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EXPLICIT READING STRATEGY INSTRUCTION

FOR VIETNAMESE NON-ENGLISH MAJOR TERTIARY STUDENTS

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY THESIS IN THEORY AND METHODOLOGY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

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HUẾ, NĂM 2022

DECLARATION

I certify that the present dissertation submitted today entitled:

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FOR VIETNAMESE NON-ENGLISH MAJOR TERTIARY STUDENTS"

for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in theory and methodology in English language teaching, has been composed solely by myself and that it has not been submitted, in whole or in part, in any previous application for a degree, contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree in any institute, college, or university, and previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the dissertation.

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Abstract

The present study investigated the implementation of explicit reading strategy instruction for Vietnamese non-English major tertiary students. It first explored the students' use of reading strategies in reading English level 3 texts before and after the explicit strategy instruction (ESI). Also, it explored the students' perceptions of the instruction. The study was a mixed-method design to explore how Vietnamese non-English major students perceived the impacts of strategy instruction on reading comprehension. Data were collected from forty-five non-English major students at a university in Vietnam by means of questionnaires, group interviews and learning reflections. First, one questionnaire about reported reading strategies use was administered to 45 non-English major tertiary students in one class before the intervention. Then the instruction was conducted for 6 weeks in which students were taught explicitly *previewing and predicting, skimming, scanning, guessing meaning of the unknown words from the context* and *summarizing* strategies. After the instruction, students completed the same questionnaire again. Three semi-structured interviews were conducted in groups of three to four students, and thirty-nine learning reflections were collected to obtain in-depth information about the impact of the ESI. The findings revealed that Vietnamese non-English major tertiary students used different reading strategy categories in reading English level 3 texts from medium to high levels before the instruction. Specifically, global strategies were preferred in the pre-reading stage whereas problem-solving and local strategies were reported to be used more frequently in the while- reading and post-reading stages. After the instruction, they also reported using various reading strategies in four strategy categories namely problem- solving, global, support and local strategies from a medium to high frequency. In addition, the ESI was perceived to be cognitively beneficial, through students' reported heightened awareness of using reading strategies in reading comprehension, expanded reading strategy repertoire, greater reading fluency, and higher reading score. From a non-cognitive affective perspective, students reported that the ESI motivated them to read, and read with a higher level of confidence, and become more autonomous in reading in English.

The study offers implications for teachers, students and materials writers in teaching and learning the English reading skill in non-English major learning contexts and perhaps in other settings.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CEFR : The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

EFL : English as a foreign language

ESL : English as a second language

L1 : First language/ the mother tongue

L2 : Second language

M : Mean (value)

MOET : Ministry of Education and Training

N : Number

NFLP : Vietnam's National Foreign Languages Project

QUAN : Quantitative

QUAL : Qualitative

SPSS : Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

S.D : Standard deviation

ESI : Explicit strategy instruction

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

This chapter consists of two main parts. The first part presents the background context of the study, the English-level-3 course offered to Vietnamese non-major English students. The second part of this chapter presents the rationale and purpose of the study. It also provides the research significance and describes the organization of the thesis.

1.1. Background context of the study

Since the adoption of the open-door economic and social policies in 1986 (commonly known as Doi Moi), foreign languages, especially English, have been widely taught at formal educational institutions and language schools in Vietnam. Together with the economy's booming after Doi moi, English was formally recognized as the major foreign language in Vietnam during the 1990s (Đỗ Minh Hùng & Nguyễn Thị Phương Thảo, 2014). Recently, in the public school system, English is introduced earlier as a compulsory subject beginning in grade 3 instead of grade 5, and includes ethnic minority students whose mother tongue is not Vietnamese (Nguyễn Thị Mai Hoa, Nguyễn Thu Hương, Nguyễn Văn Huy, Nguyễn Thị Thùy Trang, 2018). Notwithstanding its significance, English language teaching and learning for Vietnamese non- English major learners contradict all expectations since the importance of language skills such as speaking, listening, reading, and writing has not been recognized equally. In particular, Listening and Speaking tests are not included in the two most important English examinations for high school students, namely the high school graduation exam and the university/ college entrance exam administered at the end of Grade 12 (Lê Văn Canh, 2007). In that context, English language education in Vietnam has generally failed to meet 'the demand for competent English-speaking people' due to 'its low quality' (Hoàng Văn Vân, 2018, p.15).

As a result, the Vietnamese authorities have made different efforts to improve the English proficiency level of its citizens in the context of regional and global economic integration (Hoàng Yến Phương & Trần Thị Thanh Quyên, 2021) by promoting English language education and conducting various educational reforms. The National Foreign Language Project, also referred to as NFLP 2020, Decree 1400,

or Project 2020, and The Vietnam Six-levels of Foreign Language Proficiency Framework (KNLNNVN for short) - a CEFR-based framework- are the two most notable policies. These documents offer a framework for foreign language instruction, with a focus on strategies for helping Vietnamese people, in particular students and teachers, become more fluent in English. It is noticed that the NFLP 2020 was launched to reform the nation's educational system's approach to teaching and learning foreign languages. According to Decree 1400 (2008), the goal of NFLP 2020 is to equip Vietnamese students of all educational levels with a good command of a foreign language so they can confidently compete in local and international markets (Bùi Thị Ngọc Thúy & Nguyễn Thị Hoa Mai, 2016).

More specifically, the intended outcomes for students are Level 1(CEFR A1) , Level 2 (CEFR A2), and Level 3 (CEFR B1) respectively at the general education levels of primary (Grades 1 to 5), lower secondary (Grades 6 to 9), and upper secondary (Grades 10 to 12). At tertiary level, university non-English major graduates are expected to reach Level 3 (CEFR B1). Therefore, Vietnamese teachers and researchers have placed a strong emphasis on exploring alternative approaches to make English language teaching and learning in Vietnam more relevant, effective, and productive in order to achieve the required English proficiency in secondary and vocational schools, colleges, and universities.

Non-English major students in the present study, who come from the Central Highlands and the provinces and cities in the center of Vietnam, are required to learn foreign languages in seven credits with 15 periods per credit, equivalent to 105 fifty-minute lessons, to achieve the output standard of level 3. These seven credits are divided into three modules including English level 1 (two credits), English level 2 (two credits), and English level 3 (three credits) courses.

According to their major fields of study, students enroll in different colleges of the home university, where the research is conducted. Their social backgrounds, major subjects of study, and English proficiency vary, but the majority start university at the age of 18. For the English Level 3 course, students attend English classes once a week for a total of 45 periods. Each class lasts 2.5 hours a week and reading is taught integratedly with the other three skills in each class. However, due to the large class

size, with normally more than 40 students, and the difference in students' English proficiency, reading skill in these classes are currently taught with the traditional approach which does not emphasize interactive activities. As a result, teachers only teach grammar, and vocabulary, and the scarcely interactive activity takes place most of the time in class is asking and answering the questions of the reading comprehension parts. Consequently, students' results appear not to meet the expected outcomes by the MOET. According to a Vietnamese university department head quoted in Foley (2019), only one in five non- English major students was able to obtain level 3 in 2015.

1.2. Rationale of the study

The crucial role of mastering a foreign language in modern society has been underpinned by the government, researchers, managers, and teachers in Vietnamese educational system. Specifically, English language learning and teaching have drawn much attention from educators at all levels of education since the NFLP 2020 introduction and CEFR implementation. Many Vietnamese English teachers claim to have employed Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in their classes during the past few years, shifting from teacher-centeredness to learner-centeredness (Lê Văn Canh, 2019).

In addition, in accordance with the adoption of CEFR-based standards, a number of university institutions all over the country have implemented English learning outcomes policies for university graduate students. Meanwhile, many students at universities face problems in reading comprehension. They tend to consider it a rough "package" or "hot mess", and find it difficult to approach reading comprehension. As a matter of fact, they are not confident in reading, they usually encounter linguistic and psychological problems, and lack of strategic learning (Nguyễn H. T. Nga & Kim K. Tú, 2021).

Moreover, regarding the teaching of English reading for non-English major tertiary students, the time allotted for this skill is still limited as it is taught integratedly with other three skills in the course. This means that students do not have enough time to learn and practice reading skill separately like English major students. English is a foreign language in Vietnam so most language interactions take place within the classrooms and the opportunities to expose to the language outside classroom are quite rare. In addition to this, it is doubtful whether a student can attain Level 3 in the

limited amount of time provided in the CEFR-aligned curriculum for the English level 3 courses, which calls for only 45 periods of instruction and 135 periods of self-study. Meanwhile, the suggested time allotted for the instruction needed is from 350 to 400 hours for a learner to achieve B1 Level (equivalent to level 3) (Desveaux, 2013). MOET's learning outcomes requirement, hence, becomes more challenging for non-English major students in Vietnam at the moment.

In response to reading efficiency, numerous studies on learning strategies maintain that teaching strategies can facilitate students' reading comprehension (Cohen, 2014; Chamot, 2001). Strategy instruction is believed to support L2 reading development as it explicitly introduces learners to strategic approaches to engage with reading and provides extended opportunities for learners to practice using strategies in a contextualized manner (Brevik, 2019; Davies, Newton, D., & Newton, L., 2018). A substantial body of research has found that awareness of reading strategies correlates with better reading comprehension (Dabarera, Renandya & Zhang, 2014).

Furthermore, one important theory to consider when discussing the practical aspects of reading strategy instruction in non-English major tertiary students is Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory. According to this theory, knowledge and comprehension are constructed through social interaction (Lundahl, 2019, cited in Wibell-Kähr & Nilsson Ek, 2021). A particularly important aspect of sociocultural theory is the zone of proximal development (ZPD), which Vygotsky defined as the difference between what individuals can achieve on their own and what they can achieve with support. The range of an individual's ZPD is a more important predictor of academic success than their actual development zone (Korp, 2011, cited in Wibell-Kähr & Nilsson Ek, 2021). Thus, it is important to understand what students can achieve with support when considering how to scaffold instruction. Another theory that needs attention is the metacognitive process of reading which points out that while reading, readers monitor that their reading is progressing in line with the generated goals, and breakdowns trigger remediation of reading behavior where necessary (Brunfaut, 2015).

The above-mentioned studies clearly state that training learners to be strategic in their reading is likely to benefit EFL learners, who are developing their reading

abilities to tackle academic demands at school. However, in an EFL context, the majority of students are usually unaware of the strategies that teachers apply when teaching reading (Amini, Alavi, & Zahabi, 2020). Also, it is unlikely that strategy instruction will make its way into language classrooms unless teachers understand what to do (Goh, 2019). Hence, the strategy instruction is worth implementing to equip students with knowledge and application of reading strategies in their reading comprehension process.

Furthermore, reading comprehension is an important process involving different cognitive and metacognitive activities that need exploring. As a result, in order to improve Vietnamese non- English majors' reading comprehension, a comprehensive study on how learners actually perform during their reading process is worth investing in. The findings from this study will contribute to the explanation of how Vietnamese non-English major tertiary students process the English reading level 3 text in three reading phases with the application of reading strategies. Also, it attempts to figure out the students' perceived improvements in reading comprehension after strategy instruction.

1.3. Purpose of the study and research questions

The current study focuses on exploring Vietnamese non-English major tertiary students' perceptions on the explicit strategy instruction in their English level 3 course. First, it intends to describe what strategies non-English major tertiary students use in reading English level 3 texts before and after the intervention. The study also seeks to gain an in-depth understanding of the possible effects of the explicit reading strategy instruction on reading development. In particular, it aims to find out the difference in students' awareness and the use of reading strategies after the intervention. The final aim is to identify students' perceptions of such an intervention in their English reading skill. The findings of the study are hoped to provide the solid ground on which methodological and pedagogical implications can be made to supplement English teachers with methodology, techniques, and procedures to implement the explicit instruction in English classroom, to assist material writers in developing English learning materials and to equip English learners with learning strategies to enhance their learning autonomy.

To be specific, this study seeks to answer the following two main research questions:

1. What strategies do Vietnamese non-English major students use in reading English level 3 texts before and after receiving explicit strategy instruction?

2. What are Vietnamese non-English major students' perceptions on the explicit strategy instruction?

1.4. Scope of the Study

The primary goal of the present study is to explore the reading strategies that are reported using in reading English Level 3 texts by Vietnamese non-English major students at the home university in academic year 2020-2021. The paper focuses its attention on the reading strategies that students reported using, their change in strategy awareness and use after the intervention. In addition, it also aims to find out the perceptions of the students on the effectiveness of reading strategy instruction.

The study was conducted at a regional university in Central Vietnam with the participation of non-English major tertiary students mainly from rural and highland areas of the central areas of Vietnam. Their cultural and socio-economic characteristics may differ from those who are from major cities of the country. The findings of the study, therefore, may be applicable to other non-English major students sharing similar backgrounds.

1.5. Significance of the study

It is hoped that the study findings are valuable in contributing to the understanding of English classroom learning and teaching in both theoretical and pedagogical aspects. Theoretically, it provides additional literature on reading comprehension strategies and a framework for strategy instruction that is suitable for Vietnamese university students. Specifically, the findings of the study contribute to the knowledge of the way EFL college students interact with the reading texts and how instruction can help English learners with their reading comprehension.

Firstly, with the adaptation of CEFR as learning outcomes for college students, the demand for English learning at this level has increased significantly. Numerous efforts have been made to improve English proficiency among tertiary EFL learners in order to meet the outcome requirements. Researching and exploring the strategies that EFL

students use in their reading comprehension process is of great importance since it will provide insights into the way students interact with the reading text to improve their comprehension.

Secondly, exploring the extent to which strategy instruction can help students perform in their reading test will better the understanding of the benefits of strategy instruction on EFL students. Findings from the study will help both teachers of English and EFL students in developing their strategy repertoire to promote learners' reading performance and autonomy.

The ultimate goal of the above-mentioned suggestions for strategy instruction is to improve non-English major students' language proficiency and equip them with appropriate learning strategies so that they can cope with learning difficulties and achieve the VSTEP level 3 certificates as the precondition for their university graduation being granted. It also aims to develop their lifelong learning skills.

1.6. Structure of the study

The present study consists of six chapters.

Chapter One describes the territory of the research by presenting the background context, procedures, the aims and importance, as well as the structure of the study.

Chapter Two provides a critical review of literature relevant to reading comprehension, reading strategies and explicit strategy instruction. It addresses theoretical concepts fundamental to the study, including reading in a second language, models of reading, and taxonomies of reading strategies. Next, the chapter discusses the importance of reading strategy instruction. From the theories and studies reviewed, the chapter provides the conceptual framework of the study.

Chapter Three describes the methodology employed in the current study. It starts with a description of the research approach and mixed method design of the study. Next, it presents research questions and research settings. It then describes in detail issues related to data collection and analysis. The chapter ends with a discussion of the validity, reliability and ethical considerations of the selected research design.

Chapter Four reports and interprets detailed findings on the basis of data analysis results. It presents the findings regarding the use of reading strategies by non-

English major students in reading English level 3 texts. It then compares the differences in reading strategies reported using by the participants after the instruction. Finally, it reports students' self-reflections on the effects of strategy instruction on their reading comprehension in five different themes emerging from students' responses: reading strategy awareness and repertoire, reading rate, reading motivation, reading confidence and reading scores.

Chapter Five focuses on the discussion of the results found in Chapter 4. Firstly, it aimed to compare the findings from pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire with other researchers' results and explain the differences and similarities among them. Then a discussion on the perceptions of participants on the effects of reading strategy intervention was made.

Chapter Six summarizes the key findings of the study. Major conclusions regarding the reading strategy use and the effects of reading strategy instruction on reading comprehension for non-English major university students are drawn out. Pedagogical and methodological implications, together with the study limitations and suggestions for further research are also presented.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the literature on reading comprehension in a second language, reading strategies and explicit reading strategy (ESI). The chapter first starts by providing working definitions of the key terms and then an overview of reading strategies in English language education including the definitions of reading strategies and their taxonomies. The chapter also offers the framework for ESI and the procedure by which ESI was carried out in this study. The chapter ends by reviewing relevant studies with an aim to find out the gaps for the present study.

2.1. Definitions of key terms

This section lists the definitions of key terms used throughout the study and in educational field. Some key terms will be defined in the next sections of the literature review with cited sources.

Strategy. A strategy is a plan created with the intention of achieving a specific objective. According to Pierson and Fielding (1991, p. 847), strategies are "conscious and flexible plans that readers use to particular texts and tasks". This can indicate that students intentionally use strategies to comprehend a particular text or achieve a particular task.

Instruction. Instruction was defined previously as one of the main teacher-led activities in the classroom, which was previously defined as "the purposeful directing of the learning process" (along with planning and management) (Huitt, 2003). Different models of instruction have been established by professional educators, all of which are intended to foster classroom learning. The four categories of teaching/instruction models (behavioral systems, information processing, personal development, and social interaction) described by Joyce, Weil, and Calhoun (2003) (quoted in Huitt, 2003) encompass the great majority of instructional methods.

Non-English major students. In this study, the definition of non-English major students is adopted from Nguyen and Habók (2021). Accordingly, non-English major students are defined as university students who specialize in any field except English and make up the majority of the undergraduate population. In the current study, non-English major students refer to students who major in various fields from different

member colleges and faculties of the research site. They normally range from 18 to 23 years old and their language proficiency varied considerately (Detailed in section 3.2.2)

Perception. Perception is defined as the process of justification of the beliefs on certain objects. In this process, people might give arguments about what they see as the way they perceive things (Nichols, 2007, p. 212). Based on this definition, it can be inferred that perception refers to thoughts or ideas formed in the mind about a particular subject or specific object that involve understanding, awareness, and interpretation.

2.2. Reading and reading comprehension in a second language (L2)

2.2.1. Reading in a second language

One of the most crucial linguistic abilities that language learners need to develop is reading. Since reading is undoubtedly the ability that people can acquire most easily compared to any other, and they "can use reading materials as a primary source of comprehensible input as they learn the language" (Chastain, 1988, p. 216). In addition, reading is regarded as a major source of comprehensive input as well as a means to the end of acquiring the language (Zhou, 2008). Therefore, reading is certainly a highly important source of input in nations like Vietnam, where English is a foreign language and where most learners only receive a little quantity of language input through listening in their daily lives.

Different researchers define "reading" in different ways. Reading can be viewed as a selective process that involves the reader making judgments about the text's meaning based on clues from known language (knowledge of the text's vocabulary and grammar) (Bedle, 2018, p. 7). As a result, readers interpret what they read in order to come up with their own interpretation of what the text means to them, even though writers structure texts for the purposes for which they are intended. In this sense, each reader has his/her own way of understanding one particular reading text depending on his knowledge of vocabulary and grammar as well as his background knowledge. In the same vein, Grabe and Stoller (2002) claim that reading consists of the following five processes: *a rapid and automatic process, an interacting process, a flexible and strategic process, a purposeful process, and a linguistic process*. The first process refers to fluent reading, the ability to recognize words automatically in which the various bits

of information being activated at any moment in working memory (Baddeley, 2010) need to be active simultaneously if the information from both the text and the reader's background knowledge is to be integrated for understanding. The second process requires not only automatic but also attentional skills and abilities, higher level comprehension processes as identifying the main ideas of the text require an interaction between textual information and background knowledge, to be carried out nearly at the same time. The third process involves readers' assessment of whether or not they are achieving their purposes for reading in order to flexibly adapt various processing and monitoring activities. Fourth, reading is purposeful in a more immediate way in which readers monitor not only their efficiency of processing, but also whether the immediate activity fits their larger expectations, whether the task is sufficiently interesting to continue, and whether our purposes might be better served by changing the current activity or task. Finally, reading is a linguistic process in which readers derive understanding and new meaning as they interact with the text information by means of linguistic processing. To this end, reading is described as a process whereby readers use their linguistic knowledge to decode information from a text (Bernhardt, 2011; Grabe, 2009; Goodman, 1967; Griffin, Burns, &Snow, 1998; Smith, 2012) or a fluent and active process in which readers construct meaning by bringing knowledge, experiences and emotions to the text (Anderson, 1999; Bouvet & Close, 2006, cited in Adıgüzel & Gürses, 2013).

In the present study, Grabe and Stoller' s (2013) definition of reading is adopted as a working definition since it considers reading as a conscious and unconscious thinking process in which the reader applies many strategies to reconstruct the meaning that the author is assumed to have intended by comparing information in the text to his or her background knowledge and prior experience. As reading is viewed as a dynamic process not just a final product, it means that the process of reading calls for a wide range of strategies of which most inefficient readers are unaware.

2.2.2. *Reading comprehension in a second language*

Reading is a crucial language skill, and effective reading comprehension support in language acquisition requires a thorough understanding of EFL reading comprehension development (Akyıldız & Çelik, 2021; Anggraini, Afriani, & Riswanto,

2020; Tümen Yakut & Aydın, 2017). As far as reading comprehension is concerned, Therrien (2004, p. 255) defines it as "understanding, using, and reflecting on written texts, in order to achieve one's goals, to develop one's knowledge and potential, and to participate in society". Grabe (2004) suggested that reading comprehension "implies processing efficiency, language knowledge, strategic awareness, extensive practice in reading, cognitive resources in working memory to allow critical reflection, and appropriate purposes for reading" (p. 19). Reading comprehension can be viewed in a variety of ways as the diverse and dynamic relationships between meanings, behavior, readers, and texts. It is a process readers use to extract and infer meaning from written text (Habók & Magyar, 2019; Hellerstein, 2017). In that sense, reading comprehension can be defined as a process of using the reader's existing knowledge (schemata) to interpret a text in order to construct meaning. It involves the reader's schemata about the text and the reader's ability to identify the text structures to get the meaning of the text comprehensively (Budiharso, 2014).

From this view, researchers such as Roe, Smith and Burns (2005) believe that a reader must have the ability to use the information to make inferences, and read critically and creatively in order to fully comprehend a reading selection. This requires comprehending figurative language, figuring out the author's intent, assessing the ideas put forth, and using those ideas in actual situations. Enciso (2015) assumes that readers in EFL reading actively participate in the reading comprehension process since the reader's contact with the text determines how the text is understood. Their interpretation of the text is drawn on their prior knowledge and the incoming data. Readers must be able to perform all of the aforementioned actions to choose the most pertinent knowledge and information and the most appropriate actions in order to better grasp the text. Grabe (2004) also shares this by affirming that reading is a collaborative process that involves the reader, the text, and various processes that adapt gradually and flexibly to the reading circumstance.

In light of this, the broadest and most basic definition of reading comprehension can be the ability to retrieve, understand, and utilize information from a print or digital document (Grabe & Stoller, 2020).

2.3. Processes in L2 reading

The first half of the 20th century witnessed a change in language teaching and learning, especially in reading skill. Reading was originally considered to be a passive process, with readers' main goal being to decode the text in order to understand it correctly. This process was expected to involve a hierarchy of word identification and comprehension skills (Heilman et al., 1998, cited in Zhou, 2008). As opposed to the prior emphasis on teaching reading comprehension as a product, successful reading comprehension is defined by the process approach as "a complete grasp of meaning in a written text in which a dynamic and growing appreciation of interrelationships in the text is required" (Yang, 2000, cited in Zhou, 2008, pp.15-16). As a result, the emphasis in reading research has switched from the reading product to the reading process, with a specific focus on the strategies readers employ to aid comprehension across a range of reading contexts.

Many scholars and educators try to develop a general knowledge of the reading comprehension process using a logical conceptual framework known as the models of reading. These views are frequently categorized under the bottom-up, top-down, and interactive reading models.

2.3.1. Bottom-up model

According to Grabe and Stroller (2011), in bottom-up model reading is defined as a mechanical process where the reader mentally translates the text's information piece-by-piece with little intervention from their own prior knowledge. This model focuses on "the decisive role of the lower-level recognition skills" (Davoudi & Hamidreza, 2015, p.174), in which the reader begins with the written text (the bottom) and constructs meaning from the letters, words, phrases and sentences found within and then processes the text in a linear fashion. Additionally, this model is described as putting the right pieces of reading jigsaw pieces of text or particular passages together which aids in developing a comprehensive interpretation of the text (Celce-Murcia, 2001). Eunjeo (2009) further adds that this model is defined as concentrating on individual words, pausing for grammatical issues, and repeated readings.

In brief, the bottom-up model has a tendency to follow a linear progression from the printed stimulus to higher-level stages. The reader's linguistic knowledge serves as the foundation for bottom-up processing. However, this model revealed several drawbacks in describing the actual reading process and thus was criticized by some researchers such as Eskey (1973) and Rumelhart (1976). These two researchers maintain that the bottom-up model underestimates the ability to use reader's knowledge of language as well as the role of background knowledge of the text topic as facilitating variables in word recognition and comprehension. Both claim that this model does not account for the reader's active participation and does not, as a result, permit interaction between the lower and higher levels of information processing.

2.3.2. Top-down model

Due to the limitation of the bottom-up model, Goodman (1967) proposed one of the most cited models of reading skill entitled as top-down or the conceptually driven processing approach. The reader is portrayed by top-down models as someone who has expectations about written data and samples just enough data from the text to support or reject these expectations (Grabe & Stroller, 2013). Top-down processing occurs when readers take information from the text and contrast it to their prior knowledge to make sense of what they have read. In order to achieve comprehension, readers with this model let their prior knowledge interact with their conceptual skills and processing techniques. To put it another way, in order to comprehend the text, readers must draw on their background, experience, and general knowledge. Therefore, the reader's prediction and prior knowledge are crucial to this model (Carrell & Eisterhold,1983).

This model is quite similar to general strategies or global strategies (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001) in that it may be used to forecast the text, construct a reading objective, and self- monitor (Block, 1986). Additionally, this model is still regarded as concept-driven and reliant on the reader's contributions to the text, which may include their own knowledge and experience in order to comprehend a text (Brown, 2007; Abbott, 2010; and Liu, 2010). This approach consequently takes into account the reader's crucial role in activating their relevant schemata- pre-existing background or world knowledge- and using them during the reading process. However, some

researchers challenge top-down processing (Clarke & Silberstein,1977; Garnham,1985; Grabe, 2009; Rieben & Perfitti,1991) with the assumption that even experienced readers concentrate on the majority of the text's words, and yet, despite predictions of top-down reading strategies among readers with well-known prior knowledge but less processing ability, their performance was not up to expectations (Davoudi & Hamidreza, 2015). Eskey (1986) criticizes this model since it tends to emphasize higher skills (prediction of meaning by means of context clues or background knowledge) and deemphasize the perceptual and decoding dimensions of reading process (p.93). A similar idea was held by Samuels and Kamil (1988), who noted that one of the issues with the top-down model is that for many texts, the readers with little background knowledge are unable to make predictions. Even if a skilled reader were able to make predictions, the time required might be greater than the time needed for the skilled reader to simply make word recognition.

2.3.3. Interactive model

In order to make up for the gaps in the previous models, a new hybrid-reading and more insightful model of reading process has been offered by Rumelhart (1985) under the name of interactive model. Reading is defined by Grabe and Stroller (2013) and Paris and Hamilton (2009) as an interactive process between a reader and a text in which learners are involved in processing, constructing texts, and elaborating its meaning to improve understanding. Sharing the same view, Budiharso (2014) defines reading as the process of integrating the knowledge a reader gives to a text with the knowledge the text conveys. This researcher contends that the act of reading involves more than just taking information from a text; rather, it also involves some interaction between the reader and the text. Similarly, Anderson (2003) conceptualizes reading as an act of connecting written symbols to oral language, and structuring the meaning while interacting with text. Likewise, in the definition put forward by Paris et al. (2009), Linse and Nunan (2006), and McKenna and Robinson (2005), reading is an activity of building meaning by combining readers' prior knowledge and the information from the texts. As a result, an interactive model in reading requires readers to combine both bottom-up and top-down models interactively and simultaneously. The interactive model was defined by Eskey (2002) as a reading theory that assumes

bottom-up and top-down reading processing interact constantly, with each source of information contributing to the reconstruction of the text's overall meaning. According to this perspective, competent readers are also considered to be good decoders and interpreters of texts, and as their reading ability develops, their decoding abilities become more automatic but are still crucial. Eskey also claimed that developing readers must combine both their bottom-up recognition abilities and their top-down interpretation strategies in order to read accurately and fluently. In other words, accurate and fluent reading can only be achieved by a constant interaction between these two processes.

Rumelhurt (1985) deducts that in the interactive model of reading comprehension, meaning is not restricted to the text; rather, it results from the joint production of the text's content and readers' interpretation (cited in Davoudi & Hamidreza, 2015). According to Rumelhurt (1985), the interactive model allows for interaction between the two directions of processing: high level processing and low level processing. This means that the readers constantly and simultaneously interact with the text's surface structure and prior knowledge as they read in an effort to deduce the meaning and draw conclusions. Then, they create a coherent discourse using the activated information from the two sources to determine the text's meaning. This model can be illustrated in the cognitive process model of reading of Khalifa and Weir (2009) (Figure 1) showing the three main parts which includes a number of sub-processes: the knowledge base, the central processing core, and the metacognitive activities. Metacognitive activity, as described by Khalifa and Weir (2009) involves setting goals, monitoring, and remediating where necessary. When establishing goals, the reader chooses the type(s) of reading required to complete a particular task, such as local reading at the sentence and clause level, more global reading to understand the text beyond sentence and clause level, careful reading to comprehend all the information in a text to extract a complete meaning, or expeditious reading using selective and efficient strategies to access only the specific information required from the text. The central processing core, represented in the middle column in Figure 2.1, comprises a hierarchical system of eight distinct cognitive processes (word recognition, lexical access, syntactic parsing, establishing propositional meaning,

inferencing, building of a mental mode, creation of a text level representation and creating an intertextual representation) that are thought to work together to result in reading comprehension cognitive processes, which are categorized into low-level and high-level processes. At lower-level processes, readers tend to deal with word recognition, lexical access, syntactic parsing, and establishing propositional meaning and higher-level processes involve inferencing, building a mental model, and creating a text level or intertextual representation. While processing the text, the reader is likely to have various knowledge sources such as a word's orthography, phonology and morphology, the meaning and the word class of a word, syntactic knowledge of the language, general knowledge of the world, topic knowledge about the subject of the text being read and knowledge of the text so far; and text structure knowledge at their disposal that link to specific aspects of the cognitive activity.

For this study, interactive model was adopted since this model requires readers to engage in metacognitive processing as they read. According to Alhaqbani and Riazi (2012), metacognitive awareness of reading strategies can assist students in understanding not only what strategies they can use (declarative knowledge) or how they should use them (procedural knowledge), but also why, when, and where they should use them at a particular stage, how to evaluate their efficacy (conditional knowledge), as well as awareness of the purpose of reading that may trigger particular strategies (Anderson, 2002; Carrell it al., 1989). Such an approach is likely to lead students eventually to become skilled readers. It has been suggested, "students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction or opportunity to review their progress, accomplishments, and future learning directions" (O'Malley, et al., 1985, p. 561). The interactive model proposed by Khalifa and Weir (2009) forms the theoretical foundation for the present study since the metacognitive processing approach to reading represented in this model aligns with the socio-cognitive framework view which suggests the need for providing EFL learners with explicit reading strategy instructions.

| Metacognitive activity | Central core | Knowledge base |

Central core (bottom to top):
- Visual input
- Word recognition
- Lexical access
- Syntactic parsing
- Establishing propositional meaning at clause and sentence levels
- Inferencing
- Building a mental model integrating new information enriching the proposition
- Creating a text representation: Construct an organized representation of a single text
- Creating an intertextual representation: Construct an organized representation across texts

Metacognitive activity:
- **Goal setter**
  Selecting appropriate type of reading
  Careful reading
  LOCAL: Understanding sentence
  GLOBAL: Comprehend main idea(s) Comprehend overall text(s)
  Expeditious reading
  LOCAL: Scan/search for specifics
  GLOBAL: Skim for gist Search for main ideas and important detail
- Monitor: goal checking
- Remediation where necessary

Knowledge base:
- Lexicon form: Orthography Phonology Morphology
- Lexicon lemma: Meaning Word class
- Syntactic
- General knowledge of the world. Topic knowledge: Meaning representation of text(s) so far
- Text structure knowledge: Genre Rhetorical tasks

Higher-level processes

Lower-level processes

Figure 2.1. Model of cognitive processing in reading

Note. Adapted from Khalifa and Weir (2009), p. 43.

The following section will cover the definition and taxonomies of reading strategies in L2 reading comprehension in general and figure out the working definition as well as the category of reading strategies used in the present study.

2.4. Reading strategies

2.4.1. Definitions of reading strategies

In recent years, there has been a wealth of literature on reading strategies, although different authors have approached the subject from various angles. Reading strategies are performance abilities, problem-solving tactics, or study methods that can lead to more effective and productive learning (Oxford, & Crookall, 1989). Grabe and Stroller (2013) clarify the difference between reading skills and language strategies by pointing out that while reading skills are typically utilized voluntarily, an eloquent reader may use language strategy somewhat involuntarily. Therefore, strategies can be viewed as deliberate activities that a learner takes to accomplish desired goals, whereas a skill is a strategy that has become automatic (McDonough, 1995).

The categories of reading strategies vary from different researchers. According to Abbott (2010), Carrell (1998) and Enciso (2015) reading strategies are conscious actions or processes readers take to solve difficulties in reading and therefore improve reading comprehension. Reading strategies can help learners with the acquisition, storage and retrieval of information from the reading text. Meanwhile, Richards and Renandya (2002) consider reading strategies as a plan for solving problems encountered in constructing meaning. Enciso (2015, p. 42) has compiled various definitions of reading strategies by many researchers and scholars as presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1. Definitions of reading strategies

Author	Definition
Olshavsky (1976)	"…is a purposeful means of comprehending the author's message." (p. 656)
Paris, Lipson, and Wixson (1983)	"…deliberate cognitive steps that learners can take to assist in acquiring, storing, and retrieving new information and that therefore can be accessed for a conscious use." (p. 293)
Block (1986)	"…readers' resources for understanding." (p. 465)
Cohen (1986)	"…mental processes that readers consciously choose to use in accomplishing reading tasks." (p. 133)
Garner (1987)	"…generally deliberate, planful activities undertaken by active learners, many times to remedy perceived cognitive failure." (p. 50)
Barnett (1989)	"…the mental operations involved when readers approach a text effectively and make sense of what they read." (p. 66)
Paris, Wasik, and Turner (1991)	"…actions selected deliberately to achieve particular goals." (p. 692)
Kletzien (1991)	"…as deliberate means of constructing meaning from a text when comprehension is interrupted." (p. 69)
Carrell (1998)	"…actions that readers select and control to achieve desired goals or objectives." (p.7)
Mokhtari and Sheory (2002)	Intentional actions readers use for monitoring, managing, facilitating, and improving reading comprehension. (p.4)
Koda (2005)	Actions that are "deliberate, goal/problem-oriented, and reader-initiated/controlled." (p.205)
Abbott(2006, 2010)	"…the mental operations or comprehension processes that readers select and apply in order to make sense of what they read." (p.637)
McNamara (2007)	"Actions that with practice become rapid, efficient and effective ways to help readers "understand and remember much more from the text in less time…" (p.xii)
Afferbach, Pearson, and Paris (2008)	"…deliberate, goal-directed attempts to control and modify the reader's efforts to decode text, understand words, and construct meanings of text." (p.368)
Grabe (2009)	Conscious processes that can gradually become routines and are used for solving reading difficulties or achieving reading goals. (p.52)

Note. Adapted from Enciso, 2015, p. 42.

The above- mentioned definitions of reading strategies share the following characteristics: they are conscious actions; they all serve to solve difficulties that

readers encounter while reading; and they help improve learners' reading performance. Advanced readers and beginner readers use different reading strategies, which have a very broad scope and meaning. It can be the ability of readers to manage their cognitive process through organizing acts, monitoring, and modification in response to learning outcomes, or readers' reading activities aiming to focus attention, sustain concentration, or control.

The working definition of reading strategy for the current study can be conceptualized as all the deliberate actions readers take to make sense of what they read in the text with the intention of completing a specific reading task or goal. These actions can be used in a variety of ways depending on context and learners' needs. In addition, *"these actions may take place prior to reading, during the reading process, or following a reading task as will be made apparent when discussing the particular strategies which pertain to reading"* (Bedle, 2018, p. 13).

2.4.2 The role of reading strategies

Reading strategy instruction and application are becoming popular procedures in English classrooms today. It is reported that when readers encounter comprehension problems, they use strategies to overcome their difficulties. Reading strategies can speed up comprehension at various segment levels as readers must comprehend how the ideas in a text are connected (Aarnoutse & Schellings, 2003 & Yang, 2002). Additionally, effectively adopting reading strategies can help non-native readers overcome language barriers and improve their reading performance on language competency exams, which can be of great assistance to them (Zhang, 2008; cited in Shang, 2018). As Oxford (1990) explains, strategies are the tools for active, self-directed involvement that is necessary for developing communicating ability. In a nutshell, reading strategies are tactics that give readers more control over their reading.

2.4.3 Categorizations of reading strategies

Given the importance of reading strategies in EFL reading comprehension, reading strategies have been developed and classified into various categories based on the aforementioned reading models, and there are numerous similarities among the identified strategies. Among those, the classifications provided by the Oxford's

(1990) and O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) framework have been widely used by many researchers and scholars. In O'Malley and Chamot's classification, reading strategies are divided into three categories, namely cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, and social/affective strategies. Cognitive strategies are those that 'operate directly on incoming information, manipulating it in ways that enhance learning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p.44) such as summarizing and repeating information (rereading). Metacognitive strategies focus on the learner's interaction with the text and include such strategies as monitoring and evaluating which would most commonly refer to the reader's comprehension of the text, for instance, having awareness of when comprehension is breaking down (monitoring) and if their strategy use and reading performance are successful (evaluation) (Bedle, 2018, p. 14). Social/affective strategies relate to interactions with others in relation to the learning task (discussing a text with teacher/other students) or reflecting upon one's mental state in order to 'assure oneself that a learning activity will be successful or to reduce anxiety' (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p.46).

In addition, Shang (2011), following the learning strategy taxonomy proposed by Oxford (1990), categorizes learning strategies differently from O'Malley and Chamot (1990), though there are many similarities in the definitions of the strategies themselves. In this categorization, social/affective strategies are split into two separate categories, hence, implying different motivations and processes for each. Memory strategies and compensatory strategies are also added to the list. According to Oxford (1990, pp.38-39), memory strategies refer to strategies that assist the learner in making associations in order to mentally store information over a longer period of time. Examples of strategies in this category would include semantic mapping and grouping items together. Compensation strategies are used to help the learner bridge knowledge gaps such as lack of vocabulary or inadequate understanding of grammar (1990, p.47). In this categorization, Shang (2011) also included test-taking reading strategies, which is in line with Oxford's (1990) suggestions.

Although the classifications of strategies offered by Oxford, O'Malley, and Chamot are equivalent, most of the strategy types are described in a way that allows them to be used with all four of the language skills. Abbott's (2010), Block's (1986),

Carrell's (1989) and Mokhtari and Sheorey's (2002) classifications, on the other hand, are built upon different assumptions, have different structures and only include reading strategies. Metacognition in their frameworks presuppose the use of reading strategies. Their frameworks are designed on the premises that meaning of a text is co-constructed by the contents of the text and the reader of the text, and they assume that "constructing meaning from a text is an intentional, deliberate, and purposeful act" (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002, p. 250). Abbott (2010) and Barnett (1989) put reading strategies into bottom-up and top-down strategies, which are associated to low-level and high-level processing respectively. Global, general, or top- down strategies are "those having to do with background knowledge, text gist, and textual organization" (Carrell, 1989, p. 126). They include anticipating text content, recognizing text structure, integrating information, question information, distinguishing main ideas, interpreting the text, using general knowledge and associations to background, monitoring comprehension, focusing on textual meaning as a whole and reacting to the text. Top-down strategies apply schematic knowledge and focus on the broad context of the text, its text structure and discourse organization, its general meaning, its purpose, and its central topic. In other words, readers must have background knowledge and language competence as well as understanding of cues in print that can activate the content schemata when using general/ global/top-down strategies. Local or bottom-up strategies, on the contrary, are "those having to do with sound-letter, word meaning, sentence syntax, and text details" (Carrell, 1989, p. 126) and consist of paraphrasing, rereading, questioning meaning of a word and solving a vocabulary problem which use systemic knowledge and local text context to aid comprehension. As they deal with linguistic elements in the reading, they help make sense of the text by transforming separate items into "a hierarchical network of semantic relations, which in turn is linked to a conventional superstructure" (Van Peer, 1987, p. 599). These strategies are more related to textual decoding and identification processes and, therefore, they are considered local, input-oriented, language-based, data-driven, detail-oriented, or text-oriented (Enciso, 2015).

In Mokhtari and Sheorey's (2002) three broad categories, apart from global reading strategies which refer to generalized reading strategies aiming at setting the

stage for the reading act (e.g. setting a purpose for reading, previewing text content, predicting what the text is about, etc.), problem-solving strategies and support reading strategies are also introduced. Problem-solving strategies can be defined as localized, focused problem-solving or repair strategies used when problems occur in understanding textual information (e.g. checking one's understanding upon encountering conflicting information, re-reading for better understanding, etc.). Reading slowly and carefully, trying to get back on track when concentration is lost, and paying closer attention when the text becomes difficult are included in this category. Support reading strategies involve using the support mechanisms or tools aimed at sustaining responsiveness to reading (e.g. use of reference materials like dictionaries and other support systems).

Anderson (2009), on the other hand, has a quite different category from those of aforementioned researchers. He groups reading strategies into supervising strategies, support strategies, paraphrasing strategies, strategies for establishing coherence in the text, and test-taking strategies. Another category of reading strategies can be interactive strategies, which assume that the process of translating print to meaning involved in making use of both print and prior knowledge. Budiharso (2014) describes these strategies as the process of reading initiated by decoding letters and words and by formulating hypotheses about meaning. Readers using interactive strategies often start by decoding the visual information found in the text. Then they use this to activate the higher level of schemata which enables them to form predictions about the text understanding. At the final stage, the new information found in the text is applied to confirm these predictions. Pearson and Duke (2002) states that there are six reading strategies: prediction or background knowledge, using think-aloud strategies to observe comprehension, applying text structures, utilizing visual models not excluding graphic organizers and imagery, summarizing and questioning and answering questions as they read. El-Kaumy (2004) further divides reading strategies into metacognitive and cognitive strategies.

The current study focuses on investigating the EFL reading strategies which are made up of three different divisions: problem-solving, global and support. The definition provided here highlights some aspects of reading strategies: Problem-

solving strategies refer to the use of strategies when reading complex parts of a text and require the use of devices and techniques to understand a text. Global strategies involve outlining how to read and managing comprehension. Metacognitive strategies were renamed as global reading strategies and cognitive strategies as problem-solving reading strategies (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). As a result, the taxonomy of reading strategies by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) was adopted.

Given the important roles reading strategies play in EFL reading comprehension classrooms mentioned earlier in this chapter, it is crucial to incorporate strategy training into EFL lessons to help students overcome their reading obstacles (Cotterall, 1990; Grant, 1994; Raymond, 1993; cited in Khaokaew, 2012). The following section provides an overview on strategy instruction, its necessity, models and procedures.

2.5. Strategy instruction and EFL reading

2.5.1. Strategy instruction

In recent years, explicit instruction on strategies has been supported in both L1 and L2 education (Cohen, 2011; Grabe, 2009). Since the 1980s, a large number of studies have been conducted to examine whether explicit reading strategy instruction contribute to the development of L2 learners' reading comprehension (Barnett, 1988; Carrell, Pharis, & Liberto,1989; Raymond, 1993). According to Lai, Tung, and Luo (2008), strategy instruction is "a method of direct and explicit teaching of comprehension strategies in order to help students become more proficient readers with the ability to apply a set of effective and research-proven reading strategies to increase their understanding and thinking and to monitor and repair their own comprehension" (pp. 155-156). Through mental modeling, scaffolding, thinking aloud, and application, teachers explicitly teach comprehension strategies and reading skills during strategy instruction. The majority of readers are aware of how to apply specific techniques and skills to increase the clarity, significance, and retention of a text by mastering comprehension strategies. Strategy instruction with a focus on comprehension monitoring can help less skilled readers overcome their difficulties in reading (Salataci & Akyel, 2002).

In EFL settings, students frequently experience a range of reading challenges that pose significant barriers to their comprehension when reading texts or carrying out associated tasks. Solak & Altay (2014) point out that inadequate vocabulary, lexical inefficiency, structural complexity, language accessibility issues, poor reading abilities, a lack of schema, and students' lack of interest are some of these challenges. One significant factor for this can be that learners are unable to identify processing difficulties or use strategies to facilitate reading in accordance with shifting goals and ongoing comprehension monitoring (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). It is therefore very necessary for them to apply specific strategies to surmount the obstacles in reading that can help them lead to target in a faster and clearer way (Tercanlioglu, 2004). The students, thus, need instruction or training in reading strategies which is systematically orchestrated in order to master a repertoire of strategies that boost comprehension monitoring and foster comprehension and to be motivated strategic strategy users (Alexander, 1996, cited in Dreyer & Nel, 2003).

According to researchers such as Duke, Pearson, Strachan, and Billman (2011); and Grabe, (2009) strategies-based instruction is a learner-centered approach to teaching that consists of two main parts: (1) strategies are explicitly taught to students as to when, how, and why they can be used to help with language learning and language use tasks, and (2) strategies are incorporated into regular class materials and may be either explicitly or implicitly embedded into the language tasks. For the first component, teachers normally describe the potential strategies to students and then model and give examples; learners may be asked to do pair or group work to discuss and share their learning experiences and then are encouraged to expose to a broad range of strategies. For the latter one, teachers integrate and embed strategies into classroom language tasks. Teachers may start with a set of strategies that they want to introduce and design activities to integrate them in. Alternatively, they may start with the established course materials and then determine to insert the needed strategies into the lesson when it seems appropriate. Cohen (1996) confirms that the goal of strategies-based instruction is to help students learn and use the target language more responsibly. It also seeks to help them become more effective learners by letting them individualize their language-learning experience. The necessity of strategy instruction in EFL classrooms is presented as follows.

2.5.2. Rationale for the instruction

Strategies encourage flexible thinking and highlight the need of adapting students' approaches to various tasks. In the past few years, reading strategy training has been the subject of much research in both L1 and L2 domains. The idea underpinning strategy instruction is that proficient readers exhibit improved comprehension and application of reading strategies (Van Keer & Verhaeghe, 2005; Wu & Vackle, 2021). In contrast, unsuccessful readers are less likely to independently discover and apply effective reading strategies or techniques (Van Keer, 2004), and they may struggle with text comprehension as a result of their lack of reading strategies (Daly et al., 2015; Underwood & Pearson, 2004). An intervention in the form of explicit reading strategy instruction could be presumed to be effective to help unsuccessful readers (Daly et al., 2015; Konza, 2006; Roberts et al., 2013).

Many studies have demonstrated that reading strategies can be taught to students, and when taught, strategies help students score better on comprehension reading exams, minimize their weaknesses, and perform at their potential (Clark & Coan's, 2007; Okkinga et al., 2018; Zhang, 2008). Given that reading strategies are crucial reading tools; it is necessary to encourage foreign language learners to use them. In fact, language instructors can help language learners better understand reading strategies. Additionally, they can also create more effective language learning environments and train readers to be "constructively receptive". Their assistance will encourage students' reading, which will afterwards increase students' academic accomplishment (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). As a result, Zhang (2001) indicates that teachers can motivate students to read for enjoyment, to share their knowledge of reading strategies, and to feel confident employing those skills.

Numerous research in L2 have shown that language teachers are crucial in instructing language learners on how to apply reading strategies successfully, which will likely increase their reading comprehension. (Anderson, 1991; Koda, 2005; Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). Engaging teachers and students in a reciprocal teaching approach in which both instructors and learners discuss when and how to use strategies has also been shown to be effective for SLLs (McKeown & Gentilucci, 2007; Padrón;

1992). It is believed that when it came to summarizing and self-questioning behaviors, students who got this intervention performed better than those who did not (Padrón, 1992). The capacity to discuss the use of successful strategies should produce self-regulatory readers who can fully comprehend a text and eventually assess its content in light of their own experiences (Friesen & Haigh, 2018). Importantly, students must receive sufficient support to know when each strategy is appropriate so that they can self-regulate their strategy use as needed. The present study was hence designed to find out whether the instruction of certain reading strategies had effects on students' reading comprehension.

2.5.3. Explicit reading strategy instruction versus implicit reading strategy instruction

Oxford et al. (1990) divided strategy education into two categories: explicit and implicit. In contrast to implicit instruction, which occurs when strategies are not explicitly and consistently taught, explicit instruction refers to the direct, intentional, and systematic teaching of strategy.

The concept of explicit is deeply related to conscious and attentional processing in ESL learning (Ellis et al., 2014). According to Schmidt (2001), there are four alternative ways that consciousness can be interpreted: intentionality (incidental vs. intentional learning, attention (attended vs. unattended learning, awareness (implicit vs. explicit learning), and control (automatic vs. controlled processes). According to this framework, controlled (attentional) reading processes are used by students during explicit instruction, which is intentional and requires attentive learning. As a result, explicit instruction recommends that strategies can be taught gradually and made obvious in observable instructional methods (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Housen & Pierrard, 2006). As noted by Pressley and Gaskins (2006) and Grabe (2009), explicit instruction involves providing students a variety of strategies to take while attempting to understand the main idea of the text and integrating these two objectives through scaffolded discussions while the students read the text. Explicit teaching refers to the process by which the instructor provides the most thorough explanation of the language's norms and rules (Asiyaban, et al., 2020; Basturkmen, 2018; Potgieter & Conradie, 2013; Sanz, 2018; Zarei et al., 2020). As a consequence, students who receive specific instructions can acquire grammatical knowledge directly (Criado,

2016; Tsai, 2019). On the other hand, implicit instruction motivates students to analyze the language and develop their own set of generalizations of rules. Experiential learning methods are a good example of this since they direct students' attention by allowing them to respond to grammatical rules (Asiyaban et al., 2020), which motivates them to consider the language and develop their own generalization of rules. Schmidt (2001) point out that "implicit instruction" might help learners "learning without metalinguistic awareness", although other researchers suggest that learning "at the level of noticing is also possible" (Ellis et al., 2009, p.7). As a result, implicit instruction occurs incidentally, and when it does, learners are unaware of what they are trying to learn (Taki, 2017).

Explicit teaching is, in a nutshell, the use of overt techniques to educate students by bringing awareness to the subject. An explicit instruction might include things like trial-and-error, explanation, monitoring, and observation (García-Fuentes & McDonough, 2018). On the other hand, implicit instruction is a special kind of language training in which students learn by discovery. Therefore, implicit learning denotes the acquisition of knowledge without being guided by intentional elaborations, and students use their active cognition to create their own conceptions (Brown, 2001; Tavakoli & Zarrinabadi, 2018).

In short, for successful learning to read English text among non- English majors, it is necessary to conduct the explicit strategy instruction to help learners engage with reading process and transfer their knowledge of strategy into actual use to enhance their reading comprehension.

2.6. Description of the strategy instruction procedures

2.6.1. Strategy instruction models

Many researchers have proposed and implemented different reading instruction models in L1 and L2 contexts. Some of them are well known and have some empirical research that supports their effectiveness. For instance, Ensico (2015) has compiled some examples of reading strategies such as KWL (Know-Want to Know-Learned) which focuses on training in strategies such as activating schemata, planning, goal setting, monitoring and evaluating text information (Ogle & Blachowicz, cited in Block & Pressley, 2002); Collaborative Strategic Reading (CRS) which is based on cooperative learning and mainly implemented in CBI (content-based instruction), and

like KWL, it encourages learners to build on their previous knowledge, monitoring, predicting, clarifying, summarizing, generating questions, among other strategies (Hitchcock et al. 2011), CORI (Concept-Orientated Reading Instruction) is another proposal, and it is used for teaching reading and content; it includes strategies such as choosing a topic of personal interest, gathering information and working on a project (Guthrie & Ozgungor, 2002). The explicit explanations, teacher modeling, scaffolding, and self-regulated application of strategies, which help students enhance their reading comprehension, are key components of Oxford's (1990) explicit instruction model. Lapp, Fisher, and Grant (2008) also stress the need of teachers distributing guided reading to students according to a gradual plan so that they can independently monitor their own reading comprehension. Conception of reading comprehension depicts efficient readers as strategic or constructively responsive readers who meticulously employ cognitive resources when reading (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). According to Horiba (2013, p. 98), "flexible, strategic reading proficiency requires that individuals possess the ability to adjust cognitive processes and strategies in order to fit a reading goal in a given situation". According to Anderson (2003), strategic reading in this context refers to a reader's capacity to employ a wide range of reading strategies in order to accomplish a reading goal. In addition, he claims that fluent reading is only one of the four crucial elements of effective reading, the other three being the reader, the text, and strategic reading. Manoli, Papadopoulou, and Metallidou (2016) state, "skilled and strategic readers are active readers, have clear goals in mind, are highly aware of a number of strategies and use them to monitor and facilitate comprehension" (p.54).

Successful strategy instruction normally consists of incorporating five components of teacher explanation identified by Winograd and Hare (1988, p.123), including (1) what the strategy is; (2) why a strategy should be learned; (3) how to use the strategy; (4) when and where the strategy is to be used; and (5) how to evaluate the use of the strategy. In order to make the reading process "visible" for the students to imitate the steps, researchers Duffy, Roehler, and Herrmann (1988) provide an approach called mental modeling, in which the teacher exhibits the mental processes of a "superior" reader while making sense of the text. Teachers can use it to show the learners the flexible reasoning processes that underpin strategic reading. This technique allows students to imitate the process and then be able to do the think-aloud by themselves.

Another five- components strategy instruction is also proposed by Grant (1994), including (1) informed instruction to help students understand the significance of using strategies; (2) using modeling and scaffolding to explain to students how the reading process works ; (3) empowering students and assisting them in applying their knowledge of strategy to various texts through self-monitoring and evaluation ; (4) practice to boost students' confidence and independence in strategy use ; (5) adapting the strategies to different situations.

These authors all place a strong focus on "modeling". Both Winograd and Hare (1988) and Grant (1994) explain each strategy in detail and offer recommendations for when and where to use it. Awareness-raising, self-monitoring and evaluation are the emphasis in both models. Nevertheless, Grant's approach focuses more on motivating students to employ their strategies in other settings. As a result, Grant adds two extra steps to instruction: practice and transference. These two steps suggest that students develop confidence and independence in using strategies by practicing both individually and in small groups.

According to several researchers, these recommended procedures have been applied widely in L1, L2, and EFL contexts (e.g., Bereiter & Bird, 1985; Carrell, 1989; Cotterall, 1990, Palincsar & Brown, 1984; Pharis, and Liberto, 1989; Song, 1998). Furthermore, these studies have shown that non-proficient L1 and L2 learners benefited from reading strategy intervention such as teacher explanation and modeling of the strategies, followed by student practice in the form of group work/discussion. Therefore, they can be seen as promising models for the current study.

Gauthier, Bissonnette, and Richard (2013) explain that modeling, guided or directed practice, and independent practice are the three sequential processes that make up explicit instruction. Each of these steps addresses various types of knowledge (Paris, Lipson & Wixson, 1983) which include declarative knowledge (knowing what), procedural knowledge (knowing how), and conditional knowledge (knowing why). The next section explains the stages of instruction and the related types of knowledge for each.

2.6.2. *Strategy instructional process*

Following Gauthier, Bissonnette and Richard's (2013) instructional model, the instructional procedure includes three phases as follows:

2.6.2.1. Modeling

Explicit instruction begins with modeling step which promotes the understanding of the learning objectives for students. Winograd and Hare (1988) recommended that students should be informed about strategies before instruction in strategies. Therefore, in this phase, the instructor guides students through a task while explaining in detail how to complete it. The goal is for the teacher to explicitly state the what, why, how, when and where of what they are doing and involves both declarative knowledge and conditional knowledge (Paris, Lipson, & Wixson, 1983). This step also prepares all the students for demonstrating their strategy use in the following phase.

2.6.2.2. Guided practice

Following explicit instruction, students engage in guided practice, also known as directed practice, which, with the proper supports, enables them to successfully complete the targeted learning objectives. It also helps students to gain the confidence and motivation necessary to continue their learning. In this step, the students have an opportunity to practice to develop efficiency in using strategies and gain confidence as well as independence in strategy use. The students can be divided into groups in this step, and each group will take turns playing the role of the teacher, showing how to apply methods as they read a text. This allows the teacher the chance to walk around and make sure that every student has comprehended the lesson. In addition to giving students the chance to do the tasks that were modeled, it also makes sure that they get feedback on their final products. Guided practice helps students to "verify, adjust, consolidate and to deepen their understanding of the learning taking place, by connecting their new learning with that which is already present in their long-term memories" (translated from Gauthier et al., 2004, p.28). A class discussion regarding potential reasons for success or failure might be held at the end of the session to encourage students to reflect on what they have learned.

2.6.2.3. Independent practice

Finally, independent practice enables students to apply what they have learned from the modeling and guided practice processes by placing themselves in novel learning scenarios. With the intention of consolidating their learning, this last learning phase offers students the chance to assess their comprehension in order to reach the highest degree of mastery. This stage also identifies any students who may need more assistance before continuing.

2.6.3. The framework and focus of the instruction

The focus of the instruction was both personally and theoretically motivated. First and foremost, according to Anderson (1985), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), reading comprehension is viewed as an active process during which the learner adopted a strategic approach to infer meaning, relate the new information to prior knowledge, and, overall, construct text meaning. Therefore, the selection of instructed strategies should follow this theoretical background. Moreover, Jansen and Stroller (1998) mention the factors that teachers need to consider when choosing strategies for targeted instruction. These factors are the students' needs and traits, text demands, strategic reading instruction goals, and the range of the strategic reading abilities reading should evoke. They also confirm that to make students become strategic readers and monitor their comprehension, the teachers should emphasize three strategies, namely asking questions, summarizing, and predicting.

Secondly, in the present study, the participants were EFL non- English majors, who tended to face "vocabulary knowledge, prior knowledge, grammatical knowledge, meaning of phrase, word difficulty, syntax, environmental factors, reading strategies, anxiety, attention, and text structure" (Al- Jarrah & Isamail, 2018, p.36) in their reading comprehension. Additionally, my personal observations as an English teacher for non- English major students have shown that a majority of them seem to have difficulties in global strategies and understanding new words; a few of them are aware of the reading techniques and the application of these techniques in reading; their sources of vocabulary are quite limited. In addition, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, the learning outcome of this course for students is to achieve level 3 of Vietnamese Standardized Test of English Proficiency, which is equivalent to level B1 in European Framework of Reference (CEFR). Finally, results from the questionnaires in the pilot study also informed the researcher of the strategies that the students employed during the reading process that need to be added to the instruction.

Based on aforementioned background, the instruction of reading strategies in the present study targets both global and local strategies which include summarizing, identifying the purpose of reading, preview and predicting, scanning and skimming, and guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words from context (see Table 2.2). These strategies are believed to assist students in previewing the text, drawing on prior

knowledge, creating an outline of what to expect before reading, keeping track of the process, adjusting reading speed by reading quickly or slowly and rereading the difficult and/or important paragraphs throughout the reading process, and decoding unfamiliar words from context.

The proposed set of strategies, therefore, is hoped to meet the learners' needs, as the reading test for EFL non- English major students at level B1 requires the application of *previewing and predicting, guessing the content of texts, understanding the main ideas of texts, locating detailed information, inferring the meaning of unfamiliar words from context and summarizing* strategies. The framework of reading ESI in this study is summarized in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2. Framework for reading strategies instruction

	Global Strategies	**Local Strategies**
Careful reading	- Summarizing	- Guessing meaning of word from context
Expeditious reading	- Identifying the purpose of reading - Previewing and Predicting - Skimming - Search reading	- Scanning - Search reading - Rereading

This framework adopted in current study involves careful reading and expeditious reading, which also follows Khalif and Weir's (2009) model of reading and Carrell's (1989) types of reading strategies. According to Khalif and Weir (2009), careful reading refers to reading slowly in order to extract complete meanings from the presented material, whereas, expeditious reading or speed reading involves quick, selective, and efficient reading to access desired information in a text.

The two types of reading mentioned in the framework can take place both at a local and a global level. The concept of careful reading is operationalized through the recognition of lexis, comprehension of syntax (local level) pursuit of an accurate comprehension of explicit meaning, and inference-making (global level) (Weir & Khalifa, 2008; Khalifa & Weir, 2009). Careful reading at the local level involves

processing a text until the basic meaning of a proposition is established whereas careful reading at the global level involves processing the text until its macro-structure is built.

Expeditious reading involves a quick, selective and efficient reading to access needed text information (Urquhart & Weir, 1998; Weir & Khalifa, 2008). In expeditious reading, the linearity of text is not necessarily followed as the reader attempts to sample the text in order to extract pieces of information necessary to answer specific test items (Urquhart & Weir, 1998). Expeditious global reading involves skimming for gist, general impression, and/or superordinate main idea of a text (Urquhart & Weir, 1998). In order to successfully teach the proposed strategies in the framework following the three stages in reading comprehension, the focus of the instruction can be summarized in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3. Focus of the instruction

Week	Strategies focus	Materials	Adapted from
Week 2	previewing and predicting	Reading tasks	Life, A2-B1, 2015, p.24
Week 3	Skimming	Reading tasks	English Teaching Forum (2018).
Week 4	Scanning	Reading tasks	Liverpool College: Reading strategies flexi pack and americanenglish.state.gov/ English-teaching-forum, 2018
Week 5	Guessing words meaning from the context	Reading tasks	http://www.ybd.yildiz.edu.tr/images/files/Guessing%20Vocabulary%20in%20 Context.pdf
Week 6	Summarizing	Reading tasks	https://www.edu.xunta.gal › files › arquivos › actividades)
Week 7	administering questionnaire, and interview	Questionnaire, reading tests, interview questions	Mokhtari and Sheorey,2002

2.6.4. Materials for the instruction

Materials for the intervention were designed with the explanation of the instructed strategies and reading texts taken from two widely used international textbooks, *Solution* by Tim Falla and Paul A. Davies (2014) and *Life* by John Hughesand Paul Dummett (2016) and various websites (see Appendix B). The latter is

also the textbook that students used in their English course. Since this course is to prepare students to sit in the English- level- 3 proficiency exams as required, the reading texts are normally of 200 to 400 words in length and their level of difficulty ranging from easy to medium. The difficulty of the reading texts was identified by using online website *Readability Analyzer* which estimates the readability of a passage of text using the Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease, Gunning Fog Index, Kincaid Grade Level, SMOG formula and Dale–Chall Score and Fry Reading Graph metrics to calculate the level of difficulty of words, syllables and sentence lengths, average student in grade level that can read the text. The analysis of the chosen texts in the intervention on *Readability Analyzer* showed that they were "*fairly easy to read*" and fitted with learners of seventh grade, equivalent to level of proficiency from level 2 to level 3.

Moreover, the reading texts in the present study were chosen mainly from the course book that was used in the course; for they were appropriate to the target learners at their English proficiency levels and due to the familiarity of the topics.

The researcher also integrated the activities with the three-step approach to ESI based on those advocated by Winograd and Hare (1988) and others to the reading texts. The planned program of explicit reading strategy instruction in the present study involved one semester of a English- level- 3 course, lasting 6 weeks (1 hours per week) (for further details, see Appendix B).

At the beginning of each lesson, students were given reading materials with clear instructions so that they would be aware of what was required. A combination of Vietnamese and English was permitted so that students could verbalize their thoughts as they read the text in the instruction process in order to make them feel more at ease and to provide information on the cognitive processes in the EFL context where students' oral proficiency in English is limited (Detailed in section 3.4.2)

2.7. Previous research on reading strategies

There are to date two lines of research into reading strategies: descriptive and experimental research and they are addressed in the next sections.

2.7.1. Descriptive research

Descriptive research into reading strategies aims to report what strategies L2 learners use when reading a text has been conducted in various settings and from

different perspectives. The concerns of the research have varied from the contexts, participants, affective variables and learners' differences in order to better understand how learners interact with the reading texts. The majority of previous studies have shown that learners employed different strategies in their comprehension of the reading texts. The studies were conducted in various language learning settings like ESL in the studies of Alsheikh and Mokhtari (2011), Karbalaei (2010), Mokhtari and Reichard (2004), Malcolm (2009), Qanwal and Karim (2014); and EFL as in studies by Đỗ Minh Hùng and Võ Phan Thu Ngân (2015), Gorsuch and Taguchi (2008), Karbalaei (2010), Poole (2009), and Nguyễn Thị Bích Thủy (2018). The participants are adults in tertiary institutions and the contexts are in English classes. Findings from these research show that both ESL and EFL learners employ from metacognitive, cognitive, global, local and problem-solving strategies in order to understand the reading texts.

Also concerned with the learners' use of reading strategies, Poole's (2009) study revealed that problem-solving strategies were used with high frequency, while global and support strategies were used with medium frequency among ESL students from the Midwest and South of the United States.

Similarly, Karbalaei (2010) compared reading strategy use in 96 Iranians and 93 Indians college students. The findings indicated that Indian ESL students used mostly global and support strategies, as well as metacognitive reading strategies, while Iranian EFL students used mostly problem-solving reading strategies.

Chen, K. T. C., and Chen, S. C. L. (2015) attempted to explore the use of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) reading strategies used by high school students in Taiwan. The Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) were administered to 1,259 students from 34 high schools. The results indicated a high awareness of reading strategy use among EFL high school students. Students had a preference for global reading strategies, followed by problem-solving strategies and support strategies.

Al-Mekhlafi (2018) also found a high use of all three types of reading strategies by the EFL students in Oman in his research which suggests high awareness and willingness to use different types of reading strategies among learners. It also means

that learners use a variety of strategies equally irrespective of their levels (i.e., elementary, intermediate and advanced).

Gorsuch and Taguchi (2008) carried out a study to investigate the utility of repeat reading in increasing fluency and reading comprehension with EFL learners in Vietnam. He found that Vietnamese college EFL students mostly used bottom-up, top-down, and cognitive strategies to assist comprehension in repeated reading sessions.

In a similar vein, Đỗ Minh Hùng and Võ Phan Thu Ngân (2015) conducted a study to examine reading strategies used in processing academic English texts by 107 first-year and 96 third-year English majors of Dong Thap University. A questionnaire adapted from Strategies Useful for Reading by Oxford (1990) was designed to collect data. Results revealed that both groups reported the use of those strategies at a medium level only. However, the first-year students frequently used those strategies of skimming, scanning, translating, highlighting, relevant-thinking, especially cooperating and assistance-seeking. Meanwhile, the third-year students no longer frequently used translating, resourcing and highlighting; instead, they increased the varying frequencies of analyzing, elaborating, purpose-identifying and other strategies. The findings imply that students tend to alter the use of reading strategies when their levels of proficiency change.

Recently, Roomy and Alhawsawi (2019) and Singh et al. (2021) also carried out studies to measure reading strategies use in reading English texts among EFL and ESL students. Results showed that students reported using the four categories (global reading strategies, problem solving reading strategies, supporting reading strategies and attitude toward reading) at a high level, indicating that they acknowledged the significance of reading strategies to approach texts and attain a high level of processing while reading.

The results in Singh et al. (2021) study also indicated the learners employed cognitive strategies of repetition and translation, metacognitive strategies relating the content of the passage to real life, self-questioning and using prior knowledge, and compensation strategies of guessing. From the interviews with learners, it was obvious that they employed strategies namely analyzing expressions. It was clear from the analysis that they faced problems understanding certain keywords which caused difficulty in comprehending the reading text.

These researchers shared the common tools in their data collecting, that is the questionnaire, except research by Singh et al. (2021), which adopted a qualitative study with think-aloud protocol. They all found that ESL/SFL learners used different reading strategies in understanding English reading texts and compensating for their reading difficulties.

2.7.2. Experimental research

Experimental research, as its name indicates, involves studies that examine the effects of instruction on reading performance. The teaching and learning of reading strategies in EFL contexts have proved to be necessary, hence, research involving L2 reading strategy instruction has shown the improvement of reading comprehension through the reader's use of more effective strategies (Erler & Finkbeiner, 2007). A fair amount of research has been conducted to explore the benefits of explicitly teaching learners how to apply foreign language strategies for different skills in various ways. Oxford (1990a), Anderson (1991), Chamot and O'Malley (1994), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Cohen (1998, 2003, 2011), Greenfell and Macaro (2007), Rubin et al. (2007), and Zhang (2008), among many others, have extensively argued in favor of strategy training and offered evidence of its success. Cohen and Scott (1996) listed a number of ways to teach students study skills and strategies, including general study skills courses, peer tutoring, research-based training, videotaped mini-courses, awareness training, strategy workshops, incorporating strategies into language textbooks, and teaching strategies in the classroom while studying a foreign language. The choice of strategies to be taught depended on the researchers' conceptualization of which strategies would be most effective for the participants in the learning context.

The review of L2 reading ESI in the present study is grouped principally by strategy type associated with level of reading strategy processing and the relationship between strategy instruction and level of proficiency. Basically, almost all studies involve metacognitive strategies either directly or indirectly, if for no other reasons than that the metacognitive strategy of evaluating the use of a new strategy is an integral part of strategy intervention models (Chamot, 2004).

Several experimental studies have been conducted to evaluate the impacts of explicit instruction of particular reading strategies. Medina (2011), Jafari and Ketabi

(2012) and Enciso (2015) have focused on the effectiveness of metacognitive strategy instructions on reading comprehension in foreign language (FL) contexts. These researchers have all found that strategy instructions help students develop wider reading strategy repertoires, become more self-confident and this in turn enhanced their motivation as well as their performance in reading. Another metacognitive strategy instruction program, carried out by Kusiak-Pisowacka (2001), sought to develop the metacognitive knowledge and monitoring strategies of Polish secondary school readers of English as their L2. Kusiak-Pisowacka (2001) also wondered whether reading comprehension could be positively affected by increased metacognition and how these two variables – metacognition and comprehension – were related to L2 language competence. The intervention produced significant increase in metacognitive awareness and valuation strategies as well as improvement in L2 reading comprehension. These students were taught to identify text genre, structure and content through linguistic text markers. That is, they were given training in a combination of text-based strategies and meta-cognitive strategies. Compared to the comparison group, the intervention group reported using these strategies more frequently at the posttest, but only one of the post-intervention texts yielded higher comprehension scores for the intervention students. According to Raymond (1993, p.455) these findings pointed to the "complex interaction of strategy use, text content, reader interest, background knowledge, and reader perceptions of text difficulty", all of which required further investigation before clear statements could be made about the effect of the intervention.

Aghaie and Zhang (2012) also found similar results when they conducted a study to investigate the influence of explicit teaching of reading strategies on EFL university students reading ability in Iran using a questionnaire adapted from Chamot and O'Malley's (1994) cognitive and metacognitive strategies framework. Results suggested that the strategy instruction program has contributed to the reading behavior change and reading comprehension improvement in the treatment group. Moreover, strategy instruction could result in learner autonomy in reading activities. The study's findings supported the notion that teaching reading strategies directly to students in language classrooms will significantly increase their reading comprehension.

Similarly, Dabarera et al., (2014) explored the effect of teaching metacognitive strategies on reading comprehension among a sample of 67 ESL learners in Singapore. In addition to the methods for gathering quantitative data, semi-structured interviews were carried out to gather qualitative information on how learners responded to the teaching of metacognitive strategies. Through the Reciprocal Instructional approach, explicit training in metacognitive reading strategies was included in the experimental treatment. The study's findings showed a connection between improved reading comprehension and increased metacognitive awareness. This means that the teaching metacognitive strategies was effective in raising metacognitive awareness.

In an attempt to examine the possible effects of ESI, Ramírez Montoya and Ochoa Vásquez (2016) set a study to determine the level of reading comprehension achievement for university students when instructing cognitive and metacognitive strategies in a learning environment mediated by technologies. This study was carried out in Universidad Estatal de Sonora (UES), México through a sequential explanatory mixed method research design, which focused on a sample of 96 students, who received 15 hours of instruction in Language Learning Strategies (LLS) by 6 teachers. Data were collected through a reading comprehension pre-test/post-test, a self-reported questionnaire in the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and semi-structured interview. Common results show that students reported wider use of reading strategies and higher scores in their reading tests; and they tend to use more global strategies (e.g., skimming for main ideas, predicting, and summarizing) than local strategies (e.g., focusing on grammar or word meaning and using a dictionary) in language reading strategies.

Most recently, Gulchiroy (2021) investigated the effectiveness of combined strategy instruction on reading comprehension and students' perceptions of combined strategy training in reading instruction by using Chamot and O'Malley's (1994) CALA strategy instruction model. The data analysis from the retrospective think-aloud protocols indicated that experimental group students used a broad range of strategies in their post-reading test.

In Vietnamese context, Trịnh Quốc Lập and Nguyễn Thị Minh Thảo (2011) conducted a study to investigate the effectiveness of the strategy intervention and meta-cognitive strategies used on reading comprehension by EFL learners in a

Vietnamese secondary school context. It also explored the interaction between learners' meta-cognitive strategy use and their reading achievement. 84 participants (30 females and 54 males, grouped into two classes) were randomly chosen from a population of 350 grade-11 students, aged from 16 to 18, at an upper secondary school located in a rural area in the Mekong Delta of Vietnam. The students were taught English, using the textbook English 11 (Hoang et al., 2007), which is used throughout Vietnam. Results from questionnaires, reading comprehension tests and interviews showed that participants used problem-solving strategies such as prior knowledge and experience, grammatical knowledge, self-questioning and summarization to assist their reading comprehension most often since these strategies embedded in the reading comprehension exercises during class. However, due to the lack of their knowledge on global and support strategies, they use these two category strategies least often. The study also showed that the successful group used more global and supportive metacognitive strategies than their less successful peers.

Given the importance of reading strategies in reading comprehension, a plethora of studies support ESI as an effective way to teach learners an extensive range of reading strategies and help readers improve their performance in reading comprehension (Closs, 2011; Grabe, 2014; Ko, 2002; Grabe, 2014; Reutzel, Child, D. Jones, & Clark, 2014); Zhang & Wu, 2009).

In Thai contexts, researchers such as Soonthornmanee (2002), Akkakoson (2013), Wichadee (2011) conducted many studies to explore the effectiveness of strategy-based instruction on students' reading performance. The findings of these studies suggested that metacognitive reading strategy teaching enhanced the reading ability of both proficient and less proficient students (Soonthornmanee, 2002). These findings contribute to a better understanding of strategy instruction and support the belief that strategy training should be conducted to enhance reading performance of learners. Similarly, in EFL contexts, Takallou (2011) conducted a study with 93 university students including 55 females and 38 males, majoring in EFL teaching at Kermanshah Azad University in Iran. Students in experimental group received instruction on planning and self-monitoring based on CALLA model. Throughout the semester, they attended five 90-minute sessions of teaching on metacognitive strategies

on both authentic and inauthentic texts. Questionnaire and reading comprehension test were then administered to all groups to identify the strategies that they used in reading test after the treatment. The major aim of the study was to explore whether the metacognitive strategies instruction had positive effect on the reading comprehension performance of the EFL students and their awareness to metacognitive strategies. The findings suggested that in terms of reading comprehension performance, the experimental groups outperformed the control group. To put it another way, students in the experimental groups who received specific training and practice on how to organize and monitor their reading improved their reading comprehension performance and raised metacognitive awareness. Thus, it appears that the treatment in metacognitive strategies has helped students' reading comprehension skills.

Akkakoson (2013) investigated the relationship between strategic reading instruction, the process of learning second language-based reading strategies and English reading achievement at a Thailand University. For 16 weeks, 82 Thai university students of science and technology were taught using a strategies-based approach (experimental cohort), whereas another 82 students were taught using a traditional, teacher-centered approach (control cohort) in a course of reading general English texts. By using pre-test/post-test and portfolio approach to investigate the experimental cohort students' process of learning reading strategies, the results showed that the students in the experimental group performed better than students in the control group in the post course reading test. In addition, students with higher-level reading proficiency in the experimental cohort were also found to learn to use second language-based reading strategies effectively better than their low-level peers.

Most recently, Chinpakdee and Gu (2022) conducted a study to explore the effect of ESI on Thai EFL secondary school learners' reading performance and learners' autonomy. The findings of this study depicted that there was a significant increase in the intervention class learners' reading test scores and their enhanced strategic approaches to reading.

Nevertheless, not all studies showed the positive effects of strategy-based instruction. Research by Mehrpour, Sadighi, and Bagheri (2012), and Ballou (2012) suggested the opposite findings. Though strategy training was supposed to raise students' awareness of reading strategies, it was not able to improve the students'

reading performance and score significantly. For example, Ballou's study did not yield the findings that are suggestive of the improvement of students' ability to answer comprehension questions accurately due to explicit strategy instruction, it is important to note that it did improve students' attitude toward reading and their ability to use a wide variety of strategies while reading independently. Therefore, explicit strategy instruction is worth implementing in classrooms, if not to support all learners, at least to be useful for some.

While empirical studies on ESI are abundant and their findings have proved the positive effects of ESI on learners' outcomes, studies on students' perceptions of learner training are still few. However, there are some researchers focused their interests in examining the students' self- evaluation of the strategy training and these studies at least provide an understanding of the significance of surveying students' perceived usefulness of training. For example, dated back to the early days of strategy intervention, Auerbach and Paxton (1997) reported that students in the ESL university classroom showed their positive perceptions of and responses to the training. Students expressed that they gained greater knowledge of reading strategies and felt more confident in reading in English as a result of the intervention. According to the researchers, the training was successful because students were given the opportunity to investigate their own reading as part of the instructional process and were encouraged to apply what they learned to their reading.

Also concerning the perceptions of students on the ESI, Adaba, Metaferiab and Doboche (2021) reported the metacognitive reading strategy training course conducted at Guder Secondary School in Oromia. Grade-11 students in experimental group were provided with the explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy within the classroom and out of classroom practice for four months. Results from semi- structured interviews indicated that students had good perception about the direct instruction of metacognitive reading strategy. The majority of the interviewees reflected positive view on the strategy instruction and believed that the training had long lasting effects on their metacognitive reading strategy awareness and use due to their improved reading strategy knowledge. However, this research failed to address other affective values such as learners' motivation and confidence in reading comprehension.

Overall, the previous studies related to reading strategies and ESI share two common points. First, methodologically, the studies employed questionnaires, interviews, and pre/post-test to collect the data. Secondly, the results of past studies show that both EFL/ESL teachers and students are aware of the benefits of reading strategies in reading comprehension performance and many teachers have integrated the strategy instruction in their classrooms to facilitate students' reading performance. So far, the review of the related studies has shown that research on strategy instruction has been carried out both in ESL and EFL contexts, and found largely positive effects on ESL/EFL learners' reading performance.

In short, the current literature does an extensive job in discussing the different aspects of reading strategy use among EFL and ESL learners in various contexts as well as the effects of explicit strategy instruction on reading skill. Although the afore-mentioned studies varied in the reading categories which they investigated, the participant learners to the contexts in which language was learnt, their findings and implications shared one major feature in common. They have indicated a consistent trend in various reading strategy use among ESL and EFL learners for the understanding English reading texts and compensating for their reading difficulties. Studies on the non- English majors' use of reading strategies are unfortunately few, especially those on tertiary level and the context in which English skills are taught and learnt integratedly in limited time allowance. Furthermore, although past research has revealed the great potentials of reading strategy teaching on students' reading strategy awareness and use and their reading performance, the provision of another perspective of examining the effects of reading strategy intervention has been called for. Evaluating the instruction through the learners' viewpoints may enable EFL teachers making adjustments to strategies that are more aligned with students' perceptions and expectations or can uncover ways to modify participants' perceptions to gain the expected outcomes of the instruction.

In addition, the majority of reviewed studies were carried out in ESL/EFL learners' strategic reading from different first language backgrounds (e.g. Chinese, Thai, Arabic, and French) and English majors, there has been lack of evidence about reading strategy use by Vietnamese EFL non-English major university learners. Moreover, to the researcher's knowledge, most research in Vietnamese

context focus on examining the use of reading strategies in general and exploring the relationship between the use of these strategies and learners' reading performance and outcome. There is little research on whether there exists an association between strategy instruction and student reading strategy among Vietnamese non- English tertiary contexts.

Furthermore, while most previous experimental research focused on the effects of reading strategy instruction on learners' reading performance, few studies explore students' perceptions of strategy intervention on reading comprehension improvement. For those reasons, there is an urge to carry out research to examine further the role of strategy use in reading comprehension especially in view of non-English major tertiary students and in relation to the English level 3 reading texts in order to improve students' performance on reading tests and the expansion of their reading strategy repertoire. Based on the lack of empirical research in this area, the present study aims to fill this gap by addressing the issue related to identifying the differences in strategy use after the instruction as well as the perceived improvements in terms of learners' awareness of reading strategy and use, their reading fluency and comprehension, their motivation to read and confidence in reading after the intervention for Vietnamese non-English major tertiary students.

2.8. Summary of the chapter

This chapter has discussed the relevance of the present study to the preceding research work. It started with the definitions of reading and its role in language learning. Then it presented processes in L2 reading, followed by definitions of language learning strategies. The strategy instruction and EFL reading are subsequently discussed and then the definitions and classifications of reading strategies. After that, the models, framework and procedures of ESI were described in details. Lastly, descriptive and experimental research on EFL reading strategies use and instruction were reviewed to provide an overview on the current issue. The chapter also emphasized the needs of further research on strategy instruction in the educational context of Vietnamese EFL non- English major classes at the tertiary level, especially reading comprehension skill. The next methodology chapter will present the choice for the research design, research methodology and procedures of the current study.

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methods and procedures for investigating reading strategies employed by EFL non-English major students at a Vietnamese university, how the study was designed as well as the research instruments for this study. The chapter begins with a presentation of research approach and design. It then describes the research setting, followed by a description of the participants and the role of the researcher. Data collection tools, and data collection procedures were presented in the next section. After that data analysis and ethical issues were laid-out accordingly. The chapter ends with a justification of the validity and reliability of the research.

3.1. Research approach and research design

In planning a study, researchers must consider their philosophical presuppositions about the world that they bring to the study, the strategy of inquiry that is related to this worldview, and the specific research techniques that put the strategy into action. It is of great importance since it serves as the foundation to determine under what condition the data will be obtained and how the data should be analyzed (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). In the following section, a description and justification of the research approach and design adopted to carry out the present study is presented.

3.1.1. Research approach

The research approach of the present study is a mixed-method study in which both quantitative and qualitative data are combined at all stages of a research project, including data collection, data analysis and data interpretation (Hashemi & Babai, 2013). It entails philosophical presumptions, the application of qualitative and quantitative approaches, and the blending of both approaches in a study to produce greater overall strength than either qualitative or quantitative research. (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Triangulation and complementarity are the primary advantages of the mixed-method design. In particular, examining the relationship between variables in quantitative research allows for the testing of objective theories. To enable statistical analysis of numbered data, these variables can be measured by using instruments. In this type of study, researchers can incorporate bias-prevention

measures, adjust for competing hypotheses, and be able to generalize and replicate the results (Creswell, 2014). However, due to classification's fundamentally reductive nature, these instruments are unable to provide an in-depth comprehension of the items under analysis (Savela, 2018). Qualitative research, on the other hand, generates a lengthy (depth) account of the participants' thoughts, feelings, and experiences and deciphers the intentions behind their behavior (Denzin, 1989, cited in Rahman, 2020). According to Creswell, (2014), the process of qualitative research often entails emerging questions and procedures, data typically collected in the students' setting, inductive data analysis derived from the particular to general themes, and interpretations of the meaning of the data made by the researcher. It is asserted that the qualitative research approach has the capacity to comprehend the human experience in particular contexts holistically. It also has the capacity to comprehend the voices, meanings, and events of various people as well as to discover the participants' inner experience and to understand how meanings are shaped through and in culture (Corbin & Strauss, 2011).

In the present study, a commonly known mixed method research, which combines quantitative and qualitative approach, was selected; since this method "provides a greater triangulation of findings and helps identify and interpret rich point in research" (Mackey & Gass, 2015, p. 278), also does it allow the researcher to use a variety of data collection tools to thoroughly explore a problem (Creswell, 2014). The researcher can guarantee the validity of the research by means of triangulation using both quantitative-based questionnaire, qualitative-based semi-structured interview, and learning reflections. Additionally, both quantitative and qualitative methods have their specific strengths and weaknesses. Quantitative methods can be helpful to explore students' awareness; meanwhile, qualitative methods are believed to be more fundamental to students' in-depth perceptions, experiences or evaluation investigation. As Mackey & Gass (2015) emphasize, researchers are able to build on strengths and minimizing weaknesses by combining these two approaches. This well suits the present research since both awareness and perceptions are aimed to be examined and looked at in this particular study.

Further, this study also used an intact class, in which the participants were not assigned randomly. Even though they are uncommon in experimental research, intact classes offer the advantage of improving the credibility of some kinds of classroom study (Mackey & Gass, 2015). As the purpose of the study is to investigate the possible effects of ESI on learners' perceived improvement, the use of intact class seems particularly appropriate. The existing classroom may be the most ecologically sound setting for the research.

To put it briefly, mixed method research was selected for the current study since it was shown to be rigorous and effective in assisting the researcher in making methodological decisions and establishing the rationale for the interpretation of data and findings.

Four types of research instruments were used in this study, namely questionnaires, reading texts for instruction, informal interviews, and learning reflections. The quantitative data obtained from the closed- ended items in questionnaires responses were triangulated with the qualitative data gained from the open- ended questions responses, interviews, and learning reflections to see whether the results from the quantitative methods were supported by the results from qualitative sources. The questionnaires were used to explore the reading strategies that students reported to use before and after the ESI. Learning reflections and interviews were employed since these tools could yield more responses from the participants about what they perceived of the effects of ESI on their reading skill.

3.1.2. Research design

Creswell (2014) defines research designs as the plans and processes for a study that cover choices ranging from general hypotheses to specific methods for data collecting and analysis. There are numerous ways to design a mixed- method study. Creswell, Plano Clark and Garrette (2008) present five typical research designs which differ on whether data collection takes place concurrently (concurrent designs) or sequentially (sequential designs). With the intention of gaining an in-depth understanding of what reading strategies that non- English major students used in reading English level 3 texts and how they perceived the improvements they got from ESI, a sequential embedded design was utilized. On the one hand, the researcher hopes to achieve a fuller understanding of the students' awareness and use of reading

strategies. On the other hand, the researcher expects to verify the students' perceptions on the effects of ESI on their reading comprehension skill after the intervention.

A mixed method sequential embedded research is a two-phase sequential embedded design in which qualitative data are collected before or after quantitative data collection. Prior to collecting quantitative data, qualitative data may be used to verify the accuracy of the instrument or even to select participants; qualitative data acquired after data collection are frequently used to explain results (Mackey & Gass, 2015). Diagrammatic presentation of Creswell et al. (2008) on mixed method sequential explanatory model is illustrated in Figure 3.1. An application of this model to the current study is presented in Figure 3.2.

Before Intervention QUAL	QUAN Intervention trial	After Intervention QUAL	interpretation
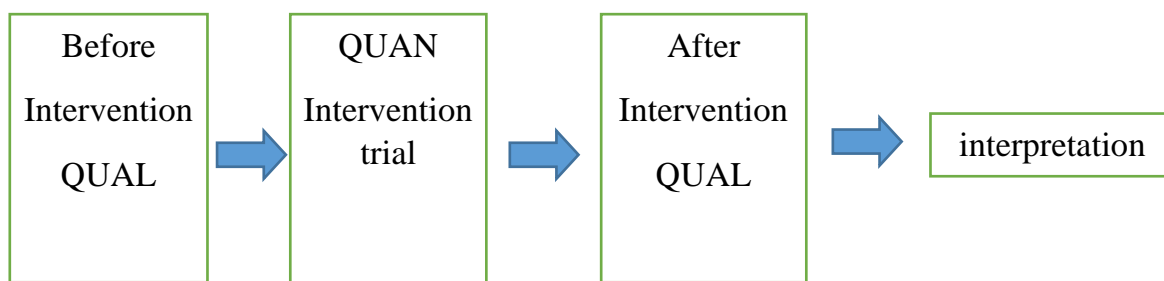
Figure 3.1. Sequential embedded design

Note. Adopted from Creswell et al. (2008, p. 66)

Before Intervention QUAN Students 'awareness & use	QUAN Analysis SPSS	QUAN results Descriptive & inferential data base of Ss' awareness & use	Intervention	After intervention QUAN& QUAL	QUAN Analysis SPSS& QUAL thematic analysis	Interpretation QUAN + QUAL results Comparison of data
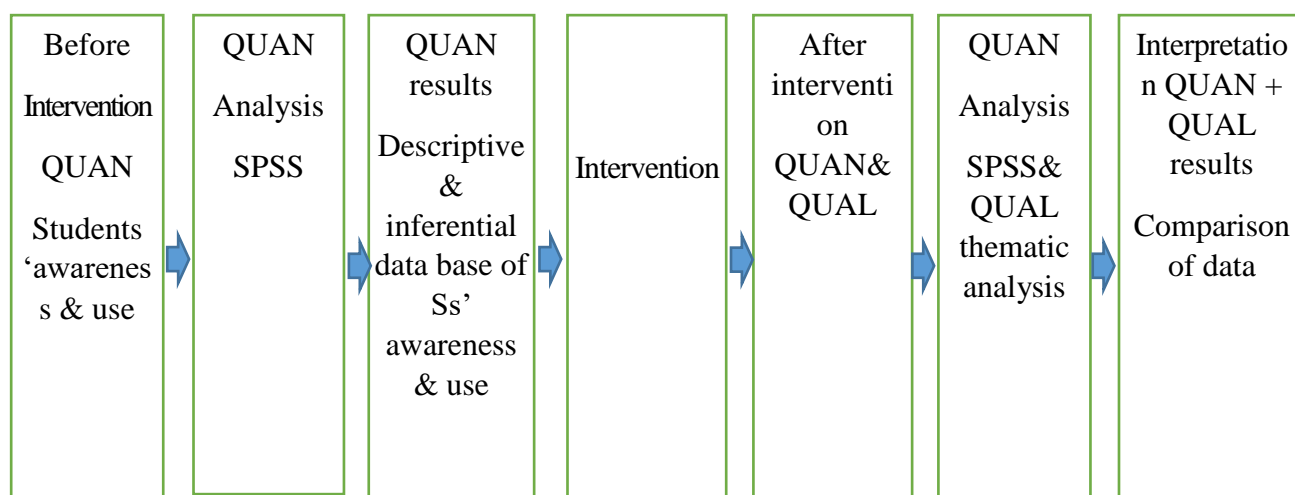
Figure 3.2. An adapted model for the present study

Creswell and Clark's (2007) mixed- method designs vary from sequential, simultaneous to embedded. In sequential designs, the qualitative component can be developed first, followed by quantitative section and vice versa (Creswell & Clark, 2007). In their original model, quantitative data build up the major findings while

qualitative data are supplementary findings of the design (see Figure 3.1). However, in the present study, both quantitative and qualitative data were used equally due to the limited number of the students within the research.

3.2. Research Setting and Sample

3.2.1. Research setting

The present study was conducted at a university of foreign languages in Central Vietnam which is under the direct control of Ministry of Education and Training. The university specializes in teaching different languages to both foreign language major and non-major students. Non-English major language teaching is one of the training majors, which is offered for students from the research site's member universities and faculties. Although the students enrolled in the college came from many parts of the country, the majority of them come from highlands, rural areas and suburban provinces in Central Vietnam, where English teaching and learning is not as important as that in the other regions. From my personal observation as a teacher, a large number of non-English major students in the research site are not very proficient in English. Moreover, statistics from the Training Department of the research site, after five years of applying the regulations on learning outcomes (until May 5, 2017) show that the number of students who passed their English Level 3 final course exams accounts for only 48.3% (Nguyen, 2021). As for English- level- 3 course, reading skill is taught integratedly with other English skills, namely reading, listening, speaking, and writing. The book "*Life*" (pre-intermediate) by Dummet Paul and Hughes John (2016) are used as the main textbook for this course and PET series (Cambridge Preliminary English Test, 2010) are for additional materials.

3.2.2. Participants

The participants in the present study were selected from an intact class on the basis of being accessible. The students in this class had never sit in any English level three class before. This type of convenience sample made it easy to conduct the study. Although this type of sample was not randomly selected, they share characteristics of non- English major students in Vietnam. They were undergraduate students from colleges and faculties of the research site, majoring in different subjects except English. They came from different regions all over the country and all learned English

at high school before entering university. Moreover, their English proficiency level varied considerably though they were supposed to reach level 3 after the course. These students had attended English- level-1 and level-2 courses before they enrolled in this course. However, some students could take English- level- 3 courses even they did not pass their previous courses; since the policy was made by the local university to help students accumulate their language learning credits continuously (7 credits in total) which includes three periods per week (on average) over three semesters. Accordingly, non-English-major students must achieve Level 3 (B1 equivalent) in the adapted version of the CEFR upon graduation. At the beginning of the semester, the teacher explained to the students the purposes as well as the procedure of the strategy intervention and asked for their voluntary participation in the instruction and the data collection process. 100% students in the group agreed to join the project without any requirements.

Tables 3.1 and 3.2 present the data obtained from Questionnaire – part 1, which covered the participants' backgrounds with information about age, gender, number of years learning English before entering university.

Forty-five students (15 males and 30 females) enrolled in the English- level- 3 course in the second semester of academic year 2020-2021, participated in the main study, as shown in Table 3.1. The participants' ages ranged from 18 to 23 years, with a mean of 20.6. Table 3.2 provides the data on the participants' previous educational background and grade level when they started learning English. The grade level for starting learning English ranged from grade 1 (6 years old) to grade 6 (12 years old).

Table 3.1. Participants' age and gender

	Age				Gender			
	Age	N	Percentage	mean	N		Percentage	
					Male	Female	Male	Female
	18	7	15.5					
	20	10	22.3					
	21	20	44.4	20.6	15	30	33.3	66.7
	22	7	15.5					
	23	1	2.3					
Total		45	100		45		100	

Table 3.2. Grade levels of participants' English learning starting time

Grade	Frequency	Percentage	Years of learning English
Grade 1	3	0.6	14
Grade 2	1	0.2	13
Grade 3	12	26	12
Grade 4	9	2	11
Grade 5	6	13	10
Grade 6	14	31	9

As shown in Table 3.2, the students started learning English at a variety of ages (6-11 years old) and grade levels (grade 1 to grade 6). However, the majority of them started learning English in secondary school before the age of 12. The figures show that three participants (0.6%), who had exactly the mandated 12 years of experience of English by the time they entered the university, began learning English at grade 1. Additionally, one participant (0.2%) began learning English in grade 2. The number of students began learning English at grade 3, officially the age at which English becomes a compulsory subject in urban schools (i.e. having 10 years' experience of English), accounts for 26% (12 students). In addition, six participants (13%) start learning English in grade 5. And finally, the percentage of students did not start learning English until they were in grade 6, officially the age at which English becomes a compulsory subject in rural areas, was 31%.

Table 3.3. Participants' home and school location

Home location				School location			
City		Rural area		City		Rural area	
Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
11	24.4	34	75.6	27	60	18	40

Table 3.3 further shows that 11 participants in the study had lived in the city and 34 participants (75.6%) had lived in rural areas when they were in secondary school. The data also revealed the location of the high schools where the participants had studied before they entered the university. From the table, it can be seen that 27 schools were located in urban areas whereas eighteen schools were located in rural areas before they entered the university. In brief, many students living in the urban came to the cities for their high school education

3.2.3. The role of the researcher

Qualitative research is interpretative research in its nature, with the researcher typically involved in a sustained and intensive experience with participants (Creswell, 2014). A range of strategic, ethical, and personal issues are hence introduced into the qualitative research process (Locke et al., 2007). With these concerns in mind, reflexive biases, values, and personal background, such as gender, history, culture, and socioeconomic status must be explicitly identified by the researchers. These factors may shape their interpretations formed during a study (Creswell, 2009). My role in the study was a researcher and a teacher teaching the participants in their English- level- 3 course. With more than nineteen-year experience of working in the college as a teacher of English, the rapport among the researcher and the participants was built up for the trustworthiness of data collection. This made it convenient for me to carry out the ESI in the classroom as well as to set up the interview schedules for the participants. From a practical perspective, it was optimal to access the participants and manage the research time effectively when conducting research on the participants in the familiar context of the college. The feasibility of the research in terms of formality procedures, data collection in the natural learning setting, sensitivity to many of the challenges and reduction of affective factors was made by the profound understanding of the context and being the participants' instructor.

Furthermore, as stated by Greenbank (2003), in qualitative research, the researcher needs to describe relevant aspects of self, including any bias or assumptions, any expectations and experiences to qualify his or her ability to conduct the study. Hence, to avoid biases in the role of a researcher, I kept myself to be as objective as possible by self-criticizing and respected the ethical principles described in section 3.8.

3.3. Research instruments

There were four types of research instruments utilized in this study: questionnaires, reading tasks, informal interviews, and learning reflections. Questionnaires were used for two purposes: firstly, to obtain students' background information in order to contextualize the response and secondly, to collect information on reading strategies that students used prior to and after the instruction. Reading tasks

were designed for the ESI during the course. Focus group interviews were then conducted with ten participants to have an in-depth understanding in what other tools or techniques that they used in doing the reading tests. Learning reflections and the questionnaires were used after the final session of the intervention to evaluate the impacts of the ESI on learners' reading comprehension.

3.3.1. Questionnaire

Questionnaire was the first tool to be used in the present study for obtaining information from the participants for the following reasons. Firstly, three types of data about the respondents, namely factual, behavioral, and attitudinal questionnaires can be yielded from questionnaires (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2009). To be more specific, questionnaire can provide information about the thoughts, feelings, attitudes, beliefs, values, perceptions, personality, and behavioral intentions of research participants which are appropriate for the research questions about knowledge, beliefs, opinions and expectation (Neuman, 1994). Secondly, the main attraction of questionnaires is their unprecedented efficiency in terms of researcher time, researcher effort, and financial resources (Dörnyei &Taguchi, 2009). A researcher can collect a huge amount of information in a short period of time by administering a questionnaire to a group of people. Moreover, questionnaires are very versatile, which means that they can be used successfully with a variety of people in a variety of situations targeting a variety of topics. Bryman, (2008) points out that they can even tap into attitudes that the respondents are not completely aware of, and a well-constructed questionnaire can reduce the bias of interviewer effects and thus increase the consistency and reliability of the results (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2009). For those reasons, questionnaires are popular among educational researchers in social science research in general and ELT researchers in particular (Cohenand Manion, 1989; Taherdoost, 2018). As a result, a questionnaire that was structured into clusters aligned with the research questions can provide general and overall findings about students' self-reported information on their awareness and actual use of reading strategies.

Questionnaire in the pilot phase

In the pilot phase, the existing measures of metacognitive awareness in reading, the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) designed by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002)

was used to fit within a comprehension reading assessment for EFL learners at the institution. Since "SORS can be administered individually as well as to groups of adolescent and adult students with grade level equivalents ranging from fifth grade through college" (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002).

One reason to explain for the adoption of SORS for this study was that SORS was mainly designed to measure non-native English speakers' metacognitive reading strategies while they read academic or school-related materials (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002, p.6). It has been broadly adopted in various studies related to learners of ESL, EFL and learners of other languages (See Alsheikh 2011; Malcolm 2012; Sheorey & Baboczky, 2008). Hence, SORS can serve as a useful tool for teachers and researchers in investigating the impact of teaching strategic reading on students' reading comprehension under a variety of conditions, including reading for different purposes (e.g., reading to answer questions on a test vs. reading to research a particular topic); reading texts varying in length, difficulty, structure, and topic familiarity (e.g., reading a chapter book vs. reading a computer manual); and reading assigned versus self-selected readings.

Specifically, the first part of the questionnaire aims to collect students' demographic information with five questions investigating students' age, gender, home, school location, and previous education. This demographic information is expected to give more explanations and comparisons to better understanding the investigated issues.

The second part is the major part of the questionnaire with thirty items eliciting students' reported reading strategy use in reading English level b1 texts for non-English majors. Each item uses a 5-point Likert scale was coded with logical way of thinking in which the bigger the number, the higher the frequency of use is; ranging from 1 *(I never or almost never do this)* to 5 *(I always or almost always do this)*. Students were asked to read each statement and circle the number that applies to them, indicating the frequency with which they use the reading strategy implied in the statement. The SORS measures three broad categories of reading strategies: namely, global reading strategies, cognitive strategies, and support strategies. Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) categorize 30 items in the inventory into the above three subscales (See Table 3.5) and provide definitions for each subscale as follow:

Table 3.4. Description of reading strategy categories in SORS

Reading strategy category	Number of items	Item Number	Contents
Global strategies	13	1, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12, 15, 17, 20, 21, 23, 24, 27	Intentional, carefully planned techniques by which learners monitor or manage their reading, such as having a purpose in mind, previewing the text as to its length and organization, or using typographical aids and tables and figures.
Problem solving strategies	8	7, 9, 11, 14, 16, 19, 25, 26	Actions and procedures that readers use while working directly with the text. These are localized, focused techniques used when problems develop in understanding textual information; examples include adjusting one's speed of reading when the material becomes difficult or easy, guessing the meaning of unknown words, and rereading the text to improve comprehension.
Support strategies	9	2, 5, 10, 13, 18, 22, 26, 29, 30	Basic support mechanisms intended to aid the reader in comprehending the text, such as using a dictionary, taking notes, underlining, or highlighting textual information.

Note. Adapted from by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002)

In this round, the questionnaire was delivered in Vietnamese so that students felt comfortable and thus understood more the meaning of each statement which could help to yield more reliable responses.

Questionnaire for the official round

After piloting the SORS, a number of changes in the questionnaire for the official round were made based on the pilot data and the post- pilot talk to the participants.

The first part concerning demographic information was placed at the end of the questionnaire because some respondents do not want to answer personal information, and these types of questions can affect the response rate (Dillman, 2002).

Major amendments are in the main part of the questionnaire. Firstly, 30 items in SORS were grouped into different groups in accordance with the three phases in the reading comprehension procedure, namely pre-reading, while reading, and post-reading, which refer to what readers actually did in each stage of reading.

In particular, pre- reading strategies aim to activate readers' background knowledge of the topic, to prepare the mind to interact with the new information contained in the text which helps to make connection between readers' prior knowledge and the text. Therefore, strategies in this phase included previewing and predicting, using titles, headings, pictures, and diagrams from the texts and their own personal experiences to predict what they were about to read. While-reading strategies were aimed at checking comprehension of what is being read to confirm predictions, gathering information and organizing information. Typical strategies in this stage were *skimming*, *scanning*, *guessing the meaning of words from the context*, and *search reading* strategies. Checking for accurate comprehension of the text is the main purpose of the post-reading phase which gives readers chances to monitor or evaluate their success. In the post-reading activity, the students were given opportunities to check their comprehension by answering questions, expanding vocabulary and giving opinions.

Moreover, based on what students answered in the post- pilot talk about the reading strategies that they used in comprehending reading texts combined with the researcher's self-perceptions of the appropriate strategies needed for multiple choice questions in the English- level- 3 reading test, 8 more items of reading strategies that were specifically used by EFL readers were added to the list. These strategies were also selected to be the focus of the instruction.

1. reading the title and sub-titles before reading the rest of the text,
2. focus on the key words from the title (for the before reading phase);
3. read the first sentence of each paragraph,
4. skip unknown words,
5. use English grammar to help understand the text,
6. skim the text quickly to get the general ideas,
7. scan the text for specific details, and
8. distinguish between fact and opinion (for the while reading phase).

The 38 closed items were divided into three categories (three parts) based on the three steps in the reading comprehension process: *before reading the text*, *when reading the text*, and *after reading the text* (See Table 3.5). The information from the 38 closed items was designed to indicate what reading strategies students employed before and after the ESI.

Table 3.5. The questionnaire design

	No of items	Type of questions	Focus
Part 1	8	Closed questions	check students employ previewing and predicting strategies before they read a text
Part 2	23	Closed questions	address the strategies that students might use while they read a text which include careful reading, skimming, coping with unknown words, applying language knowledge, scanning or search reading and translating, summarizing.
Part 3	7	Closed questions	Address the strategies that students might employ after they read the text, namely summarizing, evaluation and supporting.
Total	38		

Finally, the second seven- open- ended question part was also added to the questionnaire to exert the least amount of control over the respondent and can capture idiosyncratic differences by generating specific individual responses (McMillan and Schumacher, 2014). The open-ended questions included:

1. While reading English texts, what helps you understand the meaning of the text?

2. What helps you find the main idea in the passage?

3. What enables you to find the supporting details in the passage?

4. What strategies do you use most often?

5. What do you do if your first strategy/strategies do[es] not work?

6. Which reading strategies help you to have a better understanding of English texts? Why?

7. Is there anything you would like to add about your problems and strategies with reading in English?

The questionnaire for this study was designed in English and Vietnamese, the participants' first language. First of all, the questionnaires were prepared in English since their items were adapted from Mokhtari and Sheorey's (2002), which were originally written in English. Moreover, the English version was also needed for reporting purposes (see Appendix A). Then, they were translated into Vietnamese to

avoid ambiguity so that the participants could find it much more understandable when reading them. In order to avoid misinterpretation and make students feel comfortable, it is advisable to use the respondents' first language. (Saunders *et al.*, 2019).

3.3.2. Interview

Though the questionnaire is easy to use and economical, it is criticized for the lack of detailed narrative of students' perception and responses (Creswell, 2013). In addition, quantified data from the questionnaire cannot provide elaboration on detailed information and as a result it is difficult to deeply understand the students' perceptions. In order to minimize the above shortcomings of the questionnaire as well as to achieve follow- up qualitative data for the current study, a qualitative-based interview was used. Interviews are believed to provide a useful way of understanding others and enable participants to express their ideas and interpretation of the context that they work in (Punch, 2009; Cohen et al, 2011). The interview is often selected as the primary method for data collection because it has the potential to elicit rich and thick description (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016). Further, Marshall and Rossman (2015) assert that a major benefit of collecting data through in-depth interviews is that they offer the potential to capture a person's perspective of an event or experience. Mackey and Gass (2015) point out that interviews can allow researchers to investigate phenomena that are not directly observable, such as learners' self-reported perceptions or attitudes. As a tool of data collection, the interview is also flexible, adaptable, powerful and can be used with many problems and types of persons (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014); it enables interaction and gives space for naturalness (Cohen et al., 2011).

With the abovementioned advantages of interview, this technique was chosen as a tool to collect data from the participants. Responses from the interview could help the researcher get more in-depth information about students' awareness of reading strategies and their perceptions on the impact of the ESI. However, there is a risk that interview is of potential for subjectivity and bias (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). The students' responses might be shaped by the hints and the leading questions from the interviewer. To mitigate potential bias, the researcher had tried to write clear, neutral statements and avoid using her own assumption about the topic in the interview questions.

In the present study, the interviews were semi- structured and less formal since this type of interview can be useful as an adjunct to supplement and add depth to other approaches in a mixed- method design study (Adams, 2015). The purpose of the interview was to gather retrospective data on the students' recollections of the strategies they applied to specific tasks. This type of data helps to understand the reason why people act in particular ways by exploring participants' perceptions, experiences and attitudes (Harvey-Jordan & Long, 2001). Semi- structured and informal interviews were conducted in three groups with three to four participants voluntarily right after the last session of the ESI. This helps to ensure the full reflection of participants' thoughts and feelings about ESI. Initially, the purpose and procedures of the interviews were informed to the students and they were asked to sign the consent forms (see Appendix D). They were also made aware that the interviews would be taped with their permission and transcribed for later analysis, and they could withdraw from the study whenever they felt uncomfortable.

The flow of questions and responses were based on the interview guide, as previously mentioned, but the interviewees could expand their answers and more specific questions were asked to clarify any interesting piece of information arising during the interviews (following-up). Open- ended questions were used in order to give the interviewees opportunities to develop their ideas as naturally as possible, but some close-ended questions were also included to confirm the information whenever the participants' responses seemed lengthy or ambiguous (checking). According to Heigham and Croker (2009, p. 190), following-up and checking are considered as two useful techniques for exploring new topics brought up during interviews.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted in Vietnamese in an effort to ensure understanding and put the interviewees at ease as well as to get the thorough information for the study. Each group of participants was interviewed and audiotaped with the use of a voice recorder for around ten minutes.

In order to assure the validity of the interviews, the interview was piloted before the official round. Some minor changes were made after piloting. In particular, more questions were added to elicit more elaborating information about students' perceptions on the ESI. The interviewer also made every effort to put the participants

at ease and build harmonious and amicable rapport in trying to encourage them to reveal worthy and truthful information. Also, negative or positive comments on interviewees' talks were avoided. In some cases, interview questions were paraphrased and reordered to suit each interviewee's reactions.

3.3.3. Learning reflections

Due to the Covid-19 pandemic, students had to do the course online in the second half of the semester. To add more validity to the data and to find out the long-term effects of the instruction, learning reflections were additionally used to understand what students reported learning after the ESI. Originally, the interviews were supposed to yield deeper information from the participants for the intervention. However, the population took part in the interviews were rather small, which could not be used to make generalization.

Moreover, learning reflections provided students more time to reflect on their own. Hence, the researchers decided to conduct the learning reflections for the whole group. Clearly, the interviews and learning reflections data provided valuable insights into the positive impact of strategy training on students' strategy use in reading. The questionnaire, in the present study, was used to measure students' strategies as well as to assess the frequency of use of different kinds of reading strategies.

Helyer (2015) argued that reflection encompasses all aspects of one's life and involved more than merely recalling the past. People naturally think back on experiences, possibly to better comprehend and make sense of what has happened. Further, without being confined by specified areas of interest, students are able to record their experiences or perceptions about learning. As a result, learning reflections can yield insights into language learning process that may be inaccessible from the researcher's perspective alone (Mackey & Gass, 2015). In addition, reflection entries can be completed according to the participants' own schedules, which allows for greater flexibility than other approaches to data collection such as observations or interviews which must be scheduled to fit the time constraints of multiple individuals (Mackey & Gass, 2015). Furthermore, learning reflections add on more to the multiple data gathering techniques in order to develop a more complex understanding of the phenomena being studied, with the idea that this practice would illuminate

different facets of the instruction and help portray them in their entirety and complexity (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016).

Forty-five students who took part in the intervention were asked to write a learning reflection about what they benefited from the ESI 4 months later, after they completed their course. The participants were instructed how to write the learning reflections. They individually typed their reflections in Vietnamese and submitted them through a Google form link. Students were given 6 guided questions about the influences of ESI on different aspects of English reading comprehension in Vietnamese and they gave their answers and explanations. The participants had one day to complete their reflections and submitted back.

The criteria for filtering learning reflections in the present study were the originality and completion. The participants completed all the requested questions in the learning reflections without copying from their partners. The reflections were conducted in one day after their they completed their course of the English level 3.

3.4. Research procedures

Based on the analyzed research design, the study was carried out in three phases, as summarized in Figure 3.4. In phase 1, the pre-instruction phase, a questionnaire was administered to students to investigate their use of EFL reading strategies. Phase 2 was the strategy instruction: The responses from the questionnaire helped to inform what types of strategies to include in the instruction. The ESI was carried out in 6 weeks focusing on the chosen strategies that are needed for EFL non-English major tertiary students. Phase 3 was the post-instruction involving multiple data sources: a questionnaire, interview and learning reflections with guided questions. The same questionnaire was administered to the students again to see if there were any differences in their use of reading strategies after receiving the explicit strategy instruction. In addition, 10 students were randomly selected from the volunteer students to take part in the focus group interview to obtain insights into students' perceptions on the ESI. Moreover, each of the students was also asked to write a learning reflection about what they learned from the ESI.
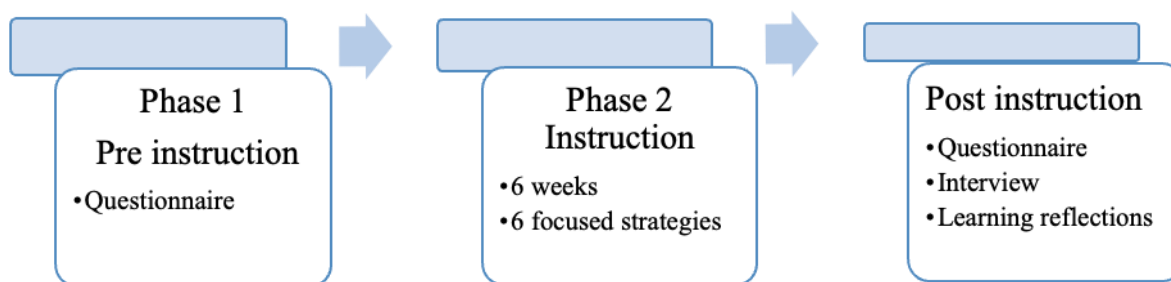
Figure 3.3. Research procedures

3.4.1. Phase:1 Pre instruction

3.4.1.2. Questionnaire

Piloting

Before administering the questionnaire to the research participants, the researcher needs to determine whether the questions are being asked in the most effective way and whether the participants are able to understand the questions well. Therefore, piloting and evaluation of these issues is an essential step for the researcher, as Dilman (2000) put it, pilot has been always a crucial part of questionnaire design. The issues need to be considered include the content and the format of the questionnaire to ensure instrument validity, containing steps taken by the researcher to ensure overall clarity and appropriate wording and ordering of the items.

In the first stage, the questionnaires were delivered to the participants. Students were asked to read each statement and circle the number that applies to them, indicating the frequency with which they used the reading strategy implied in the statement.

Piloting of the questionnaire took place in the lecture room in the first week of the course. First of all, the questionnaires were given to 45 students. The researcher explained the procedures, purpose and benefits of the questionnaires in Vietnamese. In addition, with the intention of ensuring students' understanding of the questions and then providing a full response to the questionnaire, the researcher also provided verbal instructions on how to respond to the questions in each part of the questionnaire. The completed questionnaires were returned to the researcher when being finished. Thirty minutes were allowed for completing the questionnaires and this proved to be adequate for all students to finish.

Table 3.6 showed the Cronbach alphas for the whole questionnaire, as well as separated parts of the three strategy categories, namely global, problem-solving and support strategies. It was noticed that alpha values for the whole questionnaire and for items related to overall strategies were acceptable (α= .82 >.70), yet for items related to global and support strategies, the reliability was not good enough (α<.70)

Table 3.6. The reliability of the pilot questionnaire

Overall Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha for global strategies	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha for problem-solving strategies	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha for support strategies	N of Items
.82	30	.60	13	.84	8	. 62	9

From these results, analyses with alpha for the questionnaire if item deleted were also run to identify problematic items with statistics, some minor changes were made by rephrasing, rewording and changing those items in these two clusters to make them clearer and more explicit, which helped to enhance the reliability of the questionnaire in the official round.

Official questionnaire:

The official questionnaire was administered to get an overview on students' awareness of English reading strategies. It should be noted that paper questionnaires were distributed before the instruction and all 45 students returned them to the researcher. The Cronbach alphas (α) of the questionnaire and clusters were then run to test the reliability of the revised questionnaire and shown in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7. The reliability of the official questionnaire

Overall Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha for pre-reading strategies	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha for while-reading strategies	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha for post-reading strategies	N of Items
.92	38	.73	8	.87	23	. 88	7

Cronbach alpha values of the whole questionnaire and of each separate cluster, namely pre-reading strategies, while-reading strategies and post-reading strategies were much higher than the required value of .70 and the original values (.92, .73, .87 and .88 compared to .82, .60, .84 and .62 respectively),

3.4.2. Phase 2: The instruction

The instruction in the present study was carried out in group 26 English- level- 3 course which consisted of 45 students from member colleges in the research site. The instructor was also the researcher of this study. As mentioned in the previous chapter, the model used for explicit instruction of reading strategies in the present study was the one developed by Gauthier, Bissonnette and Richard (2013), which was conducted in three sequential steps: ***modeling, guided or directed practice***, and ***independent practice***.

3.4.2.1. Modeling

Following the framework of Gauthier, Bissonnette and Richard (2013), with the aim of providing students with knowledge on the strategy, the researcher described critical known features of the target strategy and provided a definition/ description of the strategy. Then the students were told why they were learning about the strategy. Explaining the purpose of the lesson and its potential benefits was a necessary step for moving from teacher control to student self-control of learning. After that, the strategy was broken down, components of each strategy were clearly and articulately made; then the logical relationships among the various components was also shown. Next, appropriate circumstances under which the strategy may be employed were delineated, (e.g., whether the strategy applies in a story or informational reading). Inappropriate instances for using the strategy were also described. Finally, the students were shown how to evaluate their successful/ unsuccessful use of the strategy by using examples of what to do and what not to do to more directly highlight the strategies that they acquied in the lessons, to facilitate their understanding of the learning objectives and thus improve the quality of modeling, including suggestions for fix-up strategies to resolve remaining problems. This step also prepared all the students for demonstrating their strategy use in the following phase.

3.4.2.2. Guided practice

Similarly, the second step in the instruction is intended to support students practice using the strategy in chosen tasks; the students were divided into groups of five and read the text with a given strategy that teacher delivered. The students in each group were each, in turn, assigned the role of the teacher, modeling the use of strategies as they read a text and complete the task without teacher input. While

students prepared their work product, the teacher was now the observer giving specific feedback if the student requested clarification or privately attended to students who need further help and observed the whole class. This gave the teacher the opportunity to circulate and confirm that all students have understood the lesson modelled in the first stage. It also allowed students not only the opportunity to try the tasks that were modeled, but ensured that they received feedback on their finished work. Guided practice helped students to "verify, adjust, consolidate and to deepen their understanding of the learning taking place, by connecting their new learning with that which is already present in their long-term memories" (Gauthier et al., 2004, p.28). In order to help students to reflect on what they have learned; a whole class discussion was carried out at the end of the session in which students talked about possible explanations for their success or their failure.

3.4.2.3. Independent practice

This final phase aims at helping students internalize what the teacher has demonstrated in the previous two stages. Students were given reading texts with specific tasks involving the guided strategy. Students individually performed the task "independently", showing what they had learned and demonstrated their competency. They had an opportunity to test out their understanding in order to obtain the highest level of mastery possible, with the goal of consolidating their learning. The teacher's role in independent practice was to support students as a facilitator. The teacher also still checked for student understanding and provided effective feedback. In this step, any students who may be in need of some additional support before they moved on were identified to provide further assistance.

3.4.3. Phase 3: Post- instruction

3.4.3.1. Post- questionnaires

The same official questionnaire was employed to elicit participants' responses to their reading strategies use after the instruction and the results were used to compare with those from the first phase.

Students received the questionnaires online through a Google form link. They had 30 minutes to finish the questionnaires by clicking on the number showing their frequency of using reading strategies. The questionnaire link was sent to students via

their email addresses after they were informed of the purpose of the second questionnaire. Then they could complete the form immediately right after the class or they could do it the following day. Any questions about the contents or how to answer the questionnaire were handled through messages in Zalo group. Students submitted their responses in the form after they finished all the required items in the questionnaire.

3.4.3.3 Interviews

Once they have finished the questionnaires, ten students from the class would voluntarily take part in the focus group interviews. The interviews were also made online through Google meet (GM). Students were invited to join the GM room in group of three to four and answered the interview questions related to their perceptions of the ESI posed by the teacher. They took turns to share their perceptions, experiences and their evaluation about the use as well as the effects of ESI on their reading comprehension skill. Each focus group interview lasted about 10 minutes. The major guided questions for the interview were as follows:

1. How did you feel when you first did the reading test in this English level 3 course?

2. What did you do to overcome the reading difficulties when you first did the reading test in this English level 3 course?

3. How about after the ESI?

4. Did you find any changes in your reading skills? How?

These open-ended questions were chosen to use in the interview because they were useful in eliciting students' perceptions, feelings and past experiences of the ESI in the English course. Students' responses from the interviews provided more in-depth information on the effects of ESI which was used to triangulate with the questionnaires' and learning reflections' findings.

3.4.3.4. Learning reflections

Finally, after the last session of instruction, when they finished the course, they were asked to write learning reflections with guided questions as follows:

1. What difficulties you normally have when reading English level 3 texts?

2. After the ESI in this course,

- Did your reading speed improve and how?
- Did your speed of finding the right answer improve and how?
- Did you feel confident in reading English test?
- Did you feel like reading more compared to before the instruction?

3. What strategies did you get to know thanks to the teacher's instruction in the English level 3 course and how did you apply those strategies in your reading process?

4. After being instructed with reading strategies, how did you use them in answering multiple choice and gap-fill questions?

5. Do you think that the ESI helped you in your reading skill? Why/why not?

6. What challenges/difficulties you still encounter in reading English level 3 texts after the ESI?

The guided questions were designed based on the results obtained from the open-ended questions in the questionnaire and the interviews. These questions focus on eliciting students' perceived improvements they mentioned in the interviews in more detail by giving explanations and specific comments.

Due to the fact that students had finished their English level 3 course at this time and returned to their colleges or hometown, the learning reflections were also sent to them through Google form. At this stage, students had a chance to reflect in their own time which was supposed to yield more valuable data about students' perceptions and experiences in the course of ESI. The learning reflection guided questions were posted in Google form and sent to students after they completed their course. Students were guided how to write the reflection and finished them in a week. Each student would write one learning reflection. The reflections were also written in students' L1 so that they could express their ideas in a comfortable way. Reflections' contents were guided in six provided questions and after the teacher's guide, students typed their answers in the Google form and submitted the form after they finished. The form was sent to 45 students but only 39 returned their answers. To minimize the risk that students might copy the answers from their classmates when writing reflections, the researcher explained carefully the purpose of the reflections and asked students to be sincere in their responses. And de-identification was ensured throughout data coding and analysis so that students felt relaxed to reflect on the instruction.

3.5. Data analysis

3.5.1. Analysis of the questionnaire data

Data collected from the two questionnaires were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS), version 22 to obtain descriptive statistics, such as means and standard deviations, and frequencies regarding the strategies students reported using. The "level of use" was rated based on the scale of SILL (Oxford, 1990), which categorized a mean score of 1.0 – 2.4 as "low"; 2.5 – 3.4 as "medium" and 3.5 – 5.0 as "high". The strategies were grouped into global, problem-solving, support and local strategy categories. A number of paired sample t- tests were used to compare the strategy use in the three stages of the reading: pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading. The significance level was conventionally adopted at p =.05. Normality of the data distribution was tested by means of the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test using SPSS (Field, 2005). Cohen's *d* value was also calculated to measure the effect size in difference use of each strategy categories before and after the intervention. The interpretation of this value was based on guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988) which indicate that *d* = 0.20, 0.50, and 0.80 interpret observed effect sizes as small, medium, or large, respectively (Brydges, 2019).

For the open-ended questions in both questionnaires, the students' answers in each questionnaire were read and transferred to excel file. Then, for each response to each question, the number of participants who mentioned similar content would be counted and noted down to another column. After that, a comparison between the questionnaire time 1 and time 2 was made to see the difference in the number of students reported strategy using. The findings were finally presented in separate tables for each question (Detail in Chapter 4).

3.5.2 Analysis of interviews and learning reflections

The data analysis procedure in this study also followed inductive approach for qualitative research proposed by Creswell (2017) including four basic steps: raw data management, data reduction, data interpretation and data representation for the interviews and the reflections.

As for the interviews, the audio-recordings were transcribed in their entities and grouped into different themes. The data from the interviews were used as a

complementary source, especially the focus was to answer the question about what students perceived to have learnt from the ESI. Similarly, learning reflections were also analyzed to find the answers to the second research question about the effects of the ESI on different aspects of English reading comprehension skill reported by students.

Qualitative data from interview transcription and learning reflections was coded under themes and subthemes of the third research questions.

3.5.2.1. Analysis of interview data

The interview data of the current study was analyzed as follows.

First of all, the tape-recorded interview protocols were transcribed in Vietnamese by typing into word file. After being transcribed in the interviewees' original language, the recordings were sent back to the interviewees for accuracy checking, interviews recordings were listened to many times and transcribed notes were read and reread to get familiar with the data. As reading through the transcripts, in addition to highlighting the parts of the text and underlining sections and issues that seemed important and relevant, any ideas, thoughts and comments that came to the researcher's mind were jotted down, which helped to capture an initial sense of the data.

Data coding began by re-reading to identify small pieces of data or data segments that were comprehensible and contained one idea, or a piece of relevant information in the original Vietnamese transcripts. Analysis in the original language was guided by Casanave (2010) to retain the meanings the participants wanted to convey. Segments were then analyzed to come up with codes: words or phrases provided meaning to a segment, so that each segment was labeled by at least one code. Coding process was conducted mostly manually. Each code was marked with different colors, themes with broader patterns of meaning was then searched for. As themes emerged from data analysis, an individual list of corresponding themes was created. To organize the information from the interviews analysis and identify the dominant themes, coding techniques were used. Information was combined into one document with all the themes, namely *increased awareness and use of reading strategies, greater reading fluency, and improvement in affective* and supporting phases created by the participants, specific themes were determined and codes were produced. Important ideas and concepts were turned into categories, some were grouped under

different subheadings, while small concepts and ideas that were not equivalent to the categories were excluded from the coding process. The interviewees were coded as S1, S2, S3 and so on as their quotes were used in the thesis. Translated interview quotes were double checked for accuracy by a peer reviewer who was a colleague teacher at the research site. One transcript of the interview was then translated into English for the report purpose by the researcher and then double checked by an EFL teacher with IELTS band 7 for its accuracy. This translation version was enclosed in Appendix E for illustration.

3.5.2.2. Analysis of learning reflections

The reflections were coded following Saldaña's (2015, p. 58) cycle "classifying, prioritizing, integrating, synthesizing, abstracting and conceptualizing, and theory building".

First of all, data obtained from the learning reflections in excel file was also read and re-read by the researcher to get a sense of a whole which gave her ideas about what the data segments would look like. Then one segment was re-read and analyzed to generate initial codes from the data. Codes are clustered together according to similarity and regularity, patterns were emerged, and the connections between them were analyzed. The whole texts were labelled and searched for themes with broader patterns of meaning. The themes represent major ideas that were used to describe the meaning of similar coded data. The themes were then reviewed to make sure they fitted the data and then they were defined and named. Since the learning reflections guided questions were also to elicit students' responses towards the intervention, the themes emerged from these were then compared and merged with those of the interview data. After that, the emerging themes were compared with relevant theories in the literature review in order to validate and generate further ideas for the analysis.

Finally, a coherent narrative that includes quotes from the reflections was created. The key concepts were put into categories, some were placed under other sub-headings following the ones in the interview data and minor ideas and concepts were excluded from the coding process.

3.5.2.3. Intercoding and Interreliability

25% of the data (1 interview and 10 reflections) were coded independently by an intercoder to measure the degree of agreement when two coders applied codes to

related data units in a transcript to validate coding (Gwet, 2014; Mackey & Gass, 2015). The agreement percentage between the two coders was 90%. According to Mackey & Gass (2015), a minimum proportion should be anything above 75%. Cases of disagreement were resolved through further discussion. If no agreement was reached on certain themes, they were excluded from analysis.

3.6. Summary of the research methods

Table 3.8 summaries the research objectives deriving from the two research questions and the instruments used to collect data for such objectives.

Table 3.8. Summary of the Research Methods

Research Questions	Research Objectives	Research Instruments
1. What strategies do Vietnamese non-English major students use in reading English level 3 texts before receiving reading explicit strategy instruction?	To investigate what strategies Vietnamese non-English major tertiary students used when reading English level 3 texts before they receive the instruction.	- Questionnaires
2. What are Vietnamese non-English major students' perceptions on the explicit strategy instruction?	To explore the impact of the instruction as reported by students after the intervention	-Questionnaires Interview and learning journa protocols

3.7. Ethical considerations

In any research, ethical issues relating to protection of the participants are of vital concern (Marshall & Rossman, 2015; Mariam, 2009; Pring, 2000; Schram, 2003). When conducting, it is essential to obtain permission from the Head of English for Specific Purpose Department (ESP) at the research site and the informed consent of the participants. Before implementing the research instruments including questionnaires and interviews for the pilot study, information about the study was provided and the consent forms were submitted to seek for the permission from the Head of ESP Department at the research site. Then, in the first week of the English-level 3 course, the students were explained of the study, their role and engagement in the study, the procedures of working on reading comprehension tasks, answering the questionnaires and taking part in the semi-structured interviews and given informed consent form (see Appendix D). They were then asked to sign their names on the consent form to show that they voluntarily took part in the study.

The consent forms were written in English (see Appendix D) and stated that all information collected would be confidential and would be used for research purposes only. With the purposes of maximum security of their private information, the participants in the study were kept anonymous and no details would be shown that could lead to personal identification even in the related publications. Their participation into the study was voluntary and could be cancelled at any time without giving a reason.

As for the interviews, participants were asked to answer the interview questions after the intervention. The interview schedule was made separately for the participants' convenience and comfort. The voluntary nature and right of withdrawal were emphasized. Participants could decide to be in the survey and interview or not. They could withdraw at any time without explanation, and have all or some of their data withdrawn from the study. If participants felt stressed during the interview, they could stop at any time. They were able to skip any questions that they felt were too personal. Participants' information and sharing were documented in a doctoral study.

In the process of writing learning reflections, students' names were also anonymous for data analysis and presentation in the thesis.

3.8. Validity

Muijh (2004, p.67) state that validity is probably the single most important aspect of the design of any measurement of the instrument educational research. The research's credibility and ability to evaluate the intended outcomes are two aspects of validity (Zohrabi, 2013), it is "an essential criterion for evaluating the quality and acceptability of the research" (Burns, 2003, p.160). There are various ways to measure the validity of a research which is linked closely to the content of the research instrument and data. This type of content validity can be evaluated by the reviews of experts in the field of study (Zohrabi, 2013). The internal validity of the research can be the agreement between the research findings and reality, and the application of the findings to different situations or subjects (external validity) (Zohrabi, 2013).

In the present study, to guarantee the research's validity, all the above criteria have been applied. First of all, careful feedbacks and revisions for all the statements

and questions in the questionnaire, interview and learning reflections had been given by the researcher' colleague, an expert in experimental research. Secondly, to strengthen the internal validity of data and results, triangulation, peer check and issues of researcher's bias have been combined. Specifically, the quantitative questionnaire data were triangulated with qualitative interview and learning reflection data. Peer checking was also employed to report learners' perceptions and use of reading strategies precisely and credibly. The students were required to check the transcripts on the interviews for accuracy in both rounds. Their confirmation of the content of the interview can be seen as firm evidence of the plausibility and trustfulness of the data.

Given the important role of ethical rules, the researcher tried to maintain non-judgement throughout the research as well as perform the evaluation as precisely as possible and report the findings honestly.

Finally, the external validity of the study was also recognized and supported. The findings of the current research were intended to explain what Vietnamese non-English majors perceived of the usefulness of the ESI and provide insights into the issue of teaching strategy to EFL students, which can be of great importance in other context of English learning and teaching.

3.9. Reliability

Given the importance of reliability in mixed methods research, it is one of the main requirements which include internal reliability and external reliability. For this study, different techniques have been used to ensure the internal reliability. First and foremost, all the statements in the questionnaires were designed in close-ended format with five-point scale, which were then transformed and analyzed using SPSS to calculate the reliability. To test the reliability of the questionnaire, the Cronbach alpha value (α) of all items as well as of separate clusters was run and the results were satisfactory. In addition, results of the pilot phase were combined with comments and suggestions of the participants to help identify items with repeated ideas or ambiguous statements. Necessary modifications and adjustments were then made to enhance the reliability of the questionnaire. As for the in- depth interviews, data collected was carried out in such a way that ensures the findings' reliability. All the three interviews were recorded and saved which make it easy for any independent investigator to reanalyze and replicate the data.

As far as the external reliability is concerned, the researcher's status is clarified to the students of the present study via the consent forms. Moreover, the research setting is the home university, the social circumstances and conditions are hence uniform and constant to the students. Next, the students' information is described in detail in 3.2.2, which is feasible for any independent inquirer to replicate the research. Finally, methods of data collection and analysis are described explicitly in this study. Both descriptive statistics and thematic interpretations were used to analyze the data.

3.10. Summary of the chapter

This chapter has discussed how the current study was implemented to investigate students' self-reported reading strategies and explore the effects of explicit instruction of reading strategies on reading comprehension by Vietnamese non-English major students. First of all, the decision of adopting mixed- method approach was discussed thoroughly. Then details of the research design in terms of essential components such as context, participants, the instruction presented to participants, data collection procedures and analysis were given. The role of the researcher was described as an instructor and data collector in conducting the study. It also described the process in which data was collected through questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and learning reflections. The chapter also discussed the validity and reliability as well as ethical issues of the study. The findings and discussion will be presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4
FINDINGS

This chapter presents the quantitative and qualitative results of the study for the two research questions regarding (1) the reading strategies that Vietnamese non-English major tertiary students reported employing in reading English level 3 texts before the explicit strategy instruction and; (2) the significance of strategy instruction on the development of the reading skill as perceived by the students.

4.1. Students' reported use of reading strategies before the explicit strategy instruction (ESI)

The first research question aimed to identify the reading strategies that Vietnamese non-English major students used in reading English level 3 texts before they received the instruction. In order to find the answer to this question, the questionnaires were delivered to the participants at the beginning of the course.

The first part of the questionnaire contained 38 closed response items which asked the students to report the reading strategies that they typically employed in reading English level 3 texts by identifying the frequency of use for each item from 1-5 (1= never (0%), 2 = sometimes (25%), 3 = often (50%), 4 = usually (75%), 5 = always (100%). The frequency of reading strategies reported to be used by Vietnamese non-English major students before the instruction was calculated, mean and standard deviation of the questionnaire responses. To interpret the mean score, Oxford and Burry-Stocks' scales (1995) were referred to. More specifically, the high-usage level was in mean value of 3.5 or higher, the medium-usage level from 2.5 to 3.49 and low-usage level lower than 2.49. The usage levels provided a convenient standard for the interpretation of the score averages. The overall results are presented in the following section.

4.1.1. Overall use of reading strategies before the explicit strategy instruction (ESI)

The results of students' responses to the overall use of reading strategies before receiving ESI are shown in Table 4.1. On average, the mean value of the overall usage of reading strategies was 3.42, close to the highest point 3.49 in medium use of the Oxford and Burry-Stocks' scales. This value indicates that Vietnamese non-English

major students used reading strategies at medium level of frequency in reading English level 3 texts before the ESI. The mean values of strategy use in each of the three reading stages were very close to the mean value of the overall use and also in medium range, indicating that students often used reading strategies in reading English level 3 materials prior to the ESI.

Table 4.1. Overall usage of reading strategies before instruction (N=45)

	Min	Max	M	SD
Pre-reading strategies	2.00	4.63	3.35	.57
While- reading strategies	2.52	4.61	3.44	.50
Post-reading strategies	1.57	4.86	3.42	.81
Overall reading strategy use	2.50	4.63	3.42	.51

Furthermore, Table 4.1 displays the rank of the reading strategy categories which tended to be frequently employed by the participants in the study. As can be seen from Table 4.1, the most frequently reading strategy categories reported by the students were while-reading strategies (M = 3.44, SD = .50), followed by post- reading strategies (M = 3.42, SD =.81). The least frequent strategy used by the students was pre- reading strategies (M = 3.35, SD = .57).

Detailed descriptions of reading strategies usage in the three reading stages are presented in the sections below. To further explore the specific strategies that students used, all the sub-strategies included in the survey of reading strategies were put into four main categories, namely problem- solving, local, global and support strategies.

4.1.2. Pre-reading strategies use

Details of the pre- reading strategy employment by the students are shown in Table 4.2. As can be seen from the table, all eight sub- strategies used in this stage are global strategies and the participants used them from moderate (mean score of 2.84 to 3.47) to high (mean score of 3.51 to 3.76) rate.

Table 4.2. Use of global pre- reading strategies before instruction (N=45)

Strategies	Min	Max	M	SD
Before I read, I ...				
focus on the keywords from the title	2	5	3.76	.90
look at any pictures/illustrations	1	5	3.71	.84
think about what information the writer might present	2	5	3.53	.78
think what I already know about the topic	1	5	3.51	.99
read the title and sub-titles before reading the rest of the text	1	5	3.47	1.19
have a purpose in mind	2	5	3.13	.81
think about how one sub-title relates to another sub-title	1	5	2.87	1.07
plan what to do before I start	1	5	2.84	1.08

In particular, global strategies such as "*focus on the key words from the title*" (M=3.76, SD= .90), "*look at any pictures/illustrations*" (M=3.71, SD= .99), *think about what information the writer might present*" (M=3.53, SD= .78) and "*think what I already know about the topic*" (M=3.51) were reported to be used more frequently by the participants. The use of other strategies reached a medium rate. The findings also show that the "*plan what to do before starting*" strategy was least reported in comparison with other strategies in this group (M=2.84, SD= 1.08). However, the majority of the items had high SD values of almost 1.0, showing that students' choices were dispersed, indicating inconsistency between individual student's reports of strategy employment. This result shows that not all students were aware of the use of global strategies in previewing and predicting the text.

These findings were also elaborated by the responses from the open ended questions which indicated that the participants still used global strategies in identifying the main idea of the texts (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3 reports the students' responses to the second open-ended question in the questionnaire namely "*What helps you find the main idea in the passage?*" before the instruction. As shown in the table, about one-tenth of the participants reported using a variety of strategies as *"focus on the keywords from the title", "translate the text from English into Vietnamese"* and *"re-read the text in order to find the main idea".* Other strategies such as "*read the first sentence of each paragraph*", "*read the*

title and sub-titles before reading the rest of the text", "*underline key words in sentences"* and "*skim the text quickly to get the general idea"* were also reported using by nearly the same number of students. The results from this question imply that global strategies seem to have been employed by the participants as a way of helping them to find the main idea in the passage. However, the number of students claimed to use these strategies was minority. This finding indicates that students need better understanding of pre- reading strategies in order to use them in their reading comprehension process.

Table 4.3. Reported strategies used to find the main idea in a passage

Strategies category	Strategies	Number of students
Support	underline keywords in sentences	4
Global	read the title and sub-titles before reading the rest of the text	4
	skim the text quickly to get the general idea	5
	read the first sentence of each paragraph	5
	look at the pictures/illustrations	5
	focus on the keywords from the title	5
	think about what information the writer might present	3
	try to guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases	1
	skip unknown words	2
	write a summary of the main information in the text	0
	read the keywords in comprehension questions	3
Problem-solving	translate the text from English into Vietnamese	4
	re-read the text in order to find the main idea	5
	read every sentence slowly and carefully to understand the text	4
Local	use English grammar to help understand the text	1

4.1.3. While-reading strategies use before instruction
Table 4.4. While- reading stage strategies use before instruction (N=45)

Strategy categories	Strategies While I read, I ...	Min	Max	M	SD
	translate from English into my native language.	2	5	3.93	.93
	re-read it to increase my understanding if the text becomes difficult.	2	5	3.89	.85
	read every sentence slowly and carefully to understand the text.	2	5	3.76	1.02
Problem-solving	use reference materials (e.g. a dictionary) to help me understand what I read.	1	5	3.64	1.09
	guess the meanings of unknown words or phrases.	2	5	3.62	0.88
	adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	1	5	3.47	.84
	stop from time to time and think about what I am reading.	1	5	3.42	.86
	try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read.	1	5	3.20	1.12
Total		**2.7**	**4.7**	**3.61**	**0.53**
	skim the text quickly to get the general ideas.	2	5	3.67	.82
Global	read the first sentence of each paragraph.	1	5	3.56	1.11
	use contextual clues to help me understand the text better.	1	5	3.53	1.10
	check my understanding when I come across new information.	1	5	3.42	.96
	skip unknown words.	1	5	3.42	1.15
	use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	1	5	3.16	.99
	use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information.	1	5	2.89	1.22
	think about information in both English and my mother tongue.	1	5	3.51	.94
	analyze what the writer meant or tried to say.	1	5	3.29	.84
Total		**2.**	**4.6**	**3.34**	**.55**
Support	decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	1	5	3.20	.99
	use English grammar to help me understand the text.	1	5	3.40	.91
	underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	1	5	3.40	1.05
	take notes while reading to help me understand what I have read.	1	5	3.22	.95
Total		**2**	**5**	**3.38**	**.66**
Local	scan the text for specific details.	1	5	3.64	.93
	distinguish between fact and opinion.	1	5	3.02	.86
Total		**1**	**5**	**3.33**	**.80**

The quantitative findings from non- English majors' responses to while-reading strategies usage are presented in Table 4.4. Overall, all the four strategy categories were claimed to be used at this stage of reading. The mean values of the four strategy categories fall into two groups following Oxford and Burry-Stocks' scales, indicating that students used these strategies at different level of frequency. Particularly, problem-solving strategies were used with high level of frequency (M= 3.61, SD= .53) whereas the other three strategies namely support strategies (M= 3.38, SD= .66), global strategies (M= 3.34, SD= 0.55) and local strategies (M= 3.33, SD= 0.80) were reported to be used with medium rates.

More specially, the sub-strategies in problem- solving category such as *translate from English into Vietnamese, re-read it to increase my understanding if the text becomes difficult* and *read every sentence slowly and carefully to understand the text* received the highest mean value with M=3.93, SD= .93; M= 3.89, SD= .85 and M= 3.76, SD= 1.02 respectively. *Using reference materials* and *guessing the meanings of unknown words or phrases* were also used with high frequency by the students (M= 3.64, SD= 1.09; M= 3.62, SD= 0.88 respectively). Moreover, the findings show that during the while-reading stage, students tended to use other strategies in the local, global and support strategy categories in helping them understand the text. Although the total mean scores of these three strategy categories were in medium scale, some of their sub-strategies were reported with high level of frequency. For example, "*skimming the text quickly to get the general ideas*" strategy in global category and "*scanning the text for specific details*" strategy in local category achieved high rate (M= 3.67, SD= .82; M= 3.64, SD= .93). Similarly, strategies such as "*use English grammar to help understand the text*" (M= 3.40, SD=.91), and "*underline or circle information in the text to help remember it*" (M= 3.40, SD=1.05) in support category were reported with medium rates before the ESI. Again, the high SD values of all the items showed great variance in students' responses, indicating that this result should be given serious consideration.

The findings from the open-ended questions session provided a better understanding to the data derived from the close-ended ones. *Translating* and *re-reading* strategies were also reported to be used by more students in finding the main ideas of the passage in the open-ended questions (Detailed in Table 4.5).

Table 4.5. Most frequently used strategies reported

Strategies category	Strategies	Number of students
Support	take notes while reading	0
	use a dictionary	7
Global	skim the text quickly to get the general idea	6
	focus on the keywords from the title	4
	guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases	0
	write a summary of the main information in the text	0
Problem- solving	translate the text from English into Vietnamese	17
	re-read the text in order to find the main idea	15
	read every sentence slowly and carefully to understand the text	3
Local	scan the text to find the main idea in the passage	0
	read the comprehension questions first the find the answers in the text	5

Accordingly, when being asked about the most frequently used strategies in reading English texts, seventeen and fifteen students responded that they would translate the text into Vietnamese and re-read the text in order to find the main idea respectively. Other strategies in the four categories were reported being used by fewer students. Noticeably, no participants mentioned using "*take notes while reading*", "*guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases*", "*write a summary of the main information in the text*" and "*scan the text to find the main idea in the passage*" strategies before the ESI. Surprisingly, note-taking strategies were reported with medium rate (M=3.22, SD= 0.95), but no students claimed to use this strategy to grasp the main ideas of the text in the open-ended questions.

4.1.4. Post- reading strategies use before instruction

Table 4.6. Post- reading strategies use before instruction (N=45)

Strategy categories	Strategies While I read, I ...	Min	Max	M	SD
Local	re-read it once or more if I do not understand it.	1	5	3.76	1.09
Problem-solving	try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	1	5	3.69	1.10
Support	go back and forth in the text to find the relationships among ideas in it.	1	5	3.49	1.18
	ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	1	5	3.00	1.02
Global	check if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.	2	5	3.40	.88
	make notes on the main points as I remember them.	1	5	3.38	1.13
	critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	1	5	3.29	.99

The strategies that the participants responded to employ during the post-reading stage are revealed in Table 4.6. Specifically, expeditious local reading strategy "*re-read once or more*" (M= 3.76, SD= 1.09) and problem- solving strategy which guides reading behavior *("I try to get back on track when I lose concentration*", M=3.69, SD= 1.10) were reported using with high rates. However, the large standard deviation values of these two strategies indicate that the scores are well spread out away from the mean value, indicating the inconsistency in students' choice.

Moreover, metacognitive support and global strategies such as *self-questioning ("I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text*", M=3.00, SD=1.02), critical analysis ("critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text ", M=3.29, SD= .99)* were also used with medium rates. Self-

questioning and critical analysis strategies were viewed as difficult strategies to employ since learners attempted to comprehend and recall a reading text through asking and answering high-level questions about a reading text (Taboada, 2006).

Overall, the frequency of reading strategy use in the four categories by the participants in reading English level 3 texts before the instruction in the present study ranged from medium to high rates (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7. Use of strategies in four categories (N=45)

	Min	Max	M	SD
Problem- solving	2.5	4.8	3.61	.58
Local	1.6	5.0	3.47	.68
Global	2.3	4.5	3.35	.53
Support	2.2	4.8	3.30	.63

On average, the mean value of the problem-solving strategies fell between 3.50 or higher (high usage) (M= 3.61, SD= .58). In particular, students reported employing this category at a high level. Of note is the fact that translation, re-reading and using reference materials were among the strategies that students tended to use with high frequency before the instruction. The mean values were close to the middle value of 3.49 for local strategies, global strategies and support strategies (M= 3.47, SD= .68; M=3.35, SD= .53 and M= 3.30, SD= .63 respectively) indicating the medium rates for the use of these strategy categories.

In addition, the data from the open-ended questions (Tables 4.3 & 4.5) accord with the closed-ended items data. The majority of students responded that they, before the strategy instruction, used the above-mentioned strategies when doing the English level 3 reading comprehension. These strategies were believed to help them overcome their major reading difficulties; that is the lack of vocabulary and grammatical knowledge as well as slow reading speed. According to the participants' responses, such strategies as "*translating into Vietnamese*", "*looking up new words in the dictionary*", "*skimming*", "*slow reading*" and "*re-reading*" were among the strategies further reported to be used by a number of participants in reading English level 3 texts. Specifically, among the three subscales strategy categories in SORS (survey of reading strategies), the students in this study favored problem-solving reading strategies including "*reread the text to increase understanding*", "*Try to guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases*", followed by global strategies (for examples, "*Use*

typographical aids like bold face and italics to identify key information", "*Skim the text*", and "*Use figures, tables, and pictures to increase understanding*") and support reading strategies like "*use dictionaries*" and "*translate into first language*". They also tended to use other strategies in local and support reading strategy categories in their reading process. *Scanning, note-taking* and *underlining information in the text* were among the reported strategies with medium rates before the intervention.

4.2. Impact of the explicit reading strategy instruction

4.2.1. Impacts on the use of reading strategies as reported in the questionnaire

4.2.1.1. Overall use of reading strategies after explicit strategy instruction

Table 4.8. Comparison of changes in reading strategies use before and after instruction (N=45)

	Before instruction				After instruction			
	Min	Max	M	SD	Min	Max	M	SD
Pre-reading strategies	2.00	4.63	3.35	.57	2.00	5.00	3.54	.60
While-reading strategies	2.52	4.61	3.44	.50	1.57	4.86	3.57	.57
Post-reading strategies	2.52	4.35	3.42	.81	2.29	5.00	3.49	.71

Table 4.8 provides the comparison of total mean scores for three groups of strategies that students reported using before and after the 6-week ESI. The frequency of strategy use after the instruction in three reading process was slightly higher than those before the instruction. In particular, the use of pre and while- reading strategies increased from medium to high levels of frequency. The differences are also displayed in Figure 4.1
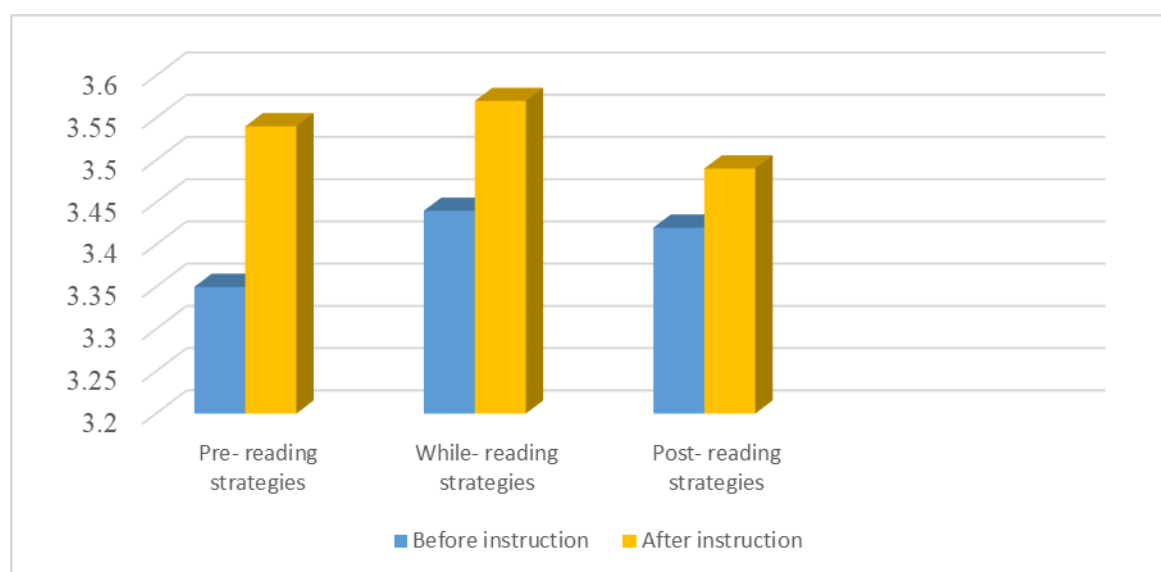
Figure 4.1. Use of reading strategies before and after instruction (N=45)

A paired sample t-test for the normally distributed data was conducted to compare the mean frequency of the reported reading strategies in three reading stages of the two questionnaires. The results in Table 4.9 reveal that students used reading strategies in the pre-reading strategies more frequently after the instruction, $t(44) =-9.57$, p $<.005$, $d= 0.3$ (small effect size); meanwhile there was no significant difference in strategy use in the while-reading, $t(44) =-2.63$, p $=.793$, $>.05$, $d= 0.2$ and post-reading stages, $t(44) =-.447$, p $=.657$, $>.05$, $d= 0.09$.

Table 4.9. Result of paired sample t-test

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	SE	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pre-reading	-2.65	1.86	.27	-3.21	-2.09	-9.57	44	.000
While- reading	.030	.78	.11	-.205	.267	.263	44	.793
Post- reading	-.069	1.04	.15	-.384	.244	-.447	44	.657

Details of individual strategies used in three reading phases after the ESI are presented in the following sections.

4.2.1.2. Pre-reading strategies use after the instruction

Table 4.10 reports the means and standard deviations of the reading strategies at the pre-reading stage after the instruction.

Table 4.10. Pre- reading strategies use after instruction (N=45)

Strategies Before I read, I ...	Min	Max	M	SD
look at any pictures/illustrations.	2	5	4.11	.74
focus on the key words from the title.	2	5	3.96	.79
read the title and sub-titles before reading the rest of the text.	1	5	3.62	.93
think what I already know about the topic.	1	5	3.51	.86
have a purpose in mind.	2	5	3.42	.86
plan what to do before I start.	1	5	3.27	.98
think about what information the writer might present.	1	5	3.27	1.05
think about how one sub-title relates to another sub-title.	1	5	3.20	1.05
Total	**2**	**5**	**3.54**	**.60**

The findings reveal that students still tended to the use of pre- reading global strategies with medium and high rates. The mean scores of strategies in high use were from 3.51 to 4.11 and those in medium use group were from 3.10 to 3.42. Compared

with the corresponding strategies in the pre-instruction (Table 4.2), the students tended to use more global strategies related to *previewing and predicting* using keywords and title. At this stage, *predicting and previewing* the reading text by *focusing on pictures/ illustrations* was reported with a high mean value (M=4.11, SD= .74). Other global strategies such as "*focus on the key words from the title*" (M= 3.96, SD=.79) and "*read the title and subtitle*" (M=3.62, M=.93) were also reported using with high frequency.

As the aim of this study was to identify the differences in strategy use after the ESI, comparisons in strategy frequency were made. Figure 4.2 illustrates the changes in the frequencies of strategies use after the instruction. These strategies were also the instructed ones which belong to the *preview and prediction* strategy.
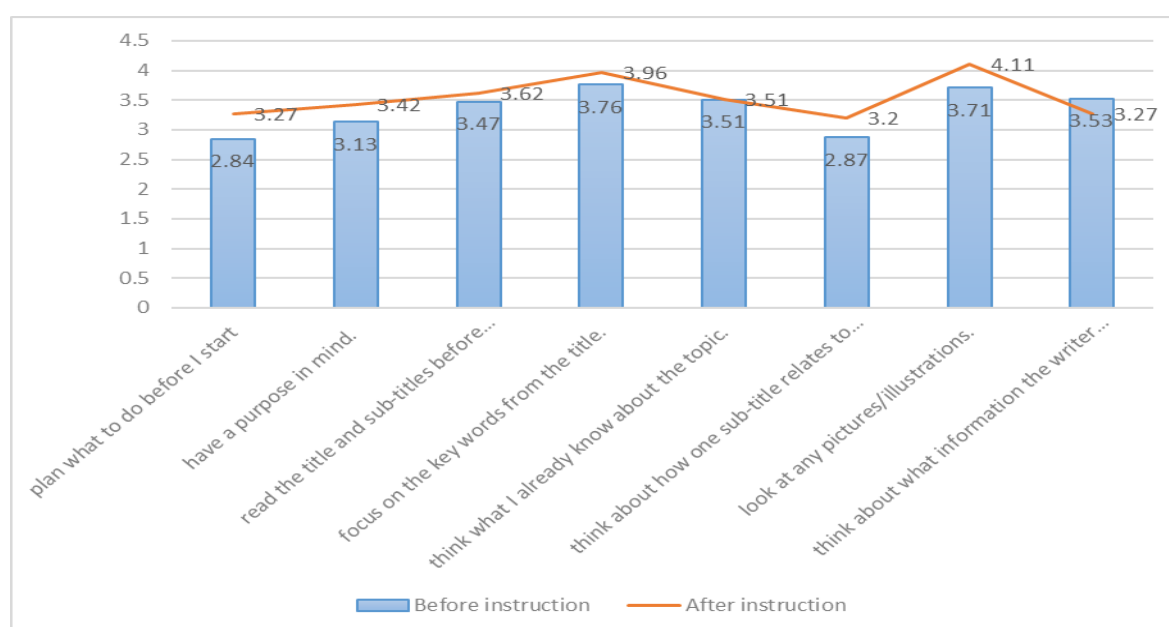
Figure 4.2. Pre-reading strategies use before and after instruction

Specifically, as depicted in Table 4.2 and Table 4.7, the strategies that received higher mean values were "*focus on the key words from the title*" (from 3.76 to 3.96), and "*look at any pictures/illustrations*" (from 3.71 to 4.11). These two strategies were also the targeted strategies in the instruction. The other strategies in this group also witnessed a rise in their means except "*think about what information the writer might present*" strategy which witnessed a slight fall from high to medium level (from 3.53 to 3.27). There was also a change from medium use to high use for the *"read the title and sub-titles before reading the rest of the text*" strategy (from 3.47 to 3.62).

In brief, in the pre-reading stage, the changes in frequency of strategy use tended to involve *previewing and prediction* using *key words, sub-titles* and learners' purpose in reading a text.

4.2.1.3. While-reading strategies use after the instruction

Data from the questionnaire for the while reading strategies use was reported in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11. While- reading strategies use after instruction (N=45)

Strategy categories	Strategies While I read, I ...	Min	Max	M	SD
Problem - solving	translate from English into my native language.	1	5	4.13	.81
	use reference materials (e.g. a dictionary) to help me understand what I read.	1	5	4.00	.85
	re-read it to increase my understanding if the text becomes difficult.	2	5	3.89	.83
	adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	1	5	3.80	1.12
	guess the meanings of unknown words or phrases.	1	5	3.69	1.01
	read every sentence slowly and carefully to understand the text.	2	5	3.60	.86
	try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read.	1	5	3.04	1.08
	stop from time to time and think about what I am reading.	1	5	3.31	1.04
Total		**2.4**	**5**	**3.50**	**.69**
Global	skip unknown words.	1	5	3.62	1.11
	skim the text quickly to get the general ideas.	1	5	3.96	.82
	read the first sentence of each paragraph.	2	5	3.93	.86
	use contextual clues to help me understand the text better.	1	5	3.62	.91
	use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	1	5	3.58	1.03
	analyze what the writer meant or tried to say.	2	5	3.40	1.03
	decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	2	5	3.44	.99
	check my understanding when I come across new information.	1	5	3.24	1.09
	use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information.	1	5	2.73	1.23
Total		**2.2**	**4.5**	**3.53**	**.60**
Support	think about information in both English and my mother tongue.	2	5	3.76	1.13
	take notes while reading to help me understand what I have read.	1	5	3.58	.91
	use English grammar to help me understand the text.	2	5	3.18	1.17
	underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it	1	5	3.40	1.05
Total		**2**	**5**	**3.51**	**.68**
Local	scan the text for specific details.	2	5	3.85	.89
	distinguish between fact and opinion.	2	5	3.07	1.11
Total		**3**	**5**	**3.46**	**.57**

The changes in the mean values of strategy use at the while- reading stage following the ESI are shown in Table 4.11. 3It is noticeable that after the ESI, the total mean values of four strategy categories rose from medium use to high use level. The

result displays that students tended to use local strategy with highest mean value (M= 4.04, SD= 0.57); meanwhile the mean value for problem-solving strategies, global strategies and support strategies spread around 3.5 (M= 3.50, SD= 0.69; M= 3.53, SD= 3.60 and M= 3.51, SD= .68 respectively). In particular, local support and problem-solving strategies such as "*adjust reading speed*" and "*take note while reading*" in order to understand the text with were reported with higher frequency compared to those before the instruction, from medium use to high use (M= 3.47 to 3.80 and M= 3.22 to 3.85 respectively). In addition, expeditious local and global reading strategies, namely "*scanning*" and "*skimming*" were also reportedly used with a high rate. On the other hand, expeditious local reading strategies "*re-reading*", "*using English grammar to help understand the text*" and "*slow reading*" were used less frequently, though they were in the high use group.

While the strategies such as *translation* and *using reference material* were not the focus of the instruction in the present study, they were reported using with the highest frequency after the instruction (M=4.13, SD= .81 M=4.00, SD=.85 respectively). The data from the open- ended questions further shows a slightly higher number of students reported using translation and dictionaries in identifying the supporting details in the reading texts after the instruction (from 4 to 5 and 5 to 6 students respectively) (Table 4.12). In addition, the results also pinpoint that more students reported using *skimming* (7), *differentiate important from unimportant ideas* (5) and *underlining or circling details or keywords in the text* (5).

Table 4.12. Reported strategies used to find supporting details in the reading texts

Strategies category	Strategies	Number of students	
		Before instruction	After instruction
Support	underline key words in sentences	0	5
	use a dictionary	**5**	**6**
	underline or circle important details in the text	0	5
Global	look at the pictures/illustrations	1	0
	skim the text quickly to get the general idea	0	7
	read the first sentence of each paragraph		
	look at the pictures/illustrations		
	focus on the key words from the text	0	3
	think about what the what information the writer might present	0	1
	guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases	0	2
	try to understand the relationship between ideas	3	1
	write a summary of the main information in the text		
	read the key words in comprehension questions		
Problem-solving	translate the text from English into Vietnamese	4	5
	re-read the text in order to find the main idea	6	6
	read every sentence slowly and carefully to understand the text	10	7
Local	scan the text to find the main idea in the passage	5	6
	differentiate important from unimportant ideas	0	5

In order to compare the difference in strategy use in all the four strategy categories at this stage before and after the ESI, the descriptive statistics for each category of strategies is presented in Table 4.13. A paired-sample t-test for the normally distributed data was also conducted. The results presented in Table 4.14 show that the frequency of global strategies differed statistically significantly, $t(44) = -2$, p = .042, d= 0.5. This was a medium size effect. Meanwhile, the use of support and local strategies witnessed no significant changes, $t(44) = -5$, p = .06, d= 0.2 and $t(44)$=-.50, p=.08, d= 0.3 respectively.

Table 4.13. Descriptive statistics of while- reading strategy categories use

	Before instruction				After instruction			
	Min	**Max**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Min**	**Max**	**Mean**	**SD**
Problem- solving	2.63	4.75	3.54	.54	2.38	5.00	3.50	.69
Global	2.00	4.67	3.34	.55	2.22	4.56	3.53	.60
Support	2.00	5.00	3.38	.66	2.00	5.00	3.51	.68
Local	1.00	5.00	3.33	.80	3.00	5.00	4.04	.57

Table 4.14. Results of paired-samples t-test for while-reading strategies use

Paired Samples Test								
	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	SE	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Problem-solving	.10	.87	.13	-.15	.37	.83	44	.41
Global	-.18	.90	.13	-.45	.08	-1.37	44	.17
Support	-.01	.98	.14	-.31	.27	-.11	44	.90
Local	-.71	1.0	.15	-1.0	-.40	-4.6	44	.00

4.2.1.4. Post-reading strategies use after the instruction

Table 4.15 shows the strategies students reported using in the post- reading stage. The findings reveal that the local strategy "*re-reading*" was most frequent employed (M=4.11, SD= .80), followed by global strategy "*making notes on the main points*" (M= 3.67, SD= .95) and problem-solving strategy "*trying to get on track*" (M= 3.56, SD= 1.15). The mean scores of the other strategies ranged from 3.20 to 3.27; however, the high SD values of over 1.0 to a majority of items showed that students' responses were dispersed, indicating inconsistency between individual students' actual use of strategies at this stage.

Table 4.15. Post- reading strategies use after instruction (N=45)

Strategy categories	Strategies While I read, I ...	Min	Max	M	SD
Problem-solving	try to get back on track when I lose concentration	1	5	3.56	1.15
Global	make notes on the main points as I remember them	3	5	3.67	.95
	critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text	1	5	3.24	1.09
	check if my guesses about the text are right or wrong	2	5	3.22	1.18
Support	go back and forth in the text to find the relationships among ideas in it	1	5	3.27	1.17
	ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text	1	5	3.20	1.23
Local	re-read it once or more if I do not understand it.	3	5	4.11	.80

Table 4.15 presents the descriptive statistics of each strategy category in the post reading stage after the ESI. The results show that there was a decrease in the frequency in problem- solving (M= from 3.68 to 3.56) and support strategies (M= from 3.24 to 3.23), meanwhile the global strategies altered from medium to high use (M= 3.35 to 3.65). A number of paired- sample t-tests were run to explore the differences in use of reading strategies in the post-reading stage. The results indicate that there was no statistically significant difference in the use of four categories of strategy prior to the instruction and after the instruction with $t(44) = -1.65$, p = .10, $d= 0.3$ (small size effect) for problem-solving strategies, $t(44) = -1.91$, p = .06, $d= 0.31$ (small size effect) for global, $t(44) = -2$, p = .095, $d= 0.1$ (small size effect) for support strategies and t(44)= -1.1, p= .24, d = 0.23 (small size effect) for local strategy.

Table 4.16. Descriptive results of post-reading strategy categories use

	Before instruction				After instruction			
	Min	**Max**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Min**	**Max**	**Mean**	**SD**
Problem-solving	1	5	3.68	1.10	1	5	3.56	1.17
Global	1.67	5	3.35	.84	2.33	5	3.65	.75
Support	1	5	3.24	.98	1.5	5	3.23	.98
Local	1	5	3.76	1.09	3	5	4.00	.98

Table 4.17. Results of paired-samples t-test for post-reading strategies use

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	**SD**	**S.E**	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	**Upper**			
Problem- solving	.42	1.71	.25	-.09	.93	1.65	44	.10
Global	-.30	1.06	.15	-.62	.01	-1.91	44	.06
Support	.011	1.30	.19	-.38	.40	.05	44	.95
Local	-.244	1.40	.20	-.66	.17	-1.1	44	.24

In brief, in order to better understand the strategies that the participants reported to be used after the instruction, findings from the close- ended items in both

questionnaires were employed to compare the differences. The results indicate that students reported higher frequency using of not only targeted strategies but also other strategies that were not the focus of the instruction. To be specific, '*previewing and predicting, skimming, scanning and search reading*' strategies were used more frequently by the students after the ESI. Noticeably, "*look at any pictures/ illustrations*" and "*focus on the keywords from the title*" strategies showed the greatest gain in mean rating (M=4.11 and M=3.96 respectively). "*Skimming*" strategy also showed substantial changes in mean rating (M=3.67 to 3.96) as well as "*scanning*" that was ranked third after the instruction (M= 3.64 to 3.85) (Figure 4.3).
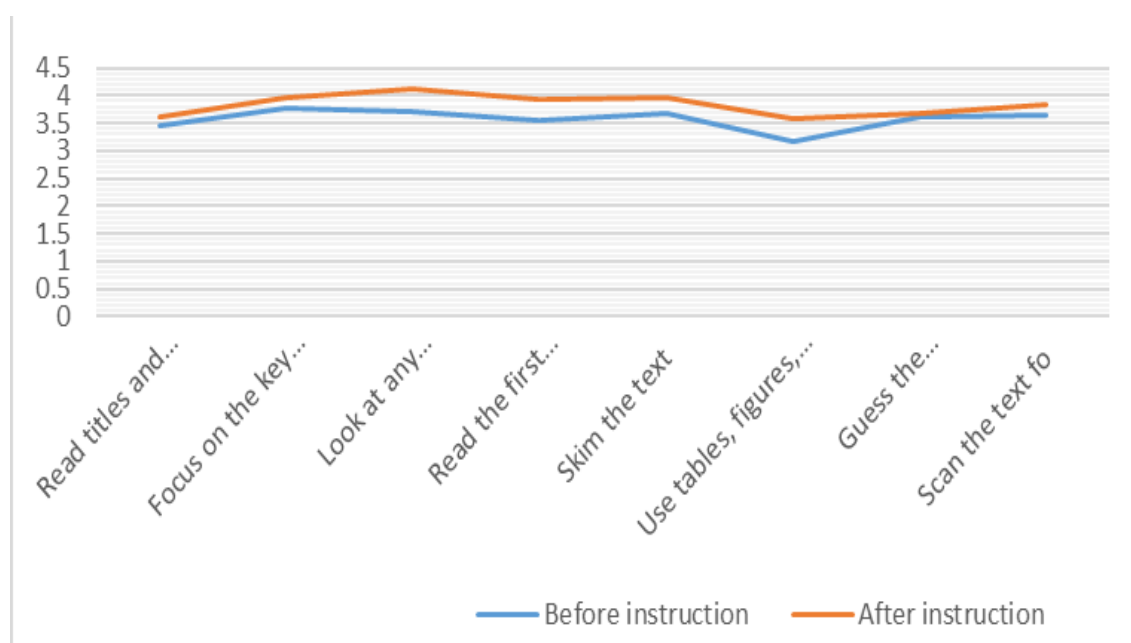
Figure 4.3. Instructed strategies use before and after instruction (N=45)

The participants' strategies use before and after instruction were also explained through their reflections in seven open ended questions in both questionnaires. Since the participants' responses in the 38 closed-ended items only revealed the frequency in which they employed the strategies, this part of the questionnaire allowed them to express their ideas freely by answering seven open-ended questions related to how they employed the reading strategies in specific reading activities.

Table 4.18. Reported most frequently used strategies

Strategies category	Strategies	Number of students	
		Before instruction	After instruction
Support	take notes while reading	0	4
	use a dictionary	17	4
Global	skim the text quickly to get the general idea	6	12
	focus on the key words from the title	4	16
	guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases	0	13
	write a summary of the main information in the text	0	10
Problem-solving	translate the text from English into Vietnamese	17	9
	re-read the text in order to find the main idea	5	14
	read every sentence slowly and carefully to understand the text	23	12
Local	scan the text to find the main idea in the passage	0	18
	read the comprehension questions first then find the answers in the text	5	5

The results show that the number of students reported a significant decrease in the use of "*translating*" and "*use the dictionary*" after the intervention. On the other hand, "*skimming", "scanning*" and "*guessing meanings of words from the contexts*" were reported to be used by more students after the ESI, showing a significant change in their awareness of reading strategies and their application in reading comprehension process.

4.2.2. Students' perceptions on the impact of explicit strategy instruction

This section reports the students' perceptions on the impacts of strategy instruction on their English reading skill. Data for analysis of the students' perceptions were generated from interviews and learning reflections using a similar set of guided questions (see Section 3.3). The results were then analyzed to answer the second research question aiming at investigating students' perceptions of the ESI on their reading comprehension skill. Since the interview questions were quite similar to the guided questions in the learning reflections, both sources of data were combined and analyzed according to thematic analysis and the results are presented in the following sections.

4.2.2.1. Reduced cognitive processing load

4.2.2.1.a. Heightened awareness of using reading strategies

One of the most significant themes emerging from the analysis of the interview and learning reflection protocols was the students' perceived increased awareness of

reading strategies. This means that the participants were provided with knowledge of the strategies after the ESI. More specifically, 24 students in this study shared that they had had no ideas about the so call reading strategies before the instruction; 12 students admitted that they had known some popular strategies such as *scanning* and *skimming*, and the intervention had informed them with more strategies such as *previewing* and *prediction, guessing meanings of unknown words from the contexts* and *summarizing*. The instruction reported to provide the students with more knowledge of the reading strategies that were grouped into two main categories below.

Increased awareness of careful reading strategies

The first theme emerging from the verbal and written reflections was related to the perceived acquisition of the careful reading strategies at both local and global level that helped students understand sentences, and comprehend main ideas as well as understand the overall texts. More specifically, after the course of instruction, a majority of students narrated that they knew more how to figure out the meanings of unknown words in the text using different techniques which can be seen in s female law student's comment as follows:

Thanks to your [the teacher] instruction, I have known some strategies such as guessing meaning of unknown words and summarizing. And I could guess the meaning of many unknown words in the text, …. and then summarize the text. I then saved the main points of the text and understood the text better. (S14-interview)

Know more about reading strategies is a common feedback found in both the interview and learning reflection protocols. Thanks to the instruction, students tended to be more informed of the strategies as well as developed their reading strategy repertoire. One student from agriculture and forestry college admitted "Your [the teacher] instruction during this course was very useful. I now know how to *guess the meaning of some unknown words* using the techniques you taught. I also know how to *summarize the reading texts* using subtitles and guided questions" (S30, learning reflections).

The gains from the instruction were reported in students' progress from dependence on external resources, such as dictionaries or hints to greater independence through more controlled use of guessing and other techniques. A senior student wrote that he then could guess the meaning of words based on the context without using a dictionary.

In brief, the students' verbal and written responses indicate that their awareness of both local and global reading strategies in careful reading was raised after the intervention. The students seemed to be able to develop their knowledge of *guessing* and *summarizing* strategies and change the way they read thanks to the instruction.

Increased awareness of expeditious reading strategies

The reflections by the students echoed that the participants tended to acquire more knowledge in expeditious reading strategies after the intervention. They developed wider repertoire of expeditious reading strategies such as *previewing and prediction, skimming, scanning, search reading and re-reading*, which were believed to be helpful to them in English reading.

As for previewing, in some journals and interviews, the students pointed out that thanks to the teacher's instruction, they were able to see in advance the purpose of the reading by using titles and typographical features. For example, a female student wrote, "I knew how to guess the content of the texts by carefully reading the title, reading in advance the capital, boldface or italic words" (S7, learning reflections). This indicates that after the instruction the students have developed their knowledge of expeditious global reading strategy to identify the purpose of reading.

Besides, after the six-week explicit strategy instruction, most participants shared that they were more informed of expeditious local strategy, namely *scanning,* to search for specific details and expeditious global strategy *skimming* to search for main and important ideas. To illustrate, a student commented:

Thanks to your [the teacher's] instruction, I have known some strategies such as scanning and skimming… And I could use skimming to get the gist …. I later on saved the main points of the text and understood the text better. (S14- interview)

A similar response was given by one female Math student that the ESI has given her more knowledge of the reading strategies which she had not learned before. She became aware of what *scanning and skimming* were. She wrote,

In reality, I have never known any of these reading strategies before. At high school, I attended some extra-curricular classes by my English teachers and they just explained new words in the texts when reading and then answered the comprehension questions. I hadn't been taught any strategies to read better until I

attended your [the researcher's] *class. Now, I know how to get the gist of the text as well as to locate specific details in the reading text to answer the questions. (S1-learning journals)*

Many students admitted that from a limited repertoire of reading strategies, the instruction has made them become more aware of the reading strategies and take greater control of their reading process. Another one shared in his learning reflection that the ESI had contributed more to his understanding of the features of each single strategy and the way to employ them in specific reading tasks. Below is the reflection,

"I had known some strategies in reading such as scanning, skimming and previewing but I couldn't use them fluently. Especially, I didn't distinguish the difference between scanning and skimming before the course. However, after being instructed by the teacher, I now know these strategies well and can use them in many reading texts". (S34- learning journals)

Similarly, a Law student said that after being instructed, she could use *scanning* strategy to locate the details or specific information needed for the comprehension questions.

After the instruction, *skimming* and *scanning* strategies were reported to be used while reading English texts by many students. In this regard, the instruction at least informed the students of the strategies they could employ to comprehend and interpret given English texts. Most students assumed that *skimming and scanning* used to be the two most troublesome skills for them before the intervention, but after the ESI, they could differentiate these two strategies and knew how to use them effectively. One second-year student answered in the interview:

"I know 'skimming' and 'scanning' means 'đọc lướt'; but I found it difficult to differentiate between the uses and definitions of these two strategies. Thus, they are not applied properly, causing lost time and inefficiency. However, you [the teacher] showed me the difference between them so I can use them correctly now".

Some of them further reported that the instruction had taught them other expeditious reading strategies that helped them to self-regulate their reading process such *as underlining, note-taking and re-reading*. A senior Medicine student reported in the interview:

Before being instructed on English reading strategies, I did not know much about

those strategies. I just based on my own experiences after trying reading a lot of English texts. Then I applied the techniques that I found effective. First, I read the questions to determine the content to answer, then underlined keywords or words in the questions, I took notes and then re-read those parts to find the answer. (S12, interviews)

In short, the discovery of reading strategies was one novel impact of the instruction for many students. This demonstrates that the ESI at least equipped the participants with strategy knowledge in reading comprehension and helped to develop their reading strategy repertoire. S*canning, skimming* and *guessing the meaning of unknown words from the context* strategies were claimed to be the three strategies that they first knew through the instruction in this course. For them, before the instruction, the students had little understanding of reading strategies. Furthermore, the ESI also contributed to the enrichment of the participants' reading strategy knowledge.

4.2.2.1.b. Students' reported increased use of reading strategies

Increase in strategy use was another perceived improvement originated from the ESI. A large number of students admitted that they had known some reading strategies and their usefulness in reading comprehension. However, they found it quite confusing and challenging to employ them in specific reading tasks. In particular, seven students wrote in their reflections that prior to the instruction they knew some strategies such as *skimming* for main ideas, *scanning* for details and *previewing* the reading titles but they did not know how to use them efficiently.

Another second-year male student added that he could use *skimming and scanning* strategies better after being taught explicitly. This claim was also shared by many other students who reflected that the ESI had facilitated them in getting the specific details as well as the main ideas of a reading text which resulted in better reading comprehension.

Furthermore, a large number of the students maintained that the ESI has provided them with more knowledge of the ways to use reading strategies such as *scanning, skimming or previewing* more correctly and effectively than before. They admitted that they used to have difficulty in applying strategies such as *guessing the meaning from the context, skimming* and *scanning* appropriately. A third- year primary education student shared:

I had known guessing meaning from the context strategy, but I still used the dictionary to look up new words instead of guessing the meaning of words from context. I was confused when I could not guess the meaning of the word without hinting. Now I can identify different techniques to guess the meaning of the words and I don't find vocabulary in reading texts a burden anymore.

The strategies that most students reported employing during reading included *guessing the meaning of the words from context, skimming, scanning and previewing and predicting*. Only a few students reported in the interviews that they had applied *summarizing* strategies as they found this strategy rather challenging to employ.

When being asked how they applied the instructed reading strategies for the two types of questions in the English level 3 reading test, namely multiple choice and gap-fill questions, these students reported using different strategies for the two types of questions. With multiple choice questions, the majority of them said that they use *scanning* to find specific details for each question after u*nderlining* the key words. For the gap fill task, they combined *guessing the meaning of the words, skimming* and *scanning*.

Obviously, the ESI has empowered the students' acquisition of cognitive tactics they could employ and the usefulness of reading strategies in specific reading tasks.

4.2.2.1.c. Reconceptualization of the reading process

Another important significance of the ESI found in students' perception was related to students' changes in concept towards reading. Of the 10 students who were interviewed, eight of them revealed a conceptual change from focusing on individual words to constructing the meaning of the text using the instructed strategies.

For example, in one interview, a female Law student answered that before this course, reading was just simply translating one sentence to the next swiftly without seeing the need to connect them to construct meaningful idea units. As a result, she continued reading the rest of the text by translating and guessing. Now, she became aware that the major objective of reading comprehension was to create meaning from what she read rather than to translate every word she had read. As a result, it was necessary for students to actively plan how to achieve the task goal, solve any problems that arose, keep track of comprehension, and assess and adjust any strategies as needed.

In another interview with the first group of four students, when being asked how to overcome their reading difficulties in doing the first English level 3 reading text in this course, an education student reported that she read very slowly, and word by word to understand the meaning of every sentence in the text. Another student added he had to translate the reading text into Vietnamese in order to understand the content of the text. After the instruction, nonetheless, reading word by word or translation was no longer a preference by these students. A female Literature student shared, "After the instruction, I found it unnecessary to read every word and translate the whole text. I just focused on keywords to understand the meaning of the text" (S6, learning journals).

Another Economics student from the second group interview also commented that she used to read slowly and translate the text into Vietnamese in her first attempt with the English level 3 reading comprehension text, but after the ESI, she did not rely on *slow reading* and *translation* anymore thanks to *skimming* and *scanning* strategies.

As mentioned earlier in the previous chapter, the student participants in this study came from different majors in the member colleges of the research site; hence, the majority of them were not proficient in English and many of them claimed that they were obsessed by the number of unknown words in the reading texts. Nearly a half of the participants (21 students) admitted that they used to read word by word from the beginning to the end of the text and translate into Vietnamese. However, they now knew how to read effectively using different strategies. A third- year Medicine student shared,

I used to read every word before. Now I know how to use the instructed strategies to read more effectively. (S16, learning journals)

Students' perceptions seemed to indicate that the ESI could lead students from reading locally by decoding of words to reading more globally by constructing meaning of the text which released them from the obsession with individual words.

In general, most students in the study claimed that they then became aware of the reading process. Previewing, scanning and skimming strategies seemed to help them improve the way they interact with the reading texts. Top down approach was identified to be used more by the participants instead of bottom up one.

4.2.2.2. Greater reading fluency

The qualitative data reveal that students also perceived improvement in reading effectiveness. More specifically, they reported that the increased knowledge and

repetoire of reading strategies after the intervention seemed to lead to better reading comprehension skill which was associated with the increase in reading rate and reading comprehension after the ESI.

Perceived improvement in reading rate

Together with the improvement in reading strategy awareness and use among non-English majors, ESI was also believed to enhance their reading speed. Nearly all students mentioned this perceived value in the interviews from simple remarks to more elaborate comments as follows:

> *"...I found that I could read faster...I could guess the meaning on unknown words from the contexts and scanning helped me save more time"* (S20-interview).

One senior male student shared, *"After the instruction, I can read faster. I no longer focused on new words. I knew how to read faster and more efficiently by guessing meaning of new words using different techniques...Then I scanned and skimmed through the text..."* (S37, interview)

By the same token, the phrases "*read faster*" and "*improved reading rate*" were repeated by 33 students out of 39 learning reflections. In fact, many of the students claimed that they could read the texts faster after the instruction and this would benefit them when taking reading examinations. A male student felt that he then could ignore new words in the text and just focused on key details needed for the answers; as a result, he could read faster and do the test better within his language ability. Another example of how using multiple strategies resulted in faster reading can be visualized from the following reflection,

> *My reading speed is a bit faster now. Skimming, underlining the main ideas in the reading text; relating the unknown words with the previous or the following sentences to guess their meaning helped me understand the text better in shorter time. (S16, learning reflections)*

The present reflection echoed that when students combined various strategies in reading English text, they could improve their speed of reading. As explained by the participants, the application of various strategies such as *scanning* for specific details, *skimming* for gist and *guessing meaning of unknown words* helped them save much time in reading. As shared by a senior student,

"After learning reading strategies, I didn't pay much attention to the unknown words in the text. I knew how to read more effectively by predicting the text content based on keywords, then I read the comprehension questions and used scanning or skimming techniques to find the correct answers to the questions. I think my reading rate has improved" (S37, interview*).*

Using such strategies as *scanning, skimming or guessing the meaning of the words from context* helped the participants spend less time decoding individual words to understand the whole text as well as specific details needed for the answers. A senior student explained in the interview about her improvement in reading rate as follows:

I could read faster thanks to scanning and guessing meanings of unknown words from the context. (S5, interview)

More specifically, most participants wrote in the reflections that their reading speed had been improved statistically. Three students rated that their reading speed had increased by 20-30 percent. Meanwhile, the majority of them reported that they could read a bit faster than before and they could grasp the gist of the text more quickly. However, they still needed more practice so that they could perform better in their reading test. Only one student admitted that there was no change in her reading speed. Two students thought that they had made huge improvements in their reading speed which could help them reduce reading time significantly. One Law student shared in the interview that thanks to the instructed strategies, he could save a lot of time by using *scanning* for details and *skimming* for understanding main ideas.

When being asked what strategies they found most useful in their reading performance, it was found that the students agreed that the strategies *'scanning', 'skimming', 'previewing and predicting'* as instructed in class were key elements in boosting their reading speed.

In short, knowledge of the reading strategies and their application have helped the students to speed up their rate of reading. Knowing how to employ individual strategy in specific stage of reading benefited students in decoding the text and constructing its meaning at a faster rate.

Perceived improvement in reading comprehension

The findings from both verbal and written reflections also revealed that many students perceived improvement in reading strategy use after the ESI could lead to

improvement in reading comprehension. This means that together with faster decoding of the text, the students could understand the text much more quickly. In particular, 29 students reported increased speed in finding the correct answers to given reading questions as they were able to avoid word by word decoding. As shared by a student in the interview,

> *I felt that the speed of finding the answers to the comprehension questions was also faster than before.* (S5, interview)

Another second-year student shared a similar view that the knowledge and use of instructed strategies facilitated her comprehension which resulted in a faster rate in locating the correct answers to the comprehension questions.

> "…*Also, the predicting and previewing strategies that you [the teacher] taught helped me read faster and improve my comprehension.* (S6, interview)

This reflection was widely held, with another student stating

> *… your [the teacher] instruction on reading strategies helps me read the text faster without translating into Vietnamese like before and I could find the correct answers to the comprehension questions with less time.(S9, learning reflections)*

Similarly, female student stated, "*I could find the answers to the comprehension faster with more correct options*" (S20, learning reflections)

It is worth noting that the intervention of reading strategies seemed to help students have better understanding of the texts and as a result they could perform better in their reading tasks.

In sum, non- English major students at the research site perceived improvement in reading effectiveness after the ESI. It is of noted that the knowledge of reading strategies tended to contribute remarkably to the ways students decoded the text by not focus on the individual words. Furthermore, the speed at which they find the correct answers to the comprehension questions was also accelerated due to their increased text comprehension.

4.2.2.3. Students' reported improvement in reading scores

The most noticeable improvement reported by the students was probably gain in scores. This perceived improvement can be the result of the improvement in reading

rate and reading comprehension rate. Once learners could read faster and their comprehension of the texts was raised, they tended to find more correct answers to the comprehension questions. As a result, their scores would be better.

This perceived improvement was echoed in students' reflections that knowing how to employ multiple learned strategies has helped them perform better in their reading tests afterwards. A female Law student shared,

With the use of reading strategies that you instructed, my reading test scores were much higher than the previous ones. I think the strategy instruction was very useful for me. (S14, interview)

Or a senior medical student explained,

I think your teaching of reading strategies is very helpful for my English reading performance. I used to spend more time for my reading tests than for other skills but I still didn't get the scores I wanted. Now, my reading test scores were much higher when I knew how to read strategically. (S17, learning reflections)

And a sharing from a third- year student, "*I found that my scores in my recent reading test were higher that before and I completed the test faster*" (S42, interview) was an obvious evidence of the value of ESI in improving students' reading performance.

Particularly, thirty-four students said that they were happy with their reading comprehension because they could score better in their reading performance. It is worth noting that the most ultimate purpose of this English course is to raise the percentage of students passing the English Level 3 examinations. Improvement in reading scores, hence, can be seen as one significant and noticeable effect of the ESI. After the course of the intervention, the participants seemed to realize that the instructed strategies contributed to improving their reading performance. In particular, *previewing and predicting* could help them to identifying main idea of the text to activate their background knowledge of the text's topic, *guessing meaning of unknown words from the context* could compensate for their weakness in vocabulary mastery and therefore contributed more to students' comprehension of the text.

One second- year student wrote in his learning reflection that learning reading strategies had helped him choose more correct answers in the reading test which he found the most useful improvement after the ESI. Another Vet student shared in the interview,

I find almost every reading strategy helpful, and they helped me read better in the English reading test. In fact, my reading test scores were higher in the reading test.

To conclude, data from the interviews and learning reflections reveal that students reported positive improvement in their learning to read English level 3 texts. Specifically, the positive effects of ESI contributed to developing students' knowledge of strategy application, making them more engaged with the text to construct the meaning of the text in their English reading skill. Such improvements have led to the reported increase in students' ability to select and appropriately use strategies to monitor their comprehension and overcome difficulties in their reading and perform better in their reading tests.

4.2.3.4. Added affective values

In response to the significance of ESI during the English level 3 course, perceived improvement in affective values namely reading motivation, confidence and learners' autonomy were also identified.

4.2.3.4.a. Students' reported improvement in English reading motivation

Perceived improvement in students' reading motivation was a theme relating to affective values emerging from the qualitative results. After the instruction, most students claimed that they felt more interested and motivated in doing English reading. One student majoring in Pharmacy wrote,

I am not scared of reading English level 3 texts anymore. The teacher is friendly and committed and she doesn't put any pressure on learners…. I don't feel English learning a burden anymore. (S9, learning reflections)

They further explained that after learning reading strategies they knew how to apply each strategy in order to understand the meaning of the texts they read. They became less dependent on unknown words and did not read word by word. As a result, they then enjoyed reading more and felt more motivated in reading English texts. For example, a female Economic student shared,

I felt like reading English texts more and I could choose more correct answers for the test than before.

Similar affective improvement was also perceived by a senior Law student in the interview with the third group,

Before this course [English level 3 course], I used to read every word and felt worried with the time pressure when doing the reading test. Now I feel like reading more with the use of your [the teacher] instructed strategies. I skim the text, sometimes I read only the first and last paragraph in order to get the main ideas. I don't feel worried when reading longer texts. (S42, interview)

The phrases "*more motivated in reading*", "*like reading more*" or "*feel like reading*" were raised by 23 out 39 reflections written by the students. To these students, knowledge of reading strategies greatly contributed to their reading pleasure and motivation. The fact that they could read faster and get more content comprehension made reading more enjoyable, and as a result, they were more engaged with reading activity in English classroom. For example, a male student wrote,

I feel that I like to do the reading tasks more than before because I am not scared of reading anymore. I can read faster and understand the text better thanks to the reading strategies. (S26- learning reflections)

This was supported by the fact that learners found it easier to read and they could read faster when they read more strategically. As a result, they seemed to enjoy their reading more and that they felt more motivated, disregarding vocabulary and words they did not know. They clearly claimed that reading strategy learning had enabled them to find pleasure in reading. One senior male student narrated,

I like reading more than before. I don't pay attention to words in the reading text anymore. I knew how to read effectively using your [the researcher's] instructed strategies by preview using key words, then read the questions and using scanning or skimming to find the answers to the questions.(S37, learning reflections)

Similar comment was also made by another Vet student who used to be scared of reading English text, "I am interested in reading now and I am not scared of reading anymore" (S26, learning reflections) or sharing from a senior student,

I feel quite excited and confident in doing 3 English reading. Firstly, the teacher is cheerful and wholehearted. She [the teacher] does not put pressure on students. Further, her instructed reading strategies to help me access the text faster without having to translate like before. Reading is no longer a burden and I love reading now. (S17, learning reflections)

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Not only the increased interest in reading classroom was identified, the increased motivation in reading tasks outside classroom context emerged as a theme. A female participant wrote,

> "…*with the instructed reading strategies, I can practice reading skill in PET materials on my own at home for the upcoming tests. I feel like doing the reading task more.*" (S9, reflections)

In brief, it was noticed that students' improvement in reading speed and their improved strategic approaches to reading comprehension show that they tended to consider themselves as capable readers who could read and manage the problems in their reading by themselves. As a result, they found more interested in reading comprehension skill. Furthermore, students expressed the intention to further use of strategies in their future learning tasks. This is an evidence of the positive effects of ESI on learners' motivation to read both in in-class and out- of- class contexts.

4.2.3.4.b. Students' reported improved confidence in English reading

Learning the reading strategies allowed the students in the current study to notice the possibility of comprehending a text in various depths. Their perceived values were not only the improvement in increased awareness of strategy use, reading effectiveness, or motivation to read, they also perceived improvement in affective factors in terms of confidence. During the interviews as well as in the learning reflections, the participants reported an increased in confidence level thanks to the ESI. Nearly half of the students stated that they now felt more confident when reading in English since they could interact with the reading texts to construct the meaning. Also, after the strategy instruction, they felt more confident in reading longer texts as vocabulary was not a big concern to them. These students also added that *guessing the meaning of words from the context* was also an awesome technique since English was not their preferred subject at high school so they had very limited knowledge of vocabulary. Therefore, they used to spend little time learning English reading. This strategy was said to help them save time decoding the words which made them feel more confident in their reading comprehension.

This viewpoint was echoed in students' reflections where they stated not finding new words a constraint but instead being able to decode words at a more rapid rate and more accurately, and this could maintain many sources for comprehension. One student reported as follows,

I find guessing the meaning of word from the context the most useful. It helps me to figure out the meaning of the unknown words in the reading text so I can save me a lot of time. I don't need to look up the words in the dictionary anymore. Therefore, I became more confident in reading English text. (S7, learning reflections)

In addition, strategy instruction is said to help the students overcome their negative emotion in reading. A second- year student shared in her reflection that after learning reading strategies, she felt less nervous when doing a reading test because she knew how to use different types of strategies in different question types of the test. One student explained,

I am not scared of reading like before because I can read faster and my reading scores get higher now. (S34- learning reflections)

One student mentioned that his experiences during the intervention and his improved reading competence had made him feel more confident when reading English texts. Before the instruction, the majority of participants stated that vocabulary difficulties were major obstacles to understanding the English texts. Many of them admitted that they had most difficulties in reading because they lacked vocabulary. Some of them mentioned that unknown words resulted in translation of the whole sentence and the whole text into Vietnamese. Unknown words also made them read the text slowly.

When encountering unknown words, using a dictionary to find their meanings and reading several times to understand the meaning of the texts were the two most common ways that most students reported using. A student majoring in Vet wrote,

I found too many new words in the reading texts so I couldn't understand the meaning of the text thoroughly. I needed to look up the words many times and re-read the texts to understand them. (S29, learning reflections)

Some other students reported that technical terminology made the text difficult to comprehend. In addition, they added that their reading problems were about spelling and pronunciations. They could not spell and pronounce the words correctly. They also could not interpret what the text was about. Moreover, some students mentioned that repeated unknown vocabulary and sentence structures in the text brought about

reading problems. They also had difficulties understanding the meaning of the texts as a whole since they found too many new words in the reading texts and the topic of the text was not familiar to them. As a result, they felt demotivated and unconfident in reading skill. A student of Pharmacy also added,

> *I had experience in doing English tests because I had taken them quite often. However, my biggest challenge was new vocabulary. When I couldn't know the meanings of the words, it made me embarrassed and confused and took me more time to read.*

Or a third-year student reported,

> *In the first session, I found the test very difficult because it contained too many new words. This made me scared so I tried to read every word but this resulted in slow reading.*

However, many students mentioned that the instruction had helped them feel more confident in reading for various ESP materials which contains several terminologies in their fields. A third- year student shared that they need to read in English for their subject major and reading strategies contributed to the understanding of long and difficult ESP texts. One student majoring in General medicine reported,

> *My major is general medicine. Most of my materials are in English, so learning how to read effectively is very important to me. Now I know how to read for main ideas and for specific details. These strategies are very useful to me and make me confident in reading*

Or sharing from one female student,

> *I used to be very nervous when doing the reading test, but I'm not scared anymore because I practiced guessing word meanings from the contexts. I could make a good guess by looking at pictures or illustrations. I could understand more and could answer more questions compared to the beginning of the semester. (S45, learning reflections)*

This reflection might represent the students' view that English reading has become more manageable although it was considered a challenging task. A typical explanation by the students for their confidence in reading was that their confidence originated from knowing how to combine various strategies to construct meaning from what they read. They attributed this newfound confidence to the ESI in this English course.

4.2.3.4.3. Students' reported improvement in learners' autonomy

ESI in this study also contributed to learners' improved metacognitive knowledge about learning. After the intervention, the students carried out their reading comprehension tasks using the reading strategies proposed by the teacher and, through those tasks, learned to make decisions about their reading process autonomously. They began to take up reading comprehension as an extra activity to improve their English reading skill. One senior student reported, "I can use the strategies learned in this course to practice reading PET materials for my final exams" (S9, learning reflections). There was a general agreement that the strategies taught in the instruction had helped the students engage more with the reading texts, and make sense of the texts using multiple strategies. This demonstrates that learners would be able to improve their ability to self-regulate for reading task.

In general, this enhanced metacognitive knowledge enabled students to take effective control of their reading and their learning process (Chamot & Harris, 2019; Zhang, 2010). They started taking initiative in order to conduct specific activities when doing their assigned reading homework, such as finding out the meaning of unknown words, locating specific information in a text, finding main ideas in a passage, and relating the content of the reading to their own schemata. One student shared,

> *"Well, I am interested in with your assigned reading practice now…. I normally preview the text by the key words and subtitle, scan to locate specific information in the text and find the answers to the comprehension questions".*
> (S30, learning reflections)

The reflection above indicated that the students felt empowered to carry out their assigned homework on their own and to transfer those strategies to reading effectively.

Another example of the process in which students followed to develop the reading strategies for fostering autonomy can be seen in one senior student's reflection as follows,

> *With the instructed reading strategies, I can practice reading in PET materials more without worrying about how to use reading strategies. (S17, learning reflections)*

Additionally, the majority of students reported that the strategy instruction made

them feel like reading not only for the English level 3 texts but also any kind of reading in English outside English classroom context. This indicates that the instruction has helped develop learners' autonomy and lifelong learning. Five students answered that they would use reading in English outside the classroom context in order to read English newspapers, magazines or English for specific purposes in the future or self- practice for other international English examinations like TOEIC, TOEFL or IELTS so that they could apply for a job in foreign companies. One student stated,

> *...This [learning the reading strategies] could make reading more enjoyable and I can practice more reading and writing on my own for my upcoming English Level 3 examinations and if possible I will practice to take TOEIC examinations in the future.* (S42, learning reflections)

In sum, these features of perceived autonomy seemed to lead students to be less dependent on the teacher and more focused on their reading tasks both inside and outside classroom. They tended take up reading activities on their own with the aim to improve their reading comprehension skill for further purposes. Though many of them admitted that they still encountered difficulties in reading due to the lack of their vocabulary knowledge, students were aware of the importance of self- regulated learning and had an intention to promote reading skill without any obligation imposed by the teacher.

4.3. Summary of the chapter

The chapter presents the results of the study on the use of reading strategies by Vietnamese non-English major tertiary students before and after the ESI. The findings reveal that the participants reported using reading strategies from medium to high levels in three different stages of reading comprehension both before and after the ESI. In addition, students perceived that strategy instruction helped to develop their reading strategy awareness and repertoire, and caused conceptual changes towards reading. Moreover, the ESI also contributed to the increase in students' reading and reading comprehension which were believed to help them perform better in their final reading test. The participants also showed their perceptions on the significance of ESI in their motivation to read, and confidence in reading and learners' autonomy. The following chapter will provide a discussion on the major findings presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The present study set out to explore the employment of reading strategies by Vietnamese non- English major tertiary students in reading English level 3 texts before and after the ESI. It also investigated the perceived improvements in different aspects of the reading skill as perceived by the students. The results show that the students used a wide range of strategies during the three stages of reading comprehension at a medium rate before the instruction. Particularly, in the pre-reading stage, global strategies that focus on *previewing and predicting* the text using reader's background knowledge and keywords from the title or illustrations were reportedly to be used frequently. In the while- reading stage, there was a high rate of problem- solving strategies (e.g., *translation, re-reading and slow reading*) meanwhile the other three strategy categories, namely support, global and local strategies were employed at a medium level. *Re-reading* strategy was recognized as the most frequently used strategy in this group. After the intervention, however, there was an increase in the overall use of strategy in all three groups, especially, strategies in pre- and while-reading stages changed from medium to high use. As for the pre- reading strategies, *using illustrations* and f*ocusing on the key words from the title* were still reported to be used with a high rate; whereas the usage rate of all four strategy categories in the while- reading strategies increased from medium to high level. Further, the findings from interviews and learning reflections revealed that the students perceived the positive effects of ESI on the various aspects in reading comprehension. Specifically, students perceived not only an increase in their awareness of reading strategies but also expended strategy repertoire and use. In addition to that, they could read faster and their speed of locating the correct answers to the comprehension questions also increased thanks to their changes in conceptualization of reading process towards reading. This enhancement seemed to lead to the improvement in students' reading scores. Finally, the ESI was also believed to enhance the students' affective values in English reading. They felt less anxiety and more confident in reading thanks to the reduced cognitive load by using reading strategies. Through this, students' motivation to read was raised which tended to boost learners' autonomy.

In this section, the findings related to the reading strategies the students used prior to the intervention are discussed. The effects of the intervention will be discussed in light of the students' reported use of strategies (post-questionnaire), and the perceived learning gains through their reflections and interviews.

5.1. Students' use of reading strategies in reading English level 3 texts before instruction

5.1.1. Overall reading strategy use before instruction

The findings of the current study in reading strategies used by the participants before the intervention suggest that Vietnamese non- English major tertiary students used a wide range of strategies at medium level during the three reading stages of reading comprehension in order to comprehend their English level 3 texts. Compared to other EFL learners, this finding is in line with research findings conducted in EFL context by Abu-Snoubar (2017), Al-Mekhlafi (2018) and Erni (2021), Nguyễn Thị Minh Tâm and Trịnh Quốc Lập (2011), Zhang and Wu (2009), which indicate that the EFL students are generally using different reading strategies in their reading process at medium level. A plausible explanation for this is that though the participants major in various fields, they all reported having studied English at least 7 years at high school, where reading and grammar has been found to be more emphasized (Hoàng Văn Vân, 2018). As a result, they essentially have a foundation in English reading comprehension. Perhaps they were aware of the significance of reading strategies and occasionally used them in reading to some extent.

However, the fact that Vietnamese students used reading strategies at a moderate rate contrasts with the finding of a study by Zare and Othman (2013) indicating that Malaysian students were high strategy users. Interestingly, this research finding also contradicted other studies conducted by Huang and Nisbet (2014), Madhumathi and Ghosh (2012), and Poole (2009) in ESL contexts which showed that the students were active users of reading strategies. The difference in Vietnamese non-English majors' strategy use from those in ESL contexts is quite understandable; since English is used as a foreign language in Vietnam but a second language in these countries. EFL Vietnamese learners, therefore, have fewer chances to expose themselves to English sources than their ESL counterparts. Vietnamese students rarely utilize English outside of the classroom, whereas ESL students are more exposed to

resources written in English, both in and out of school. Furthermore, ESL students might also be equipped with reading strategies to deal with comprehension breakdowns. What is more, the majority of Vietnamese EFL non- English major students in the present study (75.6%, see Table 3.3) come from rural areas in the center regions of Vietnam, where the opportunity to learn English as well as an environment for regular practice is quite limited compared to other major cities like Hanoi or Ho Chi Minh city (Pham Huy Cường, 2021). This may result in the fact that they used strategies to a smaller extent than other students in urban areas.

The application of specific strategies in each reading stage is discussed in the following sections.

5.1.2. Pre- reading strategies use before instruction

The finding from this study reveals that in the pre- reading stage, expeditious global strategies were reported to be used from a medium to high rate. Especially, *focus on the key words from the title* strategy was reported with the highest rate, meanwhile *plan what to do before starting strategy* was reported with least frequency. This was supported by Chen (2015) and Barrot's (2016) findings that students favored expeditious global reading strategies such as previewing the text, skimming and deciding what to read and what to ignore. One possible explanation for the high use of global strategies among the students at this stage can be anchored from Rumelhart's (1977) schema theory, stating that readers interact with the text to activate an appropriate schemata based on clues provided in the text. Thus, global strategies are considered useful for students at the pre- reading stage. Another possible explanation for non-English majors' high use of global strategies is the indicative characteristics of college students. Compared to other strategy categories, global strategies are metacognitive in nature and are more important for language learning (Anderson, 2003). Metacognitive strategies include activities such as overseeing, regulating and assessing which correlate with what university students use in academic learning and these strategies might be transferred to language learning. Adult EFL learners might be aware of these strategies due to higher-level academic learning experiences. The tendency of global strategy use by students in the present study was also congruent with Eren-Zaffar's (2020) conclusion which points out that global strategies such as *previewing the pictures, titles, and sub-headings to predict the content of the text* and

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checking readers' prediction by reading with a purpose was to help them to create a sense of purpose to read and enable them to make assumptions about the text based on what they already know.

Another key finding was that students in the present study were still poor at using *plan what to do before starting* strategy and *think about how one subtitle relates to another sub-title* strategy at the pre- reading stage. This suggests that the students are not capable of observing and controlling their reading. This finding is consistent with those of Pammu et al's (2014) study uncovering that the less proficient EFL learners did not go over the previewing process in order to capture what would be the content of the text. This meant that the students in the present study did not have a clear picture of what the reading would be about. This is where the training of previewing strategy with metacognitive awareness would be significant for non-English major students in the current study.

5.1.3. While- reading strategies use before instruction

In the while-reading stage, students reported using problem- solving and support strategies with higher rate than global and local strategies. The choice of the problem- solving strategies such as *translate into Vietnamese*, *re-read to increase understanding*, *read every sentences slowly and carefully* and support strategies such as *use English grammar to help understand the text* by the participants may probably indicate their deliberate use to observe their reading progress by applying additional aids to ensure text comprehension. To provide further assistance to their comprehension of the texts' entire contents, the students also changed their reading pace, reread the material, and tried to picture and visualize the information in the texts. These problem-solving strategies are considered effective and improve their reading ability. This result contributes more to the confirmation of findings from various researchers in the field. Huang & Nisbet (2014) and Madhumathi & Ghosh (2012) found that students prefer to problem-solving strategies more than other strategies. Par (2020) claimed that EFL university students majoring in English prefer problem-solving strategies more than global and supporting strategies and the problem-solving strategies are the predictive factors of the students' reading achievement and "the more the students apply the problem-solving strategies in reading activities, the better their ability to understanding the texts" (p.223).

The high rate of problem-solving strategy usage during while reading process is consistent with findings from Alsheikh and Mokhtari (2011) and Meniado (2016), who found that problem-solving strategies were most frequently used by Korean and Saudi Arabian EFL students while reading English texts. This suggests that students may have tended to think that solving the problems that cause reading failure directly is the best way to address the issue. The findings of this study also concurred with those of Kudeir et al. (2012), who found that problem-solving techniques were most frequently employed, followed by support and global reading strategies. According to researchers such as Hong-Nam & Page (2014); Malcolm (2009); Mokhtari & Reichard (2004); Sheorey & Mokhtari (2001), non- English majors have a tendency to develop strategies to assist them to overcome the barriers in text comprehension caused by their linguistic difficulties.

Another problem- solving strategy that has the highest mean score is concerned with *translate from English into native language*. This finding also confirms results from Semtin and Maniam's (2015) study, who found that the frequency scale of the translation strategy, was high with ESL Malaysian secondary school students and it is "usually used" by most participants. The students in Semtin and Maniam's study cited their limited vocabulary and grammar knowledge prompted them to use the translation technique more often. This is also the case of the students in this study. Another possible explanation for the high frequent use of translation of the participants can be attributed to their L1 influence and their limited exposure to English language as well as the sociocultural backgrounds of the students whose first language is Vietnamese. In addition, students' familiarity with the grammar-translation method of teaching from their teachers at secondary and high school (Hoang Van Van, 2010) could be one factor.

Furthermore, one distinctive sub- strategy that needs special attention is *rereading to increase comprehension when text becomes difficult*, which was also often used by the students in this study. With the high mean score value (M=3.89, SD =.85) yielding at high level of awareness, they can be considered as less proficient readers since this strategy is not popularly practised by effective and efficient learners (Pammu, 2014). This finding is also supported by many prior studies (e.g. Alsheikh & Mokhtari; Gomaa, 2015; Heisat et al., 2009; Kasemsap & Lee, 2015;

Küçükoğlu, 2012; Pinninti, 2016; Semtin & Maniam, 2015; Tercanlioglu, 2004; Ulu, 2017) where *reading slowly and carefully, determining what to read, rereading the text* were often used by the students. *Reading slowly and carefully to understand the text* was also reported with high level of frequency. Factors that concern unfamiliar expressions, words and other reading difficulties might make the students slow readers. *Re-reading* and *pausing* would increase a reader's cognitive load since these two behaviors ask them to keep previously read information in mind when solving their reading difficulties and therefore put added stress on working memory which results in difficulty with text-based construction at this stage of reading comprehension.

Again, new words and expression were still major obstacle to Vietnamese non- English major students in reading comprehension, as a result, *using reference material* strategy use was also in high rate. Obtained result also suggests that *guessing the meaning of unknown words or phrases* was used high frequency. However, the number of students reported using this strategy in the open ended question was quite low (see Table 4.17) because these students found it challenging when making a guess. This might be due to the disadvantage of close- ended question in questionnaire which cues the respondent with some forced-choice items and with respect to possible answers (McMillan, 2014). This result implies that though students reported using guessing the meaning of unknown words or phrases at high level, they still did not succeed in this technique.

Among the eight items in global strategy category, *skimming the text* ranked the first, followed by *reading the first sentence of each paragraph*. Skimming is a crucial reading strategy that is frequently used by readers in a variety of ESL and EFL contexts. Participants in this study also reported using scanning with high rate. This statistical evidence implies that EFL non-English major students in this study are conscious of the importance of these two strategies in reading comprehension. However, the standard value of these items are quite high, it is necessary to triangulate the statistical results with students' responses in open- ended questions, and it was found that skimming and scanning were reported using by fewer learners before the

instruction due to their required high level of awareness (Pammu, 2014) and their complexity (difficult to distinguish, S7, interview response).

This call for an urge to the training of *scanning, skimming* and *guessing the meaning of unknown words from the contexts* strategies for EFL non-English major students in the present study.

Another interesting item to discuss regards to *taking notes while reading* and *distinguish between fact and opinion* strategies. These two strategies are important in understanding the meaning of the reading texts. Making notes while reading gives the reader better possibilities to link concepts, arrange thoughts, and discover new ideas. In addition, one of the components that contributes to a reader's evaluation task is their capacity to distinguish between a text's content as fact or opinion (Ghahraki, 2005). These two constructs with medium level of use imply that they need instruction for more understanding and effective use; since these two strategies require that readers evaluate the text they are reading (Graney, 1990, cited in Ghahraki, 2005) which usually involves mapping what is represented in the text against our own experience and knowledge (Wallace, 1996, cited in Ghahraki, 2005).

5.1.4. Post- reading strategy use before instruction

In the post- reading stage, support and problem-solving strategies were reported to be used more frequently than global strategies and local strategies. One potential explanation for this might be the fact that support strategies, a set of strategies focused on using external resources to assist reading comprehension and problem-solving strategies (a set of localized, focused reading strategies used when problems develop in understanding textual information) help students have a deeper understanding of the texts and to read the texts' details to internalize it with strategies "*translation*", "*re-reading*" and "*using English grammar to understand the text*". However, "*making notes on the main points*" and "*analyzing and evaluating the information presented in the text*" strategies were reported using with medium rate. This result is understandable because these constructs require higher level of metacognitive awareness which can be found in high-proficiency learners.

In summary, the current study is one of other studies approving the findings of previous studies showing that EFL learners, especially non- English majors have a

tendency to employ various reading strategies in their English reading comprehension. A popular explanation of this trend is that the students were aware of the significance of reading strategies and attempted to use them to promote their comprehension. However, when it comes to the use of specific sub-strategies in each reading stage, there are still limitations in the use of some major strategies which call for instructions from the teachers so that learners can use them more fluently and effectively.

5.2. The impacts of the explicit reading strategy instruction

5.2.1. Impact on the use of reading strategies as reported in the questionnaire

Exploring the differences in reading strategy use after the ESI via questionnaire data is one of the objectives of this study. One noticeable finding of this research is the increase in the use of reading strategies in the three phases of the reading process after the instruction. In particular, the pre-reading and while- reading strategies received the most changes with the mean value from medium usage to high usage. It might be claimed that the ESI in the present study helped the students become more metacognitively aware of L2 reading strategies and use those strategies with higher frequency when completing reading tasks at different stages.

At the pre-reading stage, the finding that mean scores for strategies such as *looking at pictures/ illustrations, focusing on the keywords/phrases* and *reading the title and subtitle of the text* became considerably higher after the instruction can be attributed to the instruction that focused on teaching the students how to employ selective attention in previewing during the instruction. By using the *previewing* and *predicting* technique, readers can establish a purpose for reading and engaging with the material, which in turn enables readers to connect the text's ideas or facts to their prior knowledge (Jiron, 2014). These findings depict that the instruction on *preview* and *prediction* heightened the use of these strategies among the students. One explanation could be that the ESI has raised the students' awareness of the way to activate their background knowledge and make use of the typographical features as well as the illustrations in the texts in order to guess the text's main content. Another significant change was found in the planning strategy (*plan what to do before starting*) implying that the ESI has made students be active readers who can monitor and take control of their reading process with a detailed plan on what needs to be done before

moving on the next stage of reading. At this point, strategy instruction was believed to help the students become conscious of the necessity for recognizing and applying appropriate strategies when reading.

As for while- reading strategies, it is of note that the ESI has given a rise to all three strategy categories except local strategies. In addition, global strategies witnessed the most change in comparison with the other three strategies. While problem- solving strategy category was not ranked first after the ESI, some of its sub-strategies were reported to be used with a higher rate than before the ESI. Specifically, *translation* and *using reference materials* were reported at higher levels than before the instruction. This finding implies that the training section did not influence the way that EFL non-English major students in this study learn English. The learners' familiarity with traditional grammar-translation teaching methods perhaps deeps root in the students' minds. Further, their limited vocabulary knowledge is still a major obstacle to understanding English texts. Unknown words resulted in the translation of the whole sentence and the whole text. However, the finding also reveals that the students used *guess the meaning of the unknown words or phrases from context* as part of problem-solving strategies in reading after the instruction, though they still used a dictionary or translated the meaning of the words into their first language with high rate. This could be attributed to their habit of English learning for grammar and reading examinations at high school as well as the medium of instruction they got in most English classrooms. Additionally, they reported using other instructed strategies namely *skimming* and *scanning* with higher rates after the intervention is thought to be commendably beneficial, since it "prevents the students from inefficient reading habits such as reading word-by-word, reading aloud, moving lips, translating, and reading for form and details" (Nguyễn Thị Minh Ngọc, 2015, p. 197) which encourages teachers to inspire their students to practice skimming and scanning reading texts. It is speculated that this might be due to the effects of ESI on the students' increased the quality of strategy use. Though they had reported using *skimming* and *scanning* before the instruction, the higher frequency reported to be used after the ESI indicated that more students were informed of these two strategies and used them while reading. This is an important finding in the understanding of the

impacts of the ESI on the students' reading comprehension process. The instruction at least changed the way that the students processed the reading text, from locally decoding the words to reading more globally with global strategies such as skimming, scanning and skipping unknown words.

With regards to the increase in post- reading strategy use after the instruction, the current study's finding shows higher mean scores in the majority of sub strategies of local, global and problem-solving strategy categories. These strategies seemed to offer the students chances to evaluate their comprehension of the reading contents. *Re-reading the text* and *making notes on the main points* are expected to overcome comprehension failures and to remember main points.

Research on the effects of ESI on reading comprehension suggests that *relating the title, illustrations/pictures and background knowledge to the text*, *skimming*, *scanning*, *guessing meaning of the words from the context*, and *summaries of the important information* are strategies that should not be disregarded in the foreign language reading curriculum since they considerably help readers enhance their reading abilities. As Carrell (Carrell et al., 1989, p.648) puts forward, "strategy research suggests that less competent learners are able to improve their reading skills through training in strategies". Effective reading strategies may also greatly contribute to students' enhancement in their reading skills, allowing them to read more efficiently for academic purposes regardless of the sort of text they come across, according to Grabe (1991, p. 27). It can be inferred from the findings of current study that ESI does contribute to the development of strategy use and repertoire among Vietnamese non-English major tertiary students. The result also indicates that students in the present study showed their medium to high use in strategies such as *rereading, questioning for clarification*, *summarizing* and *note-taking* after the intervention. This might suggest that the instructional procedures resulted in improvement in the use and awareness of reading strategies necessary for low- proficiency non- English major students. The findings of the present study can be regarded as further empirical evidence for the unitary view of the effects of the reading strategy instruction. Various researchers (Salataci & Akyel, 2002; Fan, 2000) concluded that reading strategy instruction had a positive effect on tertiary learners' awareness and use of reading comprehension

strategies, particularly in relation to the comprehension questions on getting the main idea and finding the supporting details, and the students use more top-down strategies, like finding the main ideas and summarizing after strategy instruction training. This is consistent with what has been found in a previous study by Aghaei and Zhang (2012), who found that the instructional procedures resulted in improvement in the use and awareness of reading strategies in Iranian EFL students. This kind of improvement may due to the fact that ESI involves making students cognitively aware of the thinking procedures good readers possess. Provided with specific strategies they may use to assist and improve their comprehension while reading a range of texts can help them as they interact with the text (Ballou, 2012). They have also developed the ability to use effective strategies to deal with the reading text. Additionally, individuals were more accustomed to employing those strategies as they received more training. Another explanation for the change could be that a predominant part of the instruction model was based on learners' participation in the reading activities which help them to internalize the strategies' knowledge as well their applications. Their result indicates that adult EFL students may benefit from strategy instruction that aims to increase reading strategy awareness, including awareness of global strategies and local strategies in this study framework.

Overall these findings are in accordance with research findings on language learning strategies indicating that strategy instruction contributes to the improvement in students' use and awareness of reading strategies in both ESL and EFL students Numerous earlier studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of reading strategy instruction in raising metacognitive awareness of reading strategies and increasing strategy utilization (e.g., Aghaie & Zhang, 2012A; Akkakoson, 2013; Macaro & Erler, 2008; Nikoopour & Amini, 2010; Ruiz de Zarobe & Zenotz, 2018; Salataci & Akyel, 2002; Teng, 2019)

To this end, the findings of the current study suggest that Vietnamese non-major English students used a wide variety of reading strategies in reading English level 3 texts after the intervention. In particular, more students reported improvement in using global strategies such as previewing and prediction, guessing meaning of unknown words from the contexts. Further, students were more aware of the

combination use of global expeditious reading strategies and local reading strategies presented in the framework of this research. These reiterate the role of strategy instruction in enabling students to enhance their metacognitive knowledge to have effective control of their reading process. This implies that students must be instructed to expose themselves to a wide variety of strategies in their English learning process as it is always beneficial to learn as many reading strategies as possible, students' exposure to various reading materials should be encouraged as a frequent academic practice to teach students both for reading and comprehending activities. Such practice would constantly enhance and improve students' capacity to understand reading texts.

5.2.2. Impact of the instruction on cognitive reading processes and affective values as reported from interviews and reflections

Students' perceptions of the effectiveness of the ESI reported in students' interviews and learning reflections can be conceptualized into two main groups, namely cognitive reading processes improvements and affective values improvements.

5.2.2.1. Reduced cognitive processing load and heightened awareness of using reading strategies

As reflected in the findings, the ESI in this study led to the enhancement in metacognitive knowledge which enabled learners to take effective control of their reading and their learning process in general (Chamot & Harris, 2019; Zhang, 2010). With the intervention lessons, students were involved in the process of strategic problem-solving and had opportunities for guided strategy practice, they reported learning gains in their reading strategy repertoire, reading strategy use, a reconceptualization of the reading process.

First of all, it can be inferred that after receiving explicit training, students were more aware of the reading strategies and their recognized reading strategies expanded. The majority of them mentioned very strongly that they were introduced to different reading strategies that they had not known before, especially those necessary for EFL learners in reading English level 3 texts. In addition, the ESI also helped them expand their reading strategy repertoire and know how to put strategies into use. During the ESI, students attempted to use and adjust their strategies deliberately. They then had chances to construct, repair and confirm their comprehension throughout free practice.

This can be seen as their enhanced reading strategy knowledge. More specifically, they became aware of the use of strategies such as *previewing and prediction, skimming, scanning, guessing the meaning of unknown words from the context*. Also they became aware that their main goal of English reading was to construct meaning from what they read not to understand word-by-word. As Chinpakdee and Gu (2021) points out that "reading is a meaning-making process that requires them [students] to actively plan what to do to achieve the task goal, solve problem, monitor their comprehension, and evaluate and change their strategies as needed" (p.19). This result ties well with previous studies wherein the value of reading strategy teaching in raising metacognitive awareness of reading strategies and increasing strategy application were demonstrated (e.g., Akkakoson, 2013; Salataci & Akyel, 2002; Teng, 2019). This refined strategic knowledge would lead to revision in their strategy use. Since their reading purpose has changed from translation into meaning construction, their approaches to reading in the post ESI have become more comprehension oriented. To put it another way, students seemed to develop their reading repertoire and know how to use them effectively in reading process after the intervention.

The increased quality of reading strategies use in the post-intervention collaborate the results of other similar previous studies on investigating the effect of reading strategy instruction to the development of reading strategies and usage (eg, Riadil,2020; Al Roomy & Alhawsawi, 2019). Riadil (2020) concluded in his study that EFL learners of Tidar University have gained an understanding of some strategies such *using context clues, scanning and skimming* techniques, and *trying to predict the content* and used them in reading to reduce the problems. According to Hedgcock and Ferris (2009), explicit instruction enables students to become more aware of the strategies and broaden their repertoire allowing them to apply these more successfully. The present research supports explicit instruction as a pedagogical practice that encourages conscious learning and use of a wider repertoire of strategic actions by way of explaining, modeling, practicing, recycling, and discussing how strategies are best exploited in accordance with the reading purposes and readers' needs. Moreover, this finding also confirms Ensico (2015) result indicating that the range of reading strategies recognized by the students after the explicit instruction was extended not

only in the count of the references made to each strategy, but also in the different strategies mentioned. This improvement was reinforced by Okkinga et al (2018) 's meta-analysis, which found that reading strategy instruction had a significant impact on the use of reading strategies in reading comprehension as well as on self-reports of strategy use and strategy knowledge. The instructed strategies including *preview and prediction, skimming, scanning, guessing meaning of unknown words/ phrases from the context and summarizing* are proved to be helpful for participants in current study to deal with their reading comprehension in English; since they are the tools to deal with the texts. For instance, they knew how to take notes and highlight the main points which means that they are able to monitor their own problems by engaging more with the text.

The findings also suggested that the students have changed their conceptualization towards reading thanks to their strategy knowledge. From reading locally focusing on individual words due to their limited vocabulary size, students tended to read more globally using top- down approach. Moreover, they also increased their interaction with the reading texts to construct the meaning.

To sum up, this analysis found evidence for the fact that the participants in this study had a very positive attitude toward training in reading strategies and possessed wealth of learning experience and reading strategies employment after the intervention. This result lends support to previous research' findings which showed that reading strategy instruction was effective for enhancing the participants' metacognitive awareness (Dabarera et al., 2014; Salataci & Akyel, 2002; Soleimani & Hajghani, 2013) which contributed to the way that students decode and interact with the text to get a better comprehension.

5.2.2.2. Greater reading fluency

One finding that deserves discussing is that students perceived they read English texts with a faster speed. Their increased reading rate can be attributable to more controlled reading through the use of *skimming, scanning and guessing the meaning of unknown words* strategies which helped them read more strategically after taking part in ESI lessons. By *skimming, scanning*, and *word guessing*, a reader can quickly grasp the primary idea or theme and detail information of a reading as well as decoding unknown words without having to devote much time to it. These strategies

are believed to reduce the time that readers spend constructing the meaning of the texts. Research (e.g., Shen, 2019) has shown that reading speed is positively correlated with the students' strategy use. This means that the employment of strategies serves as a predictor of the learners' level of reading fluency.

Another indicator of improved reading fluency is the speed at which learners reported understanding the text and locating the correct answers to the comprehension questions. The acquisition of reading strategies through the explicit instruction has at least assisted learners to comprehend the text at a faster pace thanks to the speed at which they decode the text with the application of the instructed strategies. To put it another way, strategies and reading pace can indicate a reader's ability to comprehend (Cho, K. S., & Kim, H. J., 2004; Chung, M., & Nation, I.S.P., 2006; Beglar, D., Hunt, A., & Kite, Y., 2012). According to this study, comprehension was positively influenced by reading quickly (Tran & Nation, 2014). These assertions attest to the fact that speed reading and reading comprehension are united as one component in reading comprehension skill (Wainwright, 2007). In this regard, the ESI enabled students to deal with comprehension questions more easily and quickly. As proposed by Varga (2017) and Teng (2018), developing metacognitive awareness may help learners become more conscious of contextual information that is incorporated in texts and promote a self-questioning reading process. Moreover, the enhanced reading comprehension of the students in the present study may be justified in light of sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978), in a sense that, the use of reading strategy was mediated by the teacher's scaffolding as a more capable person in the learning process of the students (Gardner, 2010). The teacher assisted the EFL students in using reading strategies more effectively by explaining and modeling how to employ them. As a result, the students may have been given the authority to close the gap between the strategies they knew and their actual proficiency in employing them, creating a situation that was beneficial for the student's improvement in reading comprehension.

5.2.2.3. Reported improvement in reading comprehension scores

Interview and reflections responses also showed that the students were able to score higher in the reading tests because they had learnt how to *preview* and *predict*, *scan* and *skim* and *guess* the meaning of unknown words. In fact, what contributes to the improvement in students' scores can be the way they used strategies to facilitate their

reading. A similar conclusion was reached by Chinpakdee (2021), and Yang (2006), implying that L2 learners can make up for their reading deficiencies and limited language skills by using reading strategies to comprehend an L2 text. L2 readers can improve both in-class and outside-of-class reading comprehension skills by developing successful reading habits with the assistance of explicit training in reading strategies (Fathi & Afzali, 2020). Although this study may not have enough evidence to conclude that ESI could have convincing impacts on reading scores, it does offer encouraging evidence that the intervention had positive impacts on students' learning outcomes.

5.2.2.4. Added affective values

One noticeable finding of this study was that students acquired more affective values after the instruction. Students claimed that they became more motivated and confident in English reading comprehension which in turn helped them become more autonomous in learning to read.

Strategy instruction and students' reading confidence and motivation

A further novel finding of this study is that with the instructed strategies in the course, students reported a reduced level of anxiety which had been often associated with their limited vocabulary and proficiency level and a higher level of confidence in reading English texts. Though the instruction could not help to develop their vocabulary knowledge, they knew how to make good guess and skip unknown words to read fluently. From my observation as an instructor in the English level 3 course, when given a new material to read, students tended to spend too much time on irrelevant tasks like decoding difficult words they came across while reading rather than using the specialized reading techniques needed for effective reading. And if the amount of unfamiliar words is too large, readers might become anxious when reading a text which can result in reading difficulties among EFL learners. Nety and Arisman (2021) explained, "extremely nervous readers do not utilize enough tactics advantageous to their reading comprehension, such as guessing the meaning of unknown vocabulary, rereading the text to increase comprehension, or using supporting resources (such as a dictionary, taking notes, underlining, and highlighting)" (p.65). Schiff and Calif (2004) stated that EFL students may face reading difficulties if they lack an understanding of reading strategies and awareness

of how to apply those strategies in a text. Additionally, it was discovered that the participants' reading anxiety was lessened by the reading strategy instruction (Fathi, 2020). The students were encouraged to plan, supervise, and coordinate their employed strategies more skillfully thanks to the metacognitive strategies they had learned. As a result, the participants' perceived comprehension success and decreased cognitive load as a result of receiving strategic instruction are likely to have lessened their anxiety. The findings are directly in line with previous findings of several earlier empirical research which suggested that the application of comprehension strategies can limit the level of reading anxiety among students (Gahungu, 2007; Lien, 2016; Naseri & Zaferanieh, 2012). This is also consistent with the claim that there are connections between foreign language learning anxiety and strategy use (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Rahimi & Zhang, 2014). It might be argued that strategy instruction helped the participants to reduce their reading anxiety and contributed to building up students' confidence in reading comprehension. Chinpakdee and Gu (2021) explained in their study that ESI can increase students' confidence in their capacity to manage their reading tasks by enhancing their feeling of self-efficacy in learning, since "after participating in the strategy-based lessons, most learners in the intervention class see themselves as capable readers who can read and manage problems in their reading on their own" (p.19).

The confidence gained after the ESI could contribute to the increase in students' motivation to do the reading tasks. Findings from students' perceptions of reading strategy instruction also indicate that students reported becoming more motivated in learning to read in English. Students reported higher engagement in reading after the instruction. Mastering reading strategies was a key in helping them to feel like reading more since they could overcome their anxiety and reading difficulties. Shih and Reynolds (2018) and Guthrie et al. (2000) confirmed that integrated reading strategy intervention could boost participants' motivation to read.

The finding is congruent with prior research findings which showed that explicit reading strategy training was effective in fostering students' reading comprehension and learner motivation (Chinpakdee, 2021; Kavani, 2018; Li et al, 2022). The intervention in the present study gave the students an opportunity for higher frequency use of reading

strategies in reading comprehension which can boost their confidence and motivation to participate more actively in learning English in general and learning to read in particular. Margolis and McCabe (2006) claim that L2 learners can build their motivation in learning through their improvement in self-efficacy beliefs. In the same vein, McDonough (2005) notes that the promotion of self-confidence and self- esteem can improve motivation. Put another way, strategy instruction can be recognized as a way to guide learners on how to self-regulate their L2 learning activities. Apart from these theoretical explanations, the interactions between motivation and language learning strategies were also proved in empirical studies. For example, in one study, Nikoopour, and Amini Farsani (2012) found a significant positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and cognitive/ metacognitive strategies among Iranian language learners. Overall these findings are in accordance with those reported by Kavani and Amjadiparvar's (2018) which shows that, by adopting strategy instruction in L2 reading classes, teachers may boost learners' motivation and enhance learners' reading comprehension. The fact that students became more motivated to read English texts could be also attributed to the awareness and application of the instructed reading strategies. For example, Moghaddam (2013) explained that the awareness of reading comprehension strategies and reading motivation among Iranian EFL learners are positively correlated. With the confidence they got in reading, they felt more motivated and enthusiastic about reading English texts. When the students encounter lengthy and challenging academic reading texts, as the researcher observed in the classroom, they tended to skip the reading tasks. However, once they knew more reading strategies and knew how to use them to make sense of English texts, it is understandable that they felt like reading more.

Nikoopour and Amini's (2011) study showed a positive and significant relationship between intrinsic motivation and metacognitive as well as cognitive strategies. It points out that learners who were inherently interested in learning English used strategies. The result of the present study is also consistent with the findings of others by Shmais (2003), Lam, (2009) and Yang, (2009) which show that students who are instructed and exposed to reading strategies become more motivated in English reading skill. This is also supported by Pintrich's (1999) statement quoted in Benson and Gao (2008, p. 90), "the use of metacognitive strategies to control learning

is closely linked to motivation and self-regulated learning". In other words, teaching students to apply reading strategies while reading promotes their comprehension, reading speed, and motivation to read independently which in turn involves them more in the reading process.

Strategy instruction and students' greater autonomy

Responses from interviews and learning reflections suggest that ESI can strengthen learners' sense of self-regulation in learning. They held positive perspectives about their autonomous learning abilities relating to their English learning activities both inside and outside the classroom. Little (1991) notes that various manifestations of autonomy include learners' ability to work independently, their responsibility, and their capacity to make decisions for learning. Following the instruction, students appreciated the usefulness of reading strategies in helping them become more responsible and dedicated and make their own decision in reading process. Moreover, with the instructed reading strategies, they reported they read more materials outside classroom contexts such as reading notices, manual instructions or ESP materials in their field. The intention of using strategies in future learning tasks mentioned by the learners indicates their readiness to take charge of their learning process, which is crucial for autonomous language acquisition (Afflerbach et al., 2008; Gu, 2019). These findings are consistent with research by Chen and Pan (2015) and Samaie et al. (2015) showing that there was a positive correlation between students' use of language learning strategies and their autonomy. Izquierdo and Jiménez (2014) also concluded that "reading strategies are tools that take learners along the path of autonomy" (p.67).

In brief, the ESI program appears to have enhanced reading comprehension and given students greater confidence and motivation in dealing with English reading texts, both of which have an impact on their ability to take responsibility of their own learning and learn independently outside of the classroom without a teacher's supervision.

5.3. Summary of the chapter

This chapter provides the discussion of results obtained from the previous chapter to answer two major questions of the study. It investigated the use of reading

strategies by Vietnamese non-English major tertiary students and the effects of strategy instruction on reading skills and then related with other studies in the field to compare the results as well as to explain reasons for such gains. The findings reveal that the participants reported using reading strategies from medium to high level in three different stages of reading comprehension, which is in line with a plethora of researchers' results claiming that EFL students employed a wide variety of reading strategies to overcome reading difficulties and to comprehend the texts. There is evidence of the effects of reading strategy instruction on students' reading skills. The instruction was proved to help students develop their reading strategies awareness and repertoire, increase their reading speed and change their conceptualization towards reading process, and improve their reading scores. Moreover, the ESI also contributed to increasing students' confidence in reading. It also helped to expand their motivation of reading English texts to outside classroom context. Explanations for these improvements were also discussed and compared with other existing research in order to have a better understanding underlying reasons resulting those changes. The next chapter will summarize the main findings, draw out major conclusions and elaborate insightful implications for the classroom language teaching and further studies related to the research.

CHAPTER 6
CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This final chapter summarizes major findings and conclusions about the reading strategies used by non-English major students and the impact of the explicit strategy instruction on reading comprehension skill. It also discusses the contributions of the study and s the pedagogical implications in language teaching and learning. Some limitations and suggestions for future research are also addressed. The chapter ends with the researcher's final thoughts showing the obstacles encountered in the process of conducting the study.

6.1. Key Findings and Conclusion

Drawing on the framework for reading strategy instruction based on Khalifa and Weir's (2009) reading types and Carrell's (1989) types of reading strategies, the current study aimed at investigating the reading strategies used in the EFL reading process by Vietnamese non-English major tertiary students in reading English level 3 texts. Also, it explored how the students perceived the impact of the ESI. on the different aspects of the reading comprehension skill. The study aimed to explore (1) the strategies Vietnamese non-English major students used in reading English level 3/6 texts before receiving the reading strategy instruction and (2) their perceptions of the impact of the instruction. In order to gather qualitative and quantitative data for analysis, the study used different research tools, namely questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and learning reflections written by each student after the ESI. Results from the pre-instruction questionnaire showed that students tended to use global reading strategies to preview and predict the text such as "*focus on the key words from the title*" and "*look at any pictures/ illustrations*" in pre-reading stage. In the while- reading stage and post- reading stage, they employed more expeditious local strategies belonging to the problem-solving strategy category; "*translating from English into native language*", "*using reference material such as dictionaries*" and "*re-reading it once or more*" were reported to be used with a high frequency. Both qualitative and quantitative results indicated that translation seemed to play an important part in reading English texts for these students. Moreover, the students shared in the open- ended questions that their main difficulty was their limited

vocabulary and found this a source of frustration as they sometimes could not arrive at a coherent interpretation of a text through the first reading. Overall, at the beginning of the English level 3 reading course, the students arrived with some awareness of reading strategies. They were able to use previewing and predicting strategies to help them gain an idea of what a text was about before reading, but then favored slow, careful reading, using a dictionary and translation in dealing with the texts themselves due to their limited vocabulary size.

After the intervention, however, the findings from the quantitative post-questionnaire data suggest an increase in strategy usage in all the three reading stages. Specifically, the participants reported using global strategies more frequently in the pre-reading stage than those before the instruction. Meanwhile, the mean values of the four reading categories namely problem- solving, global, support and local strategies leveled up from medium to high use in the while- reading strategies compared with the frequency reported before the ESI. In particular, before the instruction, 'translating' and 'using a dictionary' were most often cited by the participants as their first choice strategies, but these decreased after the instruction. In contrast, 'skimming' and 'scanning' were less reported before instruction but were both frequently reported after instruction. The findings highlighted the students' awareness and use of strategies that had been taught such as *previewing and predicting, skimming, scanning, and summarizing.* There was also evidence of some reduction in reliance on translation and using dictionaries among participants. Some of the participants reported using 'translation strategy' and 'reference materials' (e.g. a dictionary) before the ESI. However, after receiving the instruction, the number of students reporting using this strategy decreased substantially.

In relation to the impact of the instruction, the findings of the current study showed the instruction benefited students in different ways. Firstly, the instruction was cognitively beneficial, through students' reported heightened awareness of using reading strategies in reading comprehension, expanded reading strategy repertoire and employment, greater reading fluency, and higher reading score. From a non-cognitive perspective, students reported added affective values such as greater reading confidence, motivation, and autonomy. Overall, the instruction was found to bring about the positive effects on students' development as skill readers.

6.2. Implications

The findings of the present study revealed the reading strategies employed by non-English major students in reading English level 3 texts as well as the impact of the instruction as perceived by students on their reading comprehension skill. Based on the results of this study, the implications and recommendations for teachers, students and materials writers are as follows:

6.2.1. Implications for teachers and classroom teaching

The results of the present study suggest that the explicit reading strategy instruction might be useful for EFL students in general and non-English major students in particular.

Firstly, the findings show that students reported using strategies such as previewing and predicting, skimming, scanning and guessing meaning of unknown words which directly changed the ways students interact with the reading text, from bottom- up to top-down approach. This implies that teachers should focus on introducing such strategies into classroom so that students re-conceptualize their reading process to have more active interaction with the text in constructing the meaning.

Furthermore, the findings also revealed that students were more motivated to read after the instruction. This implies that English teachers needs to incorporate ESI with their teaching in order to motivate students, especially non- English major tertiary students in reading both inside and outside classroom. Moreover, the findings also suggest that students became more autonomous after the instruction. Autonomy is an important factor which helps develop lifelong learning among students. Teachers should therefore be aware of the significance of this impact to promote students' self-study, a prerequisite for the credit system of learning and teaching that students have to acquire.

It is hence essential for teachers of English to raise students' awareness of the value of using reading strategies. Following an explicit approach to instruction based on declarative knowledge (knowing what strategies to use in different contexts), procedural knowledge (knowing how to use those strategies) and conditional knowledge (knowing why and when to use strategies) (Paris, Lipson, & Wixson,

1983), appears to be effective in training students to use reading strategies for reading at least in classroom and test settings. There may also be benefits in introducing ESI earlier in students' earlier English courses at college such as English level 1 and English level 2, which might be helpful for non-English major students. Since the transfer effects of reading strategy intervention only happen in intervention studies which last more than one year (Li et al., 2022). This suggests a good preparation for students for academic reading in higher education or reading in real life. Furthermore, it was clear from this study that even following strategy instruction, students tended to rely on reading sentence by sentence and translation, so earlier instruction in effective strategy use might help to prevent these habits from developing.

6.2.2. Implications for students

The findings of the present study also show that there was reduction in students' cognitive processing load and an increase in affective values as well as their reported reading test scores after the intervention. This implies students need to consider learning these strategies deliberately and develop their own repertoire of reading strategies in order to perform better in their reading comprehension skill. Moreover, as the students shared, more practice in reading both inside the classroom and beyond is required if they want to improve their reading effectively and to become successful or skilled readers. Therefore, students do need to play an active part in developing their skills. They should engage themselves in regular reading practice with the integration of reading strategies in their reading process. Regular reading will assist students to become strategic readers and to gain more benefits from their academic reading and reading in real life (Strickland, Ganske & Monroe, 2002).

What is more, it is obvious that not any strategy works perfectly with all learners, since learners vary significantly in personality, learning style, and learning motivation. As a result, students need to identify suitable strategies for them in order to get ultimate results in their learning reading.

It is also important to note that strategy instruction alone is not sufficient to bring about the best improvements in students' reading abilities, students need to incorporate with other factors such as self-motivation, desire for English learning and learners' autonomy development in order to perform better in learning to read in specific and meet the English learning outcomes in general

6.2.3. Implications for English materials writers

Materials writers should think about what strategies might benefit students in terms of academic reading and reading in real life and how a particular strategy is best applied and in what contexts; since the learning context of learners is the strongest variable that has an impact on the choice of their learning strategies (El-Dib, 2004).This would mean that strategies can be applied appropriately and effectively in a variety of reading situations and contexts as long as they are put into appropriate learning environments. Writers should also consider following the approach to the presentation of strategies taken in this study as it has been proved to be conducive to learning as reported by students and consider how it might be applicable to texts and tasks in more than one content domain. Since different text types and different reading tasks can result in different use of strategies (Barrot, 2016). Guidance should be incorporated in teachers' notes to help them to guide their students through effective use of reading activities. Writers should include sections on reading strategies, as well as reading activities that encourage students to draw on different global, support and problem-solving strategies.

6.3. Contributions of the study

The present study addresses the issues of reading strategy instruction in comprehending English level 3 texts. It aims to explore reading strategy repertoires and use among non- English major tertiary students. Furthermore, it also helps to raise teachers' English awareness of teaching strategy to EFL students in order to help them get better achievement in reading comprehension. This section focuses on the contributions of this dissertation. It addresses the theoretical, methodological and practical contributions of the research.

6.3.1. Theoretical contributions

The findings of the present study contribute to knowledge about how Vietnamese non- English major tertiary students respond to strategic reading instruction in an EFL learning context, as well as knowledge about the impact of the reading strategy instruction on students' reading from both cognitive and affective dimensions.

Firstly, theoretical frameworks for strategy instruction are presented. The present study based on framework of Khalifa and Weir's (2009) reading types and

Carrell's (1989) types of reading strategies. Both theory and empirical findings contribute to our understanding of reading strategy instruction and its effects on non-English major students' reading skill in reading English level 3 texts.

Another theoretical contribution is the framework for analyzing the process of strategy instruction, in order to gain an understanding of the interplay between strategy instruction and learners' reading skill in a specific context. To this end, the due process model can be used as a practical tool. A deeper understanding of what students actually do during the three reading phases could capture the overall trends of strategy use in each stage as well as the detailed sub-strategies that were used. In other words, more understanding of specific actions that students take in each reading stage can be elaborated.

6.3.2. Methodological contributions

The main methodological contribution of the research has been the mixed-method approach to explore the use of reading strategies and the effect of strategy instruction in local context. While other research focuses on reporting the differences in reading scores that participants achieved in their posttest after the instruction, the adaptation of the sequential embedded design in this study contributed towards the interpretation of students' perceptions of what they gained after the intervention with rich data from in-depth interviews and learning reflections.

The adaptation of SORS in the questionnaire of the present study also contributes to a deeper understanding of what readers report actually doing during the three different reading stages. While in SORS, researchers only figure out the use of different strategy categories in the reading process, the present questionnaire can provide more detailed strategies that students use in each stage of reading comprehension.

Another methodological contribution lies in the researcher's experience gained through the application of a mixed-method study and an interpretive approach and techniques applied for data collection. This experience may be useful for other studies on strategy instruction in the context of non-English major learning and teaching. In addition, the study displayed a methodological strength in use of questionnaire, interview and learning reflections in unpacking the impact of the instruction from students' own voices.

6.3.3. Practical contributions

The practical contributions of this study are the detailed insight into how to implement the reading strategy instruction in English language classrooms. Specifically, the present study helps interpret its impacts on learners' attitude and perceptions toward the use of reading strategies in reading English texts.

Finally, the study also contributes to the practical implications for teachers of English, EFL non-English major students and English material developers. The findings imply that for effective implementation of strategy instruction, emphasis should be placed on understanding the social cultural contexts of students, teachers and learning environments. The findings also offer hints that teachers should be involved in the curriculum development. With their knowledge, experiences and competencies, teachers are central to any curriculum development effort. Better teacher supports better learning because they are most knowledgeable about the practice of teaching and are responsible for introducing the curriculum in the classroom. Teachers' need to be empowered with techniques, skills and knowledge necessary for language learning in general and strategy instruction implementation in particular to make the curriculum a usable tool to assist teachers in the development of individualized strategies and the methods and materials necessary for them to be successful (Alsubaie, 2016).

6.4. Limitations of the study

The overall design of this study was subject to four major limitations that have implications for further research work. The first limitation is related to the small sample size of participants. The length of the course of instruction was another limitation. A six-week course of instruction may not be long enough to allow significant differences in reading abilities to emerge. Though the students in this study reported noticeable gains after the instruction, they still encountered difficulties in reading. Restrictions on time and resources made these limitations unavoidable for this study, but it would be interesting to conduct similar research on a larger scale and over a long period of time.

Next, the research may have had some limitations due to its data collection instruments. By using the questionnaire, interview protocol and learning reflections to explore students' perceptions and responses, what the research investigated were reflected rather than actual practice. The cognitive and metacognitive processes that

occur along with the use of strategies from the students when doing the reading process cannot be recorded and explained thoroughly. Future studies could consider using other instruments such as class observations, think-aloud protocols or learning diaries/logs to triangulate data for non-English major university students.

6.5. Recommendations for further research

Although the study has provided some invaluable findings and insights into the implementation of reading strategy instruction in EFL non-English major learning contexts, it also indicates various opportunities for other possible research studies in regards to this issue.

Firstly, the present study investigates the impact of strategy instruction on English reading skill for non-English major tertiary students. Similar research exploring the same issue for English major tertiary students in the same learning environment is worth conducting. It can triangulate the results of the present study. Also, it can further explain and provide insights into the impacts such an interactive reading model may bring about.

Secondly, the current study employed a within-group design to investigate students' use of reading strategies as well as their perceptions of the strategy instruction with the same participants. Further studies can focus on the comparisons between a control group and an experimental group to provide deeper insights into the impacts of strategy instruction.

Thirdly, the subjects of this study were students, further studies can focus on the instruction process from the teachers' viewpoints and beliefs using the socio-cultural theory framework to explain the support and guidance in strategy instruction procedure that the teachers provide for students.

Finally, one major shortcoming of this study may lie in the design of the research. During the planned data collection, the students in the present study were to opt for the online learning mode for an extended period of time after the six- week offline mode, which made the data collection procedures difficult to fulfill. Therefore, the actual reading performance of the students was not measured. Further studies can be carried out with a more appropriate design in order to yield more convincing and reliable results.

6.6. Final thoughts

This PhD course is one of the essential parts of my professional development. I have undergone various stages of the thesis development with great effort and determination. My research addresses a wide range of fundamental aspects in EFL reading, especially the impact of the strategy instruction on students' reading comprehension skill. The findings of this research hope to contribute more understanding into the benefits that explicit strategy instruction brings to non-English major students, which in turn, help them achieve the expected learning outcomes for English level 3 examinations.

I started my research at the time when the Covid-19 pandemic began to spread out all over the world. The process of data collection was the most challenging for me since this was an intervention research which required face-to-face interaction in class. However, after six- week instruction where the pre-test and the ESI were carried, the lockdown extended over 2 years made the experiment difficult to fulfill. As a result, the face-to-face post-test could not be administered to the students after the course. After a long period of time (14 months) waiting for the offline class to come so that I could go on with the unfinished work I made in the academic year 2020-2021, it was not known for sure when the pandemic would be over. I finally had to rely on the results obtained from the six-week intervention I made in the first half of the offline class in the year 2020. With the consultant of my two supervisors, I tried to compensate for the absence of the posttest with other data collection instruments, namely interviews and learning reflections.

The final draft of this thesis was made with constant efforts under the situation in which the whole world has suffered from devastating influences of the pandemic on social, educational, and personal aspects.

LISTS OF AUTHOR'S WORK

PAPERS

1. **Huỳnh Thị Long Hà (2021).** Language learning strategies for EFL learners. *Journal of Language and Life, 11B(319)2021, pp. 113-119. ISSN 0868-3409*

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1. **Huỳnh Thị Long Hà et al. (2018-2019).** Nghiên cứu chiến lược đọc hiểu của sinh viên tiếng Anh không chuyên tại Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Huế. Project sponsored by Hue University of Foreign Languages and International Studies

2. **Huỳnh Thị Long Hà et al. (2019-2021).** Chiến lược làm bài thi bậc 3/6 của sinh viên tiếng Anh không chuyên tại Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học. Project sponsored by Hue University

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APPENDICES

SURVERY OF READING STRATEGIES
(Adapted from Mokhtari and Sheorey, 2002)

Dear Participant,

The purpose of this survey is to collect information about the various strategies you use when you read English level 3 texts. Each statement is followed by five numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, and each number means the following:

'1' means that 'I never or almost never do this'.

'2' means that 'I do this only occasionally'.

'3' means that 'I sometimes do this'. (About 50% of the time.)

'4' means that 'I usually do this'.

'5' means that 'I always or almost always do this'. After reading each statement, circle the number (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) which applies to you.

Your answer will be confidential. There are no right or wrong answers, so please be open and honest in responding. Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. It is very important for the validity of my research that you answer all the questions honestly and conscientiously.

I appreciate your time and effort.

Most gratefully,

Participant's full name: _____

SECTION 1

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

Statements	Never	Occasionally	50%	Usually	Always
Before I read, I	1	2	3	4	5
1. plan what to do before I start.	1	2	3	4	5
2. have a purpose in mind.	1	2	3	4	5
3. read the title and sub-titles before reading the rest of the text.	1	2	3	4	5
4. focus on the key words from the title.	1	2	3	4	5
5. think what I already know about the topic.	1	2	3	4	5
6. think about how one sub-title relates to another sub-title.	1	2	3	4	5

7. look at any pictures/illustrations.	1	2	3	4	5
8. think about what information the writer might present.	1	2	3	4	5
When I read the text, I………					
9. read every sentence slowly and carefully to understand the text.	1	2	3	4	5
10. read the first sentence of each paragraph.	1	2	3	4	5
11. check my understanding when I come across new information..	1	2	3	4	5
12. guess the meanings of unknown words or phrases.	1	2	3	4	5
13. skip unknown words.	1	2	3	4	5
14. use contextual clues to help me understand the text better.	1	2	3	4	5
15. use English grammar to help me understand the text.	1	2	3	4	5
16. skim the text quickly to get the general ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
17. scan the text for specific details.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	1	2	3	4	5
19. translate from English into my native language.	1	2	3	4	5
20. distinguish between fact and opinion	1	2	3	4	5
21. re-read it to increase my understanding if the text becomes difficult.	1	2	3	4	5
22. analyze what the writer meant or tried to say.	1	2	3	4	5
23. take notes while reading to help me understand what I have read.	1	2	3	4	5
24. decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I use reference materials (e.g. a dictionary) to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I think about information in both English and my mother tongue.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key	1	2	3	4	5

information.					
29. I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	1	2	3	4	5
After reading the text , I ……………					
32. re-read it once or more if I do not understand it.	1	2	3	4	5
33. make notes on the main points as I remember them.	1	2	3	4	5
34. check if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
35. I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
36. I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I go back and forth in the text to find the relationships among ideas in it	1	2	3	4	5
38. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION 2.

Please complete the following information

1. Name _____

2. Age _____

3. Sex   ( ) Male   ( ) Female

4. Which grade did you start learning English? _____

5. Where did you live when you were in secondary school? ( ) city ( ) country

6. Name and location of secondary school _____

SECTION 3

Please answer the following questions

1. While reading English texts, what helps you understand the meaning of the text?

2. What helps you find the main idea in the passage?

3. What enables you to find the supporting details in the passage?

4. What strategies do you use most often?

5. What do you do if your first strategy/strategies do[es] not work?

6. Which reading strategies help you to have a better understanding of English texts? Why?

7. Is there anything you would like to add about your problems and strategies with reading in English?

PHIẾU KHẢO SÁT CHIẾN LƯỢC ĐỌC

Mục đích của cuộc khảo sát này là thu thập thông tin về các chiến lược khác nhau mà bạn sử dụng khi đọc các bài đọc tiếng Anh bậc 3. Theo sau mỗi phát biểu là năm số 1, 2, 3, 4 và 5, và mỗi số có nghĩa như sau:

'1' có nghĩa là 'Tôi không bao giờ hoặc hầu như không bao giờ làm việc này'.

'2' có nghĩa là 'Tôi chỉ thỉnh thoảng làm việc này'.

'3' có nghĩa là 'Tôi thỉnh thoảng làm điều này'. (Khoảng 50% thời gian.)

'4' có nghĩa là 'Tôi thường làm việc này'.

'5' có nghĩa là 'Tôi luôn luôn hoặc hầu như luôn làm điều này'.

Sau khi đọc mỗi phát biểu, hãy khoanh tròn vào số (1, 2, 3, 4 hoặc 5) đúng với những gì bạn thường làm trước, trong và sau khi đọc bài đọc hiểu.

Câu trả lời của bạn sẽ được bảo mật. Không có câu trả lời đúng hay sai, vì vậy hãy cởi mở và trung thực khi trả lời.

Cảm ơn bạn đã dành thời gian để hoàn thành cuộc khảo sát này. Điều rất quan trọng đối với tính hợp lệ của nghiên cứu của tôi là bạn trả lời tất cả các câu hỏi một cách trung thực và tận tâm. Tôi đánh giá cao thời gian và nỗ lực của bạn.

Xin trân trọng cảm ơn!

PHẦN 1

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

Phát biểu	Không bao giờ	Chỉ thỉnh thoảng	Thường	Thường xuyên	Luôn luôn
Trước khi đọc, tôi	1	2	3	4	5
1. lập kế hoạch những việc cần làm trước khi tôi bắt đầu	1	2	3	4	5
2. có mục đích trong tâm trí.	1	2	3	4	5
3. đọc tiêu đề và các tiêu đề phụ trước khi đọc phần còn lại của bài đọc.	1	2	3	4	5
4. tập trung vào các từ chính trong tiêu đề.	1	2	3	4	5
5. nghĩ về những gì tôi đã biết về chủ đề.	1	2	3	4	5
6. nhìn vào bất kỳ hình ảnh / minh họa trong bài đọc.	1	2	3	4	5
7. nhìn vào bất kỳ hình ảnh / minh họa trong bài đọc.	1	2	3	4	5
8. nghĩ về những thông tin mà người viết có thể trình bày trong bài đọc.	1	2	3	4	5
Khi đọc bài đọc, tôi….					
9. đọc từng câu chậm và cẩn thận để hiểu văn bản.	1	2	3	4	5
10. đọc câu đầu tiên của mỗi đoạn.	1	2	3	4	5
11. kiểm tra sự hiểu biết của tôi khi tôi bắt gặp thông tin mới	1	2	3	4	5

12. đoán nghĩa của các từ hoặc cụm từ chưa biết dựa vào ngữ cảnh.	1	2	3	4	5
13. bỏ qua những từ chưa biết.	1	2	3	4	5
14. sử dụng các manh mối theo ngữ cảnh để giúp tôi hiểu văn bản tốt hơn	1	2	3	4	5
15. sử dụng ngữ pháp tiếng Anh để giúp tôi hiểu văn bản	1	2	3	4	5
16. đọc lướt văn bản một cách nhanh chóng để nắm được những ý chính của bài đọc	1	2	3	4	5
17. đọc quét văn bản để tìm các chi tiết cụ thể.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Tôi điều chỉnh tốc độ đọc của mình theo những gì tôi đang đọc	1	2	3	4	5
19. dịch bài đọc từ tiếng Anh sang tiếng Việt để hiểu rõ hơn bài đọc.	1	2	3	4	5
20. phân biệt giữa sự kiện hoặc thông tin (fact) và ý kiến hoặc quan điểm (opinion)	1	2	3	4	5
21. đọc lại bài đọc để tăng hiểu biết của tôi nếu bài đọc trở nên khó khăn	1	2	3	4	5
22. phân tích những gì người viết muốn thể hiện hoặc cố gắng thể hiện.	1	2	3	4	5
23. ghi chú trong khi đọc để giúp tôi hiểu những gì tôi đã đọc	1	2	3	4	5
24. quyết định những gì cần đọc kỹ và những gì cần bỏ qua.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Tôi sử dụng tài liệu tham khảo (ví dụ: từ điển) để giúp tôi hiểu những gì tôi đọc	1	2	3	4	5
26. Tôi nghĩ về thông tin trong bài đọc bằng cả tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Tôi nghĩ về thông tin trong bài đọc bằng cả tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Tôi sử dụng các tính năng đánh máy như in đậm và in nghiêng để xác định thông tin chính trong bài đọc	1	2	3	4	5
29. Tôi sử dụng các bảng, số liệu và hình ảnh trong văn bản để tăng cường hiểu biết của mình.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Tôi cố gắng tưởng tượng ra hoặc hình ảnh hóa thông tin để giúp tôi nhớ những gì tôi đã đọc	1	2	3	4	5
31. Tôi gạch dưới hoặc khoanh tròn thông tin trong văn bản để giúp tôi ghi nhớ nó	1	2	3	4	5
Sauk hi đọc bài đọc, tôi…………					
32. đọc lại một lần nữa hoặc nhiều hơn nếu tôi không hiểu nó	1	2	3	4	5
33. ghi chú những điểm chính như tôi đã nhớ chúng	1	2	3	4	5

34. kiểm tra xem suy đoán của tôi về văn bản là đúng hay sai	1	2	3	4	5
35. Tôi tự hỏi bản thân những câu hỏi mà tôi muốn được trả lời trong văn bản.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Tôi phân tích và đánh giá một cách nghiêm túc các thông tin được trình bày trong văn bản	1	2	3	4	5
37. Tôi quay đi quay lại văn bản để tìm mối liên hệ giữa các ý tưởng trong đó.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Tôi cố gắng quay trở lại bài đọc khi tôi mất tập trung.	1	2	3	4	5

PHẦN 2.

Vui lòng hoàn thành các câu trả lời sau:

1. Họ và tên của bạn là gì: _____
2. Bạn bao nhiêu tuổi _____
3. Giới tính của bạn   ( ) Nam   ( ) Nữ   ( ) Khác
4. Bạn bắt đầu học tiếng Anh từ năm lớp mấy? ___
5. Khi học cấp ba, bạn ở đâu? ( ) Thành phố   ( ) Nông thôn
6. Tên và địa điểm trường học của bạn? _____
7. Bạn đã từng tham gia vào chương trình học tiếng Anh nào ngoài trường chưa?

PHẦN 3: Câu hỏi mở

Những câu hỏi sau đây nhằm giúp bạn nói rõ hơn về việc sử dụng các chiến lược trong khi làm bài của mình, bạn vui long đọc kỹ và trả lời theo đúng thực tế với bạn.

1. Trong khi đọc văn bản tiếng Anh, bạn làm gì để giúp bạn hiểu nghĩa của văn bản?
2. Bạn làm gì để tự tìm ý chính trong đoạn văn?
3. Bạn làm gì để giúp tìm ra những chi tiết bổ trợ trong đoạn văn?
4. Những chiến lược nào bạn thường sử dụng nhất?
5. Bạn sẽ làm gì nếu chiến lược / các chiến lược đầu tiên của bạn không có hiệu quả?
6. Những chiến lược đọc nào giúp bạn hiểu rõ hơn về các văn bản tiếng Anh? Tại sao?
7. Có điều gì bạn muốn bổ sung về các vấn đề và chiến lược của bạn khi đọc bằng tiếng Anh không?

APPENDIX B

READING MATERIALS FOR INSTRUCTION

WEEK 2- PREVIEWING AND PREDICTING

Previewing is simply means looking over your reading material in order to become familiar with its content before you actually begin reading it. In this way, you begin thinking about any experiences you may have had with the subject.

Previewing gives you the "big picture" of what is in store for you. Previewing gets you thinking about the material and your own experiences with it. Previewing helps you to better understand the information you are about to read and helps you get interested in the reading.

Previewing a Reading Passage The first step in effectively reading any piece of material is previewing. Previewing simply means looking over your reading material in order to become familiar with its content before you actually begin reading it. In this way, you begin thinking about any experiences you may have had with the subject.

Many students jump into a reading assignment by just beginning with the first word and reading on from there. This is not an efficient reading technique because it does not give you any real idea of what the material is about or where the author is taking you.

Previewing, on the other hand, gives you the "big picture" of what is in store for you. Previewing gets you thinking about the material and your own experiences with it. Previewing helps you to better understand the information you are about to read and helps you get interested in the reading.

Here are four steps to follow when previewing a reading passage.

1. Read the Title. The title often will give you the topic or subject of the reading passage. As you read the title, begin thinking about the reading passage. "What is the passage about?" "What kind of information will I learn?" "What do I already know about this subject?"

2. Read the First Paragraph. The first paragraph often will give you the main idea of the reading selection. As you read the first paragraph, continue thinking about the material. "Does the first paragraph give me any more specific information about the reading?" What do I know about this subject?" If the selection is very short, such as a single paragraph, you need to read just the first one or two sentences.

3. Read the Last Paragraph. The last paragraph often sums up what the author has to say. You get an idea as to what the author feels is most important. Again if the selection is very short, you need to read only the last one or two sentences.

4. Look Over the Passage. Move your eyes quickly over the passage. As you glance over the material, note any key words that might give you additional information about the main idea.

Previewing Steps: Remember THIEVES

Spend no more than 5 minutes!

• Title:

• Headings: Ask yourself: How is it organized?

• Introduction: Ask yourself: What is it about?

• Every First Sentence

• Visuals, Vocabulary

• End of reading Questions

• Summary/Conclusion: Ask yourself: What's important?

If my preview session was successful, I should be able to answer these

questions:

• What is it about?

• How is it organized?

• What's important?

PRACTICE (Adaped from Life, A2-B1, 2015, p.24)

Crazy competitions!

Ross McDermott and Andrew Owen travel round the United States going to differ
festivals and write about their experiences on the blog *The American Festivals Proj*
Many of these festivals are also competitions.

A The Idiotarod

The Idiotarod is an annual race in New York City. Each team must have five people
and a shopping cart. They can decorate their carts but they can't change the wheels.
All the teams have to start and finish at the same place but they don't have to run on
the same roads. The teams can choose their route but the members of each team
must arrive at the finish line together. And they mustn't finish without the cart!

B Mud Bowl Championship

Mud Bowl football is similar to normal American football. The match is shorter but there are two teams and a referee. The winner is the team with the most goals at the end of sixty minutes. The only real difference is that the players have to play in half a metre of mud!

C Combine Harvester Fight

Combine harvesters are normally on farms but, for one day every summer, in the small town of Hillsdale in Michigan, farmers compete against each other for a prize of $1,500. For three hours, the giant machines have to fight until only one combine harvester is still moving.

1. Based on the illustration and the title, what do you think the article will be about? Write down your predictions.
2. Look at the title, supertitle and subtitle. Then read paragraph 1.

Turn to a partner and discuss your predictions. Change them, if needed.

WEEK 3- SKIMMING

Skimming is another high-speed reading technique that can save you time and help you get through a text quickly. You skim to get the general sense of a passage, not specific details. When you skim, you should not read the whole text. Your eyes should move very quickly over the lines and you should read only the parts of the text that will help you answer the questions.

Activity 1:

Skimming practice 1

Get skimming! Give yourself 60 seconds to skim through the 'Size matters' paragraph below. When you are finished, cover the paragraph up before moving onto the questions.

Size matters
Here's something to think about the next time you go shopping. Have you ever noticed how many trolleys are available when you go to the supermarket? In my experience, it seems like hundreds! But how about the number of hand baskets? Invariably I struggle to find even one, especially when I only need a few items. Why might this be the case? Well it seems to be a tactic used to encourage us to buy more. If you are walking around with an empty trolley, you are more tempted to fill it, so if you a planning on only doing a quick shop, always try to find a basket. It will be lighter, easier to use and is sure to save you money!

Questions

Now test your skimming skills and answer the questions below in the space provided. Answers are on the following page.

1. What can you find in large numbers at a supermarket?

2. Why can this be a problem?

3. How can you avoid spending more than you planned?

4. Why is it a good idea to use a basket instead of a trolley?

Activity 2

Skim the following job advertisements:

1. Needed: Full time secretary position available. Applicants should have at least 2 years experience and be able to type 60 words a minute. No computer skills required. Apply in person at United Business Ltd., 17 Browning Street.

2. Are you looking for a part time job? We require 3 part time shop assistants to work during the evening. No experience required, applicants should between 18 and 26. Call 366 - 76564 for more information.

3. Computer trained secretaries: Do you have experience working with computers? Would you like a full time position working in an exciting new company? If your answer is yes, give us a call at 344-5487

4. Teacher Needed: Tommy's Kindergarten needs 2 teacher/trainers to help with classes from 9 a.m. to 3 p.m. Applicants should have appropriate licenses. For more information visit Tommy's Kindergarten in Leicester Square No. 56

5. Part time work available: We are looking for retired adults who would like to work part time at the weekend. Responsibilities include answering the telephone and giving customer's information. For more information contact us by calling 6. University positions open: The University of Cumberland is looking for 4 teaching assistants to help with homework correction. Applicants should have a degree in one of the following: Political Science, Religion, Economics or History. Please contact the University of Cumberland for more information.

Comprehension Questions
• Which position is best for these people? Now scan the text and choose ONLY ONE position for each person.

- Jane Madison. Jane recently retired and is looking for a part time position. She would like to work with people and enjoys public relation work. The best job for Jane is ....

- Jack Anderson. Jack graduated from the University of Trent with a degree in Economics two years ago. He would like an academic position. The best job for Jack is ....

- Margaret Lillian. Margaret is 21 years old and would like a part time position to help her pay her university expenses. She can only work in the evenings. The best job for Margaret is ....

- Alice Fingelhamm. Alice was trained as a secretary and has six years of experience. She is an excellent typist but does not know how to use a computer. She is looking for a full time position. The best job for Alice is ....

- Peter Florian. Peter went to business school and studied computer and secretarial skills. He is looking for his first job and would like a full time position.

The best job for Peter is ....
- Vincent san George. Vincent loves working with children and has an education license from the city of Birmingham. He would like to work with young children. The best job for Vincent is ....

* Adapted from: http://esl.about.com/library/reading/bl_read_jobad.htm

Activity 3

Skim the following information about different pen pals.
(1) Mary, 24 years old, comes from Scotland and would like to find a pen pal who comes from East Europe. She likes playing the piano and listening to jazz music. She is interested in history but does not like discussing politics.

(2) Kim Lee, 19 years old, comes from Seoul, South Korea. Kim loves travelling and hopes to visit Great Britain in the future. He would like a pen pal who is interested in discussing the differences between life in Europe and life in Asia. He loves listening to pop music and playing football in his free time.

(3) Pietro, 42 years old, comes from Argentina. He is a businessman and would like to find a pen pal who is also a businessperson and lives in North America. He is married with three children and likes using the Internet in his free time.
(4) Helga, 31 years old, comes from Germany and speaks French, English and Russian. She would like a pen pal who is interested in exchanging ideas about language learning. She does not like using computers for learning and believes that language learning can
only happen in a classroom.
(5) Jennifer, 18, comes from New Orleans in the United States. She is interested in discussing the political differences between East Europe and North America. She loves riding her horse, Jackie, and listening to jazz music. 6. Alessandro, 25 years old, comes from Rome. He is interested in finding a pen pal who speaks different languages and can exchange ideas on using the computer for learning purposes. He likes playing tennis and football in his free time.

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS

• Which pen pal is best for these people? Choose ONLY ONE pen pal for each person.

- Petr Vladovic, 18, comes from Serbia and would like a pen pal who is interested in discussing the current political situation in the world. He likes jazz and playing tennis in his free time. The best pen pal for Petr would be ....

- Tom Synder, 36, is a businessman from Toronto, Canada. He would like to find a pen pal from a different continent to discuss business practices and differences between his country and others. The best pen pal for Tom would be ....

- Olga, 32 years old, comes from Moscow, Russia. She is a historian and would like to find a pen pal who is interested in discussing the history of Russia before the communist regime. She is not interested in comparing different political systems. The best pen pal for Olga would be.............

- Jack, 27, is from London. His favourite pastime is learning languages. He goes to evening German and French classes and uses his computer to improve his German and French by visiting Internet sites. The best pen pal for Jack would be ....

- Stuart, 22, is from Dublin. He loves travelling and wants to visit Asia in the near future and would like a pen pal who likes playing football and who can tell him about the differences between life in Asia and Ireland. The best pen pal for Stuart would be.........
- Elisabeth, 35 years old, comes from Sydney, Australia. She likes learning languages, but does not like using modern technology. She is interested in finding a pen pal who also enjoys learning languages in a traditional manner. The best pen pal for Elisabeth would be.........

(Adapted from: http://esl.about.com/library/reading/bl_read_jobad.htm)

WEEK 4- SCANNING

Scanning is a way of reading. It is reading selectively to achieve very specific reading goals. When you scan, you look quickly at a text to find specific information such as a fact, a name, a number, a word and phrase. Make a clear picture in your mind of the information you are looking for. Move your eyes very quickly across the text without reading every word. When you find the information, stop and read the sentence to pick up the information you are looking for. If you scan a reading to find key words or phrases closely related to your purpose, it can help you decide if you should read the text again closely.

Warm-Up Activity Take 15 seconds to scan the repeated word in bold, and then underline it.

1. newspaper journal   periodical   magazine   newspaper review bulletin
2. geology   geometry   geology   psychology   physics logic   geography
3. anarchism socialism   conservatism Maxism Liberalism   capitalism anarchism
4. plumber   carpenter   stonemason plumber   glazier   welder   iller
5. sheikh   king   shah   emperor   prince   czar   sheikh
6. astronomy astrology astrophysics cosmology   astronomy meterologist astronomer

Activity1: Have a quick look through the advert below, then answer the questions on the next page.

Questions
1. What can you save from shopping at this place?
2. How many good reasons are there for shopping there?

3. What is the telephone number?
4. What can you earn with Argos?
5. What are the names of the catering firm?
6. How long does the offer last?

Activity 2: Scan the travel brochure on the next page and find the answers to the following questions as quickly as you can.
1) Where is Taman Negara National Park?
2) What does "Angkor Wat" mean?
3) Where is Halong Bay?
4) Which beach in the Philippines is on the list of the world's best beaches?
5) Which beach in Bali is famous for surfing and nightlife?
6) When was Angkor Wat built?
7) How many islands are there at Halong Bay?
8) Which two beaches in Bali do tourists go to for relaxation?
9) For what purpose was Angkor Wat built?
10) Which activity can you enjoy at Cat Ba National Park?

SOUTHEAST ASIAN TRAVEL ✈

Southeast Asia is one of the world's fastest growing travel destinations. The area offers everything from beautiful tropical islands and pristine beaches to thick jungles, diverse cultures, cuisines, and people. Southeast Asia has some of the best national parks and reserves in the world, an abundance of fascinating World Heritage sites, a variety of spiritual places to visit that represent the religions of the region like Buddhism, Taoism, Islam, and Christianity, and it has a huge supply of beaches and associated activities.
Some of the many exciting Southeast Asian highlights include:
Taman Negara National Park, Malaysia
This lush park is located on Malaysia's east coast. The variety of plants and wildlife are amazing and the scenery includes lazy, winding rivers and roaring waterfalls.
Angkor Wat, Cambodia
Angkor Wat, means "City Temple", and is a complex of ancient temples that is considered the most important architectural site in Southeast Asia. It was built in the 12th century to honor Vishnu, the Hindu god.
Bali, Indonesia
Land of the Buddha! Kuta, Ubud, Amed, and Sanur are all worth visiting. For the best surfing and nightlife, head over to Kuta beach. For relaxation, head up to Ubud, or even Amed if you're really looking for peace and quiet.
Halong Bay, Vietnam
Halong Bay is one of the world's natural wonders made up of at least 3000 islands in the Gulf of Tonkin, Vietnam. This is a World Heritage site that offers breathtaking views, many caves worth exploring, and hiking in Cat Ba National Park.
The Philippines

In the Philippines you'll find beautiful white beaches like Boracay, which is on the list of the world's best beaches. But there is more to the Philippines than just the beaches. The scenery also includes breathtaking waterfalls and miles of rice terraces

PRACTICE (Adaped from Life, A2-B1, 2015, p.51)

Activity 3: Scan the text and find the details to the following questions and decide whether the following statements are true or false.

The right decision?

In May 1985 two climbers, Joe Simpson and Simon Yates, left their base camp by a lake and started climbing the north face of a mountain called Siula Grande in the Peruvian Andes. This climb was incredibly dangerous but the two men were experienced climbers and physically fit. On Day 1, the weather was good and the climb began well. At night they made a snow cave and slept on the side of the mountain. Three days later, after some very difficult climbing and bad weather, the two men stood at the summit. Unfortunately, the weather was getting worse so they didn't stay long. As they were going down a mountain ridge, a disaster happened. Simpson fell and broke his knee. Quickly, Yates tied a rope to himself and then to his friend. He began lowering Simpson down the mountain and, for hours and hours, Yates helped Simpson get down the mountain. They were getting close to the glacier at the bottom of the mountain but suddenly Simpson slipped. This time he went over the edge of a cliff. He was hanging in mid-air. Simpson shouted up to Yates, but the wind was blowing loudly and Yates couldn't hear him.

Yates didn't know what was happening below. He waited for an hour but the rope was too heavy and it was pulling Yates down the mountain towards the cliff. He had two choices: hold the rope but then both of them might die, or cut the rope and survive. It was an impossible decision for Yates but, at the last second, Yates cut the rope and saved himself. Immediately, Simpson fell thirty metres into a crevasse. The next day, while Yates was desperately looking for Simpson, he found the crevasse. He called for Simpson but he heard nothing. Sadly, he decided that Simpson was dead. Yates didn't know it but Simpson was – unbelievably – still alive inside the crevasse. Simpson waited for hours but when he realised Yates wasn't coming, he decided to take a risk. He had some rope so he abseiled to the bottom of the crevasse. He managed to find a way out. For three days, Simpson drank water from the snow and ice. He crawled back towards the base camp and at four o'clock in the afternoon of Day

7, Simpson was very near.

In the middle of that night, Yates was sleeping in his tent at base camp when he woke up. He was sure someone was shouting his name. Excitedly, he ran outside and looked around. Finally, after searching and searching he found Simpson. He was lying on the ground, not moving, but he was still breathing. After a few days, the two men returned home and their story became famous. Unfairly, some climbers criticised Yates for cutting the rope. But, in 1988, Simpson wrote a book about the events and defended Yates. Simpson believed Yates made the right decision.

1. The accident happend while Simson and Yates were climbing up the mountain.
2. They didn't reach the top of Siula Grande.
3. Yates cut the rope because he wanted to survive.
4. Yates didn't look for Simpson afterwards.
5. Simpson managed to get to the base camp on his own.

WEEK 5- GUESSING VOCABULARY IN CONTEXT

There are many ways to help you guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context. Read the explanation below and study the examples.

1. Definition

A definition gives the meaning of a word. The writer may use words, phrases, or statements to define something. The writer uses key words, or signal words to identify a definition, so the reader needs to look for them.

See examples of key words below:

Key words

is/are	means/mean
is/are called	what this means is
is/are known as	consist of
is/are defined as	refer to
may be seen as	is/are described as

 e.g. Inflation means a rise in the general level of prices you pay for things you buy.

an unfamiliar word = inflation

signal word = means

the definition = *a rise in the general level of prices you pay for everything you buy*.

2. Restatement

The writer may use other words, phrases, or sentences to provide the meaning of a difficult word. It is called "restatement"; the writer repeats the word again or describes it in a different way.

Signal words for restatement are below:

Key words

or

that is to say

in other words

i.e. or that is

e.g. The surface of Africa consists mainly of plateaus, or large flat areas, although these occur at different levels.

an unfamiliar word = plateaus

 signal word = or

meaning = large flat areas

3. Punctuation marks

 Punctuation is used to describe the meaning of an unfamiliar word. The writer writes unfamiliar words and then uses punctuation with words, phrases, or sentences to explain the meaning of the new words. Such punctuation is below:

Key words

, commas

, , appositive

( ) parentheses

- - dashes

; semicolon

: colon

e.g. The use of computers to handle text, or word processing, was foreseen in the 1950s.

an unfamiliar word = handle text

signal punctuation = , ,

meaning: handle text = word processing

4. Examples

Examples help the reader to understand the meaning of new words without definition.

See key words or signal words used for showing examples below:

Key words

such as

like

for example, …

for instance, …

is / are

e.g. Use navigation buttons, such as, the "Next" button, the "Previous" button, the "Menu" button, and the "Exit" button, to go back and forth or jump to other topics while you are using your English software.

unfamiliar words = navigation buttons

signal word = such as

meaning = buttons on computer program that are used for turning on pages

5. Contrast

The reader can guess the meaning of new words by using signal words of contrast. These indicate the opposite meaning of the new words. See key words or signal words of contrast below:

Key words

but / instead of / even though / in contrast to yet / in spite of / although / as opposed to unlike / despite / however / on the other hand whereas / while / still / provided that

e.g. Although Dara and Vipa are very close friends, they are very different. Dara spends a lot of money to buy things while Vipa loves to economize.

a) spend more money Vb) save money c) buy more things than before d) keep things in a safe place

6. Similarity

The reader can guess the meaning of new words by using signal words of similarity. These refer to the words or phrases mentioned formerly.

See key words or signal words of similarity below:

Key words

like / similarly / in the same way as / the same as / just as

e.g. Indonesia is producing Ford cars and trucks. Soon, Thailand and Vietnam will be producing the same products with, no doubt, the same quality.

What does the phrase "the same products" mean? _____

What is your clue? _____

EXERCISES

First, study the example and then continue with the exercises below.

Sample sentence:

The snake **slithered** through the grass. It was hunting. You must discover what **slithered** means by using logic.

Here are your choices, and the analysis:

a) stopped moving

INCORRECT: the sentence above says THROUGH the grass. "Through" means there is some movement.

b) slept in the grass

INCORRECT: the sentence above says it was hunting. Snakes don't sleep when they hunt.

c) ate something

INCORRECT: the sentence above says it was hunting. Snakes don't eat when they are hunting. They eat AFTER they hunt.

d) moved or traveled

CORRECT ANSWER: the sentence above says THROUGH the grass. "Through" means that there is some movement.

Now, READ each sentence and CHOOSE the correct answer.

1. The tiger's **roar** could be heard in villages far away. What does **roar** probably mean?

A) food a tiger eats

B) a tiger's dream

C) a tiger's ear

D) a sound a tiger makes

2. I'm looking for a **unique** gift for my boyfriend; he appreciates unusual things.. What does **unique** probably mean?

A) fun, lively

B) special

B) beautiful

C) expensive

3. My **absent-minded** teacher loses his keys, his book and his chalk almost every day! What does it mean to be **absent-minded**?

A) be hateful

B) not pay attention

C) be intelligent

D) not like someone

4. You can trust the salesmen at that store because they always conduct business in an **aboveboard** manner. What does **aboveboard** probably mean?

A) honest, open

B) sneaky, dishonest

C) horrible, repugnant

D) strange, unusual

5. There are four kinds of meat: red meat, organ meat, fish and poultry.

A. mushroom

B. heart

C. lobster

D. chicken

6. When we spray chemicals towards weeds and grasses, there are some **<u>adverse</u>** effects on the environment. What does **<u>adverse</u>** probably mean?

A. interesting

B. unusual

C. indifferent

D. harmful

7. I can't believe it! Right in the middle of our conversation, Peter turned around **<u>abruptly</u>** and walked out of the room! What does **<u>abruptly</u>** probably mean?

A) formally

B) slowly, in no hurry

C) suddenly, without notice

D) quietly, in an unusual manner

8. After the harvest, we had an **<u>abundant</u>** amount of apples. We made apple pie, apple sauce, and apple juice because we had so many apples! What does **<u>abundant</u>** probably mean?

A) a shortage

B) not enough

C) very red

D) plentiful

9. Dinosaurs were heading towards **<u>extinction</u>** long before a gigantic asteroid slammed into Earth and wiped them out. What does **<u>extinction</u>** probably mean?

A. construction

B. expiration

C. disappearance

D. limitation

10. Needle and thread are **<u>indispensable</u>** tools for a tailor; without them he would not be able to work. What does **<u>indispensable</u>** probably mean?

A. unimportant

B. suitable

C. essential

D. interesting

PRACTICE **(Adaped from Life, A2-B1, 2015, p.75)**

Look at the reading text and find out the meaning of the underlined words from the context.

Masai rite of passage

The Masai are an African tribe of about half a million people. Most of them live in the country of Kenya, but they are also **nomadic.** Groups of Masai also live in other parts of east Africa, including north Tanzania and they move their animals (cows, sheep and goats) to different areas of the region.

There are many other African tribes but, for many people, the Masai are the most well-known. They are famous for their bright red clothing and their ceremonies that include lots of music and dancing. Probably, one of the most colourful ceremonies is the festival of 'Eunoto'. This is a rite of passage when the teenage boys of the Masai become men.

'Eunoto' lasts for many days and Masai people travel across the region to get to a special place near the border between Kenya and Tanzania. The teenage boys who travel with them are called '**warriors**'. This is a traditional name from the past when young men fought with other tribes. Nowadays, these warriors spend most of their time looking after their cattle.

At the beginning of the ceremony, the teenagers paint their bodies. Meanwhile, their mothers start to build a place called the 'Osingira'. It is a sacred room in the middle of the celebrations. Later, the older men from different tribes will sit inside this place and, at different times, the boys go inside to meet them. Later in the day, the boys run around the 'Osingira', going faster and faster each time. It is another important part of the **ritual.**

The teenagers also have to change their appearance at 'Eunoto'. Masai boys' hair is very long before the ritual but they have to cut it off. In Masai culture, hair is an important symbol. For example, when a baby grows into an infant, the mother cuts the child's hair and gives the child a name. At a Masai wedding, the hair of the bride is also cut off as she becomes a woman. And so, at Eunoto, the teenage boy's mother cuts his hair off at sunrise.

On the final day, the teenagers meet the **senior elders** one more time. They get this advice: 'Now you are men, use your heads and knowledge.' Then, people start to travel back to their homes and lands. The teenagers are no longer 'warriors'. They are adult men and now they will get married, have children and buy cattle. Later in life, they will be the leaders of their communities.

WEEK 6- SUMMARISING

A summary contains the main points without details. It is much shorter than a paraphrase, which is generally a similar length to the original text.

When writing a summary, remember that topic sentences usually provide the main idea in a paragraph and conclusions usually provide an overview of the content of a chapter or article

When summarising or paraphrasing, you should represent:

the author's original idea(s)

the degree of certainty with which the ideas are expressed

How to write a summary

To create a good summary of a text, you should identify:

its main ideas and intentions

the meaning

relevant details

the tone with which the ideas are expressed.

Use the following steps to write a summary.

Step 1

Use the structure of the text to locate the topic and main idea. Identify the purpose. Select only the relevant information. Write notes in point form.

Step 2

Write the summary directly from your notes with a different structure from the source. Use complete sentences.

Step 3

Refer to the original text to ensure your summary reflects its main ideas.

Example

Time management is a critical skill for students to develop. Weekly and semester timetables are an excellent way to plan a study program. Students can use them to manage their most important study, work and social commitments and to set themselves study goals. Blocks of time can then be set aside for study, reading, researching and writing. The most urgent tasks can be addressed, whilst work continues on preparing for lectures, tutorials and assignments. If time has been

allocated for specific purposes, it is easier to avoid unexpected demands like phone calls, visitors and invitations. Assignments can be completed and submitted on time and to a satisfactory standard.

Summary

Effective time management allows students to utilise their time in order to successfully complete their study requirements.

(Adapted from https://emedia.rmit.edu.au/learninglab/content/summarising)

Activity 1:

Summarize the following text from the Voice of America website:

"Many thousands of Chinese are studying at schools in the United States. And writer Liel Leibovitz says the students are following an example that began in the eighteen seventies.

1. Mr. Leibovitz and writer Matthew Miller joined forces to tell the story of the students in their book, "Fortunate Sons." The book says China sent one hundred twenty boys to America to learn about developments that could help modernize their country." (American Documents the Country's First Exchange Students from China, Voice of America, learningenglish.voanews.com)
2. "Illiteracy is a problem in many of the world's poorest countries. Even in wealthier nations like the United States, many children struggle with reading and writing. But in 19 cities across the country [United States], the volunteers of Experience Corps are helping youngsters learn to read. The volunteers, all over 50, work with students in low-income areas." (Older Volunteers Help Children Learn to Read, Voice of America, voanews.com)
3. "Women entrepreneurs in the developing world often face challenges that limit their chances for success and growth. They often have less access to education than men and have difficulty getting financing on their own. But with an understanding of the essential aspects of doing business – such as planning, financing, networking and marketing – they can overcome those obstacles. That's where the 10,000 Women Initiative comes in. As Faiza Elmasry tells us, it's an investment in education with dividends that benefit the businesswomen, their local communities and their national economies." (Goldman Sachs invests in Educating Women in Business, Voice of America, voanews.com)

Write a summary of the text in English, including the most important points, using your own words whenever possible (maximum 50 words,).

As today's bride and groom celebrate their wedding, they have every excuse for being nervous. They exchange promises of lifelong fidelity and mutual support. However, all around them, they can see that many people do not and cannot keep these promises. Their own marriage has a one in three chance of divorce, if present tendencies continue. Traditional marriage is facing a crisis, at least in Britain. Not only are there more and more divorces, but the number of marriages is falling. Living together is more popular than before. The family is now no longer one man, one woman and their children. Instead, there are more and more families which include parents, half sisters and brothers, or even only one parent on her / his own. Although Britain is still conservative in its attitudes to marriage compared with other countries such as the USA, Sweden and Denmark, the future will probably see many more people living together before marriage - and more divorce. Interestingly, it is women rather than men who apply for divorce. Seven out of ten divorces are given to the wife. Also, one of the main reasons for divorce, chosen by ten times more women than men, is unreasonable or cruel behaviour. Perhaps this means that women will tolerate less than they used to. Writing a summary: possible answer. In Britain, there are more divorces than before and less / fewer marriages. These days people live together instead of getting married, and modern families are different from / than / to traditional ones. Usually the woman asks for a divorce, not the man, because her husband is cruel or not reasonable.

PRACTICE (**Adaped from Life, A2-B1, 2015, p.75**)
Look at the reading text and write notes about the 'Eunoto'. Use these headings and only write down the most important information from the article.
- Location
- Purpose
- Special clothing and appearance
- Special places
- Reponsibilities of older men and women

Now use your note to write a summary of the article.

Masai rite of passage

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different times, the boys go inside to meet them. Later in the day, the boys run around the

'Osingira', going faster and faster each time. It is another important part of the **ritual.**

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symbol. For example, when a baby grows into an infant, the mother cuts the child's hair and gives the child a name. At a Masai wedding, the hair of the bride is also cut off as she

becomes a woman. And so, at Eunoto, the teenage boy's mother cuts his hair off at sunrise.

On the final day, the teenagers meet the **senior elders** one more time. They get this advice: 'Now you are men, use your heads and knowledge.' Then, people start to travel back to their homes and lands. The teenagers are no longer 'warriors'. They are adult men and now they will get married, have children and buy cattle. Later in life, they will be the leaders of their communities.

APPENDIX D

CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS
CONSENT FORM FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPATION IN INSTRUCTION AND INTERVIEW

Project Title: **EXPLICIT READING STRATEGY INSTRUCTION AND EFL READING COMPREHENSION IN VIETNAMESE TERTIARY STUDENTS**

Contact: Ms Huynh Thi Long Ha, PhD Candidate, Hue University of Foreign

Languages, email: htlongha@hueuni.edu.vn

Declaration by the research participants (Please put a tick in the box or leave it blank to express your opinion. Thank you.)

☐ I understand I am being asked to provide consent to participate in this research project.

☐ I provide my consent for the information collected from me to be used for the

purpose of this research study and related publications to this project.

☐ I confirm that I have been informed about the strategy instruction process in relation to this research, and that I have had the chance to ask questions on the tasks and I am satisfied with the answers I have received.

☐ I understand that my participation in the study is voluntary and that I can

withdraw at any time without giving reasons by contacting the researcher, Huynh Thi Long Ha. If I choose to withdraw, the information I have provided will be destroyed if it has not already been analysed and aggregated.

☐ I understand that my task completion isn't used as the formal method for the

formative assessment or final assessment.

☐ I consent to participate in the study in forms of completing the B1 level English course, writing learning reflection and being interviewed.

☐ I consent to be recorded via the interviews recorded via voice recorder.

☐ I understand that all information I provide will be securely and confidentially

stored. I will be referred to by an ID code or a pseudonym in all publications

and presentations.

Name of participant   Date

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS &
EXTRACT FROM INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTS

I. INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How did you feel when you first did the reading test in this English- level- 3 course?

2. What did you do to overcome the reading difficulties when you first did the reading test in this English- level- 3 course?

3. How about after the ESI?

4. Did you find any changes in your reading skills? How?

II. EXTRACT FROM INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTS

T: Hello! Please introduce yourself

S1: My name is ....

T: I'm...

S2: My name is ....

T: How're you today?

S: I'm fine, thank you.

R: Ok, we're having informal interview today. How did you feel when you first did the English Level B1 reading test?

S1: The test was so difficult. I didn't understand what the text was about.

S1: I felt nervous because I couldn't understand the text

T: Did you understand any word?

S1: I sometimes don't understand because I don't know the meaning of vocabulary.

S2: Yes, there were many difficult words in the test.

S3: I agree

T: What did you do to overcome the reading difficulties when you first did the reading test in this English Level B1 course?

S1: I read slowly, word by word

S2: I translated the texts into Vietnamese to understand them

T: What about you, S3?

S3: Well, I also read slowly and translated. But there were too many new words in the reading texts.

T: How about after taking the course of strategy instruction? Did you find any changes in your reading skills? How?

S1: I've learnt more about the techniques or strategies. I used to read without any technique, and didn't understand the text at all.

S2: Before taking this course, my vocabulary knowledge was limited. But after I learnt the strategies such as skimming or scanning, I used these strategies that help me understand the text without looking for the meaning of every word.

S3: I gained some knowledge about reading strategies. They were very helpful to me. I felt much confident in reading English level B1 texts now.

T: That means strategies help you improved your reading skill, right? Were you nervous when reading now?

S: I felt better now but I was still nervous when taking the test.

S: Me too.

S: I was nervous when I got low scores

S: At the beginning, I got 8 scores, but I gained more scores later on.

S: Yes, because we can adapt to the technique.

S: For me, I feel ok. But if my friends scored higher than me, I feel worried.

T: OK, now I'd like to ask you about the role of English in Vietnam nowadays?

S: There are a lot of tourists travelling to our country.

S: Yes, we can make more money, and I've more opportunities to use English.

S: I think English play an important role when applying for a job. If you have a good command of English. It is advantage for you.

S: yes, yes

S: If you are good at English, you'll get more opportunities.

T: so you think that English play a big role in your daily life.

S: I read English on websites.

S: I think English is important for study in higher education.

S: yes, I think so.

T: How?

S: If you choose to study in this field, your English will be developed and you can further your education.

S: It's like English is for career. I want to be an English teacher.

T: you mean that you'll use English for your career, right?

S. yes.

T: OK, let's talk about reading, how do you use reading in English in your daily life?

S1: A lot

T: Can you explain?

S1: I read the labels of product in English. Some products haven't got any instruction in Thai. So we have to read in English.

T: What else?

S2: I use English to read newspaper.

S3: I read English materials for my subject.

T: So you can use English to learn ESP?

S3: Yes, I read ESP materials for my major on the websites. There are so many English websites nowadays.

S1: I also read the signs on the public bus.

T: Ok. That means you use reading quite a lot in your daily life.

S2: I read the subtitle when watching English movies.

T: Can you read all of them?

S: Of course not.

T: This is also a good way to practice your English. You're supposed to do quite often in order to improve your reading. Now, I'd like to ask you about what methods do you think will be suitable for teaching reading?

S1: I think the method you use in class good but sometime when I use it by myself, I don't understand. I've to practice more.

S2: I agree, yes

S3: I always come across with unknown words.

T: So what methods do you think is suitable to teach reading, then?

S2: I think the reading strategies you taught is good but we have more reading.

S1: I can make use of reading strategies. It made me read the text more quickly. I read the first paragraph and last paragraph as you taught and I can understand the main idea of the text.

S3: I used to read from the beginning till the end. Sometimes, I read only five sentences and gave up because I don't understand. I've to use translation all the time.

S1: After learning strategies, I just skim the text, sometimes I read only the conclusion.

T: So now you know how to use strategies effectively for your reading success.

S2: Yes, I think so.

S: Me too.

S: Yes.

T: Thank you so much. Bye!

APPENDIX F

LEARNING REFLECTION

Your name: ………………………………………….

Dear Participant,

The purpose of this reflection is to collect information about your perceptions of the effects of reading strategy instruction in the English Level B1 course.

Your answer will be confidential. There are no right or wrong answers, so please be open and honest in responding. Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. It is very important for the validity of my research that you answer all the questions honestly and conscientiously.

1.Did you know anything about reading strategies before the instruction?

Before being instructed on English reading strategies, I did not know much about those strategies, but after doing many reading passages, I gained experiences for myself. Then I applied the methods that I found effective. First, read the question to determine the scope to answer, then scanned through the text to identify keywords or words similar to the question, took note them and then re-read those passages to find the answer.

2. What difficulties you normally have when reading English level B1 texts before the instruction?

I had difficulties in learning vocabulary because I don't have a good memory, I forget easily after learning. One more difficulty I think is that I can't understand the text as there are too many new words and grammatical structures unfamiliar to me. and the reading speed is quite slow. So I think, the most difficulty in reading English level B1 to me may be the new words.

3. After the SI in this course, what do you think about the improvements in the following aspects:

- Did your reading speed improve and how?
- Did your speed of finding the right answer improve and how?

- My reading speed is a bit faster now. I can skim a little bit; underline some of the main ideas you find; relate the previous words with the latter ones to guess the meaning; In addition, I can find the answers to some questions without translation.

- I think my speed of finding the right answer is not very fast, but if I can get used to it, get more exposure to the exercises with your guidance, I think it will also become a good strategy user, making it a good habit in my test taking strategies.

4. What strategies did you get to know thanks to the teacher's instruction in the English level B1 course and how did you apply those strategies in your reading process?

Thanks to your instruction, I learned strategies like scanning, skimming, guessing word meanings and summarizing main ideas. I used skimming and guessing strategies, summarizing main ideas. When I do the reading, firstly I will skim it, I will skip unknown words and guess the meaning of new words from the context. Then I recall and keep the main points in mind. The strategy of guessing the meaning of new words still needs more practice. I find strategies of skimming and summarizing main ideas very effective.

5. After reading strategy instruction, how did you use them in answering Multiple choice and gap-fill questions?

After the instruction, I applied it by skimming, without translating, underlining the main ideas and guessing the meaning of some new words.

6. Do you think that the SI helps you in your reading skill? Why/why not?

I think your teaching reading strategies is very helpful for my English reading comprehension. Since normally when taking an English test, I leave reading skill last and I spend too much time on it but I still don't get the desire result. So I need to work on this skill more. With the strategy instruction in this course, I can read better now. I can understand the texts using reading strategies like skimming, scanning, locate the main ideas and so on. It is time-saving. I get better scores in the reading tests after the course.

Did you feel motivated and confident in reading English level B1 texts?

I feel quite excited and more confident in the process of doing English Level B1 reading test. Firstly, the teacher creates a friendly learning context, she is wholeheartedly and does not put any pressure on me. Secondly, with the instructed reading strategies, I can read faster and get more comprehension of the reading texts without having to translate like before. This makes me feel motivated and confident in reading. And finally, a comfortable environment creates a relaxing mind and reading is no longer a burden to me now.

7. What challenges/difficulties you still encounter in reading English level 3 texts after the ESI?

The most challenge to me in reading English level B1 texts is still the new words. I find my vocabulary knowledge is still limited. Moreover, strategies such as skimming, guessing meaning of words from the context or summarizing are difficult to use properly in different reading tasks.