

THE RELATIONSHIP OF READING STRATEGIES AND SELF-EFFICACY WITH THE
READING COMPREHENSION OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN INDONESIA

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship of reading strategies and self-efficacy with the reading comprehension of high school students in Indonesia. A convenience sample of 138 high school students from a state high school participated in this study. To measure reading strategy use, the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) was applied. A self-efficacy questionnaire was developed to measure students' self-efficacy beliefs. To measure their reading comprehension ability, an English reading test taken from a practice book for National Examinations was adopted and administered to the participants.

The regression analysis results demonstrated that the overall use of reading strategies had a significant relationship with reading comprehension and it made a small contribution to the prediction of reading comprehension ability. The categories of reading strategies were not significantly related to reading comprehension. The results also revealed that self-efficacy had a significant relationship with reading comprehension and contributed as much as 20% to the prediction of reading comprehension. When the two independent variables were investigated simultaneously, the use of reading strategies had a non-significant relationship with reading comprehension while self-efficacy was a significant predictor of reading comprehension.

Dedicated to my late father, P. L. Tobing,
my role model of a lifelong learner.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Overview

Reading Strategies in EFL/ESL

In approaching a reading text in English, English as Second/Foreign language (ESL/EFL) students may use reading strategies to help them understand the text. The use of reading strategies differentiates proficient readers from novice readers because proficient readers are more aware of their reading process by monitoring the process and applying strategies when facing comprehension problems (Koda, 2005). Most readers may face comprehension problems while reading a text but proficient readers would face the problems by consciously applying effective reading strategies to solve the comprehension challenges.

Reading strategies, referred to as “the mental operations involved when readers purposefully approach a text to make sense of what they read” (Barnett 1989, p. 66), may be applied consciously and controlled by the readers, or unconsciously when the strategies have become automatic (Barnett, 1989). However, some researchers believe that strategies that have become automatic should be termed “skills”, and this automaticity is a differentiation between the terms “strategies” and “skills” making the two terms not interchangeable (Garner, 1987, Urquhart & Weir, 1998).

The use of reading strategies has often been correlated to reading performance although the systematic connections between sets of strategies and reading performance have

not been fully discovered (Koda, 2005). In his study, Anderson (1991) reported that students who used more reading strategies on both standardized test reading and textbook reading scored higher on reading comprehension, but there was no relation found between unique strategies and reading comprehension as readers with high comprehension and low comprehension both reported using the same processing strategies. Anderson (1991) suggested that readers should not only know what reading strategies to use but also how to use them effectively to make them proficient readers. Padron & Waxman (1988) discovered that some reading strategies may not help reading comprehension. Some of the reading strategies they investigated like stating the main idea several times and thinking about something else while reading may negatively affect students' comprehension as applying those strategies made them lose time allocated for the reading tasks.

Partially in agreement with Anderson's findings, studies in second language reading tend to show that high and low proficiency English learners use strategies differently and the variety of strategy use correlates with reading performance (Koda, 2005). In general, reading strategies show correlation with reading comprehension, and studies also show that low and high proficient students may use different strategies to comprehend a text, students may not know how to use strategies effectively, or some strategies are just not effective to help the reading process.

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is a motivational construct developed by Bandura (1986, 1997) in social cognitive theory, and it refers to one's belief to perform a particular task. Bandura (1986)

defines self-efficacy as “people’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (p.391). Self-efficacy concerns with the beliefs of what people can do regardless of the skills they actually possess. Besides one’s skills, self-efficacy beliefs are important requirements for competent functioning.

Self-efficacy beliefs are influenced by four factors, namely enactive attainment, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological state (Bandura, 1986). Enactive attainment refers to the authentic mastery experiences, successes and failures that people experience, and this factor is believed as the most influential source of self-efficacy. Successes raise efficacy beliefs whereas failures lower them. Besides own experiences, other people’s experiences may affect self-efficacy. Other’s successes may persuade people that they can perform similar tasks. Verbal persuasions can contribute to people’s self-efficacy beliefs that they can perform a certain task, and finally physiological state like stress and fear may also affect self-efficacy.

For students, self-efficacy beliefs are an important motivational construct to perform their learning tasks. Self-efficacy beliefs affect their choice of activities in that they avoid activities that they believe exceed their capabilities and they undertake activities that they believe they are capable to handle (Bandura, 1986). In addition to the choice of activities, Bandura stated that self-efficacy determines the effort and persistence that students spend in dealing with tasks. Students with strong self-efficacy will spend more vigorous and persistent efforts even when facing difficult tasks, whereas those with low self-efficacy will slacken their efforts and give up given the same situation. Their thought patterns are also influenced by their self-efficacy: highly self-efficacious students tend to attribute their failures to

inadequate efforts whereas lower efficacious students with comparable skills will attribute their failures to deficient abilities and are more vulnerable to academic anxiety (1986, 1995).

English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia

In Indonesia, a country that currently has 742 regional languages (Kompas, 08-11-2008), Indonesian serves as the national language and the medium of instruction and is a compulsory subject at schools starting from elementary level of education. Since Indonesia's independence in 1945, English has been taught as a compulsory subject at schools. The teaching of English had been integrated in curriculums starting from secondary to tertiary levels of education, but in 1994 English began to be taught starting from earlier age, so English began to be a part of curriculum at the fourth grade of elementary school. However, realizing the different situations in Indonesia's vast regions, the teaching of English at elementary school stayed as an option for elementary schools, not as a compulsory subject. The teaching English at elementary schools seems to change with the change of national curriculums. With the application of the new 2013 national curriculum, English would become an optional subject at elementary schools, especially private schools, but it is not allowed to be taught at state schools (Kompas, 10-11-2012). The government argued that at elementary schools, students should develop Indonesian as their mother tongue before they can learn a foreign language.

For most Indonesians, English is not actively used in daily interactions or in academic settings. In state schools, students learn English only for several hours per week during English subject. Middle school and high school students get only four hours of English

lessons per week, and only high school students majoring in language get five hours of lessons. At the end of high school level, students have to take National Examinations developed by the Ministry of Education and English is one of the subjects examined at the National Examinations. The English examination includes listening and reading comprehension, but excluding speaking and writing skills.

Despite the decades of teaching and learning EFL at schools, the English competence of Indonesian graduates is considered low. An example of their low language competence is that they can graduate from high schools after having six academic years of English lessons starting from middle school but cannot introduce themselves in English (Artsiyanti, 2002). This problem has become an issue in EFL teaching in Indonesia and some possible causes such as lack of exposure to English, insufficient teaching hours, and low English teachers' competence have been addressed (Yuwono, 2005).

According to Kachru (1992) who suggested that the use of English is stratified based on historical, sociolinguistic and literary contexts, Indonesia belongs to the “expanding circle” where English is used as the primary foreign language but not usually used in daily interactions. Therefore, the status of English in Indonesia is a foreign language and its teaching is often referred to as teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) as compared to the term like teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) to students learning English where English is used for their daily conversation like students in the “inner circle” such as USA and UK, and “outer circle” like Singapore and India.

Statement of the Problem and Theoretical Framework

Self-efficacy has been studied in various fields like sports (Feltz & Magyar, 2006) and health (Schwarzer & Fuchs, 1995) and is regarded as an influential element to performance. In academic field, self-efficacy has also been studied and is regarded as a strong predictor of academic performance (Pajares & Kranzler, 1995). However, the role of self-efficacy in EFL/ESL fields has not been widely studied. Klassen and Usher (2010) investigated the number of studies conducted on efficacy in various academic fields from the year 2000 up to 2009, and the results showed that there were only four studies conducted in second language learning compared to 60 studies in general teaching among 238 dissertations and theses written in English language during that period. Their study shows that the research on self-efficacy in second language as well as foreign language learning may still need to be conducted to give more contribution to the body of knowledge.

There have been some studies conducted to investigate the relationship between self-efficacy and learning strategies and the results show that the two variables correlate, so students with high self-efficacy tend to use more learning strategies (Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1990; Siew & Wong, 2005; Wang & Pape, 2004). However, many of those studies were conducted in mathematical and verbal areas (Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1990) or in English as first language settings (Schunk & Rice, 1991; McCrudden, Perkins & Putney, 2005). There have been few studies in ESL/EFL settings (Siew & Wong, 2005, Wang & Pape, 2004), and their studies were not specifically conducted in reading domain. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate if self-efficacy correlates with reading strategies and if the two variables affect reading performance especially in EFL setting in Indonesia.

Reading is particularly chosen because this language domain is a part of English National Examination at high school level in Indonesia.

Purpose of the Study

The focus of this study is to investigate the relationship of EFL self-efficacy beliefs and reading strategies on EFL language achievement. Specifically, this study aims at determining if the two variables influence reading comprehension in the context of secondary schools in Indonesia.

Research Questions

The research will investigate the following questions:

1. What is the relationship between the use of reading strategies and reading comprehension of high school students in one public high school in Indonesia? Can the use of reading strategies make an independent contribution to the prediction of higher reading comprehension?
2. What is the relationship between the English language self-efficacy and the English reading comprehension of high school students? Can higher language self-efficacy make an independent contribution to the prediction of higher reading comprehension?
3. Does having both higher self-efficacy and higher strategy usage predict higher reading comprehension than having higher self-efficacy or higher strategy usage alone?

Significance of the Study

The importance of this study is that it investigates the influence of self-efficacy beliefs to English proficiency in Indonesia, particularly in the secondary school context. It also investigates the relationship between reading strategies and reading comprehension in the field. This study will contribute to the understanding of the influence of self-efficacy and reading strategies to reading comprehension in EFL field.

Definition of Terms

Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is a principal tenet in social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy is defined as “people’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (Bandura, 1986, p.391). Self-efficacy differs from self-esteem in that the first is concerned with judgments of personal capabilities whereas the latter is concerned with judgment of self-worth (Bandura, 1997).

English as a Foreign Language (EFL). EFL refers to the status of English in countries where English is used as the primary foreign language (Kachru, 1992). The learners typically use their mother tongues in daily conversation in broad contexts like family, school, and religious practices. English is used only in limited contexts such as in international schools and professional meetings with expatriates or foreign organizations. Indonesia is one of the countries that use English as a foreign language.

English as a Second Language (ESL). ESL refers to the status of English in countries where English is typically used as a daily medium of communication. The countries may be in “inner circle” which represents the traditional bases of English as well as “outer circle” where English has been institutionalized as an additional language (Kachru, 1992). Indonesian immigrants studying English in US schools are considered as ESL learners, Singaporean students learning English in Singapore are also ESL learners.

Reading comprehension. Reading comprehension refers to reading ability or reading competence, and the terms are often used interchangeably. It is defined as the process of extracting and integrating information from a written text in English while applying readers’ background knowledge and knowledge of English language (Koda, 2005).

Limitations of the Study

Although self-efficacy and reading strategies may act as factors that contribute to students’ performance in EFL reading as this study seeks to investigate, there are other factors that may contribute to performance that are not parts of this study and consequently can limit its explanatory power. Aptitude and motivation, the two strongest predictors of language learning success (Gass, 2008), are not investigated in this study, nor other factors such as learners’ personalities and family background.

Moreover, the small number of the participants in this study may cause its findings limited in its generalizability to other populations.

Summary

Chapter I gives the overview of the self-efficacy beliefs and their significant influence on performance in academic fields. However, there are few self-efficacy studies found in ESL/EFL field. This chapter also gives an overview to ESL/EFL reading strategies and their relation to reading competence, and describes the condition of EFL teaching in Indonesian schools. The next chapter will review the literature concerning self-efficacy beliefs and reading strategies that is pertinent to this study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter discusses the literature relevant to this study. It covers literature in reading strategies in ESL/EFL settings, self-efficacy, and self-efficacy in English as second/foreign language areas.

Reading Strategies in ESL/EFL

Reading Strategy Classifications

In early second language reading field, reading used to be assumed as a passive process, primarily a decoding process of the author's meaning through the printed words, so problems in reading or comprehension were attributed to the decoding problems (Carrel, Devine, & Eskey, 1988). The decoding model was then considered inadequate because it did not take into account the reader's contribution to the reading process. The dissatisfaction to the early model of reading made reading researchers begin to view reading differently. Since 1979, they have viewed reading as an active process so second language readers would actively interact with a text not only by decoding the text but also by applying cognitive aspects such as reading strategies, inferences, and using background knowledge to produce comprehension (Carrel, Devine, & Eskey, 1988; Urquhart & Weir, 1998).

There have been some suggestions to classify reading strategies identified in literature. According to Chamot and O'Malley (as cited in Koda, 2005), there are three

categories of reading strategies based on their functions. The first category is cognitive strategies that are used to complete cognitive tasks such as inference and word-part analysis. The second category is metacognitive strategies, namely the strategies that are used to control the cognitive processes such as comprehension monitoring and repairs. The third one is social and affective strategies that are used by the readers to cooperatively interact with others during the reading process such as in asking assistance from others.

Anderson (1991) classified reading strategies into five categories, namely supervising strategies that are used to monitor progress in comprehension, support strategies to regulate processing behaviors, paraphrase strategies that involve local-information processing such as using cognates and word-analysis, strategies to establish coherence in text that involve global text information processing, and test-taking strategies that are used in completing a task in a reading test.

Reading strategy classification by Paris et. al (as cited in Koda, 2005) is based on time of use, namely before, during, and after, reading. Before-reading or pre-reading strategy is used to activate prior knowledge of the readers in relevance to the reading text. During reading strategies are used to identify main idea, make reference and cross-reference whereas after reading, or post-reading, strategies are used to review the text content.

Mokhtari and Sheorey's (2002) developed a survey called Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) to measure use of reading strategies and they used another classification scheme to classify the reading strategies. They classified reading strategies into three types, namely global, problem-solving, and support strategies.

The differences among the strategy classifications are identified in two factors. Some categorizations are based on cognitive and metacognitive strategies whereas the other categorizations on local and global information processing (Koda, 2005). The distinction of the categories is useful to the studies of reading strategies to identify the strategies used by students.

Use of Reading Strategies by ESL/EFL Learners

Reading is one of the language activities that are important to ESL/ELF learners. High proficiency in English is required for ESL/EFL students to get higher degrees in English medium schools or universities because they have to read academic materials in English. In Indonesia, a country in expanding circle, reading becomes an essential part of assessment in English subject in National Examinations at high school level. Consequently, reading strategies become important skills for the students to be able to read well.

Considering the importance of reading and reading strategies to ESL/EFL learners, some researchers were interested in investigating the use of reading strategies by ESL/EFL learners. A study by Jimenez, Garcia & Pearson (1996) tried among others to investigate the reading knowledge and strategy processes by Latina/o ESL learners in grades six and seven in the U.S. In their study, they included three groups, namely a group of eight bilingual Latina/o students who had good reading competence in English, and two smaller groups, three monolingual Anglo students and three bilingual Latina/o students with low competence in reading. The results revealed that the Latina/o group with high reading competence knew reading strategies like searching for cognates, words that are related across languages, and

translating. Other reading strategies that they used were using context to resolve unknown words, using prior knowledge, monitoring comprehension, making inferences, drawing conclusions, and asking questions while reading. Compared to the high competent Latina/o group, the low competent Latina/o group tended to regard finishing the reading tasks as their goal rather than focus on comprehension by applying strategies as the competent group did.

A study by Sheorey & Mokhtari (2001) investigated the use of reading strategies between two groups of college students: 150 native speakers of English and 152 ESL students in US. The results revealed some similarities and differences between the two groups. Both groups placed the same order of importance to the categories of reading strategies: cognitive, metacognitive, and support strategies. However, despite reading ability levels, the ESL students used support reading strategies more frequently than the US group. The high-reading ability students in US group considered support strategies more important than those with low-reading ability, whereas ESL group regarded support strategies as important regardless of their reading abilities. They concluded that the two forces to differentiate usage of reading strategies, namely non-nativeness and reading ability. Overall competence in English would often lead to improvement in reading ability in English. Besides language competence, poor readers were likely to be deficient in reading skills and strategy usage, whereas skilled readers were more able to monitor which strategies to use and how to use them while reading.

Kong (2006) investigated the use of reading strategies by four Chinese adult readers in the U.S. Two of the participants were taking English course to improve their English, one was a graduate student, and another one worked in the U.S. Additionally, they had different levels of reading competence. The study revealed some strategies that the participants

employed while reading English texts. Using contexts to find a word's meaning, using text structure, summarizing, using pictures to help understanding the text, using prior knowledge, making predictions, evaluating the author's viewpoints, monitoring their comprehension, and translating were reading strategies used by participants in this study. Furthermore, the results showed that the participants used some similar strategies such as using text structure, using prior knowledge, and evaluating the texts. However, they applied more varied reading strategies while reading English texts than reading Chinese texts. It seemed that reading in Chinese had become so automatic for them so they could subconsciously apply strategies required in reading Chinese texts like decoding characters and sentences, and intratextual connections, understanding illocutionary force.

In Malaysia, Hamdan, Ghafar, Sihes, & Atan (2010) explored the use of cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies employed by 57 students at a Teachers Education Institute. The findings revealed that during the phases of reading the students used high frequency of cognitive strategies such as using titles to predict the content of the text, using pictures to guess the content of the text, skimming, rereading to remedy comprehension. However, their overall use of metacognitive strategies fell into medium category with only some strategies were used more frequently, for example checking understanding, guessing the content of the text, using knowledge to help understand the text.

The studies above were conducted in ESL/EFL contexts to view the use of reading strategies by different age groups of ESL/EFL learners with different levels of English competence. They showed that regardless of age and language levels, ESL/EFL learners applied various reading strategies while reading an English text. However, more competent readers seemed to apply more strategies than less competent ones, and ESL/EFL learners

applied more varied strategies while reading in English than reading in their mother tongue. Language proficiency of the learners was also regarded as a variable that affects their reading ability, so the more proficient their English was the better they could read in English. Finally, learners also seemed to use one type of strategies more frequently than other types.

Major Hypotheses in Reading in First Language and Second Language

ESL/EFL learners can be regarded as bilingual because they have one language as their mother tongue and English as their second language. Considering that ESL/EFL learners have knowledge of two languages, there have been questions whether the interaction of the two languages affects second language reading, and whether reading competence and the use of reading strategies in their first language transfer to reading in English as their second language. Some researchers conducted studies to investigate such questions and also investigate if other factors interfere with reading competence in English as a second/foreign language.

There have been two major views regarding first and second language reading. Mark Clarke (1979) introduced Linguistic Ceiling or Short Circuit Hypothesis (Clarke, 1980) or Threshold Hypothesis (Cummins, 1979). This Short-Circuit hypothesis proposes the idea that first language reading competence only transfers to second language reading when the reader has reached a certain level of second language competence. In other words, only after the reader reaches a certain language level in the second language, they can read well and apply reading strategies in the second language (Clarke, 1979; Alderson, 1984). In addition to Short Circuit Hypothesis, another view believes that there are shared similarities between first

language and second language skills and the two languages are interdependent, and this view is called Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis (Cummins, 1979). This hypothesis therefore views that reading ability in second language is shared with reading performance in first language. Some studies have been conducted to prove each of these hypotheses in reading, but the findings have been inconsistent (Cui, 2010).

In order to investigate the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis, Verhoeven (1994) conducted a study involving ninety eight 6-year old Turkish children who had lived in the Netherlands since infancy. They were grouped into two: the first group consisted of 74 children were enrolled in a second language submersion curriculum with additional 3 hours instruction in first language per week, whereas the second group with 25 children were taught in a transition program where literacy was taught in their first language and subsequently in Dutch as their second language. Using a longitudinal research, he observed their development in lexical, morphosyntactic, pragmatic, phonological, and literacy abilities in their first and second language. His findings showed that transfer was limited at lexicon and syntax levels, but was positive at pragmatic, phonological, and literacy skills.

A study by Van Gelderen, Schoonen, de Glopper, Hulstijn, Simis, Snellings, & Stevenson (2004) was aimed at investigating the contributions of first language components like linguistic knowledge, processing speed, and metacognitive knowledge to second language reading comprehension. This longitudinal study involved 397 Dutch students who learned English as a second language, and the data was collected from grade 8 until they were in grade 10. The results revealed that there was no substantial contribution of processing speed to reading comprehension but there was a large contribution of metacognitive knowledge to both first and second language reading. They also found that

first language reading comprehension had a substantial influence to second language reading. Their findings support the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis that first language reading transfers to reading in second language.

In China, Jiang (2011) examined the relationship of first language literacy, second language proficiency, and second language reading ability at a university in China. The 246 participants were non-English major who learned English as a foreign language. The participants took a literacy examination in Chinese, an English college-entrance examination to measure their English proficiency, and two types of English reading assessment. The results showed that first language literacy was moderately correlated with second language proficiency, second language proficiency moderately correlated with second language reading ability, but the correlation between first language literacy with second language reading was low. Therefore, the study did not support the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis nor gave enough evidence to support the Threshold Hypothesis.

Introducing Short Circuit Hypothesis, Clarke (1980) suggested the idea that there is a language threshold that short-circuits the use of reading strategies in first language to reading in second language. He studied adult Spanish native students whose English proficiency was on similarly low level. By giving the students a reading test in their first language, Clarke differentiated the students into two groups: “poor reader” and “good reader”. The good readers relied more on semantic cues than on syntactic cues whereas poor readers relied more on syntactic cues. Given a reading test in English, however, the good readers focused more on syntactic than semantic cues. This finding suggested that the good readers would use the poor readers’ strategies in reading an English text.

The Short Circuit Hypothesis suggests that the limited command of English language possessed by low proficiency learners short-circuits their ability to read an English text despite their good reading competence in their first language. Having a good command of English would be important for effective reading. Furthermore, the reading skills in first language may and may not transfer to reading in English although good readers in Clarke's study performed better than poor readers in both Spanish and English (Clarke, 1980). However, given a reading text in English with a complex language or unfamiliar content, good learners would tend to adopt poor reading skills.

In relation to Clarke's Short Circuit Hypothesis, Alderson (1984) questioned if problems in second language reading was a reading problem or a language problem. He compared works on short-circuit hypothesis and reading universals hypothesis that states that second language learners use their first language reading skills to compensate for their lack of second language reading skills. He concluded that second language reading was both a reading problem and a language problem, but for second language learners with low language proficiency reading was more of a language problem.

Attempting to investigate the existence of language threshold in second language reading and the transfer of reading strategies, a study by Laufer and Sim (1982) revealed that intermediate-level EFL students who had mastered reading strategies in their first language did not use the same strategies when they read English texts. They also discovered that the students with higher language competence would have better reading performance. The researchers suggested that the use of second language reading strategies was a function of language competence and the reading strategies did not necessarily transfer from first language to second language.

Taillefer (1996) also attempted to prove the existence of language proficiency threshold and the use of reading strategies in first language in French university students. The students were grouped into two: low English proficiency and high English proficiency, and they were given reading tasks with varied complexities. The study revealed that both language proficiency and first language reading were significantly related to second language reading but were dependent on the task complexities. The more difficult the reading task was, the more important English proficiency became. The study also suggested that besides the two variables, English language proficiency and first language reading, there were other factors that affected second language reading such as self-confidence, motivation, or role models in language learning.

Similar to other studies above, Benedetto (as cited in Barnett, 1989) studied the relationship between language ability and the use of reading strategies in advanced ESL learners. However, her findings showed opposite results because the students actively used their reading strategies in first language to read English texts. Barnett (1989) assumed that the ability to use reading strategies in first language did not automatically transfer to that of second language, but it depended on some factors such as the extent of first language literacy, second language proficiency, and individual cognitive development. It was also thought that the results of this study might be different from other studies because this study involved ESL learners with advanced English proficiency.

The studies discussed above attempted to find empirical evidence on the Short Circuit or Language Threshold Hypothesis and Language Interdependence Hypothesis in reading. The findings show that first language proficiency may or may not transfer to second language reading competence. There are language systems that may transfer, but other systems may

not transfer. Additionally, some findings support the view that regardless of first language proficiency, low second language competence can cause problems in second language reading competence. The relationship between the three variables seems dynamic and depends on many factors such as the age of the learners and the difficulties of the reading tasks. Finally, some researchers suggested that apart from competence in first language and second language proficiency, there are many other factors influencing second language reading competence but those factors may not be thoroughly explored by the studies.

ESL/EFL Reading Strategies and Reading Ability

The relationship of reading strategies in first and second language by ESL/EFL learners have been widely studied as discussed in previous parts. The relationship of second language reading strategies to second language reading ability has also become a topic of some studies.

A study by Anderson (1991) investigated the use of reading strategies and test-taking strategies by second language learners facing two different tasks: taking a standardized reading comprehension test and reading academic texts. His findings revealed that language proficiency accounted for 39% of variance in a reading test and accounted for 16% of variance in academic reading measure. Language proficiency contributed to more variance than the reading strategies and test-taking strategies. He also found that there was no significant relationship between unique strategies to reading performance. High-scored readers seemed to use the same strategies as low-scored readers while reading an academic text or taking a reading test. He concluded that readers should not only know the strategies

but also know how to apply the strategies successfully. He added that strategy use may also be related to language proficiency because low-scored readers may know reading strategies to use but the lack of language proficiency hindered reading comprehension.

Padron & Waxman (1988) investigated the effect of cognitive reading strategy use to reading achievements of 82 Hispanic ESL students at third, fourth, and fifth grades of an elementary school. The results showed that from the number of reading strategies investigated, seven strategies, namely thinking about something else, writing down every word, skipping difficult parts, reading fast, saying every word over and over again, looking up words in a dictionary, and saying the main idea over and over, were negatively correlated to reading achievements. The following seven strategies, namely summarizing, underlining important parts, self-generated questions, checking through the text for memorization, asking questions when finding problems, taking notes, and picturing the story, had positive correlation with reading. Furthermore, after running regression analysis, they found that students' perception of cognitive reading strategy use was a significant predictor for reading achievements. They believed that some of the negatively correlated reading strategies were time-consuming and hindered concentration.

In EFL context, Rokhsari (2012) explored the relationship between reading comprehension and reading strategies especially cognitive, metacognitive, and test-taking strategies. The 60 Iranian university students who participated in the study possessed intermediate level of English proficiency. They were given a reading strategy questionnaire and a reading test, and they were then divided into high-scored group and low-scored group based on the reading comprehension test. The results of this study showed that there was a significant correlation between reading strategies and reading comprehension, meaning that

an increase in reading strategies would increase reading comprehension. There was also a significant difference between the use of strategies of high-scored group and low-scored group, suggesting that the high-scored group used strategies differently from the low-scored group. Finally, it was revealed that high-scored readers would use cognitive strategies whereas low-scored readers would use test-taking strategies.

The studies investigating the relationship between reading strategies and reading ability seem to produce different results. Although reading strategies are often regarded as a variable that correlates with reading ability, the studies reveal that reading strategies may be a variable that affects reading achievement, but may also be a non-significant variable. Similar to the studies in Language Threshold hypothesis, language proficiency is regarded as a variable that obstructs the relationship between reading strategies and reading ability.

Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Social cognitive theory contradicts the belief that behavior is controlled exclusively by external rewards and punishments, but the theory adopts the view that people have influence on their own actions and are regarded as self-organizing, proactive, self-reflecting, and self-regulating individuals instead of reactive beings following external forces or motivated by inner instincts (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 2006). In social cognitive theory, it is believed that people operate within an interactive causal structure involving the environment, one's behavior, and personal factors in the form of cognitive, affective, and biological events (Bandura, 1986, 1997; Pajares, 2006). The reciprocity of the three determinants is not of equal strength because their relative influence depends on the activities and circumstances. In

academic context, the reciprocity makes it possible for educators to direct attention to one factor or another in order to affect students' competence. Teachers can work to improve students' emotional states or negative self-beliefs, which fall under personal factors; they can improve students' self-regulatory habits, which are behavioral factors; or change the school and classroom structures, which are environment factors (Pajares, 2006).

In Bandura's (1986, 1997) social cognitive theory, self-efficacy is a central element to produce desired actions, without which people have little motivation to perform given tasks. Defined as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1996, p. 391), self-efficacy has been studied and regarded as a significant influence and predictor to performance.

The concept of self-efficacy is often confused with the concept of self-esteem, but Bandura (1997) stressed that the two terms refer to completely different concepts. Self-efficacy refers to people's judgment of their capabilities whereas self-esteem refers to judgments of self-worth (Bandura, 1997). Similarly, Schunk & Pajares (2010) further described that self-efficacy concerns with the questions "can", for example "can I do this reading task?" Self-esteem or self-worth revolves around the question of feel, for example "how do I feel about my writing skills?" People can be inefficacious in one activity without losing their self-esteem because they do not regard the activity worthy. On the contrary, people can have high self-efficacy in an activity but may not feel self-esteem in doing it when the activity is not socially very acceptable.

Self-efficacy is further differentiated from other concepts by Maddux (2000). Self-efficacy is not predictions of behaviors, so self-efficacy beliefs are not concerned with what I believe I *will* do, but with beliefs of what I *can* do. Self-efficacy is also not an intention to behave or to reach a goal. Self-efficacy beliefs are not genetically endowed personality traits or trait-like. Furthermore, self-efficacy beliefs can develop through one's experience and over a period of time.

Sources of Self-Efficacy Beliefs

According to Bandura (1986, 1997), self-efficacy beliefs are built through the following sources of information: enactive attainment or mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological state. Information from any of the four sources is integrated to the self-efficacy judgments after it is going through cognitive processes such as selecting and weighing the information.

Bandura (1986, 1997) viewed mastery experience as the most influential source of self-efficacy because it delivers the most accurate evidence to whether or not one manages to succeed. Successes form a strong belief in one's efficacy whereas failures especially that happen early in the course of events weaken self-efficacy. A success in performing a task, especially after putting a lot of effort in doing it, can persuade people that they have the abilities to succeed, and this can lead them to do better than their current performance and to succeed even at new activities (Bandura, 1997).

Although mastery experience is regarded as the most influential source of self-efficacy, self-efficacy appraisal still depends on other information such as vicarious

experience because people tend to compare themselves to others in similar situations and they assess their capabilities based on other people's achievements or failures (Bandura, 1997). Vicarious experience may be mediated by modeling task attainment. When someone in a group acting as a model manages to achieve a given task, self-efficacy of people in the group can increase, whereas watching a model fails to accomplish a task can decrease self-efficacy of others in the group. Concerning models in a classroom setting, students can experience higher self-efficacy increase by having peer models than teacher models in accomplishing a given task (Schunk & Hanson, 1985; Schunk, 1987). Students observing their peers with similar skill levels perform a task successfully are more persuaded that they can do the same task than observing a teacher whose skills are beyond theirs. Besides the skills of the models, similar attributes such as age, gender and ethnicity of the models can influence the impact of the model, such that more relevant models can have greater impact on efficacy. In addition, Schunk and Hanson (1985) suggested that having models, even teacher models, improve students' self-efficacy beliefs than not having one at all.

Another source of self-efficacy beliefs comes from verbal persuasion from significant others such as parents, teachers, or peers (Bandura, 1997). Getting verbal persuasions that they have the capabilities to perform a task makes people put greater effort in performing the task. Verbal persuasion may be conveyed in the form of evaluative feedback and it should be realistic to be effective. When the verbal persuasion given is unrealistic to their current skills, people may fail in performing the task and it may weaken their self-efficacy.

The last source of self-efficacy is physiological and affective state such as anxiety, stress or mood (Bandura, 1997). People tend to interpret their physiological state as an indicator of their competence (Bandura, 1997; Usher & Pajares, 2008). High level of anxiety

and stress can hinder performance and people tend to regard this situation as a sign that they are incompetent in performing the task. In situations requiring physical strength, people may regard fatigue, aches, and pains as signs of physical inefficacy. Bandura (1997) suggested that people can perform well when their physiological stimulation is neither too high nor too low. Increasing students' physiological and physical well-being can improve their self-efficacy.

In ESL field of study, Templin (2011) conducted a study investigating effects of self-efficacy sources on ESL beliefs and ESL performance, and investigating the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on listening, reading, and structure. The results showed that self-efficacy sources namely mastery experience, vicarious learning, and physiological state were significant predictors of self-efficacy beliefs.

EFL/ESL Reading and Self-Efficacy

Reading Competence

Urquhart & Weir (1998) defined reading as an activity in connection with language messages in written or printed form including Braille and hieroglyphics, but excluding musical notation. In their definition, mathematical figures, maps, bus time-tables are included as a reading activity. Central to reading is that it involves processing language messages that assumes knowledge of the language.

The term reading competencies often used interchangeably with reading ability because the two terms similarly stem from the same assumptions namely “that

comprehension occurs when the reader extracts and integrates various information from the text and combines it with what is already known” (Koda, 2005, p. 4). Therefore, reading comprehension or ability is concerned with readers’ background knowledge while interacting with the information from the text, during which process they apply their knowledge of the language.

Reading is generally viewed as an integral element of second language proficiency, and the assessment of reading behaviors is commonly used to evaluate linguistic knowledge. As a result, the assessment of EFL/ESL reading can serve two functions: to measure reading skills and to measure language ability (Koda, 2005). Koda further described the essential components in second language reading namely word recognition, vocabulary knowledge, intraword awareness and word knowledge, information integration, discourse processing, and text structure and comprehension.

In this study, reading competence in EFL setting may be defined as the process of extracting and integrating information from a written text in English while applying students’ background knowledge and knowledge of English language (Koda, 2005). Moreover, reading competence can also be used interchangeably with reading ability or reading comprehension.

ESL/EFL Reading Competence and Self-Efficacy

There are some studies conducted to investigate the relation of self-efficacy beliefs in language domains, but only few can be found in especially reading domain. In those studies, other variables that may be included were among others learning strategies, reading attitude,

reading anxiety, and gender. The studies mostly come with the results showing positive correlation between self-efficacy and reading ability in EFL.

Naseri & Zaferanieh (2012) conducted a study to investigate the relationship of self-efficacy beliefs, reading strategy use, and reading comprehension of 80 EFL junior and high school students in Iran. Their study revealed a significant correlation between self-efficacy beliefs and reading comprehension, and a significant relationship between self-efficacy and reading strategies. The students also used a variety of reading strategies with cognitive strategies as the most frequently used, followed by test-taking strategies, meta-cognitive, and compensatory strategies. Nevertheless, the students seemed to know and use a combination of strategies rather than only one category of strategies. Another finding from multiple regression analysis revealed that the four classifications of reading strategies contribute to the model, suggesting that the increase in the use of four categories of reading strategies would increase reading comprehension. Finally, their study showed that gender was not a significant variable in relation to self-efficacy beliefs and the use of reading strategies.

A study by Tercanlioglu (2002-2003) in an EFL setting in Turkey explored the relationships among language learning strategies, reading self-efficacy, and reading comprehension. She conducted the study on 184 pre-service teachers majoring in English teacher education at a university in Turkey. The participants were at the third year of 4-year study and their English competence was at least intermediate level or even higher. Her study produced some results; firstly, learning strategies variables and reading efficacy variables were correlated one to another. This suggested that those with high self-efficacy would apply various learning strategies in approaching a task. Secondly, language learning strategies were correlated with reading comprehension, suggesting that students with better reading

comprehension apply various learning strategies. Finally, there was a correlation between self-efficacy and achievement, where students with high efficacy had higher academic achievements than those with low efficacy.

A problem with the study by Tercanlioglu (2002-2003) was that the reading self-efficacy questionnaires used to measure self-efficacy did not have content validity because they did not measure the students' judgments of their capabilities in reading texts in English and did not specify the activities reflected in reading comprehension. Four items used to measure self-efficacy in her study were:

“English reading is my weak subject; my grades for English reading classes were not very good; I am good at reading in English; I liked reading classes” (Tercanlioglu, 2002-2003, p. 65).

In the results, Tercanlioglu (2002-2003) found out that the first two statements did not correlate with academic achievement and only the last two statements did. This might have been caused by the construction of the statements. In constructing self-efficacy measurements, Bandura (2006) suggested that the efficacy items should be phrased with *can do* statements because self-efficacy is judgment of capabilities. Moreover, the statements should be tailored specifically to the activity in the domain of interest (Bandura, 2006). According to Bandura, in measuring reading self-efficacy the statements should be phrased with *can* and the activity relevant to reading such as word recognition, vocabulary knowledge, or text structure.

Another study by Sani and Zain (2001) in Malaysia's ESL setting investigated the relationship of reading attitude, self-efficacy and reading ability, and gender differences

across the variables. Their study was conducted in an environment that did not encourage the use of English as a second language in Malaysian small town and rural schools because students in those areas would use English only for academic purposes at schools and used their local dialect and the national language for almost all other communication purposes. The participants of their study were 200 tenth-graders from two small town schools and three rural schools, and they had learned English as a subject since first grade and had been exposed more to English since seventh grade where their teachers used English in addition to Malay as the medium of instruction for math and science.

Sani and Zain (2001) used questionnaires to measure reading attitude and self-efficacy, and ran reading comprehension test to measure reading ability. Their results showed that girls had more positive reading attitude than boys. The results also showed that the correlation between reading attitude and reading ability was positive, meaning that those with positive attitude toward reading in English had better reading ability. Likewise, reading attitude had a positive correlation with reading efficacy which means that students with positive attitude toward reading in English had higher level of reading efficacy. Reading efficacy was significantly correlated with reading ability although the relationship was weaker than reading attitude-reading ability relationship, so students with higher level of reading efficacy had better reading ability. To conclude, Sani and Zaid (2001) believed that students in non-supportive English environment have apathy toward reading in English because English was not vital for school success and lacked intrinsic value.

For the questionnaire to measure reading self-efficacy and reading attitude, Sani and Zain (2001) adapted and translated a questionnaire from BJP Middle/Secondary Reading attitude survey into Malaysian, and from the questionnaire four items were allocated to

measure self-efficacy. The measurements used a five-point scale, namely strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, strongly agree. The statements were formulated as follows:

“I believe I am a poor reader in English; I believe that I am a better reader in English than most other students in my grade; Sometimes I think kids younger than I am read better English than I do; I can read in English as well as most students who are a year older than I am” (Sani and Zain, 2001, p. 248).

However, referring to Bandura’s (2006) suggestions about constructing self-efficacy questionnaires where the statements should be formulated with *can* and the ability relevant to reading as the domain measured, the first three statements did not comply with Bandura’s suggestions and they may tend more to address self-esteem construct instead. Additionally, Bandura (2006), Pajares, Hartley and Valiante (2001) suggested the scale of measurements should use a wider scale like a 100-point scale ranging in a 10-unit interval from 0 referring to “cannot do” to 100 referring to “highly certain can do”. Such scale would be more sensitive and reliable in measuring the beliefs than a traditional Likert format like five-point scale used in Sani and Zain (2001). A five-point scale would tend to have less predictive value because people may avoid extreme positions causing the responses to cluster in one or two points.

With EFL/ESL settings, the two studies show the positive relationship between reading self-efficacy and reading competence. However, the self-efficacy questionnaires in both studies seem to be inadequate to measure self-efficacy according to the proposed ideals by Bandura. Given more accurate self-efficacy questionnaires, the relationship between reading self-efficacy and competence might be stronger. This proposed study will develop a

more accurate self-efficacy questionnaire to measure reading self-efficacy in order to evaluate a more reliable relationship between the two variables.

Reading Strategies and Self-Efficacy

Besides its relation with reading performance, self-efficacy has also been studied in relevance to reading strategies. Reading strategies instruction plays a role in improving self-efficacy in reading comprehension. Schunk and Rice (1991) taught a group of remedial readers at an elementary school a comprehension strategy, namely to find main ideas in a text and gave them feedback on their progress. The second group in their study received the same instruction but did not get feedback, and the third group did not receive the reading strategy instruction. The results showed that the students who received instruction in reading strategies and progress feedback had significantly higher performance on reading tasks and self-efficacy than the other two groups. Their study stressed the beliefs that students who perceive the importance of reading strategies will apply the strategies effectively which then improve their reading skills, and they will feel that they have greater control over their learning which improve their self-efficacy. In contrast, students who perceive reading strategies as less important than other factors such as time availability or ability will neither apply the strategies effectively nor have a high level of self-efficacy in regard to their reading skills.

Similar to Schunk and Rice's study, McCrudden, Perkins & Putney (2005) investigated the impact of reading strategy instruction on self-efficacy and interest in the use of reading strategies. Their study was conducted in an elementary school involving 23 fourth-

graders with low reading ability, and the reading strategy instruction involved questioning, predicting, creating mental images and summarizing. After three sessions of strategy instruction and practice, the results showed that there was a significant increase in students' self-efficacy and interests in using the reading strategies. Their study also suggests that improving reading strategies may positively influence students' reading self-efficacy and students who have low reading ability can benefit from reading strategy instructions.

While the above studies were conducted in English as a first language setting, few studies investigating the relationship between reading strategies and self-efficacy were conducted in ESL/EFL settings. A study by Zare & Mobarakeh (2011) at an Iranian high school was aimed at examining the relationship among reading strategies that were classified into three categories: cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective, and reading self-efficacy. The results showed that the overall reading strategies in general and in each category were positively correlated with reading self-efficacy. However, cognitive strategy use had slightly a stronger correlation than metacognitive and socioaffective. It was concluded that students who believed that they could successfully use reading tasks would apply more reading strategies to accomplish the task than those who did not believe.

In Taiwan, Shang (2010) examined the relationship of reading strategies, self-efficacy, and EFL reading comprehension of fifty-three freshmen majoring in English whose English proficiency was at high intermediate level. In her study, reading strategies were classified into cognitive, metacognitive, and compensation strategies. After a semester of reading strategy instructions in the form of a reading course, the study produced some significant results: the students used more reading strategies, there was a significant correlation between all reading strategy categories with self-efficacy, and a positive

correlation between self-efficacy and reading achievement. However, there was no correlation between reading strategies and reading achievement. Shang concluded that the reading strategy instruction helped the students to use reading strategies more frequently, and the more they used reading strategies the more confident they were about reading English texts. On the other hand, some students still had problems applying reading strategies due to their language deficits and that would require the teachers to teach decoding skills in addition to the reading strategies.

The literature in reading strategies and self-efficacy both in English as a first language as well as in EFL/ESL indicate that there is a positive correlation between the two variables. The increase in the use of reading strategies correlates to the increase of self-efficacy beliefs, and the higher self-efficacy students have in their reading the more effectively they apply reading strategies. The increase in the two variables positively correlates to the increase in the students' reading competence. However, low language proficiency may affect the relationship between reading strategies and reading achievement.

Summary

Chapter II reviews the literature in reading strategies in first and second language, major hypotheses in first and second language reading, self-efficacy beliefs, the sources of self-efficacy beliefs, the relationship of self-efficacy and reading competence, and the relationship between reading strategies and self-efficacy. This chapter purposefully includes the literature in EFL/ESL field with an emphasis on reading. There are not many studies found that explore the relationship between reading competence, reading strategies and self-

efficacy, but these few studies showed that self-efficacy has an influential effect on reading competence, that self-efficacy is correlated with reading strategies. These studies also produced different results concerning the correlation of reading strategies and reading ability, where some produced significant relationship while others did not. In addition, no such studies have been done in the Indonesian context. Moreover, some of those studies used self-efficacy questionnaires that might have low predictive power. This study will develop a self-efficacy questionnaire that should avoid previous problems. The next chapter will discuss the methodology that will be applied in this study in order to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research methodology of this study. This covers the participants and setting, research design, procedure, instruments, and data analysis.

Participants and Setting

The participants in this study were high school students at a state high school in Jakarta. This school was chosen by convenience because the researcher is familiar with one of school staff so it was easier to obtain permission to include some of their students in this study. The participants were students from twelfth grade who would do a nationally standardized English examination at the end of their study.

The class size was approximately 35 to 40 students, and students from four classes participated in the study. They were from the school's two concentrations, namely natural sciences and social sciences. They were in twelfth grade, which means that they had learned English formally at school for more than five years and some of them might also have taken some private English lessons outside school. Because the students were not assigned to classes based on their English achievements, they came with varied English language competence in a class. Every class would have a mixture of students with low and high language competence. At the end of the school year, they would face standardized national examinations, one of which subjects was English.

To determine the sample size for this study that uses multiple regression analysis, Green (1991) suggested that this formula: $N > 50 + 8m$ (where N is the required sample size and m is the number of independent variables in the study) would be fairly accurate for a small number of predictors ($m < 7$). Because in this study there are two predictors or independent variables, a sample size of a minimum 66 participants, the number which is fulfilled in this study, is required to run the multiple regression analysis.

Research Design

To investigate the research questions in this study, quantitative form of inquiry was utilized. Regression analysis was applied to investigate the relationship and prediction of the independent variables to the dependent variable. The data of students' English self-efficacy and their use of reading strategies were elicited by a survey instrument. A reading assessment was administered to measure the students' English language reading comprehension and reading strategy usage. The design for the first two research questions is illustrated in the following figures.

| | |
|---|---|
| <p>1. What is the relationship between the use of reading strategies and reading comprehension? Can the use of reading strategies make an independent contribution to the prediction of higher reading comprehension?</p> | |
| <p>Independent variable (X1) : The use of reading strategies</p> | <p>Dependent variable (Y) : reading comprehension</p> |

Figure 1: Research Design for Research Question 1

| | |
|---|--|
| 2. What is the relationship between the English language self-efficacy and the English reading comprehension of high school students in Indonesia? Can higher reading self-efficacy make an independent contribution to the prediction of higher reading comprehension? | |
| Independent variable (X2) : English self-efficacy | Dependent variable (Y) : reading comprehension |

Figure 2: Research Design for Research Question 2

| | |
|--|--|
| 3. Does having both higher strategy usage and higher self-efficacy predict higher reading comprehension than having higher self-efficacy or higher strategy usage alone? | |
| Independent variable (X1) : The use of reading strategies Independent variable (X2) : English self-efficacy | Dependent variable (Y) : reading comprehension |

Figure 3: Research Design for Research Question 3

Procedures

After getting the permission to conduct the research at the high school, the data collection was conducted in early February 2013. The participants were in a mixed age group, some of them were 18 years old and older, whereas some were below 18 years old. Nevertheless, they were expected to participate in the research simultaneously. Therefore, the researcher applied and received the permission to waive the use of parental consent, and oral

consent form was used instead. At the beginning of the research, the oral consent form was read to the students participating in this study so that the students were aware of the purpose of the study and their roles in the data collection. They were informed that their participation was strictly voluntary and their confidentiality was protected.

During one of the English class sessions, the researcher began with explaining the directions for the completion of the English Self-Efficacy and Reading Strategies questionnaires to the participants and began distributing the questionnaires. Demographic data that included participants' names, gender, age, and use of languages at home were also collected. Upon the completion of the questionnaires, the researcher collected the entire returned questionnaires.

After completing the questionnaires, a reading comprehension assessment as described below was conducted to measure the participants' reading competence. Because during their school years the participants were prepared to take the National Examinations at the end of their study, the reading assessment adopted one of the practice tests for the national English examination. The National Examinations usually assess reading and listening comprehension, and for this research purpose the listening part was eliminated so the assessment included only reading comprehension part. The selected test was very similar to the reading portion of the National Examination in terms of length of the reading passages, the level of difficulty of the passage, the reading tasks, and the length of time for the assessment.

Instruments

The survey instruments used in this study were two types of questionnaires: the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) and the English Reading Self-Efficacy Questionnaire. Because all participants were Indonesian students, the questionnaires were translated into Indonesian language in order to ensure that all students understood the questionnaires. The translation included the researcher, a native Indonesian speaker, who translated the original English questionnaires into Indonesian. After that, two expert judges who are native Indonesian speakers and are also highly fluent English speakers verified the translation.

Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) (see Appendix B, C)

The use of reading strategies was measured using Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) developed by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) and translated into Indonesian language. Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) adapted SORS from Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSIS) developed by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002), a tool to measure the awareness and perceived use of reading strategies of native English speaking students. However, MARSIS had limitations to assess ESL students, so it was adapted to be suitable for ESL students and the new measurement was named SORS. This survey was intended to measure the metacognitive awareness and perceived use of reading strategies of adolescence and adults ESL students. This survey was field-tested by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) at two universities and the results indicated that the survey was reliable in measuring the awareness and perceived use of reading strategies for ESL students. This survey was suitable for academic reading context as was the reading assessment used in this study.

Survey of Reading Strategies measured three categories of reading strategies, namely global reading strategies, problem solving strategies, and support strategies (Mokhtari and Sheorey, 2002). The categories were made as follows:

Table 1

Reading Strategies Categories

| Categories | Items |
|------------------------|--|
| Global (GLOB) | 1, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12, 15, 17, 20, 21, 23, 24, 27. |
| Problem solving (PROB) | 7, 9, 11, 14, 16, 19, 25, 28. |
| Support (SUP) | 2, 5, 10, 13, 18, 22, 26, 29, 30. |

As not to confuse the participants, the category identifications namely GLOB, PROB and SUP were not shown on the questionnaires distributed to the participants.

The survey consisted of 30 items, with a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (“I never or almost never do this”) to 5 (“I always or almost always do this”). Participants were asked to circle the number of a statement that indicated the frequency of using a particular strategy, so a higher number meant a higher frequency of using a reading strategy. The overall average number indicated how often the participants believed they used the reading strategies in the instrument.

Because reliability was an important measure of an instrument, this survey instrument was examined for its reliability. The reliability test ensured that the instrument would produce similar responses if it were re-administered to the same participants. The internal

reliability of the scale was examined using Cronbach's alpha, an index of reliability to indicate if a set of items measured a single construct (Santos, 1999). After a reliability test was conducted, the results showed that this instrument had excellent internal consistency of the items as shown in the following table.

Table 2

Reliability Statistics of Reading Strategy Instrument

| Cronbach's α | N of Items |
|---------------------|------------|
| .905 | 30 |

English Reading Self-Efficacy Measure (see Appendix D, E)

Self-efficacy questionnaires are usually developed in each study due to the specificity of the self-efficacy beliefs measured in each study (Smith, Wakely, Kruif, & Swartz, 2003). Therefore, the self-efficacy questionnaire was constructed by the researcher. To ensure the content validity of the measurements, the English Reading Self-Efficacy questionnaire was developed based on suggestions from Bandura (2006) namely that the statements use *can do* statements reflecting the tasks measured in the reading assessment. This was to make sure that the self-efficacy instrument accurately matched with the performance measures in the reading assessment. Additionally, as suggested by Pajares, Hartley and Valiante (2001), the response scale ranges from 0 (cannot do) to 100 (highly certain can do) with 10-point

intervals to ensure the sensitivity and predictive ability of the measurement. This 101-point scale is more predictive than a 5-point Likert scale.

In spite of that, Smith et al. (2003) conducted a study on the optimum scales of self-efficacy questionnaires between a 0-100 scale compared to a 4-point scale (not sure, maybe, pretty sure, really sure). Their results showed that a 4-point scale was better than a 0-100 scale because the 4-point scale could deal with noise or non-systematic variance and could increase information or systematic variance. The process should increase reliability and produce better correlations with the dependent variable. However, the researcher decided to use a 0-100 scale on the self-efficacy questionnaire in this research because of its sensitivity, better ability to predict and the context of the research. As Pajares & Valiante (2001) stated that at school contexts students were typically graded in the 0-100 scale, students in Indonesia generally were also graded in such manner and were used to the concept. Therefore, the 101-point scale ranging from 0 to 100 was chosen in this research.

The English Reading Self-Efficacy questionnaire consisted of 10 statements that reflected the reading tasks in the reading assessment and asked the students to measure their capabilities to perform the reading tasks. As an example, one of the reading tasks required the students to find the main idea of the passage, and in correspond to that task an item of the self-efficacy measure was to ask the students to evaluate their capability to find the main idea from a text. The statements in the self-efficacy measure were developed in this basis.

To ensure the reliability of the self-efficacy instrument, an internal reliability test was conducted, and the results showed that the instrument had an excellent internal consistency of the items in this instrument as shown in the following table.

Table 3

Reliability Statistics of Self-Efficacy Instrument

| Cronbach's α | N of Items |
|---------------------|------------|
| .946 | 10 |

Reading Assessment (see Appendix F)

The English national examination in Indonesia covers two language domains, namely reading and listening, with listening added to the examination only in the last few years and contributing to a smaller percentage to the overall English examination. Considering the importance of reading competence to the national examination, reading is a language domain that is taught at English lessons at high schools and the students are exposed to types of reading tasks found on the national examination. Therefore, the students participating in this study were already familiar with types of reading tasks used in this study.

To measure students' reading ability, a reading assessment was administered. The assessment was taken from a published test preparation book and was similar to the English National Examination in terms of the length of reading texts, the level of difficulty of the language and the types of reading tasks. Because the English National Examination is nationally standardized, it is a measure used by high schools in Indonesia to decide their students' English performances. Therefore, using a reading assessment taken from a test

preparation book that mirrored the National Examination was considered relevant to the students.

Since the reading assessment was taken from a test preparation book published by an Indonesian publisher, it was necessary to ensure the naturalness and clarity of the language used in the assessment. Consequently, two native speakers of English proofread and edited the assessment. As a result of their editing, some sentences in the reading texts were rephrased for clarity and several answer choices were also rephrased.

An internal reliability test was also conducted on the reading assessment, and the results showed an acceptable internal consistency of the items in this instrument.

Table 4

Reliability Statistics of Reading Assessment

| Cronbach's α | N of Items |
|---------------------|------------|
| .705 | 35 |

Field Test of the Instruments

Before the research began, a field test of the instruments was conducted. The field test served two purposes, firstly to check the time required to do the questionnaires and the reading assessment, and secondly to check the comprehensibility of the items. The two

questionnaires and the reading assessment were tested with six students at twelfth grade from a state high school. As much as possible, the field test was conducted in a similar condition as the research was intended. At the field test, it was discovered that it took them approximately 15 minutes to finish the two questionnaires, and 60 to 70 minutes to do the reading assessment. Discussions followed the test where the students were asked if the items were comprehensible. As a result of the comments and discussions after the field test, some typos on the assessment were corrected.

Data Analysis

The quantitative data were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The specific data analysis tool used was regression, both simple and multiple regressions. There were two independent variables, the use of reading strategies and English self-efficacy. The dependent variable was reading comprehension that was operationalized in a reading assessment.

Summary

Chapter III gives a description of the participants and the setting of this study, a detailed research design, and a procedure of the research and instruments employed for this study. It also provides a description of how they are developed and presented. This chapter also describes the data analysis procedures used in the study. The next chapter will present the results of this study and a discussion of the findings.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter reports the descriptive statistics of the participants and the results of the statistical data analysis in answering the Research Questions 1 to 3 of this study.

Additionally, tables and figures were also presented to give detailed explanations.

Descriptive Statistics

The participants of this study covered 145 students in twelfth grade of a state high school. They were from four classes consisting of two classes in natural sciences concentration and two classes in social sciences concentration. However, a total of seven students were ineligible because they did not thoroughly complete either the questionnaires or the reading assessment. The total number of eligible participants in this study was 138 students.

There were more female (59.4%) than male participants (40.6%) in this study. The participants' ages ranged from 15 to 19 with the majority of them were 17 years old (76.1%). Indonesian language was the language used at home by the majority of the participants (82.6%) whereas the rest (17.4%) reported using other languages at home as an addition to using Indonesian. The languages mentioned were varied, some of which were Javanese, Sundanese, Batak, as well as Mandarin and English. Nobody reported using exclusively other languages at home. There were slightly more participants from Natural Sciences

concentration (52.9%) than from Social Sciences (47.1%). The following tables show the detailed demographics of the participants.

Table 5

Demographic Characteristics of the Participants (n =138)

| Characteristics | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------------|-----------|---------|
| <u>Gender</u> | | |
| Female | 82 | 59.4 |
| Male | 56 | 40.6 |
| <u>Age</u> | | |
| 15 | 2 | 1.4 |
| 16 | 11 | 8.0 |
| 17 | 105 | 76.1 |
| 18 | 17 | 12.3 |
| 19 | 3 | 2.2 |

Table 6

Languages Used at Home by the Participants (n=138)

| | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------------------------------|-----------|---------|
| Indonesian only | 114 | 82.6 |
| Indonesian and other languages | 24 | 17.4 |
| Other languages only | 0 | 0 |

Table 7

Study Concentrations of the Participants (n=138)

| | Frequency | Percent |
|------------------|-----------|---------|
| Natural Sciences | 73 | 52.9 |
| Social Sciences | 65 | 47.1 |

The independent variables in this study, reading strategies and self-efficacy, were measured using different scales. Reading strategies that were measured using the 5-point Likert scale had a mean of 3.40. According to the established criteria for strategy usage, the results suggested that the overall use of reading strategies was at moderate level. Self-efficacy was scaled in 0 to 100, and had a mean of 55.94. The mean score for reading comprehension that had a range of 0 to 100 is 47.74. Table 8 shows the detailed information.

Reading strategies consisted of three categories, namely global, problem-solving, and support categories. The results showed that problem-solving strategies were highly used

($M=3.61$) by the participants, whereas global ($M=3.29$) and support strategies ($M=3.41$) were used moderately. The detailed information is shown in Table 9.

In problem-solving category, five strategies were highly used, namely read slowly and carefully, get back on track when losing concentration, pay closer attention when text becomes difficult, re-read the text when it becomes difficult, and stop and think about the text. Table 10 shows the detailed strategies from the problem-solving category used by the participants.

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations of the Variables (n=138)

| | Mean | SD |
|-----------------------|-------|-------|
| Reading Strategies | 3.40 | .54 |
| Self-efficacy | 55.94 | 15.42 |
| Reading Comprehension | 47.74 | 13.67 |

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations of Reading Strategy Categories (n=138)

| | Mean | SD |
|----------------------------|------|-----|
| Global Strategies | 3.29 | .57 |
| Problem-Solving Strategies | 4.18 | .67 |
| Support Strategies | 3.01 | .56 |

Table 10

Use of Each Strategy in Problem-Solving Category

| Strategies | Mean | SD | Level |
|--|------|------|----------|
| Read slowly and carefully to understand the text | 4.12 | .88 | High |
| Get back on track when losing concentration | 4.18 | .89 | High |
| Adjust reading speed according | 3.05 | 1.08 | Moderate |
| Pay closer attention when text becomes difficult | 3.77 | 1.02 | High |
| Stop from time to time and think about the text | 3.59 | .95 | High |
| Picture or visualize information | 3.20 | 1.24 | Moderate |
| Re-read the text when text becomes difficult | 3.94 | 1.08 | High |
| Guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases | 3.38 | .96 | Moderate |

Pearson correlations were calculated to check the relationship between the independent variables to the dependent variable (see Table 11). The Pearson correlation results showed that reading strategies had a weak correlation ($r = 0.20$) with reading comprehension whereas self-efficacy had a moderate correlation ($r = 0.447$) with reading comprehension. Both correlations were significant at .05. Furthermore, there was a moderate, significant correlation ($r = 0.456$) between reading strategies and self-efficacy.

Table 11

Pearson Correlation Coefficients of the Variables (n=138)

| | Reading Strategies | Self-Efficacy | Reading Comprehension |
|-----------------------|--------------------|---------------|-----------------------|
| Reading Strategies | 1 | .456** | .209* |
| Self-Efficacy | | 1 | .447** |
| Reading Comprehension | | | 1 |

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Research Questions

There were three research questions investigated in this study, namely:

1. What is the relationship between the use of reading strategies and reading comprehension of high school students in Indonesia? Can the use of reading strategies make an independent contribution to the prediction of higher reading comprehension?
2. What is the relationship between the English language self-efficacy and the English reading comprehension? Can higher reading self-efficacy make an independent contribution to the prediction of higher reading comprehension?
3. Does having both higher self-efficacy and higher strategy usage predict higher reading comprehension than having higher self-efficacy or higher strategy usage alone?

Results of Statistical Data Analysis

This study used quantitative data analysis to answer the three research questions. A regression analysis was conducted to investigate the relationship and the predictive power of reading strategies on reading comprehension. For the second research question, a regression analysis was conducted to see the relationship of the self-efficacy and the reading comprehension. Regression analysis was also used to investigate the predictability of both independent variables to reading comprehension in answering Research Question 3. To answer the first two research questions, the independent variables were analyzed separately, whereas to answer the third research question, both independent variables were analyzed simultaneously with the reading comprehension. A .05 level of significance was used for all analyses.

Research Question 1

To investigate the relationship between the three categories of reading strategies and reading comprehension, an analysis with a multiple linear regression was conducted based on the three categories of the reading strategies, namely global, problem solving and support strategies. The results showed that the model was significant, $F(3,134) = 3.89, p = .010$, but every category of reading strategies was non-significant predictor for reading comprehension. The results also showed that support strategies had negative impact on reading assessment, whereas global and problem-solving strategies had positive impact on reading assessment. These results may indicate that the use of each category of reading strategies would not significantly predict reading comprehension.

Table 12

Multiple Regression Results of Each Reading Strategy Category (n=138)

| | R | R ² | b | β | t | Sig. |
|-----------------|------|----------------|-------|-------|-------|------|
| Model | .283 | .080 | | | | .010 |
| Global | | | 4.22 | .177 | 1.19 | .233 |
| Problem-Solving | | | 4.90 | .243 | 1.80 | .073 |
| Support | | | -4.66 | -.192 | -1.50 | .134 |

Dependent variable: Reading Assessment

After that, a regression analysis was run on the overall use of reading strategies to measure if reading strategies variable contributed to prediction of reading comprehension. The results of the regression analysis produced this model: $Y = 29.739 + 5.284 X_1$, where Y was reading comprehension and X1 was reading strategies. This model indicated that with one point increase of reading strategies there would be 5.284 increase of reading comprehension.

The regression analysis results also revealed that the overall use of reading strategies was a significant predictor for reading comprehension, $\beta = .209$, $t = 2.496$, $p = .014$ which was lower than $\alpha = .05$. Although the value was very small, 4 %, the model showed that overall reading strategies explained a significant portion of variance in reading

comprehension, $R^2 = .044$, $F(1, 136) = 6.230$, $p = .014$. The regression analysis results showed that the null hypothesis for Research Question 1 was rejected.

Table 13

Predictive Power of Reading Strategies to Reading Comprehension (n = 138)

| | R^2 | Adjusted R^2 | β | Sig. |
|--------------------|-------|----------------|---------|------|
| Reading Strategies | .044 | .037 | .209 | .014 |

In order to interpret the results of the regression analysis, the underlying assumptions regarding regression analysis were checked. The three assumptions were linear relationship between independent and dependent variables, homogeneity of variance, and normality of residuals. The residual histogram (see Figure 4) shows normal distribution of the residuals, the residual scatterplot (see Figure 5) shows that the error variances were equally spread across all levels of X axis, and the scatter plot (see Figure 6) shows the linear relationship between the two variables. Therefore, the assumptions of linear regression were met.

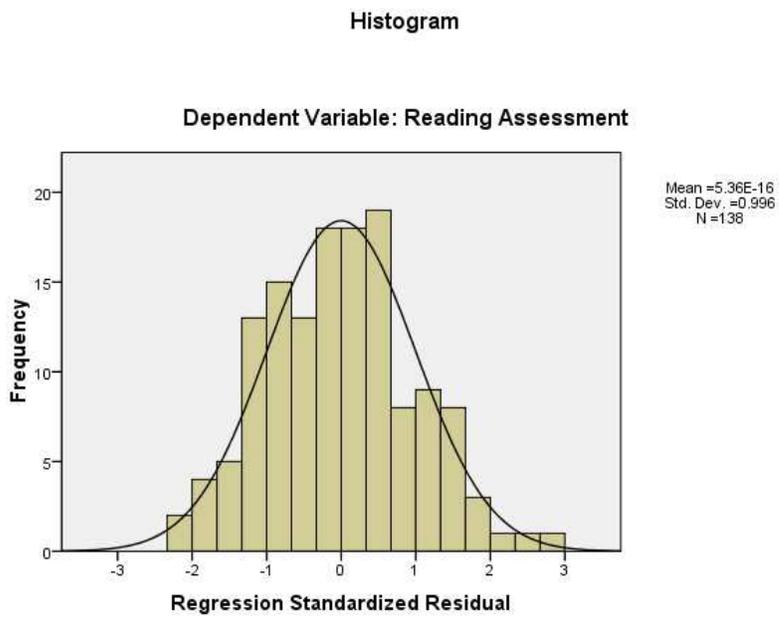


Figure 4 Histogram of Reading Strategies Variable

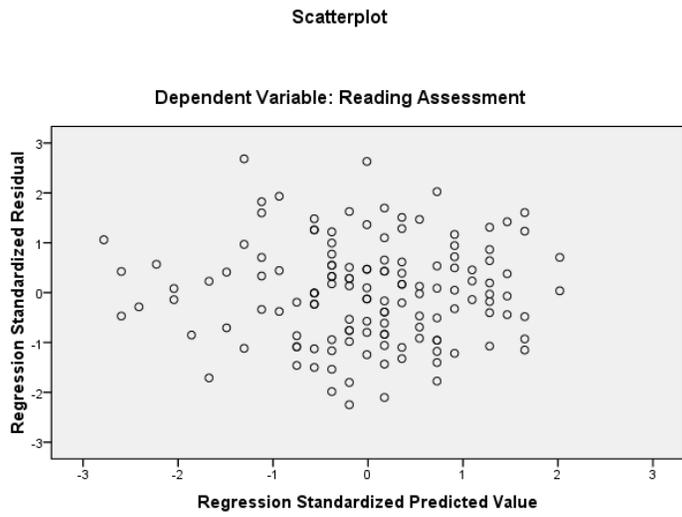


Figure 5 Residual Scatterplot of Reading Strategies

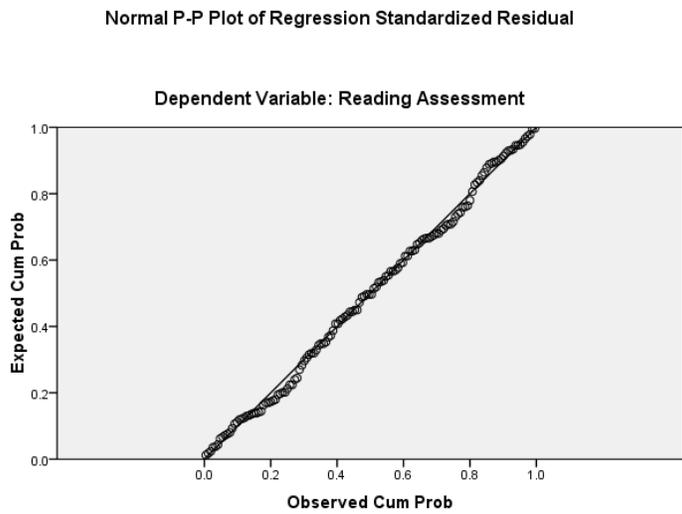


Figure 6 Scatterplot of Reading Strategies

Research Question 2

To examine the relationship of self-efficacy and reading comprehension, a regression analysis was conducted. The analysis produced the model: $Y = 25.553 + 0.397 X_2$, where Y was reading comprehension and X_2 was self-efficacy. This model showed that one point increase of self-efficacy would cause 0.397 point increase in reading comprehension.

Furthermore, the results showed that self-efficacy was a significant predictor for reading comprehension, $\beta = .447$, $t = 5.832$, $p = .000$ which was lower than $\alpha = .05$. The analysis also showed that reading strategies explained a significant portion of variance in reading comprehension, $R^2 = .200$, $F(1, 136) = 34.014$, $p = .000$. These results meant that as much as 20% of variance in reading comprehension was explained by self-efficacy. These results also meant that the null hypothesis for the second research question was rejected.

Table 14

Predictive Power of Self-Efficacy to Reading Comprehension (n = 138)

| | R^2 | Adjusted R^2 | β | Sig. |
|---------------|-------|----------------|---------|------|
| Self-efficacy | .200 | .194 | .447 | .000 |

For this research question, the underlying assumptions regarding regression analysis were also checked. The following figures show the normality, homogeneity of variance, and linearity between the variables. The assumptions of linear regression were thus met.

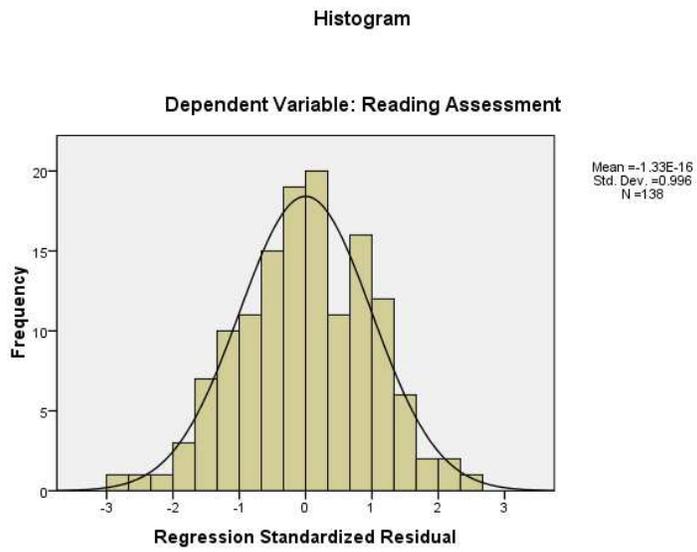


Figure 7 Histogram of Self-Efficacy Variable

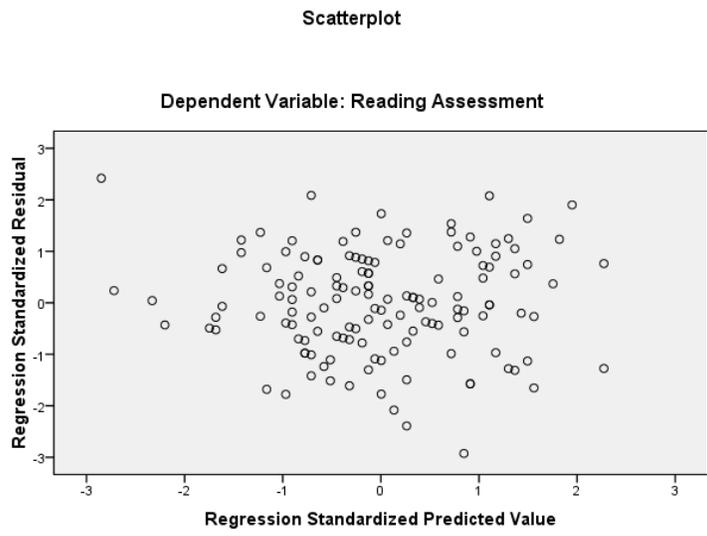


Figure 8 Residual Scatterplot of Self-Efficacy

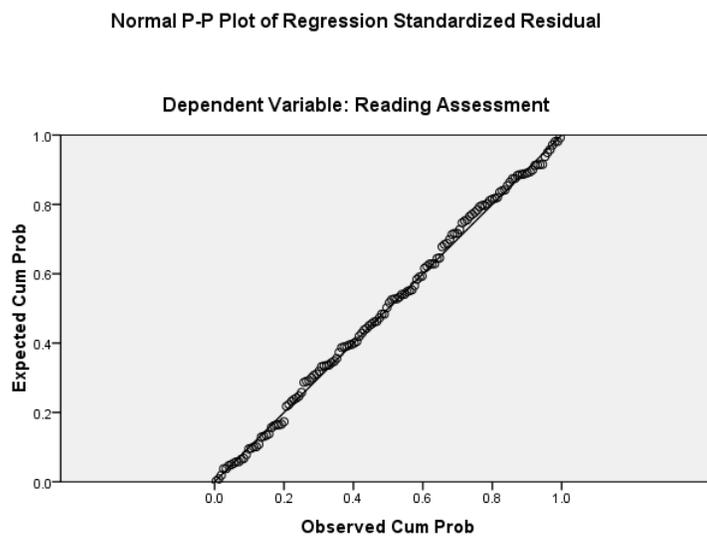


Figure 9 Scatterplot of Self-Efficacy

Research Question 3

To answer Research Question 3, a multiple regression was conducted by simultaneously entering both continuous independent variables, reading strategies and self-efficacy. The analysis produced this model: $Y = 25.139 + 0.165 X_1 + 0.394 X_2$, where Y was reading comprehension, X1 was reading strategies, and X2 was self-efficacy. The model showed that one point increase in reading strategies would increase 0.165 point of reading comprehension, and a point increase in self-efficacy would increase 0.394 point of reading comprehension.

The analysis also showed that the use of reading strategies was a non-significant predictor of reading comprehension, $\beta = .007$, $t = 0.76$, $p = .940$. Self-efficacy, on the other hand, was a significant predictor, $\beta = .444$, $t = 5.136$, $p = .000$. These results suggested that having both high use of reading strategies and high self-efficacy did not predict higher reading comprehension, because higher use of reading strategies did not significantly contribute to the model. Therefore, the null hypothesis for this research question failed to be rejected.

Table 15

Predictive Power of Reading Strategies, Self-Efficacy to Reading Comprehension (n = 138)

| | R ² | Adjusted R ² | β | Sig. |
|--------------------|----------------|-------------------------|---------|------|
| Reading Strategies | | | .007 | .940 |
| Self-efficacy | .200 | .194 | .444 | .000 |

The three assumptions of linear regression were checked and shown in the following figures. The residual histogram shows normal distribution of the residuals, the residual scatterplot shows that the error variances were equally spread across all levels of X axis, and the scatter plot shows the linear relationship between the two variables. The assumptions of linear regression were also met for Research Question 3.

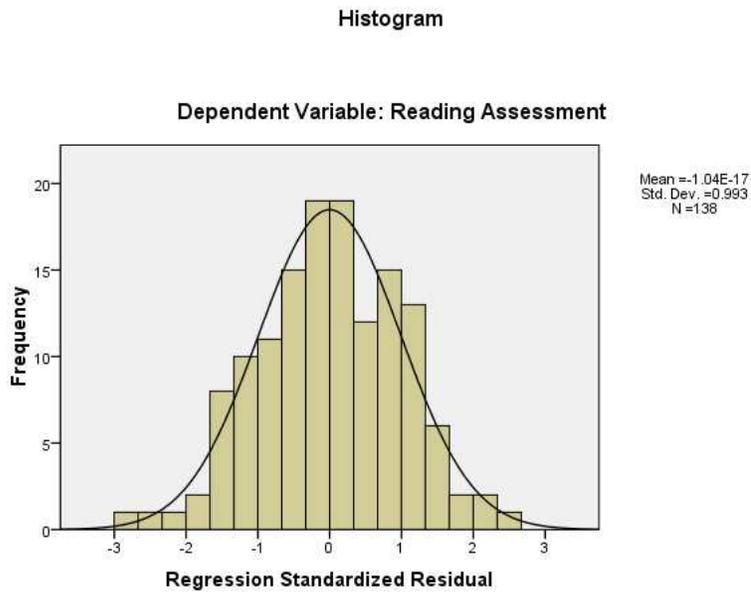


Figure 10 Histogram of Reading Assessment Variable

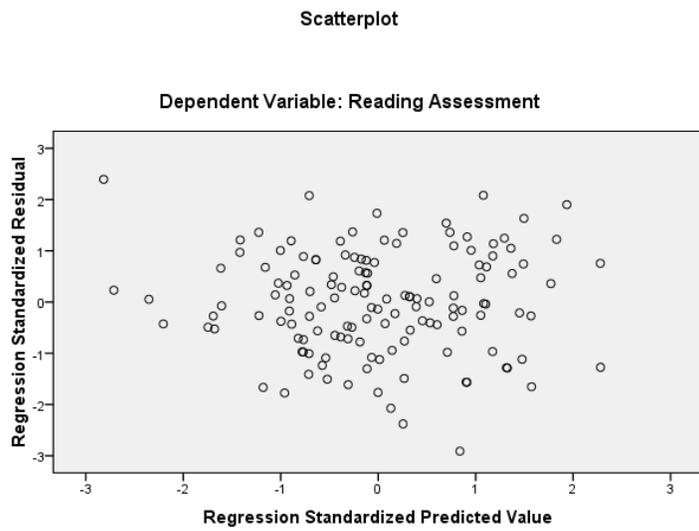


Figure 11 Residual Scatterplot of Reading Assessment

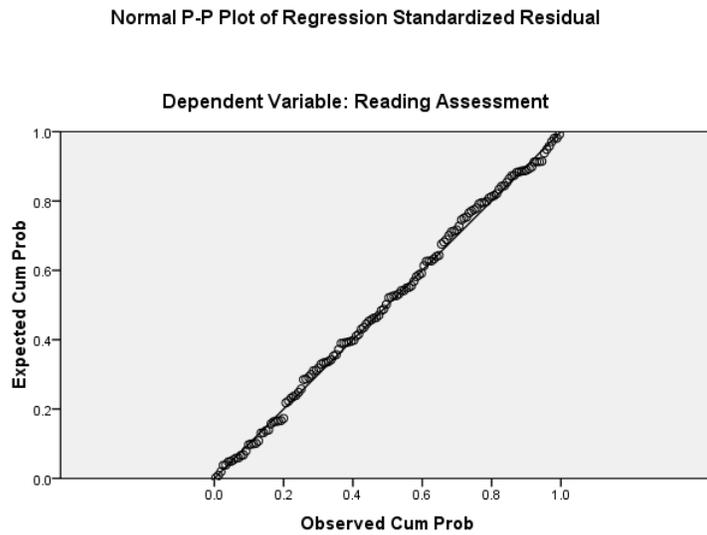


Figure 12 Scatterplot of Reading Assessment

Summary

This quantitative study used two instruments, survey of reading strategies and self-efficacy questionnaire, to investigate the relationships of the two independent variables to reading comprehension. Furthermore, the study aimed to see the predictive power of reading strategies and self-efficacy with reading comprehension. The results showed that the overall use of reading strategies had a significant effect on reading comprehension and had a small, significant contribution to prediction of reading comprehension. The null hypothesis for Research Question 1 was thus rejected.

The result of regression analysis for the Research Question 2 revealed that an increase in self-efficacy would increase reading comprehension. Self-efficacy was also a significant predictor for reading comprehension. Therefore, the null hypothesis for the second research question was rejected. The regression analysis of the Research Question 3 showed that the null hypothesis failed to be rejected. The results showed that when entered simultaneously, reading strategies did not have a significant relationship with reading comprehension whereas self-efficacy did. Self-efficacy was a significant predictor for reading comprehension. The next chapter gives an in-depth discussion, implications of the research, and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter provides discussion of the results of this study and suggestions for language educators especially in ESL/EFL field. This chapter also discusses the limitation of this study and provides recommendations for future research.

Discussion of the Findings

The purposes of this study were to investigate the relationship of reading strategies and self-efficacy to reading ability, and to discover the predictability of the first two variables to the latter. The findings in the first research question in this study revealed that the overall use of reading strategies had a weak ($r=0.20$) but significant relationship with reading comprehension. Additionally, overall use of reading strategies was a significant predictor for reading comprehension although reading strategies contributed only a small portion, 4%, to the model. These findings were very similar to Al-Nujaidi's (2003) study in Saudi Arabia where he found a weak correlation ($r=0.19$) of reading strategies to reading comprehension which might also indicate a small contribution to prediction model. In general, these findings supported previous research that revealed the use of reading strategies significantly correlated to reading ability. Padron & Waxman (1988), and Rokhsari (2012) found that use of reading strategies was correlated to reading comprehension and was a significant predictor for reading ability. This suggests that an increase of overall use of reading strategies can increase reading comprehension.

Additionally, every category of reading strategies namely global, problem-solving, and support categories, was non-significant predictor to reading comprehension. This might suggest that the types of strategies did not affect reading comprehension as Clarke (1980) described that good readers and poor readers would use similar strategies.

Another finding showed that the participants did not use all categories of reading strategies at the same frequencies. Among the three categories of reading strategies, problem-solving strategies were the ones that the participants most often used. These results were similar to Park's (2010) study in a Korean college. Al-Nujaidi's (2003) study in Saudi Arabia also had similar findings namely problem-solving being used more frequently than the other two categories. For their studies, Park used the same reading strategy survey i.e. SORS as this study used whereas Al-Nujaidi used a modified version of SORS. The problem-solving category seemed to be a category that some EFL students more frequently used than global and support categories.

The findings of the second research question showed that self-efficacy had a positive relationship with reading comprehension and was a significant predictor for reading ability in English. These findings suggest that an increase in self-efficacy would increase students' reading ability and having higher reading ability would increase students' self-efficacy. These results are consistent with Bandura's (1986, 1997) view stating that self-efficacy was an influential predictor to performance. Especially in ESL/EFL fields, these findings were also supported by previous studies by Tercanlioglu (2002-2003) and Sani & Zain (2001) whose findings showed significant relationship between self-efficacy and reading ability. Moreover, the findings showed that self-efficacy had a significant, moderate correlation ($r=0.456$) with reading strategies. Previous studies by Schunk and Rice (1991), McCrudden,

Perkins & Putney (2005), and Zare & Mobarakeh (2011) also produced significant correlation between self-efficacy and reading strategies. The positive correlation suggested that students with high self-efficacy beliefs would use more reading strategies.

The findings of the third research question, however, showed that having both high use of reading strategies and high level of reading self-efficacy did not contribute to higher reading comprehension because the use of reading strategies in this case was not a significant contributor to the model. Between these two variables, self-efficacy was the only variable that significantly contributed to reading comprehension. These findings were similar to Shang's (2010) findings which showed significant effect of self-efficacy to reading comprehension but non-significant effect of reading strategies to reading ability. Furthermore, the findings supported Anderson's (1991) findings that revealed non-significant effect of reading strategies to reading performance. Shang (2010) and Anderson (1991) concluded that some students had problems applying the reading strategies due to their low English language proficiency. The same condition may have happened in this current study. Even though their use of reading strategies were moderate, $M=3.40$ out of 5 points, their overall reading comprehension results, $M=47.74$ out of possible 100 points, were not very high, suggesting that there were some problems faced by the students concerning effective application of the reading strategies, their reading ability, or their overall language proficiency. The results suggested that the frequent use of reading strategies did not imply an effective use of the strategies. As a self-reporting survey, the reading strategy survey, however, was not able to indicate if the use of reading strategies reported by the students were used effectively.

Compared to the average passing standard for High School National Examinations which is 55% for all subjects (UN SD, 2012), an average of 47.44 for the reading assessment was lower than the established national standard score. This low achievement in reading comprehension assessment might indicate that the students had low English proficiency, as reading ability was closely related to language proficiency (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). Similarly, Short-Circuit Hypothesis (Clarke, 1980) and previous studies by Laufer & Sim (1982), Alderson (1984), and Taillefer (1996) stated that low language proficiency short-circuits ESL/EFL reading ability. The low English language proficiency of the students participating in this study may have caused their reading problems despite their moderate use of reading strategies.

The low results of the reading assessment also suggested that many of the students found the reading texts have high passage difficulty. Brown (1998) who conducted a study involving EFL university students in Japan found that certain elements in reading texts would account for 55% of passage difficulty. The elements were the number of syllables per sentence, frequency of the words in the texts, percentage of long words of seven letters or more, and percentage of function words. The texts in this study might include language elements which contributed to passage difficulty, a variable that might have affected the low reading assessment of the students.

Furthermore, the findings in this study suggest that the students may not have used the strategies effectively as Anderson (1991) suggested in his study results. Due to the self-report data for eliciting reading strategy use, the students may also have not actually used the strategies that they claimed they used (Singhal, 2001). Mokhtari & Reichard (2002) also declared that the perception of using the reading strategies did not mean that the students

actually used those strategies. Mokhtari & Reichard stated that “one cannot tell from the instrument alone whether students actually engage in the strategies they report using” (2002, p. 255). Nevertheless, the students in this study seemed to be aware of the use of reading strategies as they reported a moderate use of strategies in general.

Implications and Pedagogical Recommendations

Conducted in EFL setting in Indonesia, the findings of this study reveal that self-efficacy is a significant predictor to reading ability. Because self-efficacious students will be more motivated, vigorous and persistent in doing tasks (Bandura, 1986), these findings give insights to teachers and educators to the importance of enhancing students’ self-efficacy in the academic environment, which in turns can positively impact students’ performance.

Besides teaching the subject matter, teachers can devote considerable time to improve students’ self-efficacy by applying some strategies. Since students may find challenging reading texts, higher self-efficacy would even be necessary to ensure that the students would employ greater effort and persistence while facing challenges. Teachers can increase their students’ self-efficacy by providing peer modeling in accomplishing tasks. Peer modeling can persuade the students that they can also do the tasks (Ormrod, 2009). It is desirable that teachers use peer models with similar age, gender or reading ability with the students as such models would give stronger impact on students’ self-efficacy.

Besides peer modeling, teachers can provide anxiety-reducing strategies that can influence students’ affective state which is one source of self-efficacy belief. Oxford (1990) suggested three affective strategies that could be used in the classroom. Firstly is using

music, laughter or relaxation methods to lower anxiety. While a certain level of anxiety can help students reach a good performance, too much anxiety would be harmful for learning because it blocks the learning process. Secondly is to give encouragements like making positive statements, taking risks wisely and give rewards. Giving encouragements for accomplishments is important strategy to improve self-efficacy as students who receive encouragements score higher in self-efficacy (Jackson, 2002). Finally, teacher can help the students assess their feelings, motivations and attitudes by listening to their body to identify negative or positive emotions, using a checklist to discover feelings, attitudes and motivation, writing a language learning diary, and discussing their feelings with another person. This set of strategies is helpful for the students to be aware of their anxiety and control their anxiety.

Moreover, teachers can adjust the level of reading texts just a bit beyond from students' current reading level to make the reading texts both comprehensible and challenging as suggested by the Input Hypothesis introduced by Krashen (Peregoy & Boyle, 2008). The $i + 1$ language input would help the students comprehend the texts using cues such as context, pictures, and background knowledge, and also apply reading strategies while reading. At the same time, they would acquire language elements like grammatical structures and vocabulary, and the acquisition of the language elements would help them improve their language. In relevance to their self-efficacy, when the students are able to comprehend the texts and perform the reading tasks well, they could experience successes that lead to higher self-efficacy in reading.

Furthermore, the findings give information to EFL teachers in Indonesia regarding students' reading strategy use. Students may be aware of reading strategies, but they may not know how to use the strategies effectively. Therefore, they need explicit instructions on how

to use them effectively. As Garner (1987) stated that reading strategies can facilitate reading comprehension and are teachable, EFL teachers may include explicit instructions on reading strategies in reading classes. Carrell (1998) suggested some points to teach reading strategies in addition to teach what and why, namely to teach how to use the strategies, when and where to use the strategies and how to evaluate the strategies. Teachers can help the students to use the strategies effectively by breaking down a strategy and explaining each component as clearly as possible. Teachers can show the students inappropriate use of strategies to teach them when and where to use strategies appropriately. Teachers can also teach their students to evaluate the use of strategies and to fix unsuccessful strategies. These reading strategy trainings may be applied to different text complexities over a period of time to help the students use the strategies effectively.

Oxford (1996) stressed the importance of conducting strategy training to students while considering their individuality and strategy training is a process to help the students optimize their learning strategies individually. The training should help the students know themselves, so they would know which strategies work for them and which do not. Strategies that work for successful students may not automatically work for less successful students. Therefore, each student should experiment with the strategies to know which strategies work for him/her.

Limitations of the Study

This study is one of few studies investigating the relationship of reading strategies and self-efficacy to reading ability in EFL field in Indonesia, and its findings can add to the

body of knowledge. However, there are several limitations of this study that can affect the implications of this study.

The first limitation is the participants and setting of this study. By limiting the participants of this study from only one school, the findings of this study may be inadequate for generalization. With the variety of school types in Indonesia, students come with varied levels of English proficiency. Some of the schools use English as medium of instruction and their students may have higher English proficiency than participants of this study, so the results of this study may not be generalized to other schools.

The second limitation is the number of independent variables in this study. Literature has indicated that English proficiency is one variable to affect reading ability, but that variable was not included in this study. If English proficiency had been included, it may have provided empirical evidence to its impact on reading ability. Besides language proficiency, passage difficulty would also be a variable that might have affected students' reading assessment. The difficulty of the reading texts could have been measured to identify if they had high difficulty for the students because their reading assessment results would be dependent on the passage difficulty. Moreover, other variables that are associated with language learning like motivation, aptitude, students' economic background, and personalities would give more thorough information about their reading ability.

Finally, the nature of the data collection instruments especially the self-reporting reading strategy survey adds to the limitation of this study because it is difficult to know if the students really used the reading strategies. Triangulation with qualitative data from interviews would have given more reliable results.

Recommendations for Future Research

Considering the findings of this study and its limitations, a further research on this topic would be recommended. Studies on similar topic may be conducted by adding more independent variables. Language proficiency would be an important variable to investigate to give evidence if it really impacts the relationship between reading strategies and reading ability. Moreover, since the contribution of reading strategy use and self-efficacy to prediction of reading ability in this study is 4 % and 20 % respectively, it assumes that there are some other variables that can contribute to the model. Adding other variables such as passage difficulty of the reading texts, motivation, socioeconomic status or students' personalities would be recommended to investigate if those other variables contribute to the prediction model.

Furthermore, a larger sample covering students from different types of school could make future studies more informative and generalizable. Adding other schools such as private schools and bilingual schools would give more thorough information about Indonesian high school students' reading ability. In addition to schools, considering that reading is an important part of English course as well as an important skill for students at higher education level in Indonesia, future studies can also be extended to universities to investigate if variables related to reading ability that may be applied to high school students are also relevant to university students.

A mixed-method study that includes qualitative data would also generate more reliable and informative results for further study. In-depth interviews or observations are

suggested to complete the quantitative data in future study. The interviews make it possible for the researcher to get information from the students whether they actually apply the reading strategies while reading. The interviews may also include the English teachers who would be able to give information on the reading strategy training conducted in their classes.

Finally, it is also recommended that future studies be conducted in experimental research by conducting reading strategy training on a specific category of reading strategies. Such study could be aimed to investigate the effect of the reading strategies trained with reading ability.

Conclusion

There were few studies on the relationship of reading strategies and self-efficacy to reading comprehension in ESL/EFL field. Conducted in EFL setting in Indonesia, this study added valuable information to the studies in this field. This study showed the results that as a single independent variable, the use of reading strategies had a small significant effect on reading comprehension. However, used as one of multiple independent variables with self-efficacy, the use of reading strategies was a non-significant variable to predict reading comprehension. As an independent variable, the use of reading strategies had produced inconsistent results in its correlation to reading ability as previous studies also revealed. According to Short-Circuit Hypothesis (Clarke, 1980), English language proficiency may contribute to reading problems despite the use of reading strategies. Language proficiency might have been a factor that affected the reading ability of the students in this study.

In contrast to reading strategies, self-efficacy was a variable that significantly contributed to reading achievements and had a higher contribution to prediction of reading ability. Shown in previous studies as well, self-efficacy seemed to be a consistent variable to predict reading ability. Further studies in different settings would be needed to investigate if the use of strategies and self-efficacy can contribute to reading ability of other populations. Adding other variables such as English proficiency, passage difficulty, motivation, or personality as independent variables would give more insights to reading ability.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ORAL CONSENT

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| Approved by the Human Subjects Committee University of Kansas, Lawrence Campus (HSCL). Approval expires one year from 2/4/2013 HSCL # 20607 |
|--|

ORAL CONSENT

As a student in the University of Kansas's Department of Curriculum & Teaching, I am conducting a research project about the relationship of reading strategies and self-efficacy with reading comprehension in Indonesia. I would like to ask you to fill in two questionnaires and do a reading assessment. Your participation is expected to take about 90 minutes. You have no obligation to participate and you may discontinue your involvement at any time. **If you choose not to participate in this study, you may read quietly in the classroom. If you do not wish to participate, or wish to withdraw at any time, it will not affect your grade or your relationship with the school or the University of Kansas.**

Your participation should cause no more discomfort than you would experience in your everyday life. Although participation may not benefit you directly, the information obtained from the study will help us gain a better understanding of the relationship of reading strategies, self-efficacy and reading comprehension.

Participation in the research study indicates your willingness to take part in this study. **Your identifiable information will not be shared unless (a) it is required by law or university policy, or (b) you give written permission.** Should you have any questions about this project or your participation in it you may ask me or my faculty supervisor, Dr. Paul Markham, at the Department Curriculum & Teaching at this email address: pmarkham@ku.edu. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, you may call the Human Subjects Protection Office at (785) 864-7429 or email irb@ku.edu.

APPENDIX B: SURVEY OF READING STRATEGIES (SORS)

The purpose of this survey is to collect information about the various techniques you use when you read **academic materials in English** (e.g. reading textbooks for homework or examinations, reading journal articles, etc).

All the items below refer to your reading of academic materials (such as textbooks, *not* newspapers or magazines). 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’.

‘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. Note that there are no right or wrong responses to any of the items on this survey.

| No | Statement | Never | | | | Always |
|----|---|-------|---|---|---|--------|
| 1 | I have a purpose in mind when I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2 | I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3 | I think about what I know to help me understand what I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 | I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5 | When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6 | I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7 | I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8 | I review the text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9 | I try to get back on track when I lose concentration. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10 | I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11 | I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12 | When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13 | I use reference materials (e.g. a dictionary) to help me understand what I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14 | When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | | |
|----|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15 | I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16 | I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17 | I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18 | I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19 | I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20 | I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21 | I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22 | I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23 | I check my understanding when I come across new information. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24 | I try to guess what the content of the text is about when I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25 | When text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26 | I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 27 | I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28 | When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29 | When reading, I translate from English into Indonesian. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30 | When reading, I think about information in both English and Indonesian. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

APPENDIX C: INDONESIAN SURVEY OF READING STRATEGIES

Survei tentang Strategi Membaca (SORS)

Tujuan dari survei ini adalah untuk mengumpulkan informasi mengenai berbagai teknik yang Anda gunakan ketika Anda membaca **teks-teks akademis dalam bahasa Inggris** (misalnya membaca buku-buku pelajaran untuk mengerjakan PR (Pekerjaan Rumah) atau mempersiapkan ujian, membaca artikel-artikel dalam jurnal ilmiah, dll.).

Hal-hal yang disebutkan berikut ini merujuk pada cara Anda membaca **teks-teks akademis** (misalnya buku-buku pelajaran, *bukan* koran atau majalah). Setiap pernyataan diikuti oleh 5 [lima] angka: 1, 2, 3, 4, dan 5, dan masing-masing angka itu memiliki arti sebagai berikut:

“1” artinya “Saya **tidak pernah** atau **hampir tidak pernah** melakukan hal ini”

“2” artinya “Saya melakukan hal ini **hanya sesekali**”

“3” artinya “Saya **kadang-kadang** melakukan hal ini”

“4” artinya “Saya **biasa** melakukan hal ini”

“5” artinya “Saya **selalu** atau **hampir selalu** melakukan hal ini”

Setelah Anda membaca setiap pernyataan, **lingkarilah angka** (1, 2, 3, 4, atau 5) sesuai dengan keadaan Anda. Tidak ada jawaban yang benar atau salah dalam setiap pernyataan dalam survey ini.

| No | Pernyataan | Tidak pernah | | | | | Selalu |
|----|--|--------------|---|---|---|---|--------|
| 1 | Saya memiliki tujuan ketika saya membaca sebuah teks. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 2 | Ketika membaca, saya membuat catatan untuk membantu saya dalam memahami apa yang saya baca. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 3 | Saya menggunakan pengetahuan saya untuk membantu memahami teks yang saya baca. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 4 | Sebelum membaca sebuah teks, saya melihat teks secara keseluruhan untuk mengetahui mengenai apa teks tersebut. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 5 | Ketika membaca bagian teks yang sulit, saya membaca dengan suara keras untuk membantu saya memahami teks tersebut. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 6 | Saya memikirkan apakah isi dari teks sesuai dengan tujuan saya dalam membaca. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 7 | Saya membaca dengan perlahan-lahan dan berhati-hati untuk memastikan bahwa saya memahami apa yang sedang saya baca. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 8 | Saya meninjau teks bacaan terlebih dahulu dengan memperhatikan karakteristik teks, misalnya panjang teks dan susunannya. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 9 | Saya mencoba untuk kembali berkonsentrasi pada bagian bacaan saya jika saya kehilangan konsentrasi dalam membaca. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |

| | | | | | | |
|----|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10 | Saya menggarisbawahi atau melingkari informasi dalam teks untuk membantu saya mengingat informasi tersebut. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11 | Saya menyesuaikan kecepatan membaca sesuai dengan teks yang saya baca. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12 | Ketika membaca, saya menentukan bagian teks yang saya baca dengan seksama dan bagian teks yang saya abaikan. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13 | Saya menggunakan buku-buku referensi (misalnya kamus) untuk membantu saya memahami isi bacaan. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14 | Ketika teks bacaan bertambah sulit, saya memberikan perhatian lebih pada teks tersebut. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15 | Saya menggunakan tabel, angka, maupun gambar-gambar dalam teks untuk membantu saya memahami isi teks. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16 | Sesekali saya berhenti membaca untuk memikirkan isi bacaan tersebut. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17 | Saya menggunakan penunjuk makna dalam konteks untuk membantu saya memahami isi bacaan. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18 | Saya menguraikan makna teks dengan kata-kata saya sendiri untuk lebih memahami teks yang saya baca. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19 | Saya mencoba untuk menggambarkan atau memvisualisasikan informasi dalam teks untuk membantu saya mengingat apa yang saya baca. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 20 | Saya menggunakan fitur-fitur tipografi misalnya cetak tebal dan huruf miring untuk membantu mengidentifikasi informasi penting. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21 | Secara kritis, saya menganalisa dan mengevaluasi informasi dalam teks bacaan. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22 | Saya membaca ulang bagian-bagian teks sebelumnya untuk menemukan hubungan makna dalam teks bacaan. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23 | Ketika menemukan informasi baru dalam teks, saya memeriksa pemahaman saya atas informasi tersebut. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24 | Ketika saya mulai membaca, saya mencoba untuk memperkirakan isi teks bacaan. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25 | Ketika teks bertambah sulit, saya membaca bagian teks itu berulang kali untuk meningkatkan pemahaman saya. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26 | Saya mengajukan pertanyaan-pertanyaan kepada diri sendiri yang saya harap dapat terjawab dalam teks bacaan. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27 | Saya memeriksa apakah perkiraan saya tentang isi teks itu benar atau salah. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28 | Ketika saya membaca, saya menebak arti dari kata-kata atau frasa yang belum saya ketahui. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29 | Ketika membaca, saya menerjemahkan teks bacaan itu dari bahasa Inggris ke bahasa Indonesia. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30 | Ketika membaca, saya memikirkan informasi yang | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | |
|--|--|--|
| | berhubungan dengan teks itu dalam bahasa Inggris maupun bahasa Indonesia. | |
|--|--|--|

APPENDIX D: SELF-EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE

Name: _____ Class: _____

Gender: Male / Female Age: _____

Which language do you use at home?

- a. Indonesian
- b. Indonesian and other language (_____)
- c. Other language (_____)

EFL Reading Self-Efficacy Beliefs Questionnaire

Please rate how confident you are that you can do each of the things described below by circling the appropriate number. Your answers will be kept confidential and you will not be identified by name.

Rate your degree of confidence by circling a number from 0 to 100 using the scale below:

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

Cannot do

Moderately can do

Certainly can do

| | Statement | Confidence (0 – 100) |
|----|--|----------------------------------|
| 1. | I can identify the parts of speech of the words in an English text. | 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 |
| 2. | I can understand the meaning of words in an English reading text. | 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 |
| 3. | I can guess the meaning of a word from its context in a reading text. | 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 |
| 4. | I can connect my real-life knowledge and text information. | 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 |
| 5. | I can identify most of the denotations and connotations of a word in a text. | 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 |
| 6. | I can find the main idea of a reading text. | 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 |
| 7. | I can understand the writer's purpose in a text. | 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 |

| | | |
|-----|---|----------------------------------|
| 8. | I can identify the type of reading passage. | 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 |
| 9. | I can understand the relationships between sentences in a text. | 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 |
| 10. | I can identify the correct spelling of English words in a text. | 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 |

APPENDIX E: INDONESIAN SELF-EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE

Nama: _____ Kelas: _____

Jenis Kelamin: Laki-laki / Perempuan Umur: _____

Bahasa apa yang Anda gunakan di rumah?

- a. Bahasa Indonesia
- b. Bahasa Indonesia dan bahasa lain (sebutkan: _____)
- c. Bahasa lain (sebutkan: _____)

| | | |
|-----|---|----------------------------------|
| 6. | Saya dapat memahami maksud penulis dalam sebuah teks bahasa Inggris. | 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 |
| 7. | Saya dapat mengidentifikasi jenis bacaan dari sebuah teks bahasa Inggris. | 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 |
| 8. | Saya dapat memahami hubungan antara kalimat-kalimat dalam sebuah teks bahasa Inggris. | 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 |
| 9. | Saya dapat mengidentifikasi ejaan yang benar dari kata-kata dalam sebuah teks bahasa Inggris. | 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 |
| 10. | Saya dapat mengidentifikasi sebagian besar arti sebenarnya (denotasi) dan arti kiasan (konotasi) dari kata-kata dalam sebuah teks bahasa Inggris. | 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 |

APPENDIX F: READING ASSESSMENT

In this part of the test, you have to choose the best answer to each question from the alternatives given.

Text 1

Read the following text to answer questions 1 and 2.

We are announcing today that we are bringing the Milestone and Ever Green brands even closer together. Effective December 20, 2009, our official name will be:

Green Miles West

The substitution of “West” in our name replacing “California” is the result of an agreement we reached with the California Gardening Association, following a protest over the original use of “California” in our name. We hope this does not create any confusion among our loyal consumers. While this represents a change from our initial name introduction, it does not change the quality of products we offer our consumers.

1. What is the text about?
 - A. The conflict with another organization.
 - B. The changing name of the company.
 - C. The corporate offices.
 - D. The merged companies.
 - E. The loyal consumers.

2. What is the original name of the merged companies?
 - A. Milestone.
 - B. Green Miles West.
 - C. Milestone California.
 - D. Green Miles California.
 - E. Green Milestone California.

Text 2

This text is for questions 3 and 4.

| | |
|---|--|
| <p>Bittman Bookstore Lange Voorhout 50-52 2574 EG The Hague The Netherlands</p> <p>To Whom It May Concern:</p> <p>Please send me two copies of the book. I have enclosed a check for \$34 to cover the cost of two books and \$4 for shipping and handling costs. Please send the books to me at the address above.</p> <p>Yours truly, Ann Marie</p> | <p>Assensuej 513 5642 Millinge Denmark</p> |
|---|--|

3. What is the purpose of the letter above?
 - A. To buy two copies of the book.
 - B. To sell two copies of the book.
 - C. To send two copies of the book.
 - D. To return two copies of the book.
 - E. To deliver two copies of the book.

4. How are two copies of the book delivered?
 - A. Ann Marie will take the books by herself.
 - B. Ann Marie will ask her company to send the books.
 - C. Ann Marie will ask her secretary to take the books.
 - D. The Dutch company will send the books to Ann Marie.
 - E. The company will have Ann Marie send the books to her company.

Text 3

This text is for questions 5 to 7.

The Great Pyramid of Giza, a monument of wisdom and prophesy, was built as a tomb for Pharaoh Cheops in 2720 B.C. Despite its antiquity, certain aspects of its construction make it one of the truly great wonders of the world. The four sides of the Pyramid are aligned almost exactly on true north, south, east, and west – an incredible engineering feat. The ancient Egyptians were sun worshippers and great astronomers, so computations for the Great Pyramid were based on astronomical observation.

Explorations and detailed examinations of the base of the structure reveal many interesting lines of ancient symbols. Further scientific study indicates that these present a type of time line of events – past, present, and future. Many of the events have been interpreted to coincide with known facts of the past. Other lines prophesize events of the future and are presently under investigation.

5. What does the text tell us about?
 - A. The sun worshippers and great astronomers.
 - B. The four sides of the Pyramid.
 - C. The explorations of the Pyramid.
 - D. The Great Pyramid of Giza.
 - E. The ancient Egyptians.

6. What is the main idea of the first paragraph?
 - A. The Great Pyramid of Giza was as a tomb for Pharaoh Cheops.
 - B. The Great Pyramid of Giza was one of the truly great wonders of the world.
 - C. The Great Pyramid of Giza was built as a place of the sun worshippers.
 - D. The Great Pyramid of Giza was available for the great astronomers.
 - E. The Great Pyramid of Giza consisted of the four sides of the pyramid.

7. “Others lines prophesize events of the future and are presently under investigation.” (Paragraph 2).

The underlined word is similar to ...

- A. give
- B. prepare
- C. expect
- D. supply
- E. predict

This text is for questions 8 to 11.

Venice is a city in Northern Italy, the capital of region Veneto. Together with Padua, the city is included in the Padua-Venice Metropolitan area. Venice is also nicknamed “Queen of the Adriatic”, “City of Water”, “City of Bridges” and “The City of Light”.

With a population of 271,251, the city stretches across 117 small islands in the marshy Venetian Lagoon along the Adriatic Sea in Northeast Italy. Around 62,000 people inhabit the historic city of Venice (centro storico), 176,000 people live in firm land (Terraferma), mostly in the large frazione of Mestre and Marghera, and 31,000 live on other islands in the lagoon.

The Venetian Republic was a major maritime power and a very important center of commerce, especially silk, grain and spice trade. It was also the center of the Renaissance art up to the end of the 17th century.

8. What is the topic of the text?

- A. Venice
- B. Army
- C. Island
- D. Region
- E. Town

9. “... the city stretches across 117 small islands in the marshy Venetian Lagoon along the Adriatic Sea...” (Paragraph 2).

The underlined word is the same meaning as ...

- A. deep sea
- B. dry land
- C. wet land
- D. sea shore
- E. coastal sand

10. Which of the following is **not** the nickname of Venice?

- A. Queen of Adriatic
- B. The City of Light
- C. City of Bridges
- D. Centro Storico
- E. City of Water

11. “It was also the center of the Renaissance art up to the end of the 17th century.”

(Paragraph 3).

The underlined word refers to ...

- A. The city of Venice
- B. The maritime power
- C. The Venetian Republic
- D. The center of the Renaissance
- E. The center of commerce

This text is for questions 12 to 15.

The Magic Box

Once upon a time, there was a poor farmer who lived with his wife. One day, he dug up his field and found a big box. He took it home with him and showed it to his wife. His wife cleaned the box and kept it in their house.

One sunny morning, his wife dropped an apple into it. Suddenly, the box began to fill up with apples. No matter how many apples were taken out, more apples took their place. So, the farmer and his wife decided to sell the apples and in a short period of time they were able to live quite comfortably.

One day, the farmer dropped gold into the box. At once, apples disappeared and the box began to fill itself with coins. Every day, the farmer and his wife collected hundreds of gold coins from the box. Soon, they became rich.

Having heard that his grandson had become rich, the farmer’s grandfather visited the couple. He was not very strong and he could not go out to work anymore. So, the farmer asked the old man to help him take money out of the box. When his grandfather told his

grandson that he was tired and wanted to have a rest, the farmer shouted at him, “Why are you so lazy? Why can’t you work harder?”

The old man did not say anything, and continued to work until he fell into the box and suddenly died. At once, the money disappeared and the box began to fill up with dead grandfathers.

The farmer had to pull them out and bury them. To do this, he had to spend all the money he had collected. When he had used up all the money, the box broke and the farmer was just as poor as he was before.

12. What is the moral of the text?

- A. To discuss successful people.
- B. To explain lazy people.
- C. To entertain the readers.
- D. To inform rich people.
- E. To persuade the readers.

13. “At once, the money disappeared and the box ...” (Paragraph 5).

The synonym of the underlined word is ...

- A. vanished
- B. hid
- C. torn
- D. fled
- E. lost

14. “Having heard that his grandson had gotten rich, the farmer’s grandfather visited the couple.” (Paragraph 4).

The underlined word refers to ...

- A. the grandfather and his daughter
- B. the grandfather and his wife
- C. the grandfather and his son
- D. the farmer and his wife
- E. the farmer and his son

15. What can we learn from the story above?

We have to ...

- A. Work hard
- B. Help poor people
- C. Respect our parents
- D. Do everything happily
- E. Collect money as much as possible

This text is for questions 16 to 19.

The food we eat seems to have profound effects on our health. Although science has made enormous steps in making food more fit to eat, it has, at the same time, made many foods unfit to eat. Some research has shown that perhaps eighty percent of all human illnesses are related to diet and forty percent of cancer is related to the diet as well, especially cancer of the colon. Different cultures are more prone to contract certain illnesses because of the food that is characteristic in these cultures. Food's relation to illness is not a new discovery.

In 1945, government researchers realized that nitrates and nitrites, commonly used to preserve color in meats, and other food additives, caused cancer. Yet, these carcinogenic additives remain in our food and it becomes more difficult all the time to know which things on the packaging labels of processed food are helpful or harmful. The additives which we eat are not all so direct. Farmers often give penicillin to beef and poultry, and because of this, penicillin has been found in the milk of treated cows. Sometimes similar drugs are administered to animals not for medicinal purposes, but for financial reasons. The farmers are simply trying to fatten the animals in order to obtain a higher price on the market. Although the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has tried repeatedly to control these procedures, the practices continue.

16. What is the text about?

- A. Food We Eat.
- B. Healthy Food.
- C. Food Additives
- D. The Effects of Healthy Food.
- E. The Effects of Food Additives

17. What is true about nitrates?
- A. They cause the animals to become fatter.
 - B. They preserve flavor in packaged foods.
 - C. They preserve the color of the meats.
 - D. They are the objects of research.
 - E. They preserve the healthy food.
18. “Yet, these carcinogenic additives remain in our food...” (Paragraph 2)
The underlined word is closest in meaning to ...
- A. trouble-making
 - B. color-retaining
 - C. money-making
 - D. cancer-making
 - E. health-making
19. What is the moral of the text?
- A. To inform of the process of food additives.
 - B. To explain the use of food additives.
 - C. To report on healthy food.
 - D. To explain healthy food.
 - E. To tell the story of food.

This text is for questions 20 to 23.

Living in a big city has both advantages and disadvantages.

On the plus side, it is often easier to find work, and there is usually a choice of public transport, so you don't need to own a car. Also, there are a lot of interesting things to do and places to see.

For example, you can eat in good restaurants, visit museums, and go to the theatre and to concerts. What is more, when you want to relax, you can usually find a park where you can feed the ducks or just sit on a park bench and read a book. All in all, city life is full of bustle and variety and you need never feel bored.

However, for every plus there is a minus. For one thing, you might have a job, but unless it is well paid, you will not be able to afford many of the things that there are to do, because living in a big city is often very expensive.

It is particularly difficult to find good, cheap accommodation. What is more, public transport is sometimes crowded and dirty, particularly in rush hour, and even the parks can become very crowded, especially on Sundays when it seems that every city dweller is looking for some open space and green grass. Last of all, despite all the crowds, it is still possible to feel very lonely in a city.

In conclusion, I think that city life can be particularly appealing to young people, who like the excitement of the city and don't mind the noise and pollution. However, many people, when they get older, and particularly when they have young children, prefer the peace and fresh air of the countryside.

(Adapted from an article in the Week-end Australian Magazine, 2005)

20. What is the most suitable title for the text above?

- A. Living in a big city.
- B. Advantages of living in a big city.
- C. Disadvantages of living in a big city.
- D. The positive effects of living in a big city.
- E. The dangers of living in a big city.

21. What is the main idea of the second paragraph?

- A. A choice of public transport.
- B. Living without having a car.
- C. A lot of interesting things to do.
- D. A side effect of living in a big city.
- E. Advantages of living in a big city.

22. What is an advantage of living in a big city?

- A. It is often easy to find work.

- B. It is not expensive to fulfill daily needs.
 - C. There are not any interesting things to do.
 - D. It is not difficult to find good accommodations.
 - E. There is no noise and pollution affecting people's lives.
23. "In conclusion, I think that city life can be particularly appealing to young people, who like the excitement of the city and don't mind the noise and pollution." (Paragraph 6)
The underlined word means ...
- A. eye catching
 - B. attractive
 - C. beautiful
 - D. wonderful
 - E. lunatic

This text is for questions 24 to 27.

Most people give little thought to the pens they write with, especially since the printers in modern homes and offices result in very few hand-written items. All too often, people buy a pen based on looks, and wonder why they are not satisfied once they begin to use it. However, buying a pen that you will enjoy is not difficult if you keep a few simple tips in mind.

First of all, a pen should fit comfortably in your hand and be easy to manipulate. The thickness of the pen is the most important characteristic when determining comfort. If you have a small hand and thick fingers, you may be comfortable with a slender pen. If you have a larger hand and thicker fingers, you may prefer a fatter pen. The length of a pen can also influence comfort. A pen that is too long can easily feel top-heavy and unstable as you write.

Additionally, the writing point of the pen should allow the ink to flow evenly while the pen remains in contact with the paper. This will create a smooth line of writing, with no slips or gaps that indicate an irregular flow of ink within the pen. The point should also be sensitive enough to prevent ink from flowing when the pen is lifted from the paper. A point that does not seal off the flow may leave blots of ink at the end and beginning of each word, as you pick the pen up and put it down again.

Finally, the pen should make a bold, dark line. Fine-line pens may compensate for bad handwriting, but fine, delicate lines do not command attention next to the printed text, as for example, a signature on a printed letter. A broader line, by contrast, gives an impression of confidence and authority.

24. What is the text about?

- A. Writing more legibly.
- B. Purchasing better printers.
- C. Writing more things by hand.
- D. Paying more attention to pens.
- E. Purchasing more pens for writing.

25. What is an advantage of fine-line pens?

- A. They command attention.
- B. They are easier to write with.
- C. They convey confidence and authority.
- D. They are easier to bring anywhere.
- E. They can compensate for bad writing.

26. “Fine-line pens may compensate for bad handwriting ...” (Paragraph 4)

- A. recompense
- B. refill
- C. renew
- D. return
- E. remove

27. What is the purpose of the text?

- A. To inform the readers what good pens are like.
- B. To tell the readers that a pen is important.
- C. To describe a pen used for writing.
- D. To explain the advantage of a pen.
- E. To inform about the use of the pen.

This text is for questions 28 to 31.

Flight Safety Foundation (FSF) in 2003 launched the Ground Accident Prevention (GAP) program to develop information and products to eliminate accidents and incidents that occur on airport aprons (ramps) and adjacent taxiways, and during the movement of aircraft into and out of hangers, and that directly affect airport operations and/or result in personnel injuries or damage to serviceable aircraft, facilities or ground-support equipment.

In this case, human error is the primary cause of ground accidents. The toll is significant: Preliminary indications are that one person is killed and four people are injured seriously in ground accidents each year in U.S. airline operations, alone. The toll is rising: Injuries caused by ground accidents worldwide increased from 0.04 per 1,000 aircraft movements in 1996 to nearly 0.12 per 1,000 aircraft movements in 2001, the latest year for which data are available.

Conservative estimates of the economic cost of ground accidents in aircraft damage, alone are US\$4 billion annually for air carrier operators and \$1 billion annually for corporate/business aircraft operators. Most air carrier losses are not insured, the costs of repairing the aircraft typically are lower than the deductible limits specified in airline insurance policies. The financial toll is exacerbated by the indirect costs of ground accidents. Conservative estimates indicate that the indirect costs caused by lost revenue from ticket sales, flight cancellations, repositioning of replacement aircraft and other factors are at least three times higher than direct costs.

However, the true magnitude of ground accidents is not known. Thus, a cornerstone of the GAP program is the collection and analysis of data tasks that are being undertaken by the Data Analysis Working Team, one of five working teams comprising international aviation safety specialists from airlines, business aircraft operations, airport organizations, regulatory agencies, insurance agencies, manufacturers and other organizations.

The data collection and analysis conducted by the Data Analysis Working Team will identify the magnitude of ground accidents, including the indirect costs, and provide data analyses to support the objectives of the other GAP working teams.

In conclusion, the Education and Training Working (ETW) Team is identifying best practices for front-line apron employees, flight crews and management. The team also will

examine current training methods and recommend ways to make the training more applicable and more appropriate to the reduction of human error. Furthermore, the Management and Leadership Practices Working Team is examining the overall management structures and processes to identify ways to eliminate management/supervisory-induced error. The team will develop and assess enhancements to these practices. The main task of the Industry Awareness Working Team is to relay to the industry the progress of the GAP program.

28. What is the main idea of the passage?

- A. Human error is the primary cause of accidents.
- B. The Ground Accident Prevention Program.
- C. The economic cost of ground accidents.
- D. The true magnitude of ground accidents.
- E. The Data Analysis Working Team.

29. What is the main idea of the second paragraph?

- A. People are injured in ground accident.
- B. Aircraft movement causes ground accidents.
- C. The toll is the significant preliminary indications.
- D. Injuries are caused by ground accidents worldwide.
- E. The primary cause of ground accidents is human error

30. What is the working team involved with?

- A. The collection of data tasks.
- B. The data and the results.
- C. The data analyses.
- D. The data collection and analysis of the results.
- E. The collection and analysis of data tasks.

31. “The financial toll is exacerbated by the indirect costs of ground accidents.” (Paragraph

3). The synonym of “exacerbated” is ...

- A. done much worse.
- B. made much better.

- C. made much worse.
- D. done much better.
- E. gotten much better.

This text is for questions 32 to 34.

Los Angeles, or L.A. as it is called, is the USA's second largest city. It is situated on the southern coast of California. The city with a population of 3.5 million is **(32)**..... by beautiful mountains and beaches. There are very few high-rise buildings.

It has an easy going lifestyle and is an ideal place for a holiday. Tourists love the combination of sun and sand. The **(33)**..... temperature is about 23°C and there is very little rain. The nearest beaches are at Malibu and Santa Monica.

Interesting things to do and to see include visiting the television and movie studios at Burbank, seeing the film stars' homes in Beverly Hills, going shopping on fashionable Rodeo Drive and eating delicious seafood at beachside **(34)**.....

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------|
| 32. A. surrounded | C. founded |
| B. situated | D. stated |
| 33. A. rate | C. middle |
| B. average | D. medium |
| 34. A. shops | C. supermarkets |
| B. hotels | D. restaurants |

The best arrangement of these sentences is ...

1. A doctor took an X-ray and put some ice on her foot.
2. She went home and her mother took her to the nearest hospital in a taxi.
3. On her way to school yesterday, Jane slipped on banana rind and hurt her left foot.
4. The X-ray and ice treatments cost 500 thousand rupiahs.
5. It wasn't a serious accident, but it was very dear.

35. A. 5 – 1 – 4 – 2 – 3

B. 3 – 2 – 1 – 4 – 5

C. 5 – 4 – 1 – 3 – 2

D. 3 – 1 – 2 – 4 – 5

Source:

Tim Studi Guru (2012). *Persiapan menghadapi ujian nasional: SMA-IPA 2013*. Bandung:

CV. Pustaka Setia.