had to present what they read to the whole class. Joel was chosen to present for his team. He introduced the main ideas of the assigned paragraph, but he did not spend much time on explaining specific words (GLOB 6). Many students confessed they had difficulty understanding, so they ended up explaining the meaning of some words. When the others presented, Joel listened carefully but did not write down anything.

Excerpt of Interview #8

R: Is the operation guide difficult or easy?

P: It's not easy. I don't know many words, but the illustration helps me a lot (GLOB 7).

R: I saw that you turned your head to check the pictures beside the words, why?

P: I didn't feel it. But I just wanted to make sure my understanding is correct (GLOB 9).

R: I noticed that you murmured to yourself, what does it mean?

P: Well, I guess I hoped the sounds could help me understand the meaning of the words or sentences (PROB 9).

R: Do you purposefully use any strategies you learned during the strategy instruction period?

P: While I read, images of the past drill experience popped up in my head (GLOB 2, PROB 6). I used the software on my smart phone to translate English to Chinese (SUP 4).

Table 2.7

Participant's self-reported use of strategies

Strategy category	Strategy item									Total
	Item one	Item two	Item three	Item four	Item five	Item six	Item seven	Item eight	Item nine	
Global	1	3	3	3	0	1	3	1	1	16
Problem solving	2	0	1	1	0	2	1	3	3	13
Support	0	0	2	1	0	2	0	2	2	9

Note. The description for each strategy item can be seen in Appendix D.2, p. 126.

Numbers in each square: 0 “never used”; 1 “rarely used”; 2 “sometimes used”; 3 “used very often”

This table shows that the participant used more support strategies than before, just as the researcher observed. Again, he still adopted global strategies often. Although he did not report using the strategies “stopping to think” (SUP 5) and “rereading” (SUP 7), the researcher noticed from his eye movement that he actually used these strategies from time to time. Joel noticed the clear layout of this expository text and quickly grasped its main ideas (GLOB 3, 4). The past drill experience helped him to successfully activate his background knowledge (GLOB 2).

Expository #4 "Make an Egg Float in Salt Water" around 210 words, read individually in May, 2014

Teacher's observations and notes

This is a science experiment reading excerpt from the website www.sciencekids.co.nz/. The researcher chose this article because of two reasons: to give children a hands-on experience through English or science learning and to make learning fun and simple. The materials needed were easy to prepare. Students can do this experiment again with their family when they get home. As usual, Joel had a quick look on the length and organization of this expository reading (GLOB 1). He noticed the title for each paragraph and the items listed beneath the title (GLOB 7). Joel carefully followed the step-by-step instruction and finished this experiment (PROB 1). When he saw the egg float in the middle of the water, he exclaimed,

"I know why, the density of tap water and salty water must be different. It's like people can float on the surface of the Dead Sea (GLOB 2). I wonder, other than eggs, what else can float in the middle of the water?"

Joel noticed there was a ping-pong ball in the classroom. He replaced the egg with the ping-pong ball and did the experiment again. This time the ball stayed on the surface of the tap water. He said,

"This is interesting. Now, I want to replace salt with sugar and see what will happen (PROB 3)."

It was encouraging to see that due to the curiosity created by the scientific experiment, Joel was willing to review the reading again and again, and he even tried to add variety into it.

Excerpt of Interview #9

R: You said this experiment instruction isn't difficult, but you seemed to read slower than you usually did? Why?

P: I read slowly because this is an experiment and I wanted to get a precise result under

this condition.

R: When you first started the experiment, did you expect what's going to happen?

P: Yes, I did. I knew something will happen to the egg because of the water (GLOB 1).

R: Did you use any strategies intentionally?

P: I tried to find the cause and effect in the experiment (PROB 3). I love this way of learning by doing.

Table 2.8

Participant's self-reported use of strategies

Strategy category	Strategy item									Total
	Item one	Item two	Item three	Item four	Item five	Item six	Item seven	Item eight	Item nine	
Global	1	1	0	3	1	0	0	1	2	9
Problem solving	1	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	4
Support	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	2

Note. The description for each strategy item can be seen in Appendix D.2, p. 126.

Numbers in each square: 0 “never used”; 1 “rarely used”; 2 “sometimes used”; 3 “used very often”

The table indicates that Joel reported more use of global strategies than the other two strategies. He demonstrated good ability at the strategies of “inferring” (GLOB 8) and “contrasting.” Joel used “rereading” strategy (PROB 7) several times because he wanted to get correct results under that particular situation. He paid attention to the relationship between the cause and effect (PROB 3), so he successfully found the reasons for the different results.

Strategy Use on Descriptive Reading

Descriptive #1 "Burger King" around 200 words, read with peers in September, 2013

Teacher's observations and notes

Kids know a lot about McDonald's, but they rarely hear anything about Burger King. The researcher had the students review names of the fast foods and showed them the pictures of several fast food restaurants. The researcher gave each student a copy of this reading text and asked students to read it first. Joel noticed there were two questions

at the end of the reading. So he went back to the beginning and read more carefully (PROB 1). Once he found the answers, he underlined the sentences with a pencil (SUP 3). When the time was up, the teacher asked each team to check their understanding and answers with each other. Then the researcher asked students what the main idea of each paragraph was. Joel responded quickly and correctly (GLOB 1, 4). The researcher invited Joel to be the teacher's assistant and shared his opinions with classmates on how to comprehend a reading. Joel told his classmates to notice the words which are used repeatedly (GLOB 4), for those words usually stand for important ideas. Then he told others the first sentence of this text is the main idea (SUP 4), the second paragraph contains the reasons, the third paragraph is the resolution, and the last paragraph is Burger King's current situation.

The second question seemed a little challenging for Joel, so he hesitated a while, skimmed the article again (PROB 7), discussed with his teammates (SUP 6) and wrote down the correct answer. It seemed because of the two questions, the participant used certain strategies more often than other strategies, such as rereading to evaluate understanding (PROB 7) and summarizing each paragraph (GLOB 4), to make sure he made the correct choice.

Excerpt of Interview #10

R: How did you find the answer to the questions?

P: It mentions *sales* in the first question (GLOB 4), so I guessed the answer should be in the second paragraph. I read this paragraph again. The last sentence seemed to be the reason why its sales dropped (GLOB 4). I paid attention to the key words or phrases mentioned in the question and tried to find the same words in the reading.

R: How did you summarize each paragraph and got the main ideas?

P: I'm used to having a quick look at the whole article first. Then I scanned, skimmed, and tried to find the cause and effect (PROB 3).

R: Did you purposefully use any strategies you learned before?

P: In order to find answers for the questions, I reread the article (PROB 7).

Table 2.9

Participant's self-reported use of strategies

Strategy category	Strategy item									Total
	Item one	Item two	Item three	Item four	Item five	Item six	Item seven	Item eight	Item nine	
Global	1	3	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	15
Problem solving	1	0	1	1	0	3	1	3	1	11
Support	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	5

Note. The description for each strategy item can be seen in Appendix D.2, p. 126.

Numbers in each square: 0 “never used”; 1 “rarely used”; 2 “sometimes used”; 3 “used very often”

The participant reported using “visualizing” strategy very often and never used “stopping to think”. From the researcher’s viewpoint, he did not use “visualizing” that much, but he employed the strategy “stopping to think” several times. However, he did not use it to solve comprehension problems. He used it to help him answer the questions.

Descriptive #2 "Special Restaurant" around 230 words, read individually in

December, 2013

Teacher's observations and notes

The participant used less than three minutes to read the article. He seemed hesitant at the word *decoration*. After pausing on this word for a second (PROB 1), he searched the surrounding sentences to clear his doubts (GLOB 8). Joel paid attention to the punctuation marks, such as exclamation mark and apostrophe. He noticed that two special restaurants were described in this article and he knew the differences between them (PROB 3). He said,

"It doesn't mention what kind of food each restaurant serves. But both of them seem to be special in some way. One day I'd like to visit the two restaurants."

After Joel finished reading, the researcher showed him a video introducing these two special restaurants to strengthen his impression on the descriptive words and sentences.

Excerpt of Interview #11

R: Have you ever been to these places? Did you have difficulty in understanding?

P: No, I've never been to these restaurants, but I know what it talks about. It's hard to imagine a restaurant serving food with a toilet-shaped disk until I saw the photos. There's an unfamiliar word *decoration* in the third paragraph. I guessed it means something people use to make the house more beautiful, right?

R: What makes you think that way?

P: Because the sentences which follow *decoration* mention *decoration* can be put inside and outside the restaurant to make the house more interesting and appealing (GLOB 8 & PROB 8).

R: What's the difference between the two restaurants? How do you know?

P: The materials they used to decorate the restaurants are different. One used paper and the other put bathroom equipment in the restaurant. I saw the words *first* and *second* (GLOB 4), and the exclamation marks in both of the first sentences describing each restaurant. Since this article talks about the unusual places, the exclamation mark must reveal something special about the topic (GLOB 4).

Table 2.10

Participant's self-reported use of strategies

Strategy item										
Strategy category	Item one	Item two	Item three	Item four	Item five	Item six	Item seven	Item eight	Item nine	Total
Global	1	2	1	0	1	2	1	2	1	11
Problem solving	1	0	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	10
Support	0	1	2	1	0	2	0	1	2	9

Note. The description for each strategy item can be seen in Appendix D.2, p. 126.

Numbers in each square: 0 “never used”; 1 “rarely used”; 2 “sometimes used”; 3 “used very often”

This table indicates that the participant felt he rarely used typographical features to help him comprehend. However, from his description in the interview, apparently he used this strategy often to locate where the similarities and differences are between the

two restaurants. This table shows a higher frequency of support strategies than that in many other reading texts. However, his actual use of support strategies still seemed to be less than he thought.

Descriptive #3 "Sun Moon Lake" around 400 words, read with peers in March, 2014

Teacher's observations and notes

Five months before students read the article, the class had the graduation trip to Sun Moon Lake. The researcher asked the whole class to read the first paragraph silently and circled the words they feel important. Then the teacher invited the students to express their opinions about this paragraph. The participant volunteered and said this paragraph talks about how Sun Moon Lake got its name and where it is located (GLOB 1, 4).

When being asked how he got this message, Joel said,

"When I saw the words like Nantou County, sun, moon, and Thao tribe, the image of Sun Moon Lake appeared (GLOB 2, PROB 6). It helps me to grasp the main ideas when all the memories come back (GLOB 4)."

Joel said that the second paragraph is more difficult and he had trouble understanding half of it. When the teacher asked him which words or phrases confused him, he said,

"When I read the words like transportation, car, bus, biking, and boating (GLOB 4), I know it's talking about what activities we can do there (SUP 6). But some unfamiliar expressions frustrate me. For instance, a sentence goes like this, if going solo isn't your thing, what does it mean? Isn't the term solo used in singing (SUP 7)?"

The researcher found that Joel did a good job at summarizing, but he was stunned by the longer and more idiomatic sentences. Joel tried hard to pronounce some big words in the remaining paragraphs, but this extra effort slowed down his reading.

Excerpt of Interview #12

R: You looked happy discussing this article with your classmates, is it easy to read?

P: It's actually a little difficult, but it brings back the happy memory. I think I understand

eighty percent of this article.

R: Do you think this reading is different from the others you read before?

P: This article describes a tourist attraction, so I noticed it contains a lot of adjectives.

Besides, many geographical names are mentioned. If I had never been to Sun Moon Lake, I may feel it's much more challenging.

R: Did you use any strategies to conquer reading problems?

P: I tried to pronounce some difficult words (PROB 9), but my comprehension seemed to be terminated by doing this.

Table 2.11

Participant's self-reported use of strategies

Strategy category	Strategy item									Total
	Item one	Item two	Item three	Item four	Item five	Item six	Item seven	Item eight	Item nine	
Global	1	3	0	3	1	0	0	3	0	11
Problem solving	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	2	0	5
Support	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	4

Note. The description for each strategy item can be seen in Appendix D.2, p. 126.

Numbers in each square: 0 “never used”; 1 “rarely used”; 2 “sometimes used”; 3 “used very often”

The total frequency of Joel's perceived use of strategies in this table is less than that of many other tables. The reason might be this article contains many big words and idioms which were unfamiliar to Joel. Therefore he chose to skip these difficult parts and to focus on using particular strategies like “activating background knowledge (GLOB 2)” to achieve comprehension. “Guessing from context clues” (GLOB 8) was adopted several times as well. Although Joel did not report using the strategy of “paying close attention to difficult parts” (PROB 4), he was noticed using this strategy.

Descriptive #4 "The Last Butterfly---Sometimes Beauty Comes to Meet You" around 600 words, read individually in May, 2014

Teacher's observations and notes

Joel noticed the English title of this article was not the same as the Chinese (GLOB

5). He wondered that if the original English title has a deeper meaning. When Joel started reading, he found that all the verbs in this article were in past tense. He said,

"This is more like a story, but it's a real story."

Apparently, Joel did not have problems understanding the first paragraph. He tried to pronounce the word *Okinawa* and then he said,

"It looks like English, but it sounds like Japanese. I heard the name on TV before (PROB 9)."

Joel seemed troubled by many unknown words in the following paragraphs. He asked the researcher if he could put the Chinese textbook beside him so he could refer to (SUP 4). As the researcher expected, Joel still used global strategies of "activating prior knowledge" and "using context clues" more often than other strategies (GLOB 2, 8). He employed problem-solving strategy (4) "paying closer attention to difficult part" several times. Support strategies (4) "referring to other resources like textbook" and problem-solving strategy (3) "going back and forth to find relationships among ideas" were used when he read the sentence *But I had constructed a mental wall against this unsettledness*. He hesitated for a while, reread, and then asked,

"Why did he build a metal wall? Did he hope the wall will help him catch the butterfly in any way? The word unsettledness looks funny, what does it mean?"

The word *mental* was mistaken for *metal*. Joel wondered about the meaning of *unsettledness*, so he read out the word and tried to retrieve the memory of the word (PROB 9). In order to guess the meaning of the word from context, he read the surrounding sentences slowly and carefully (PROB 1).

Due to the high level of difficulty, this article took Joel nearly forty minutes to read. With the researcher's encouragement and his tenacious ambition, he kept reading and gradually conquered difficulties.

Excerpt of Interview #13

R: You said this article is more difficult than the others, what makes you feel this way?

P: I think maybe I've never been to Okinawa and have no idea what the orange-tipped white looks like. So it's not easy to visualize the descriptions in the article.

R: Did you adopt any reading strategies to help you understand better?

P: I reread (PROB 7) and I compared the English version and Chinese version sometimes (SUP 8, 9).

R: Do you think you used different strategies to understand stories, expository texts, and descriptive texts?

P: When I read stories, I like to read without stopping unless there's a special reason to reread a certain paragraph (GLOB 6). As for expository reading, it is easy to know the main points by looking at its title and organization (GLOB 3). I need better imagination to read descriptive texts. If I enrich my vocabulary, everything won't be this difficult.

Table 2.12

Participant's self-reported use of strategies

Strategy item										
Strategy category	Item one	Item two	Item three	Item four	Item five	Item six	Item seven	Item eight	Item nine	Total
Global	3	1	0	3	1	1	0	2	1	12
Problem solving	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	19
Support	0	0	1	3	0	3	1	3	2	13

Note. The description for each strategy item can be seen in Appendix D.2, p. 126.

Numbers in each square: 0 “never used”; 1 “rarely used”; 2 “sometimes used”; 3 “used very often”

This was the only time Joel reported using more problem-solving strategies than the other two strategies. He slowed down the reading speed and reread difficult parts of this article (PROB 1, 7). He sometimes read aloud to keep his concentration on comprehending (PROB 9). Also he went back and forth several times to check if his understanding (PROB 3, 5). It seemed that the global strategies did not help him much this time because there are too many unknown words in this article. When he tried to

guess an unknown word from the surrounding sentences, there was always another unknown word in the surrounding sentences. So, he had to constantly think of some other way to understand, and this not only consumed a lot of time but also frustrated him.

Table 3

Researcher's observation & Participant's self-reported strategy use for three types of reading texts

Strategy item	Story reading						Expository reading						Descriptive reading					
	GLOB		PROB		SUP		GLOB		PROB		SUP		GLOB		PROB		SUP	
	R	P	R	P	R	P	R	P	R	P	R	P	R	P	R	P	R	P
1	3	7	3	4	0	0	3	5	3	3	0	0	3	6	5	5	0	1
2	5	7	0	0	2	0	5	6	0	0	0	0	8	9	1	2	1	2
3	5	10	5	7	0	1	5	6	5	7	4	4	3	3	5	5	2	4
4	5	6	4	4	3	8	9	11	5	4	3	2	7	7	3	4	4	4
5	3	4	1	3	1	0	3	2	4	3	2	0	2	4	3	3	1	0
6	5	6	6	6	5	3	4	2	3	5	3	3	1	5	5	8	6	7
7	10	10	1	4	2	1	8	7	5	3	2	1	3	3	4	5	5	2
8	7	11	4	10	1	2	8	6	4	4	1	2	9	9	8	9	4	5
9	6	7	4	7	2	6	6	6	1	3	2	3	6	3	3	4	3	6
Sub total	49	68	28	45	16	21	51	51	30	32	17	15	42	49	37	45	26	31
Total	117		73		37		102		62		32		91		82		57	

Note. The description for each strategy item can be seen in Appendix D.2, p. 126.

R: researcher P: participant

Numbers in each square: 0 “never used”; 1 “rarely used”; 2 “sometimes used”; 3 “used very often”

This table shows that the participant thought he used more strategies than the researcher observed. Global strategies were used most often among the three types of reading. Support strategies were used the least. It seems that the typographical features and text structures could catch the participant's attention easily (GLOB 3, 7). The participant knew how to make use of them to help him comprehend the reading texts.

Summary of Research Question One

The participant used global strategies most often toward the three types of reading texts. Support strategies were used least. The participant usually noticed the organization and structure of a reading text first, and then employed corresponding strategies. It

revealed that he was sensitive to the text structure. The strategies he thought he used were more than he actually used. More problem-solving strategies were adopted when Joel read expository texts. More support strategies were used when he read challenging articles. Descriptive reading texts seemed to be the most challenging for the participant, especially when the topic of the reading text was not familiar to him.

Research Question Two: How does the participant's strategy use in peer reading situations differ from that in individual reading situations?

Students read in pairs or groups during phases one and three; That is, the participant worked collaboratively with peers. In phases two and four, he was observed individually. The detailed results of the participant's strategy use for each reading text were already described in the first research question. The following results for this research question would focus on the participant's particular strategy use in each of the two reading situations.

Strategy Use in Peer Reading Situations.....Phases One & Three

Teacher's observations & notes

The researcher played a video of the story *Dark Dark Tale* before she let the students read it. Everybody sat on the edge of their seats and paid close attention to the squeaky sounds and mysterious plot (GLOB 7 & PROB 6). Students whispered to each other on what was happening in the story (SUP 6). Joel looked totally involved and kept guessing what was going to happen with his teammates (GLOB 1, 8, 9). The following reading on paper went smoothly. Students read and talked about the video clip they just watched (SUP 5, 6).

A writing task was conducted right after students read the bulletin *A Trip to Ken-ting*. Joel concentrated on the planning of the writing. The researcher noticed that he referred to the bulletin reading every now and then (PROB 3), and imitated the structure (GLOB 3). By doing this, he reread the original reading several times and also

self corrected misspelling words (PROB 7 & GLOB 3).

One of Joel's teammates glimpsed at Joel's writing and looked like he was copying Joel's writing. Students exchanged their writings when they finished. The participant and another student were invited to read out their bulletin to the whole class and answer classmates' questions. Joel explained the content of his writing in Chinese (SUP 9). He did not report his writing word for word; instead, he restated with his own words (SUP 5).

The third expository text Joel read was *How to Use a Fire Extinguisher*. The last paragraph talks about where a fire extinguisher should be placed in a house. Joel was not sure about the meaning of the third instruction *Keep a fire extinguisher in your garage especially if you use welding equipment or flammable products*. He read, reread, and looked for clues from the surrounding sentences (PROB 7 & GLOB 8) but in vain. He said,

"I know a garage is a place where people park their car, but I wonder what it looks like." (March, 2014)

One teammate happened to have relatives in America and he had been to the US several times. He told Joel, "A big garage is common for a household in America. Besides cars, people usually put things like tools, bikes, boxes, and old furniture in the garage. Americans like to fix things by themselves, so they have all sorts of tools." The obvious advantage of learning with peers is one person's background knowledge may trigger another person's background knowledge, and then all learners' knowledge gets expanded (GLOB 2 & SUP 6).

The follow-up activity for the descriptive reading *Sun Moon Lake* was a conversation practice between two persons. The researcher had the whole class have a quick look, and then invited the participant to be the teacher's assistant. The other students were asked to repeat the sentences after the participant and the researcher. Joel

was a little hesitant on taking up the assistant's role because he was not confident enough about his pronunciation. But not before long he got used to it. When he was reading out loud, he asked the teacher about the meanings of some words to clarify his doubts (PROB 9). Then students were divided into two parts to do a role-play. Finally, they practiced in pairs.

Another descriptive reading talks about Burger King. The teacher showed students photos of some fast food restaurants. Joel talked about his experience on eating out at McDonald's with teammates. Then, they read out the names of foods together and guessed where the restaurant in the photo was (PROB 9 & GLOB 2). Students were found adopting the "rereading" strategy several times when they disagreed with each other about the answers to the questions (PROB 7). Joel sat with a classmate who has good command of English, but they seemed to have different opinions on the second question. After they argued with each other for a while, they finally reached an agreement (GLOB 8).

Excerpt of Interview#2-4, 8-10.

R: How do you feel about reading with your classmates?

P: It is fun. We can exchange opinions (SUP 6).

R: Does learning with peers help you understand better? Do you think there are any disadvantages when you read with classmates?

P: Most of the time I enjoy learning with friends. But sometimes it depends on who I read with. If my partner's English is too poor and I need to explain almost every word to him/her, I would feel exhausted. In that case, I prefer reading by myself.

R: Do you prefer using certain strategies to solve reading difficulty when reading with classmates?

P: I think we can share life experience. That's called activating prior knowledge (GLOB 2), right?

Strategy Use in Individual Reading Situations.....Phases Two & Four

Teacher's observations & notes

The researcher found that Joel expressed higher concentration when he read by himself than read with peers. When he encountered certain difficulties in reading, he would try to reread, search for prior experience, and stop to think about the problem (PROB 7 & GLOB 2). The teacher is still considered to be an authority figure to Joel. He seldom turned to the teacher's help promptly unless he really got stuck in a problem.

One of the participant's most favored strategies was "locating key information" and "summarizing." However, when he faced the most challenging reading *The Last Butterfly*, this strategy did not seem to work well. Joel could not understand by solely depending on either global strategies or problem solving strategies because of the higher level of difficulty. He needed to ask for help from outside resources (support strategies).

Joel worked individually when he read online game instruction. Since there was only one computer in a traditional classroom, without time limit, Joel was able to explore as many games as possible and try as many times as he wanted. With this interactive and real-time practice, Joel demonstrated high level of patience in figuring out the meaning of each instruction (PROB 4, 5, 7, 8). He probably would sit for a whole day enjoying the fascinating, multicolored animation (GLOB 7), if the teacher did not remind him it was time to go home.

The participant was happy to read the expository reading of science experiment again and again (PROB 7). He wanted to see what the possible outcomes would be if he tested with different ingredients. By doing this several times, he memorized all the words in this science reading.

One disadvantage of reading individually is the participant tended to get bored more easily if the reading material was uninteresting or he was eager to go outside to play with friends.

Excerpt of Interview#5-7, 11-13

R: Do you like to read with others or read by yourself? Why?

P: I like to read with others, because we are allowed to talk to each other.

R: What's the advantage of reading individually?

P: I'll read faster if there's nobody else around.

R: Did you use certain strategies when you read by yourself but you didn't use them when you read with classmates?

P: Let me think...I would be able to have quiet time paying close attention to what I read in order to make sure I understand (PROB 4). It is fun to have a real discussion with classmates who can brainstorm with me. We can discuss and exchange opinions together (SUP 6). I feel relaxed and excited when I read with peers. Everybody feels happy if we don't have to sit quietly and just listen.

R: Do you think the reading strategy instruction is helpful? How?

P: Yes. It broadens my knowledge and helps me understand better.

R: Why do you think you know a strategy but you don't use it?

P: I didn't give it too much thinking. I think I'm just not used to using it.

R: When you read different types of reading, do you purposefully use certain strategies for certain type of reading?

P: I don't like to stop when I read a story or a descriptive reading unless there are too many big words in the text. I usually read the titles or boldfaced words of an expository text first. I don't use certain strategies on purpose. All I want is to understand what I'm reading (GLOB 9, PROB 1).

R: How do you resolve a reading problem?

P: Cry for help! Ha! Usually I keep reading (GLOB 6). For some reasons, I'll figure it out.

(The following question was answered by Joel's mother)

R: How much time does Joel spend on reading every day? What reading materials does he read? Does he choose what he wants to read or he reads what you ask him to read?

P's mom: Honestly, besides the reading homework assigned by schools, he doesn't spend extra time on reading. When he was very little, I read storybooks to him every now and then. Of course he has the freedom to choose what he likes to read. But it seems he rarely asks me to buy any books or magazines for him. The homework and extracurricular activities have already occupied most of his leisure time. His father and I are busy doing business, but we try to make time to check his academic performance every day.

Table 4

Researcher's observation & Participant's self-reported strategy use in peer reading and individual reading situations

Strategy Item	Phases 1 & 3(teamwork) Sept. 2013 & Mar. 2014						Phases 2 & 4 (individual work) Dec. 2013 & May.2014					
	GLOB		PROB		SUP		GLOB		PROB		SUP	
	R	P	R	P	R	P	R	P	R	P	R	P
1	7	9	5	5	0	1	2	9	6	7	0	0
2	11	13	0	0	2	2	7	9	1	2	1	1
3	5	13	6	6	4	6	8	6	9	13	2	5
4	13	12	6	4	4	6	8	12	6	8	6	10
5	5	5	4	2	6	4	3	5	4	7	1	0
6	6	4	8	12	11	8	4	9	6	7	3	8
7	12	12	6	5	4	2	9	8	4	7	5	2
8	14	14	8	14	5	7	11	12	8	9	1	6
9	7	7	5	8	4	7	11	9	3	6	3	8
Sub-total	80	89	48	56	40	43	63	79	47	66	22	40
Total	169		104		83		142		113		62	

Note. The description for each strategy item can be seen in Appendix D.2, p. 126.

R: researcher **P:** participant

Numbers in each square: 0 “never used”; 1 “rarely used”; 2 “sometimes used”; 3 “used very often”

As displayed in Table 4, Joel used support strategies more often in peer reading situations than in individual reading situations. When reading by himself, Joel used more problem-solving strategies. Global strategies were used most often in both reading

situations. The frequency of the participant's perceived use of strategy was higher than that observed by the researcher. The total frequency of strategy use in peer reading situations was higher than that in individual reading situations.

Summary of Research Question Two

Joel used more support strategies when he worked with peers than when he worked individually. By helping classmates clarify their doubts, Joel repeatedly used some reading strategies without even noticing it. The best learning outcome occurred when he read with peers of comparable English proficiency.

When Joel read individually, he used more problem-solving strategies than when reading with peers. If he was interested in the content of a reading, he would try out different strategies to solve the reading problems. When reading with the aid of technology, the participant acted like an autonomous reader. He flexibly manipulated strategies to solve reading problems and he hardly asked the researcher any questions in that situation.



CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This research aimed to explore an English high-achieving child's manipulation of reading strategies for different types/topics of reading texts and to observe his strategy use in peer reading situations and in individual reading situations. Based on the results in chapter four, this chapter discusses the findings of the present study with related literature and explains the possible reasons for the results.

Research Question One: What reading strategies are used by the participant when he reads different types/topics of texts after the reading strategy instruction?

The self-efficacy questionnaire revealed that Joel had a very positive perception toward English language and English culture, and that positive attitude led to his continuous learning. During the reading strategy instruction, Joel kept an open-minded attitude on learning. He expanded knowledge of reading strategies and had a clear understanding about each strategy he learned. However, his preference in strategy use displayed a similar pattern. As reported by Pressley and Afflerbach (1995), skilled readers approach reading tasks with some general tendencies. Joel demonstrated the same tendencies found among skilled readers. No matter what types of texts he read, he used global strategies most often. He tended to read in broad phrases, guess unknown words from contexts, grasp main ideas, activate background knowledge, and continue reading when he felt confused about an isolated word or phrase.

Joel used least support strategies when he read. For instance, he seldom used dictionary to look up unknown words in the middle of reading. He mentioned the hesitation on some particular parts of a reading text hindered his understanding. This situation is in line with Hudson's study (2007), which indicated a reader's struggling to make connections between letters and sounds may interrupt the process of his

constructing meaning from the text. In contrast, if the reader skipped the unknown words and continued reading, he would instead understand better.

Generally speaking, Joel preferred using a meaning-based level of reading strategies instead of a decoding-based level of strategies. His liking in reading with a global view accords with the results of many earlier studies which suggested high proficient readers tend to employ more top-down or context-related strategies (Brantmeier, 2002; Carrell, 1989; Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Cohen & Macaro, 2007; Lai, 2013; O'malley & Chamot, 1990; Sadoski, 1999; Wallace, 1992). This reading behavior of Joel might be explained by his childhood learning experience. When he started learning English in the kindergarten, he had been taught in a naturalistic way. He has been used to grasping the meaning of a reading from the context. He was more of a field-dependent learner. As Wyss (2002) indicated, field-dependent learners tend to ignore the details embedded in a text, and they pay more attention to the whole picture. Joel was good at grasping the main ideas, but he tended to skip the isolated words or detailed events. This habit of learning also applied to his learning on other subjects. For example, he was found to have a clear concept about a math problem and was able to demonstrate the calculation process; however, he often missed out on getting a perfect score because of a small miscalculation. The finding of similar strategy use across different subjects is in line with the finding presented by Chamot and Kupper (1989).

The participant usually noticed the organization and structure of a reading first, and then employed corresponding strategies. This finding echoes those of previous researchers that claimed that text structure awareness can facilitate readers' reading comprehension (Hall, Sabey, & McClellan, 2005). An example can be found in expository readings: Ke (2009) indicated that one characteristic of expository reading is its clear layout, and that the title usually reveals the content of the text. Readers usually have a purpose in mind before reading an expository text. Joel's regular use of global

strategies, such as “using typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information” and “taking an overall view of the text to see what it is about,” seemed to accord well with the characteristics of expository readings.

Joel expressed a clear concept about the three types of reading texts. He said,

"Expository texts tend to present concrete ideas in a logical, step-by-step way. The writing style of stories seems to be free of limits. As for descriptions, you need more imagination. If you don't have any prior experience to relate to, you'd better be good at envisioning." (May, 2014)

He was sensitive to the text structure, and he adjusted his strategy use according to the structure, albeit in an unconscious way. As he mentioned in an interview,

"I don't use any strategies on purpose. It comes naturally. All I want to do is to understand what I'm reading." (March, 2014)

The text structure between expository and story/descriptive texts is very different. Story and descriptive types of reading texts have more predictable sequences; therefore, they often follow one structural pattern. This might explain why Joel mentioned in the last interview about how he read stories. He enjoyed reading with the flow and seldom stopped to check unknown words.

Expository texts, on the other hand, usually include multiple structures, such as comparisons/contrasts or cause/effect relationships, and thus readers would need more prior knowledge and cognitive capability to comprehend an expository text. In other words, more complicated cognitive skills are needed to read this kind of formational texts (Hall et al., 2005). Take the expository text *How to Use a Fire Extinguisher* as an example: Joel successfully activated his prior experience in the disaster prevention drill to help him understand the meaning of the text, though there were several difficult words in it.

Descriptive reading texts describe places, people, and incidents. Usually many

adjectives as well as nouns are used in this type of text. Although the participant tended to neglect the details embedded in a text and enjoyed the flow of reading, his comprehension was forced to stop when the reading contained too many unfamiliar words, such as when Joel read a highly challenging descriptive text titled *The Last Butterfly*. He confessed that a lack of sufficient vocabulary caused his reading difficulty. This situation is similar to those in earlier studies indicating that limited vocabulary knowledge is the most common reading problem detected among students (Carrell, 1989; Lai, Li, & Amster, 2013; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Sadoski, 1999;). However, comprehension might be improved by a reader's expanded vocabulary and improved control of grammar (Alyousef, 2006; Hirsch, 2003). When a reader's language ability progresses to a higher level, as Hudson (2007) indicated, he/she will be able to utilize some brain capacity to do more comprehension work. Joel was noticeably spending less time on reading similar lengths of passages, and the frequency of using the "rereading" strategy decreased as he continued to learn English. This finding echoes Goodman's notion (1978) that as learners' language control develops, their ability to manipulate skills like confirming, predicting and sampling strategies improves. However, the results also revealed that if the level of difficulty is too high for the participant, he would just give up reading or immediately solicit the teacher's help without further attempts at reading.

The story type of reading always catches children's attention. The entertaining characteristic of a story allows children to focus on reading. Joel said,

"I'm used to reading through a story without stopping, unless there's a special reason."
(March, 2014)

According to a survey, many people are visual learners (Peterson, 2011). Stories for young readers usually come with colorful pictures or illustrations. Joel was able to make use of these visual aids. Pictures and videos contained in a reading significantly

contributed to his comprehension. This might explain why he spent less time on reading stories.

Gambrell (1996) pointed out that an ongoing conversation between the reader and the writer of a story in a natural situation can better involve the students in learning; however, Joel's reading behavior seemed to contradict this notion. Joel tended to read through a whole story without stopping to conduct self-questioning. Possible explanations might be that Joel's level of language proficiency was above the level of the reading at hand; therefore, he was able to read smoothly and silently. Moreover, at the time of reading, he was progressing toward puberty, and it would have been perhaps a little funny and ridiculous for him to ask himself questions.

When the topic of a reading was unfamiliar to the participant, even a simple reading text could be confusing unless visual aids like photos or videos were provided. As Krashen (1982) indicated, to understand a reading text, people use more than just the linguistic competence. Their knowledge of world, the context and extra-linguistic information are all needed. Nishino (2007) also claimed that background knowledge usually has positive influence on helping readers achieve comprehension. Joel showed better comprehension when he attended to reading texts that he could relate to. For instance, when Joel read the expository text *How to Use a Fire Extinguisher* and the descriptive reading *Sun Moon Lake*, he retrieved his prior experience and then activated his background knowledge to help him understand. This finding also corresponds with Alyousef's (2006) and Lee's (2015) studies, which mentioned that when the content of a reading text is familiar to the reader, the images stored in the reader's memory or previous hands-on experience would be brought out to help him/her understand.

The results showed that the number of strategies Joel claimed to use was more than that he actually used. The difference between his claimed use of strategy and his actual use of strategy might be due to his immature metacognitive ability, as Brown (1978),

Garofalo, and Lester (1985) indicated in their research. The situation might also reveal that his reading ability was better than he thought. He achieved comprehension with less reading strategies than he perceived. A possible reason for the mismatch might be the self-report strategy questionnaire was conducted “after” the reading practice, not “with” the reading practice. A strategy might be used one time, but it happened to be the most useful strategy which helped him comprehend the reading text, and therefore this most useful strategy was mistaken for the most frequently used strategy.

In accordance with Wallace’s study (1992), the results of this study suggested that when reading integrated with listening and writing, the participant’s interests increased, and his ability of manipulating reading strategies was strengthened.

Observed from this study, Joel sometimes did not take the reading practice seriously; he would fool around by reading the words out loud. Yet after a few sentences, he would quiet down and read silently. When asked why, Joel replied,

“I understand better if I read silently.” (March, 2014)

Samuels (2002) claimed that it is important for children to develop fluency in word recognition. Fast word recognition occupies less cognitive capacity, which enables them to understand what is being read. Learners should be encouraged to read silently if they have already achieved a certain level of English proficiency. This may explain why a high-achieving English learner like Joel seldom used the support strategy of “reading aloud.” This finding also echoes the results of earlier research suggesting that the “reading aloud” strategy has more of a display function than an understanding function (Wallace, 1992).

However, there were times when the participant found reading aloud to be useful. He said,

“When I read aloud a word, my only intention will be to articulate this unfamiliar word. By doing this, I feel the sound of the funny looking word might help me recall

something related to this word.”

(May, 2014)

Besides reading aloud, strategies that Joel rarely used were self-questioning, paraphrasing, translating, taking notes, and looking up words in a dictionary. These findings are in accordance with those of earlier research indicating that advanced readers use more inferring strategies and less decoding strategies than poor readers (Chou, 2008). Many researchers indicated that successful readers can not only identify which strategy to use for which type of reading, but also manipulate the strategies that work for them (Brown, Armbruster, & Baker, 1986; Carrell et al., 1989; Hughes, 1989). A similar behavior of strategy use was found on Joel’s reading toward picture books and expository bulletins. He was able to make good use of visual aids in a picture book to overcome the language difficulty. When he read the expository bulletin, he would not read through the whole article as he read a story. Instead, he read the boldfaced or italicized words and grasped the information he wanted.

The global strategy of “using pictures in text to increase understanding” was used very often when Joel read online instructions. For a child growing up with technology, learning with the help of computers is never a problem. When reading online, especially game instructions with a significant amount of vivid animation embedded inside, Joel always expressed strong motivation and highly involved himself in reading. Due to the great information accessibility of the Internet, he never asked for the teacher’s help; instead, he used problem-solving strategies like “rereading” and “adjusting reading speed” many times. This finding is similar with that of Chun and Plass’s study (1996). The result once again revealed that Joel’s employment of reading strategies was influenced by how much he liked the topic and how he read. The high level of interest enabled Joel to read at a proper rate and kept him involved in the text regardless of its syntactic difficulty.

Other than the text itself and the participant’s level of interest toward the reading,

the results of the present study suggested that Joel's strategy use was also influenced by many other factors. His personality, his English proficiency, his reading habits, the environment in which the reading occurred, and his level of familiarity with the reading all contributed to the changes in his strategy use.

As mentioned in chapter three, the participant enjoyed learning English and was used to thinking in English. This thinking behavior could be traced back to the English-learning experience of his early childhood. He was accustomed to the sounds and forms of English. When learning a new vocabulary, Joel was able to pick up the word quickly and connect the sound of the word to his old memory. The encouragement from his parents was also an important factor that contributed to Joel's reading behavior. His father sometimes asked him to translate emails without using the dictionary and this helped him to gain more confidence in guessing. Since he was trained this way, he had a sense of how language is naturally expressed. All of these experiences explained why Joel did better with strategies such as "inferring" and "summarizing" than he did with strategies such as "looking up words in a dictionary." He felt awkward when he was required to use a particular strategy intentionally for reading. It seemed that he tended to benefit more from implicit learning than from the teacher's explicit instruction, just as Schmidt's finding (2010) about children's learning.

Joel said,

"I know those strategies but I'm not used to using them. I need to remind myself to use them, which takes a lot of extra effort." (May, 2014)

Clearly, this intentional effort slowed down his reading rate. Joel preferred to employ strategies with which he felt most comfortable and familiar. This preference toward certain strategies is in accordance with MacIntyre and Noels's (1996) finding. They found that the high frequency of strategy use will be predicted only when readers perceive a strategy as effective, know it well, and consider it as easy to use. This

tendency might also be explained by the result presented by Garofalo and Lester (1985), which indicated that while younger students may have the awareness of a certain reading strategy and know how to describe it, it does not mean that they actually know how to use it.

Skills in reading depend on the efficient interaction between linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world (Clarke & Silberstein, 1977). As young EFL learners, such as Joel, might not have enough of these kinds of knowledge, they need strategy instruction. However, after Joel received the reading strategy instruction, his strategy use during the entire research seemed to remain focused on certain strategies. This result appears contradictory to those of some previous studies (Anderson, 1999; Duke & Pearson, 2002; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001), which mentioned that readers will be equipped with better ability of manipulating strategies once they receive the reading strategy instruction.

Although some strategies were rarely used by Joel, it does not mean that the seldom-used strategies were useless. A strategy cannot be called ineffective if it has never or rarely been used or tested in different contexts, as MacIntyre and Noels (1996) indicated. The underuse of some strategies might suggest that either Joel lacked practice in the manipulation of these strategies or he was incapable of controlling his comprehension process. This result corresponds with Garner and Alexander's (1989) study. Joel's reading strategy preferences might also be explained by his extroverted personality. As Safdarian, Ghyasi and Farsani (2014) proposed, extroverted readers tend to use less reading strategies than introverted readers. Another possibility for Joel's preference in strategy use echoes Barrentine's finding (1996), which suggested that Joel did not really master some of the reading strategies, so he tended not to use them. He needed more time to be engaged in using a strategy in order to internalize it. An earlier research reported that very young learners often demonstrate a poor use of both

cognitive and metacognitive strategies. They need support to develop the ability to use these strategies and to monitor and evaluate their use (McCrudden, Perkins, & Putney, 2005). In Joel's case, the scaffolding of the teacher and his classmates gave him this kind of support.

According to the researcher's observations, Joel was more of an impulsive learner, who sought immediate gratification in his reading. He tended to read through a passage rapidly to catch the main ideas instead of lingering over unfamiliar words, which is in accordance with Brown's (2007) description about good readers' behavior. The participant responded quickly to the teacher's questions and dared to take risks at guessing the possible answers. In short, his personality and learning style affected his strategy use, which is exactly like the findings presented in earlier studies (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Nishino, 2007; Oxford & Green, 1995).

If researchers examine Joel's strategy use from Brown's (2007) point of view, who indicated that the best use of strategies depends on the reader's age, personality, and purpose of reading, the results would seem even more reasonable and understandable.

Research Question Two: How does the participant's strategy use in peer reading situations differ from that in individual reading situations?

Strategy Use in Peer Reading Situations

The participant was found to be employing more strategies when he read with a classmate who had the same enthusiasm for learning and had comparable English abilities than when he read alone. They would discuss issues from the reading and act as each other's tutor. This finding echoes the findings of earlier research indicating that the development of strategy use is highly affected by the social context in which it occurs. The interaction among peers inspires students to be each other's scaffolding (Donato & McCormick, 1994; Norton & Toohey, 2001; Vygotsky, 1978).

Joel constantly played the role of a teacher when reading with peers. He often took the responsibility of helping his classmates to read a text. He used different ways to explain the meaning of the text and altered his original way of reading if his classmates' methods were better. This finding revealed that the participant's metacognitive awareness had been raised. As suggested by some previous researchers, when one strategy did not work out, good readers would use another way to overcome the difficulty (Brown et al., 1986; Carrell et al., 1989).

Joel's extroverted personality trait made certain influence on his strategy use, as indicated in the first research question. Unlike introverted readers' preferences on using more cognitive strategies, Joel preferred using social language learning strategies. This result is in line with Safdarian, Ghyasi and Farsani's (2014) finding. Joel mentioned several times in the interviews that he enjoyed reading and discussing with classmates.

When the participant read with peers, the researcher noticed that his metacognitive behavior usually took place after his cognitive behavior. For example, greater metacognitive use of strategies was found when Joel read the descriptive text *Sun Moon Lake*. At first, Joel utilized strategies like "rereading" and "guessing from context." When he got stuck on a reading problem, he would try several other strategies to solve the problem. If the problem remained unsolved, he would then turn to his peers for help. He discussed the issue with peers, activated prior knowledge, and found the most possible explanation. This situation reflects Goodman's notion (1996) about reading. He asserted that reading is a constructive process. No two readers construct the exact same meaning from a reading text, and the meaning that they create would not be the same as the author's. Each member in a team is accountable for his/her own learning; as they exchange opinions by paraphrasing and summarizing what they have read, each person's ability in handling metacognitive strategies increases. When Joel read the expository reading text *How to Use a Fire Extinguisher* with peers, they retrieved their

memory from the disaster prevention drill and helped each other to recall useful information related to the reading text. It showed that one member's background knowledge triggered another member's old memory, until finally everybody's knowledge expanded. This finding also echoes those of other researchers' (Slavin et al., 2009) studies.

When students were involved in discussions, the positive attitude helped to create a productive and friendly atmosphere in the classroom (Schunk, 2003). Learning in this low-anxiety environment allowed the learners to become risk-takers. They would then demonstrate a higher frequency of strategy use in this situation. The result of the present research proves that social support in a context is essential for achieving successful learning, just as Brown (2007) indicated in his study. The result also revealed that an appropriate study partner could benefit Joel's learning. However, there were times when the participant was found to be occupied in teaching the low-achieving teammates. In this case, though he seemed to practice the "rereading" and "retelling" strategies several times, he did not in fact spend time on any "real" discussions. This situation is similar to that in a previous study (Lan, Sung, & Chang, 2007).

English should not only be a kind of knowledge that students need to acquire, but a tool to communicate with one another. The social interactive feature in the process of reading, which occurs between the reader, the writer, and the text, can be viewed from two perspectives: social and individual. For young learners, an appealing learning context seems even more indispensable (Silberstein, 1993). This notion about the importance of an appropriate learning environment was confirmed by the findings in this research. Through social interaction with others, Joel understood things that he did not truly understand before; deeper thinking and comprehension were thus elicited. This finding is also the same as those presented by several researchers (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002; Vygotsky, 1978). Providing readers with

opportunities to discuss and practice the application of strategies will increase their chances of becoming critical readers.

Reading strategies, as opposed to communication strategies, are perceived as receptive strategies. This does not mean that learners have to sit quietly and merely listen. Joel tended to make the teacher talk less in class, even though the reading text itself was interesting. Creating more student-centered activities might facilitate the practice of reading strategies. As Wallace (1992) mentioned, reading behavior is associated with the reader's social expectations and situational contexts. Joel's good English ability often rendered him the teacher in a group. This influenced him to perform problem-solving strategies more often in order to clarify his team members' comprehension problems, as indicated by Afflerbach, Pearson and Paris (2008). When the participant used his own words to tell another member of the group what the reading text was about, he was prompted to self-investigate his own comprehension. Through the brainstorming interaction with peers, Joel was able to reflect on his own reading process and self-monitor the appropriateness of his strategy employment. Moreover, he broadened his own strategy use by learning from his peers' experiences. These results are in accordance with those of other studies (Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Ke, 2009).

In accordance with an earlier study on peer assisted learning, which indicated that students increase academic gains through the interaction with partners (Fuchs et al., 1997). By playing active roles in learning, students engage themselves better and longer in learning. The participant demonstrated higher motivation in the reading activities when he read with peers. He reinforced the skills of using certain reading strategies such as "retelling" and "summarizing" by constantly playing the tutor's role.

Reading with peers allows the teacher to add more variations in follow-up

activities and offers high achievers, such as Joel, a chance to evaluate their own comprehension. As in Meng's (2010) study, the researcher found that the participant's metacognitive awareness developed from his opportunity of playing the scaffolding role as a teacher. Also in line with Barrentine's (1996) finding, the after-reading discussion functions as a reflective activity that develops readers' knowledge of literature elements and deepens the comprehension of the reading text.

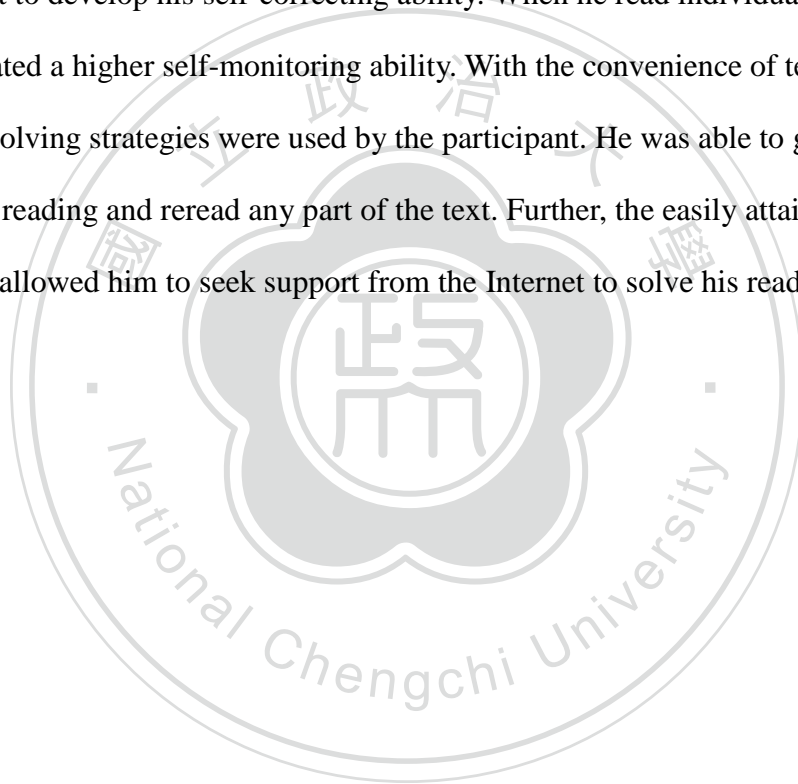
Strategy Use in Individual Reading Situations

For young readers, a teacher's explicit guidance is crucial in the beginning of learning a new skill. Chen and Shieh (2012) suggested that constant reminder, modeling and practice are required in fostering a student's metacognition. When teachers repetitively mention the terms of strategies, process, and metacognition in everyday learning activities, they deliver the important message behind the terms to the students, and gradually develop the students' metacognitive abilities. For example, when Joel read the descriptive reading *The Last Butterfly*, he was unwilling to read it at first owing to the high level of difficulty of this text. However, with a little assistance and encouragement from the teacher, the participant changed his attitude and finally completed the reading task. Nevertheless, researchers should be alerted to the possibility that overly emphasizing training and practices might create too much pressure which could negatively affect children's interests in learning. As revealed in an interview, Joel expressed his awkward feeling about being forced to use a strategy in reading.

When the participant read alone and had no peers with whom to discuss the reading, at times a few comprehension questions accompanied the reading text in order to examine the participant's comprehension more precisely. In this case, if the participant's correct answers to the questions were due to his real comprehension by manipulating appropriate strategies, not merely to his good test-taking skills, is worth attention. As

Lee (2015) suggested, teachers should be careful not to let students' test-taking ability be mistaken for language ability. How a question is framed brings out different strategy uses. For instance, if a question asks the students the meaning of a particular word, the students might use the strategy of "guessing from context;" if the students are required to choose the best title for an article, they might employ the "summarizing" strategy.

When the participant read with his peers, he adopted support strategies mainly through discussions with classmates. The interactive talks among peers helped the participant to develop his self-correcting ability. When he read individually, he demonstrated a higher self-monitoring ability. With the convenience of technology, more problem-solving strategies were used by the participant. He was able to go back and forth on a reading and reread any part of the text. Further, the easily attained online resources allowed him to seek support from the Internet to solve his reading difficulties.





CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

Summary of Major Findings

The results did not reveal a significant relationship between the participant's frequency of strategy use and the extent of his strategy knowledge. His strategy use was related to numerous factors, such as his interest in the reading topic, his background knowledge, his personality, the teaching/learning technique employed (e.g., technology-assisted reading), and the circumstances in which the reading occurred. The study participant displayed more willingness to experiment with diverse strategies during group reading activities and when reading was integrated with listening, writing or speaking.

As the participant continued learning English, he achieved improved control of his strategy use. Many of the characteristics of good readers were observed in his reading behavior, such as perceiving reading as a meaning-constructing process rather than just word-decoding work, reading in broad phrases, skipping nonessential words, guessing from the context, and activating prior knowledge. These reading strategies are all global strategies. When reading different types of texts on different topics, the participant typically used global strategies.

To achieve successful reading, no reading strategy can be used in isolation. The participant demonstrated flexible strategy use. He exhibited sensitivity to the text structure by adjusting his strategy use to the structure of each text. He became accustomed to reading through a story and comprehending the main ideas. When reading expository texts, he would first focus on how the text was organized. The titles, italicized or boldfaced words, and the layout of a text can reveal much about the content. A descriptive text contains many adjectives and longer sentences, making this type of

reading more challenging for the participant. However, descriptive texts on topics in which he had experience and a richer vocabulary were easier for him to understand.

The participant tended to use certain reading strategies more frequently than other strategies, which might be explained by the following reasons: (1) He felt comfortable using the same strategies to read because those strategies were the most familiar to him. (2) Some of the reading strategies, such as summarizing, required more mental exertion; this additional effort rendered the strategies difficult to learn, and this difficulty could interfere with reading flow. (3) He tended to seek immediate gratification. He would become easily frustrated when a strategy did not assist him to comprehend quickly, which might have been due to his level of maturity (the participant was a preteen). Traits correlated with this developmental stage, such as impatience and impulsivity, contributed to his reading behavior. (4) The participant exhibited preferred reading strategies. With all of the strategies he had learned, he still preferred to use certain strategies because of their perceived usefulness. Successful reading comprehension through certain strategies is likely a key factor in their continued application (Green & Oxford, 1995; MacIntyre & Noels, 1996). (5) Insufficient opportunity to practice might be another reason why the participant repeatedly used the same strategies. He required more practice time using the underused strategies to internalize them. (6) Motivation had a critical effect on the frequency with which the participant used certain strategies; he seemed to consider his preferred strategies adequate for text comprehension. (7) The underuse of certain strategies might have been due to an absence of test-taking pressure. When a reading problem did not interfere with the participant's general understanding, he would ignore the problem and continue reading. Fluent rather than accurate reading seemed to be his priority.

Giving the learner time to teach others provided him an opportunity to perceive and analyze his own use of strategies. The participant displayed flexibility in his

manipulation of reading strategies. As suggested by Brown (2007), language comprehension is more effectively achieved through the linguistic interaction that occurs as teachers integrate interesting and productive strategies into their reading instruction. Young learners like to learn things in a playful manner. Selecting reading materials with appealing topics and offering students opportunities to talk about them is crucial (Duke & Pearson, 2002). Providing adequate writing texts as models for readers to imitate is another advantage for learners (Harmer, 2008). Children develop reading strategies at different rates. Effective reading strategies must be instructed frequently and accompanied by various types of reading text and sufficient time for repeated practice.

Well-planned strategy instruction teaches students how to enhance their reading comprehension by employing appropriate strategies. However, the limited attention span, fluency, and naturalness of children seem to limit the effectiveness of classroom instruction for them (Brown, 2007). As revealed from this research, when the participant perceived that he was being forced to use specific strategies, his passion for learning would decline. Instruction on strategies should address students' affective needs and provide them with sufficient opportunities for social interaction.

As the results indicated, the participant's strategy employment was influenced by many variables. To ensure students a better opportunity to develop the ability to manipulate reading strategies, teachers need to provide students with diverse reading materials, various reading activities, and sufficient time to practice using strategies in either individual reading or peer reading situations.

Pedagogical Implications

The results of this study indicated that, when children learn in a manner that they enjoy, they may exhibit positive learning outcomes. The participant demonstrated higher motivation for attempting different reading strategies and performed as an independent reader when technology was integrated with the reading. This independent reading

behavior was rarely observed under other conditions. In this digital age, learning with technology has become an unstoppable trend (Coiro & Dobler, 2007; Dryner & Nel, 2003). Diverse digital teaching and learning resources are available on the market. Therefore, teachers should integrate technology into strategy instruction to satisfy students' needs (Brandl, 2002; Reid, 1987).

The current results also revealed that, when strategy learning incorporated other language skills (e.g., writing and speaking), students' ability in manipulating reading strategies increased; when language class included other subjects (e.g., science), students' motivation in trying out different strategies increased as well. These findings give teachers great suggestions in designing reading strategy instruction.

As the results showed, inadequate knowledge on syntax and vocabulary made it more difficult for young readers to acquire the ability of manipulating strategies. It is important to help children enrich their vocabulary. Carrell (1998) and Wallace (1993) mentioned that new words are largely learned through constant and extensive reading. Therefore, teachers have the responsibility to provide children with extensive reading opportunities.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations of the study are: first, it takes considerable time and practice to master a strategy, but the English learning hours at school are fixed; moreover, the students have many subjects to attend, so the actual time spent on strategy practice was very limited. As a result, the underuse of certain strategies might result from the participant's unfamiliarity with the strategy. Second, the participant of this case study was a very active student. His impulsive personality sometimes impeded his concentration on reading and this caused certain interference to the results.

Suggestions for Future Research

Although the issue of generalization is not the main concern of a case study, readers

of case studies should know how to apply what they learn from the findings to their own particular situation. It is still recommended that a larger scale of study involving a diverse background of students be conducted in the future to get a more complete understanding about good readers' strategy use. It revealed from this study that when the participant read with appropriate peers, he would benefit more from the interaction among them. Therefore, it is also suggested that a more careful grouping for the reading class deserves further exploration.



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Appendix

A. Strategies Learned During Instruction

---excerpted from Learner's Publishing (2008)

Predicting

Students use information from a text to predict outcomes not explicitly stated in the text. This strategy can help learners focus on reading and help them investigate their own comprehension (Ke, 2009). A story titled *Funny Bones* was introduced to students by just listening first. With the dramatic intonation and lively spooky sound effects such as door squeaking and heavy footsteps, students were asked to guess what the story is about and offered their predictions. After the Q & A, students got a print-out story and learned how to use clues, words and pictures in the text to guess the meaning of a story. Then a video clip of the story was played.

Guessing from context

The meaning of unknown words can be guessed from the context or the words that appear frequently. An article about Jane Goodall was used as reading material.

Students were asked to work with teammates to circle all the unfamiliar words in the text and then compete with another team to see if both of them guess the meaning of words in the same way.

Inferring

Students were asked to make inferences about what is most likely to be true based on information provided in a text. They need to look for details and see what makes the most sense to support their inferences. This strategy can be learned with “guessing from the context” strategy.

Identifying main ideas

This is a strategy which readers use to determine the main idea in a text or in specific paragraphs. Significant clues to find main ideas are the title and the conclusion. A Chinese text named *Pearl Birds* was used to practice this strategy. Students were encouraged to use this strategy in English reading.

Summarizing

The strategy is used to locate relevant information in a text, underline it and think about how it is linked. Words like while, but, when, and as may be very important in deciding how the information is linked. Unnecessary and irrelevant information should be omitted. A story called *Knight* was used to practice this strategy. Students were asked to underline the key sentences and rewrite the story with ten sentences. For

low-achieving students, an alternative way to practice this strategy is have them underline key sentences and then delete all the remaining ones.

Using pictures/graph/table aids

An expository text called *Five Steps of Sleeping* was used for this strategy. This is a challenging article for most sixth graders because there are many science-related words contained in the article. Students were first asked to read written words only and encouraged to guess the main points in the text. Then the researcher illustrated the text with graphs and pictures to help students understand.

Locating similarities and differences in an article

Readers compare and contrast who, where and what happened in a text. Students were required to categorize information to determine what some people, places and events have in common, or how they differ. An expository text called *All around the world* was used to introduce this strategy.

Activating background knowledge

When students encounter reading difficulties, they often turn to past experience to search for information. An article *Halloween* was introduced to students. This reading was easy to most students because they just celebrated Halloween with trick-or-treat activity. This real life experience made the reading material easier to understand.

Looking up words in dictionary

About one fifth of students in the class did not know how to use a dictionary before the research began. Students are required to know how to look up words in a dictionary before they graduate from elementary school. Since learning with technology is gaining popularity, using online dictionary such as yahoo dictionary and Cambridge dictionary was also introduced to the students.

Rereading/Adjusting speed of reading

When students face a reading difficulty, they need to know when and where to slow down the reading speed or reread to clarify the confusion.

An expository text about going to a party was used for this strategy. Readers were asked to verbally express what needs attention when attending a party, and what are the do's and don'ts in a party. In order to find the answer, students read several times.

Self-questioning

By self-questioning, readers gradually clear doubts in reading. An expository about cell phone was used for this strategy. Joel said, "...it mentions that when people talk on their cell phones while watching movies in a theater, they will be considered very

impolite. I ask myself if I were the other audience, what would I do....” Because this topic was very familiar to the reader, he easily retrieved information from his schemata and correctly answered the questions.

Sequencing

A recipe was used for this strategy training. Attention needs to be paid on the special signs, numbers and titles for each paragraph. Then the students watched a video about how this dish was made. After reviewing new words, students wrote down each cooking step on a piece of paper, and then mixed up those sentences on the desk. The researcher set a time limit and asked students to put the sentences in order. If students had difficulty completing the task, the teacher would read out cooking steps for them.

Identifying cause and effect/Relationship

Readers need to understand what cause in a reading leads to what effect and how they are connected.

An exposition titled *Snake* was used for this strategy. First, students identified the reasons which cause snakes to attack people. Second, they pointed out the effects of the deadly attack.

Scanning and skimming

Scanning is to find out key information in a text; skimming is to grasp main ideas in texts. An email about making pen pal was used. Students were asked to find the sender’s intention of writing this email and to name the main events mentioned in this email.

Reading aloud

Readers read out unfamiliar words or phrases in order to retrieve the meaning from their memory. They might repeat this reading-aloud a couple of times or reread the word or the whole sentence to see if the sound of the unfamiliar words would activate their prior knowledge and bring back useful information to help them comprehend.

Taking notes

Readers underline key words or sentences and write notes while reading. Those notes could be made in written words or drawings as long as they help readers recall the main ideas expressed by the author at a later time. The researcher gave students a short reading *What is hail?* to read. Students were asked to read silently and find the main idea. Then they reread and underlined keywords or phrases. Finally, a note-taken passage was introduced to students to demonstrate how to use this strategy effectively.

B. Lesson Plan Example of Strategy Instruction

Baker and Brown's suggestion (1984) for strategy training was adopted. The strategy instruction includes (a) training about the usefulness and significance of those strategies, (b) skills training in using specific strategies, and (c) self-regulating the use of strategies.

Guessing from context/pictures/surrounding sentences: the meaning of unknown words can be guessed either from the context/pictures or from the words/sentences which present repeatedly, because they often reveal the relationship among them.

Strategy: Guessing from context/pictures or surrounding words/sentences		Time: two sessions of class Each session is 40 minutes	
Steps	Teaching/Learning Activities	Teaching aids	Evaluation
Present (usefulness and significance of strategy)	<p>(In the following description of activities, T stands for the teacher/researcher, Ss stands for the students).</p> <p>① Show three groups of words to Ss, each group includes one type of words. For example, one group has chair, TV, table, sofa, etc., another group has basketball, tennis, golf, baseball, etc., and the third group includes hamburger, mushroom, beef, pie, cake, egg. A difficult word "gnocchi" is mixed within food type of words, T asks Ss what type the word 'gnocchi' belongs to, and then explains we can guess the possible meaning of an unfamiliar word from the words or sentences around it.</p> <p>② Let Ss read a short story which is presented by a few sentences on board. One sentence "he smashed the bottle with a hammer" seems a bit difficult for them. T asks volunteering students to explain what is going on in the story, and then shows Ss pictures which illustrate the story.</p>	Word cards & Sentence slips of a short story	Check Ss understanding from their response. See if Ss can guess the possible meaning of the difficult words or sentences.

(continued)

Strategy: Guessing from context/pictures or surrounding words/sentences		Time: two sessions of class Each is 40 minutes	
Steps	Teaching/Learning Activities (T: teacher Ss: students)	Teaching aids	Evaluation
Practice (skill training)	<p>③ T explains if Ss encounter a problem in reading, they can refer to the embedded pictures to help them understand.</p> <p>④ Let Ss work in pairs, give each pair a printout of this story but take off the pictures.</p> <p>⑤ Have each pair read two paragraphs at a time and then ask for volunteers to present what they read or what the difficulty they encounter. Jigsaw is an alternative way to do this activity. Assign one person in each group a specific part. These persons come out and form a professional group. After thorough discussion on this specific part, these persons go back to their original groups to teach teammates.</p>		
Production (self-regulating use of this strategy)	<p>⑥ Let Ss watch a slideshow of this story and then explain to clear their problems on specific words or sentences.</p> <p>⑦ Have seven students work in a group, each group think of a word, sentence or an idea they want to teach the others. They need to help classmates learn the target word/sentence/idea from the context. Give each group the freedom to present their ideas by role playing, speaking or writing.</p> <p>⑧ Ask each group to explain what the words or sentences they want to teach their classmates and how this presentation was designed based on this strategy.</p> <p>⑨ Let the other students give feedback to the presenters. The presenters also self evaluate if they successfully convey the strategy to their classmates.</p>	Picture book: The Cafeteria Lady from Lagoon	Check Ss understanding from their response. See if they can use the strategy of guessing from context or pictures.

C.1 Example Reading Text

戰勝閱讀(一) : Predicting and Summarizing

如何用已認識的字彙或句子去推測故事發生的情節並為文章做總結摘要。使用預測的方法來讀故事 *Funny Bones*。我們可從書籍的封面圖畫、書的名稱、文中出現的關鍵字、句或劇情來預測出整篇文章的大意或接著下來可能的故事發展，然後邊讀邊修正、比較實際在書中展現的和自己所預測的異同，同時也不斷地預測接下來的故事。請讀下面這個段落，說說這段的重點並猜猜接下來可能會發生的情節。把你的想法寫下來並和組員討論。

Funnybones---written by Janet & Allan Ahlberg

On a dark dark hill, there was a dark dark town. In the dark dark town there was a dark dark street. In the dark dark street, there was a dark dark house. In the dark dark house, there was a dark dark staircase. Down the dark dark staircase, there was a dark dark cellar. And in the dark dark cellar...some skeletons lived. There was a big skeleton, a little skeleton and a dog skeleton.

hill 山丘 town 小鎮 skeleton 骷髏 staircase 樓梯間

請想一想然後回答以下的問題?和你的組員討論並寫下來.

我覺得本段大意是；
我覺得接下來可能發生的是；
我從哪個字或句子推測出這樣的情節；

One night the big skeleton sat up in bed. He scratched his skull. "What shall we do tonight?" he said. "Let's take the dog for a walk," said the little skeleton. "And frighten somebody!" "Good idea!" the big skeleton said. So the big skeleton, the little skeleton and the dog skeleton left the dark dark cellar, climbed the dark dark staircase and stepped out into the dark dark street. They walked past the houses and the shops. They walked past the zoo and the police station. They went into the park.

scratch 抓 skull 頭皮 frighten 驚嚇

請想一想然後回答以下的問題?和你的組員討論並寫下來.

我覺得本段大意是；
這段大意和我原本預測的情節不相同的地方是；
我覺得接下來可能發生的是什麼?
我從哪個字或句推測出這樣的情節；

C.2 Example Reading Text

Example reading text (一) Sun Moon Lake

Not too far from Taichung, you'll find the famous Sun Moon Lake. The lake is located in Nantou County. It is the largest freshwater lake in Taiwan. It is a combination of two lakes, one of which is shaped like the sun and the other shaped like the moon. That's how it was given the name Sun Moon Lake. This lake and the surrounding area are very beautiful. What's more, the weather is pleasant all year round. It is home to the Thao tribe. It's not too surprising that indigenous people established communities here. Nowadays, you can enjoy the natural beauty of Sun Moon Lake and experience some indigenous culture at the same time.

In recent years, new hotels have been built to replace the old ones. Walking and cycling paths have also been constructed along with new boating facilities. Boating is a popular activity for tourists. Boats can be rented in Shuishe Village. Visitors can also explore Lalu Island in the center of the lake. If going solo isn't your thing, it's possible to take organized tours of the lake. Most tours visit all the sights and some of them even include birdwatching. It is possible to travel around by bus, but it can be a little slow sometimes. Other travel options include renting a car or bicycle.

Example reading text (二)

When riding your bicycle, always stay on the right-hand side of the road and pedal in the same direction as the traffic. It is not safe to ride on the left-hand side of the road in the direction of oncoming traffic. Also, bicycles have to obey the same signs and signals that cars do. This means that you have to come to a complete stop at a stop sign, and you must wait for a green light to proceed through an intersection. Finally, when riding with your friend, never look behind you while you are pedaling. This can cause you to lose your balance and swerve out into traffic. And last but not least, never ride your bicycle without a helmet!

- () What is the best title for this article? a. driving on the road
 b. bicycling on the road c. how to lose balance
- () What does “this” mean in line 4? a. stop sign b. ride on the left-hand side
 c. obey the traffic rules
- () What is the main idea of this article? a. traffic signs b. bicycling safety
 c. travelling

D.1 Reading Strategies Survey

同學們，請讀一讀左邊的陳述，然後在右邊勾選。沒有對或錯的答案，請依據你自己的經驗和方法來回答，和成績完全無關。只能勾一項哦！

閱讀策略描述 Reading strategy statement	非常同意 100% agree	同意 agree	不同意 disagree	非常不同意 100% disagree
在認真閱讀前，我會先瀏覽一下，看看這篇文章在說什麼。 I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it.				
我會試著用現有的知識或嘗試來幫助我理解閱讀內容。 I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.				
我會利用粗體或斜體字來找出關鍵重要的訊息。 I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information.				
我會注意文章中的關鍵字詞是什麼並試著做摘要。 I notice the key words/phrases in the text and try to summarize.				
我會先快速瀏覽一次看看文章有多長和它的組織架構如何。 I review the text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization.				
我會決定哪個部分需仔細讀、哪個部分可忽略。 When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.				
我會使用文章中的表格、圖片等來協助理解。 I use tables, figures and pictures in text to increase my understanding.				
我會利用文章中的線索來幫助我理解。 I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.				
在閱讀中，我會檢測看看自己對這篇文章的猜測對不對。 I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.				
我小心且慢慢地念以確定我了解我正在讀的是什麼意思。 I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading.				
當我失去專注力時我會努力試著回復正常狀態。 I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.				
我會來回閱讀文章來了解內容要點間的關係。 I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.				
當文章的難度越來越高時，我會更加專注於閱讀的內容。 When text becomes more difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.				
在閱讀中我會適時暫停，思索我正在讀的內容。 I stop from time to time to think about what I'm reading.				
我會試著把文章內容圖像化來幫助我記憶。 I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I				

read.				
當我閱讀時碰到困難，我會重讀幾次來嘗試了解。 When text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding.				
在閱讀中碰到不懂的單字我會利用上下文來猜測字義。 While reading, I guess the meaning of unknown words from context.				
我利用生字中字母的發音和形狀來幫助我理解它的意義。 I use sound and shape of letters in an unfamiliar word to help me understand its meaning.				
在閱讀時我會做筆記來幫助我理解。 I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.				
當文章越來越難時，我大聲朗讀來幫助我理解。 When texts become more difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.				
我會圈出文章的重點或畫底線來幫助我記住內容。 I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.				
我會利用工具書如字典等來幫助我了解文章內容。 I use reference materials (e.g. a dictionary) to help me understand what I read.				
我會試著用自己的話把讀到的內容說一說來幫助理解。 I restate ideas in my own words to better understand what I read.				
我會和別人討論閱讀內容來檢驗理解程度。 I discuss the content of texts with others to check my understanding.				
我會用問自己問題的方式來找出文章中的因果關係，使我更了解。 I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.				
當讀不懂時，我會將部分英文文章翻譯轉換為中文後再讀。 When reading, I translate English to Chinese when I get stuck in English.				
閱讀時，我以中文和英文來思考文章中的訊息。 When reading, I think about information in both English and Chinese.				

D.2 Categories of Reading Strategies

Global strategies

1. I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it
2. I think about what I know to help me understand what I read
3. I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information
4. I notice the key words/phrases in the text and try to summarize.
5. I review the text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization
6. When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.
7. I use tables, figures, pictures in text to increase understanding.
8. I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.
9. I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.

Problem solving strategies

1. I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading.
2. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.
3. I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.
4. When texts become more difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.
5. I stop from time to time to think about what I am reading.
6. I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.
7. I re-read the text when it becomes more difficult.
8. When I read, I guess the unknown words from surrounding sentences.
9. I use sound and shape of letters in an unfamiliar word to help me understand its meaning.

Support strategies

1. I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.
2. When texts become more difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.
3. I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.
4. I use reference materials like dictionary to help me understand what I read.
5. I restate ideas in my own words to better understand what I read.
6. I discuss the content of texts with others to check my understanding.
7. I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.
8. I translate English into Chinese when I get stuck in a sentence.
9. When reading, I think about information in both English and Chinese.

E. Self-efficacy Questionnaire

英語學習自我效能問卷

讀一讀左邊的陳述，請同學根據自己的經驗和感覺勾選，沒有對或錯的答案，對成績沒有任何影響。注意只能勾一項哦！

學習描述	非常同意	同意	不同意	非常不同意
1.我認為學英文可讓我心情愉快。	v			
2.我認為只要努力就可以把英文學好。	v			
3.我認為學英文能增加我的自信心。	v			
4.我認為學英文是因為對未來的工作有幫助。	v			
5.我認為英文很棒、很厲害是一件很光榮的事。	v			
6.我學英文是因為可以和外國人交朋友。	v			
7.我學英文是因為方便出國遊玩。		v		
8.我學英文是因為對課業、考試很重要。		v		
9.我學英文是因為英文現在是世界通用的語言。	v			
10. 我學英文是因為英文是一種很特別的語言。		v		
11. 我學英文是因為可幫助我看懂英文的書本、報紙、雜誌和漫畫。		v		
12. 我認為學英文可幫助我在其他方面的學習。	v			
13. 我學英文是因為對英語系國家(如美國、英國、紐西蘭、澳洲)有興趣。	v			
14. 我學英文是因為對英語系國家的人、事、物有興趣。	v			
15 我學英文是因為英文是一種聽起來很好聽的語言。	v			
16.我學英文是因為英文是一種看起來很好看的語言。		v		
17.我學英文是因為有一天我可能會到國外工作。	v			
18 我學英文是因為有一天我可能會搬到國外住。		v		
19 我認為英文很棒、很厲害可以交到更多朋友。	v			
20 我認為學英文可以得到很多的誇獎、讚美和鼓勵。	v			
21.我學英文是因為很多很有成就的人如(成龍、喬丹、馬英九等)都會說英文。			v	
22.我學英文是因為英語系國家(如美國、英國)是現在的強國。		v		
23.我認為要成為時代的領導者(如總統)必須要學會英文。		v		
24.我認為沒有學英文是跟不上時代、落伍的表現。		v		
25.我認為學英文可幫助我看懂英文卡通、電影等。	v			
26 我學英文是因為大家都在學英文，所以我跟著學。		v		
27.我認為學英文和天資聰明有關係。		v		

F. Interview Questions

Beginning Interview # 1

- 1) Talk about your English learning experience. 說說學習英語的經驗及過程。
- 2) How do you comprehend a reading text? What are the reasons which cause reading difficulties? How do you overcome the difficulty? 讀英文是如何看得懂呢? 如果不懂, 你覺得是什麼原因? 你克服困難呢?
- 3) What is your favorite type of reading? Why? What type of reading bores you? Why? 你喜歡讀哪一類的文章? 為什麼? 不喜歡讀哪一類的文章? 為什麼?
- 4) How does your family support your English learning? What are your family's attitudes about English and the culture of the language? 你的家人對你學習英語提供哪些協助? 他們對英語及其文化態度如何?
- 5) How does your family feel about your English achievement? 你的家人對你的英語成就感覺如何?

Interview # 2~13

- 1) What is the main idea of this reading text? (or ask student to summarize paragraph one, two...) 這篇文章的大意是什麼? (或問學生第一段、第二段...大意是什麼)
- 2) What is the challenging part of this reading? How do you solve the problem? 你覺得讀這篇文章困難的地方在哪裡? 你如何解決?
- 3) What reading strategies do you use most often? What are the strategies which help you the best? 閱讀時, 你最常使用的理解方法是什麼? 有沒有哪種方法讓自己最容易懂?
- 4) When you read _____ (depending on what problem the reader face in a particular article), what strategies do you employ to help you understand? 當你讀到 _____ (文章中的字或句) 時, 你用什麼方法讓自己了解其意?
- 5) Among all the strategies we have learned, what strategies do you use in this reading passage? What else can you use? 我們學過了這麼多閱讀理解策略, 讀本文時你運用了哪些? 你覺得還可以使用什麼策略來讓自己快速有效地閱讀並了解?

Interview #13

1) What reading strategies do you use most often to help you best understand?

Especially when you encounter a problem?

在閱讀時碰到的困難，你有沒有特別常用的方法幫助自己了解文意呢？

2) What particular strategies do you employ when you read stories, expository texts and descriptive texts respectively?

當你讀故事、說明及描寫文時你覺得自己運用了哪些我們學過的策略？

3) Is there any difference in your strategy use between reading with peers and reading alone?

你覺得閱讀時有同伴和沒有同伴時所使用幫助自己理解文意的策略有什麼不同？
為什麼呢？

4) Do you think what you can do to help you read English more efficiently?

你覺得應該怎麼做可以讓自己在閱讀英文時能更順利？

5) (Ask the participant's mother) How much time does Joel spend on reading every day?

What reading materials does he read? Does he choose what he wants to read?

Joel 每天花多少時間讀英文？他讀的是什麼？自己選擇嗎？

G. Excerpt of Reading Comprehension Test

Grade___ Class___ English Name_____ Chinese Name_____

A.

When riding your bicycle, always stay on the right-hand side of the road and pedal in the same direction as the traffic. It is not safe to ride on the left-hand side of the road in the direction of oncoming traffic. Also, bicycles have to obey the same signs and signals that cars do. This means that you have to come to a complete stop at a stop sign, and you must wait for a green light to proceed through an intersection. Finally, when riding with your friend, never look behind you while you are pedaling. This can cause you to lose your balance and swerve out into traffic. And last but not least, never ride your bicycle without a helmet!

- () What is the best title(標題) for this article? a. driving on the road
b. bicycling on the road c. how to lose balance
- () What does “this” mean (意思) in line 4? a. stop sign b. ride on the left-hand side
c. obey the traffic rules
- () What is the main idea(主旨) of this article? a. traffic signs b. bicycling safety
c. travelling
- () The last(最後) sentence “Never ride your bicycle without a helmet.” means
a. always wear a helmet when bicycling b. do not wear a helmet
c. sometimes wear, sometimes don't

B.

Most people have five senses: sight, sound, smell, taste, and touch. You see with your eyes. You hear with your ears. You smell with your nose. You taste with your tongue, and you touch with your hands. If you have a cold, your sense of smell might not work right. This makes things taste funny too. You want to protect your senses. Keep sharp objects away from your eyes. Turn down the music before it hurts your ears. Never touch a hot stove with your bare hands.

- () How can you keep your sense of sound safe? a. Turn down loud music.
b. Keep sharp objects away from eyes. c. Don't touch hot stove.
- () If you wear gloves to pick up a hot stove, which sense can you protect(保護)?
a. sense of smell b. sense of sound c. sense of touch

H. English Ability Indicators in the 9 Year-Academic-Curriculum

九年一貫課程綱要國中小階段的英語閱讀相關能力指標 (取自教育部 2003 年資料)

國小階段閱讀相關能力指標

- 3-1-1 能辨識印刷體大小寫字母。(基本能力，國小3、4年級完成)
- 3-1-2 能辨識課堂中習得的詞彙。(基本能力，國小3、4年級完成)
- 3-1-3 能看懂簡易的英文標示。
- 3-1-4 能辨識歌謠、韻文、故事中的常用字詞。
- 3-1-5 能看懂簡單的句子。
- 3-1-6 能辨識英文書寫的基本格式。
- 3-1-7 能朗讀課本中的對話和故事。
- *3-1-8 能藉圖畫、圖示等視覺輔助，閱讀並瞭解簡易故事及兒童短劇中的大致內容。
- *3-1-9 能藉圖畫、標題、書名，猜測或推論主題
- 5-1-1 能正確地辨識、唸出與寫出 26 個英文字母。
- 5-1-2 能聽懂及辨識課堂中所習得的英語詞彙。
- 5-1-3 在聽讀時，能辨識書本中相對應的書寫文字。

國中階段閱讀相關能力指標

- 3-2-1 能辨識英文字母的連續書寫體(cursive writing)。
- 3-2-2 能用字典查閱字詞的發音及意義。
- 3-2-3 能看懂常用的英文標示和圖表。
- 3-2-4 能用適切的語調、節奏朗讀短文、簡易故事等。
- 3-2-5 能瞭解課文的主旨大意。
- 3-2-6 能瞭解對話、短文、書信、故事及短劇等的重要內容與情節。
- 3-2-7 能從圖畫、圖示或上下文，猜測字義或推論文意。
- *3-2-8 能辨識故事的要素，如背景、人物、事件和結局。
- *3-2-9 能閱讀不同體裁、不同主題的簡易文章。
- 5-2-4 能看懂故事及簡易短文，並能以簡短的句子說出或寫出其內容大意。
- *5-2-5 能看懂日常溝通中簡易的書信、留言、賀卡、邀請卡等，並能以口語或書面作簡短的回應。
- *5-2-6 能看懂並能填寫簡單的表格及資料等。