

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The chapter covers the nature of reading (definition of reading, types of reading and difficulties of reading), the nature of reading comprehension, the nature of self-questioning, level of comprehension, assessing reading and taxonomy bloom.

A. The Nature of Reading

1. Reading

Reading is one of the ways in learning English or a process of decoding message in which the students need their own experience and knowledge. Students should have mastery on reading skill. Students will get information and idea this can enrich their vocabulary and ideas.

Reading is a very complex process. It requires a high level of muscular coordinate, sustained effort and concentration. But reading is more than just a visual task not only must reader see and identify the symbol in front of them but also they must interpret what they reads in the light of his own background, associate with past experienced and project beyond this in term of idea, judgments, application, and conclusions.¹

In English lesson, reading skill has important role in student's life because this skill will help them in getting knowledge. There are some activities in reading skill such as: strategy reading, silent reading, speed reading, and comprehend language reading.

¹Jonathan Anderson, *Efficient Reading; ata Practical*, Sydney: McGraw hill book company, 1983, p.5

2. Reading Comprehension

According to Fauziati, comprehension as comprehending a text, that is an interactive process between the reader's background knowledge and the text.² While, according to Cooper defines that comprehension is a language process and should be developed as a part of the total language arts-listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and it is a process by which the reader constructs meaning interaction with the next.³ Then, according to Hornby states that comprehension means ability to understand something or exercise that trains students to understand a language.⁴ In summary, comprehension is a language process of ability to understand and comprehend something in which there are an interactive process between the reader's knowledge and the text.

Furthermore, Scott and Wilkinson in Dakir state that reading comprehension is a process of constructing meaning from written text based on a complex coordination of a number of interrelated sources of information.⁵ In addition, Carrel in Brown defines that reading comprehension is seen as an interactive process between the text and the reader's prior knowledge, is shown through practical classroom application.⁶

In conclusion, reading comprehension means the level of understanding of reading and an interactive process of constructing meaning from written texts

² Endang Fauziati, *Teaching of English as a Foreign Language*, p.138.

³ David J. Cooper, *Improving Reading Comprehension*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1986, p.17

⁴ A. S. Hornby, *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, New York: Oxford University Press, p. 83.

⁵ Dakir, *Improving Students' Ability in Understanding English Text through Jigsaw Strategy at the Second Semester Students of the Islamic Education Study Program of Palangka Raya State Islamic College*, p.4.

⁶ H. Douglas Brown, *Teaching by Principles an Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*, New York: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc. 2000, p. 306.

based on a complex coordination of a number of interrelated sources of information that supported by the reader's prior knowledge, it is shown through practical classroom application.

In reading classroom we knew that a person when she or he reads the book of course has a purpose such as for enjoyment or to enhance knowledge of the language being read. The purposes for reading guide the reader's selection of texts.

In addition, Brynes states that there are some reading research shows that good reader as follows⁷:

- a. Read extensively;
- b. Integrate information in the text with existing knowledge;
- c. Have a flexibel reading style, depending on what they are reading;
- d. Rely on different skills interacting: perceptual processing, phonemic processing, and recall;
- e. Read for a purpose: reading serves a function.

Based on some skills above, presumably this is very important to have some skills above in which could be applied by the students in the classroom.

Thus, reading comprehension is a complex process which comprises the successful or unsuccessful use of many abilities. When the readers read, they should be able to recall information afterwards. What they can recall and how much they can recall dependson many factors, as follows⁸:

⁷ Heidi Byrnes, *Teaching Reading*, 2009, (Online), (<http://www.nclrc.org/essentials/reading/reindex.htm>, accessed on January 20, 2014)

⁸ Gordon Wainwright, *How to Read Faster and Recall More*, UK: How To Books, 2007, p.44-45.

- a. The readers should be able to select the important points from what they have read and be able to draw general conclusions. The readers should look for key words and phrases. The readers should be able to differentiate between fact and opinion.
- b. The readers should be able to make deductions, draw inferences, be aware of implications and interpret information. That is to say, they should be able to distinguish between denotative, or surface or literal, meaning and connotative, or hidden or unstated, meaning. In other words, the readers should be able to read both along and between the lines.
- c. The readers need to relate what they have read to our prior knowledge and experience, to see it in context.
- d. The readers should evaluate and discuss what we read with others. They shall learn how to read critically even at speed, where critically means not just looking for faults, but looking for points of merit as well.

Furthermore, still, Byrnes states that reading as a process that goes on between the reader and the text, resulting in comprehension. The text presents letters, words, sentences, and paragraphs that encode meaning. In this case, there are some knowledge, skills, and strategies that use by the reader to determine what the meaning is.⁹ They could be drawn as follows¹⁰:

- a. Linguistic competence: the ability to recognize the elements of the writing system; knowledge of vocabulary; knowledge of how words are structured into sentences;

⁹ Heidi Byrnes, *Ibid.*

¹⁰ Gordon Wainwright, *Ibid.*

- b. Discourse competence: knowledge of discourse markers and how they connect parts of the text to one another;
- c. Sociolinguistic competence: knowledge about different types of texts and their usual structure and content;
- d. Strategic competence: the ability to use top-down strategies, as well as knowledge of the language (a bottom-up strategy).

Beside that, comprehension is an active process that involves all these strategies and behaviours¹¹:

- Making meaning from the text
- Understanding the text
- Engaging with the text
- Critically evaluating the text
- Making connection with existing knowledge
- Reflecting upon responses
- Monitoring our own understanding
- Making decisions about which strategies will help clarify understanding.

Celce-Murcia states that ESP (English for Specific Purpose) academic reading courses should emphasize both reading to learn (activities that stress comprehension of subject matter content) and learning by doing (activities that call for utilization of the ideas in the text. The former deals with the text at hand, exclusively the latter takes the learner beyond the text and into some kind of reformulation of the facts, information and concepts found in it, for example in

¹¹ Department for Education and Skill, *Understanding Reading Comprehension:1*, UK: DfES Publication, 2006, p.2.

reading to learn, emphasis is given to close reading of texts, often paragraph by paragraph, in order to find the function which each paragraph fulfils in the passage. Reading to learn also involves complex thinking skills in which students must be able to make the material their own through activities which guide them into analyzing texts, such as summarizing passages and chapters, finding comparison and contrast or cause and effect examples, following an argument in the text.¹²

In summary, the purpose for reading and the type of text determine the specific knowledge, skills, and strategies that student need to apply to achieve comprehension. Reading comprehension results when the student knows in which skills and strategies are appropriate for the type of text and understand how to apply them to accomplish the reading purpose.

3. The Problems of Reading

In this case, according to Margono states that problem means asymmetry between hope of something that must be present (das sollen) with the reality that present (das sein).¹³ Furthermore, Hornby states that problem is a thing that is difficult to deal with or understand or a question to be answered or solved.¹⁴

In conclusion, problem is a thing that is difficult to deal with or understand or a question to be answered or solved that is an asymmetry or a difference between the perception of and the will.

¹² Celce-Murcia, *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*, Massachusetts: Heinle & Heinle publishers, 1991, p.200.

¹³ Margono, *Metodologi Penelitian Pendidikan*, Jakarta: Rineka Cipta, 2003, p.54.

¹⁴ A.S. Hornby, *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, p.921.

In this section, there are mainly causes for problem reading comprehension according to Nathan V. As a result, it could be drawn as follows¹⁵

a. Decoding Difficulties

Decoding is the process by which a word is broken into individual phonemes and recognized based on those phonemes. *Signs of decoding difficulty* were:

- trouble sounding out words and recognizing words out of context,
- confusion between letters and the sounds they represent,
- slow oral reading rate (reading word-by-word),
- reading without expression,
- ignoring punctuation while reading.

b. Comprehension Difficulties

Comprehension relies on mastery of decoding; children who struggle to decode find it difficult to understand and remember what has been read. *Signs of comprehension difficulty* were:

- confusion about the meaning of words and sentences,
- inability to connect ideas in a passage,
- omission of, or glossing over detail,
- difficulty distinguishing significant information from minor details,
- lack of concentration during reading.

¹⁵Nathan V Lauren, *Difficulties with Reading*, 2002, (online)
(<http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/misunderstoodminds/readingdiffs.html>, accessed on April 8th 2010)

c. Retention Difficulties

Retention requires both decoding and comprehending what is written.

Signs of retention difficulty were:

- trouble remembering or summarizing what is read,
- difficulty connecting what is read to prior knowledge,
- difficulty applying content of a text to personal experiences.

Moreover, according to Gebhard states that there are some problems in reading, they are¹⁶:

a. The “I want to read faster” problem.

Some students want to read faster but they do not know how to increase their reading speed. Some of them complain that they read too slowly. One reason is because the material is too difficult, there are too many new words, the grammar is too complex, they do not have the background knowledge to process the intended meaning, they are faced with a combination of these problems. Another reason students read slowly involves the way they read. Some students read a word at a time and look up many words in dictionary, even words they know.

b. The “vocabulary building” problem.

It is not just beginners who need lots of vocabulary. All students need to work constantly on building vocabulary. Some students have problem in

¹⁶ Jerry G. Gebhard, *Teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language*, America: The University of Michigan Press, 1996, p.209.

comprehending the content of reading material because they have limited vocabulary.

c. The “background knowledge” problem.

Most teachers recognize that before students read, it is important to build the students’ background knowledge. Students’ ability to comprehend the content of reading material depends in part on their knowledge about the topic of the reading selection.

d. The “getting students to read” problem.

It is sometimes difficult to get students to read in and out of class. Students, young and old are not always motivated to read.

Based on phenomena above, the writer thought that the students should pay attention to the some problems above by using suitable strategies in order they could improve their skill in reading comprehension well.

B. Reading Comprehension Strategies

The current explosion of research in second language reading has begun to focus on, among other things, readers' strategies.¹⁷

1. Nature of Reading Comprehension Strategies

Reading strategies are of interest for what they reveal about the way readers manage their interactions with written text, and how these strategies are related to reading comprehension. Several empirical investigations have been

¹⁷ P. C. Hauptman, *A Comparison of First and Second Language Reading Strategies among English-Speaking University Students*. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin*, 4, 1979, p.173.

conducted into reading strategies and their relationships to successful and unsuccessful second language reading.¹⁸

Mokhtari and Reichard explained that reading strategies are activities or actions that readers utilize to construct meaning and facilitate their reading.¹⁹ Reading strategies are techniques or styles that students choose in their reading comprehension.²⁰ Brantmeier defined reading strategies as techniques which learners use in the process of reading comprehension in order to read and figure out the context.²¹ Reading strategies allow students to evaluate their reading comprehension achievement.²²

In connection, McNamara states that reading comprehension strategy is a cognitive or behavioral action that is enacted under particular contextual conditions, with the goal of improving some aspects of comprehension. Consider a very simple-minded strategy for purposes of illustration.²³

In conclusion, reading comprehension strategy is a technique or style that readers choose to help them in the process of reading comprehension with the goal of improving some aspects of comprehension.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*

¹⁹ K. Mokhtari, & C. Reichard, *Assessing Students' Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies*, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 94 (2), 2002, p.249–259.

²⁰ A. D. Cohen, *Meta-Linguistic Measures in Reading Strategies Research: Some Recent Findings*, *English for Special Purposes*, 5, 1986, p.131-145.

²¹ C. Brantmeier, *Second Language Reading Strategy Research At The Secondary And University Levels: Variations, Disparities And Generalizability*. *The Reading Matrix: Ninternational Online Journal*, 3 (2), 2005, p.1-14. <http://www.readingmatrix.com/current.html>

²² S. B. Kletzien, *Strategy Use by Good and Poor Comprehenders Reading Expository Text of Differing Levels*, *Reading Research Quarterly*, 26 (1), 1991, p.67-86.

²³ Danielle S. McNamara, *Reading Comprehension Strategies*, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. Inc., Publisher, p.6

2. Importance of Reading Strategies

There are some importance of reading strategies, as follows:

- a. Assist readers in being active, constructive readers who can gain and use information.²⁴
- b. Readers will be more motivated in their reading comprehension.²⁵
- c. Reading strategy provides learning opportunities, facilitates learning and recalling of information as well as strengthening the reading comprehension ability of language learners.²⁶
- d. Through the employment of reading strategy such as meta-cognitive instruction in English class, EFL learners will be able to improve their reading comprehension and experience a higher level of competency which will further motivate them to read on a regular basis.²⁷

3. Kinds of Reading Strategies

According to Watson, there are some strategies in reading²⁸:

²⁴ Camille Blachowicz and Donna Ogle, *Reading Comprehension*, New York: The Guilford Press, 2008, p.35

²⁵ Mohammad Reza Ahmadi Gilani, *Impacts of Learning Reading Strategy on Students' Reading Comprehension Proficiency*, *The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)* Volume 1 (1), December 2012; 78-95 ISSN: 2289-2737 Copyright IJLLALW, Norway, p.4

²⁶ A. Dehnad, *Graphic Organizers as An Effective Study Technique in An ESP Class*, In Kiani & Khayamdar (Eds.) *Proceedings of the First National ESP/EAP Conference*, vol. II, Tehran, SAMT Publication, 2005.

²⁷ E. L. Block, *See How They Read: Comprehension Monitoring of L1 and L2 Readers*, *TESOL Quarterly*, 26, 1992, p.319-343.

²⁸ Three Watson, *Reading Comprehension Skills and Strategies*, USA: Saddleback Educational Publishing, 2002, p.4

- vocabulary knowledge
- pre-reading—previewing and predicting
- mental imaging
- self-questioning
- summarizing
- semantic mapping

The following points will explain those strategies one by one:

a. Vocabulary knowledge

Vocabulary teaching during intensive reading needs to share the time in the language-focused learning strand of a vocabulary programme with deliberate learning using word cards, vocabulary strategy training, and vocabulary teaching not related to intensive reading.²⁹

The following principles should guide attention to vocabulary in intensive reading.

- 1) High frequency words (words from the first 2000 and Academic Word List) deserve sustained attention.
- 2) Low frequency words are best ignored or dealt with quickly.
- 3) The vocabulary learning strategies of guessing from context, analysing words using word parts, and dictionary use deserve repeated attention over a long period of time. These strategies can be practiced with both high frequency and low frequency words.³⁰

b. Pre-reading—Previewing and Predicting

²⁹ I.S.P Nation, *Teaching ESL/EFL Reading and Writing*, New York: Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group, 2009, p.38

³⁰ *Ibid*

Previewing is the process by which the readers become acquainted with a text. It involves skimming or quickly glancing over the material to determine what the readers will read about, how it is organized, and what aids to understanding are provided to help the reader with the task.³¹

Making predictions is a strategy in which readers use information from a text (including titles, headings, pictures, and diagrams) and their own personal experiences to anticipate what they are about to read (or what comes next). A reader involved in making predictions is focused on the text at hand, constantly thinking ahead and also refining, revising, and verifying his or her predictions. This strategy also helps students make connections between their prior knowledge and the text.

c. Mental Imaging

Good readers construct mental images as they read a text. By using prior knowledge and background experiences, readers connect the author's writing with a personal picture. Through guided visualization, students learn how to create mental pictures as they read.

A mental image is the representation in your mind of the physical world outside of you. It is an experience that, on most occasions, significantly resembles the experience of perceiving some object, event, or scene, but occurs when the relevant object, event, or scene is not actually present to the senses. There are sometimes episodes, particularly on falling asleep (hypnagogic imagery) and waking up (hypnopompic), when the mental imagery, being of a

³¹ Richard Pirozzi, *Critical Reading Critical Thinking*, New York: Wesley Educational Publisher, 2003, p.154

rapid, phantasmagoric and involuntary character, defies perception, presenting a kaleidoscopic field, in which no distinct object can be discerned.³²

d. Summarizing

An effective summary condenses a reading selection. It concentrates on the author's main ideas, and like a paraphrase, it puts those idea in new words.³³

According to Leo, there are some guidelines for writing a good summary³⁴:

- Make sure you understood what you read.
- Collapse lists.
- Use topic sentences.
- Get rid of unnecessary detail
- Check and double-check.

e. Semantic Mapping

Mapping can be a very effective study technique, especially for students who prefer diagram charts, and picture to large numbers of words. It is also useful for anyone trying to understand both the organization of a reading selection and the main ideas of that selection. Mapping is also helps to activate the prior knowledge so the reader can relate new information to old.³⁵

Mapping before the readers read gets they thinking about the topic, and more important, gets they thinking about what they already know about the topic. Meanwhile, mapping after the readers read help them to process the

³² Edmond Wright, "Inspecting images", *Philosophy* **58** (223): 57–72, 1983, p. 68–72.

³³ Eleanor S. Leo, *Powerful Reading, Efficient Learning*, New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, 1994, p.137.

³⁴ *Ibid*, p.172

³⁵ *Ibid*, p.183

information more deeply than they would if they did nothing to review the material.³⁶

f. Self-Questioning

Because this study focuses on self-questioning strategy, so this strategy will be explained in the following point specifically.

C. Self-Questioning

1. Nature of Self-Questioning

Self-Questioning is the ongoing process of asking questions before, during, and after reading that are used by a reader to understand text. The questions posed are based on clues that are found in the text and are generated to spark curiosity that focuses the reader's attention on investigating, understanding, and connecting to the text. A self-questioning strategy is a set of steps that a student follows to generate, think about, predict, investigate, and answer questions that satisfy curiosity about what is being read.³⁷

If the ultimate goal of education is to make students independent learners, then students must be trained to take responsibility for their own learning. This means, among other things, to take the initiative by asking the questions themselves.³⁸

In addition, all self-questioning strategies generally help students understand more of what they read; however, it is important to note that self-questioning strategies can serve a variety of purposes. For example, one

³⁶ *Ibid*, p.208

³⁷ KU The University of Kansas, *Teaching After Reading Self-Questioning Strategies*, (Online), (http://www.specialconnections.ku.edu/?q=instruction/reading_comprehension/teacher_tools/teaching_during_reading_self_questioning_strategies#top, accessed on February 20, 2014)

³⁸ *Ibid*.

questioning strategy might help prompt students to consider background knowledge *before* reading, while another might promote students' self-monitoring of understanding *while* reading, and yet another might remind students to summarize what they have read *after* reading. In addition, self-questioning can be incorporated into other comprehension strategies and is sometimes an embedded component of a broader reading strategy.³⁹

2. Importances of Self-Questioning

Self-Questioning is one of the reading strategies which has some importances or benefits in reading process as follows:

- a. Because "constructing questions involves decisions on what information is question-worthy"⁴⁰, self-questioning "places the responsibility for learning on the students, increases attention, and allows students to take corrective action"⁴¹.
- b. Self questioning reduced feelings of frustration and failure.⁴²
- c. This strategy helps the reader gain a deep understanding of the text, remember the text better, and generate inferences that are central for coherence.⁴³

³⁹ F. J. Brigham, S. Berkeley, P. Simpkins & M. S. P. Brigham, *Reading Comprehension Strategy Instruction, Current Practice Alerts*, 12, 2007, p.1-4.

⁴⁰ L. Frase & B. Schwartz, *Effect of Question Production and Answering on Prose Recall*. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72(5), 1975, p. 674

⁴¹ C. Gillespie, *Questions about student-generated questions*. *Journal of Reading*, 34(4), 1990, p.253

⁴² *Ibid.*

⁴³ Danielle S. McNamara, *Reading Comprehension Strategies*, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. Inc., Publisher, p.40

- d. Motivating students to ask questions while reading can help them to be actively involved with the text which, in turn, can help them improve their understanding.⁴⁴
- e. Forming questions (and finding their answer) is a useful technique in reading activity because it gives the reader a purpose for reading, it forces the reader to concentrate and to look for answers to specific questions those the reader's has formed. Forming questions (and reading to answer them) often improves both the reader's comprehension and retention.⁴⁵

3. Process to Teach Self-Questioning

The idea behind self-questioning strategies, like all reading comprehension strategies, is that students can be taught to approach text more strategically than they would on their own. For some students, the process of creating questions to ask themselves is extremely challenging. Therefore, simply having students “ask questions about the passage while reading” will not be sufficient. Thus, the process that teachers use to teach self-questioning is the same as for the explicit teaching of any strategy:

- Explicitly state the importance of strategy use and use clear learning objectives (that includes instruction in *when* to use the strategy in addition to *how* to use the strategy),

⁴⁴ Katayoon Afzali, *The Impact of Instructing Self-Questioning in Reading Literary Texts*, International Journal of Linguistics ISSN 1948-5425 2012, Vol. 4, No. 2, 2012, p. 2.

⁴⁵ Elenanor S. Leo, *Powerful Reading, Efficient Learning*, New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, 1994, p. 8.

- Follow a specific sequence for teaching that includes explicit modeling of the strategy as well as guided and independent student practice (tip: checklists of strategy steps are often helpful),
- “Think aloud” during instruction (thus giving students access to internal thought processes),
- Monitor student progress and provide explicit corrective feedback to students that includes encouraging appropriate attributions (an example of a positive attribution would be: “I understood what I read because I tried hard and asked myself questions that I answered while reading” rather than the negative attribution: “I understood what I read, so it must have been an easy passage”), and
- Teach for generalized use of the strategy.⁴⁶

Therefore, if a reader or student can apply Self-Questioning strategy independently without teacher or instructor helps, it will require a reader to look for text clues that make them wonder, think about possible meanings, ask questions about the meanings, make predictions about the answers, read to find the answers, evaluate the answers and their predictions, and reconcile differences between their questions, their predictions about answers, and the information actually provided by the author in the text.⁴⁷

⁴⁶ M. A. Mastropieri, T. E. Scruggs, & J. E. Graetz, *Reading Comprehension Instruction for Secondary Students: Challenges for Struggling Students and Teachers*. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 26, 2003, p.103-117.

⁴⁷ KU The University of Kansas, *Teaching After Reading Self-Questioning Strategies*, (Online), (http://www.specialconnections.ku.edu/?q=instruction/reading_comprehension/teacher_tools/teaching_during_reading_self_questioning_strategies#top, accessed on February 20, 2014)

D. Level of Comprehension

Level, in this case, means different depths of understanding and different analysis. In addition, Berry states that there are three different levels of comprehension as follows:

1. Literal Level (Reading the Lines)

The first level of comprehension can be called the literal level for the sake of wording because it is the most simple. At this level, readers or students can attempt to answer the question: “What did the author say?” At this level, the readers would not have to understand the true meaning of a paragraph. However, the readers could memorize the information. For example, instructor might ask them to read a chapter dealing with dates or specific facts then the readers would memorize these dates and facts. However, even though the readers have memorized these facts, this does not mean that they necessarily understand their full meaning or see the implication of these dates and facts applied to other situations. At the literal level, the readers are looking at what was written by an author at “face value”, little interpretation is needed.

2. Interpretative Level (Reading between the Lines)

The second level of comprehension is called the interpretative level. At this level, the readers or students can attempt to answer this question: “What was meant by what was said?” It means, the readers are attempting to understand what the author meant by what she/he said in the story, paragraph or textbook. It is presumed that the readers have already memorized certain

facts at the literal level and then they are attempting to read between the lines. At this level, the readers are trying to understand that which they memorized at the literal level of comprehension.

Knowing the how and why behind this level of understanding is obviously a much deeper or profound level of thinking. This level of comprehension is that college instructors will most likely expect their students to get in their courses. Of course, they want the students to memorize dates, facts, details, but they also want the students to be able to understand how that information relates to and is connected to the “bigger picture” of what the students are studying.

3. Applied Level (Reading beyond the Lines)

At this level, the readers are about to elevate or raise their thinking one more “notch” or level to a more critical, analyzing level. This presumes that the readers have already reached the previous two levels. At this level, the readers are “reading between the lines” and then examining the message from the author or attempting to apply that message to other settings.⁴⁸

Related to the study, the level comprehension which applied in this study were literal and interpretative level. The students who became the sample of the study were attempted to answer answer the questions “What did the author say?” and “What was meant by what the author was said?” It means, beside the students attempted to know the specific facts or

⁴⁸ James H. Berry, 2005, *Levels of Reading Comprehension*, (Online), (<http://www.sc4.edu>, accessed on January 20, 2014)

information, they also should be understand how that information related to and was connected to the “bigger picture” of what they were studied.

E. Assessing Reading

According to The Literacy Dictionary, assessment is “the act or process of gathering data in order to better understand the strengths and weaknesses of student learning, as by observation, testing, interviews, etc.”⁴⁹ Assessment can be both formal (e.g., standardized tests) and informal (e.g., teacher-made tests, checklists). Data from both formal and informal assessments are critical for teachers to make important instructional decisions.⁵⁰

According to Nation, there are several reasons for assessing reading and the skills and knowledge that are involved in reading. They include assessing to encourage learning, assessing to monitor progress and provide feedback, assessing to diagnose problems, and assessing to measure proficiency. The same form of assessment may be used for a variety of goals.⁵¹

The reason for assessing reading in this study was to measure proficiency or achievement. Measure of achievement focused on the learning done in a particular course. In this case, because the purpose of this study was to know the effectiveness of self-questioning strategy, then the achievement measured a self-questioning strategy would be effective or not in students’ reading comprehension.

⁴⁹ T. L. Harris & R. E. Hodges, *The literacy dictionary: The vocabulary of reading and writing*; Newark, DE: International Reading Association, 1995, p.12

⁵⁰ Jeanne Shay Schumm, *Reading Assessment and Instruction for All learners*, New York: The Guilford Press, 2006, p.10

⁵¹ I.S.P Nation, *Teaching ESL/EFL Reading and Writing*, p.75

Comprehension tests can use a variety of question forms and can have a variety focuses.⁵² In this study, the writer used multiple-choice questions. In multiple-choice items, typically there were a stem with four choices, one of which is correct. In order to produce a large number of questions to make test reliable, quite a long text or several short texts are needed. Marking is usually very easy, and most learners are familiar with multiple-choice tests, although they may not have good strategies for sitting them. Good multiple-choice tests tend to be very reliable.⁵³

Multiple choice questions can focus on details (microstructure) and on more general aspects (macrostructure) of the text. Multiple-choice questions can be checked by checking the length of the answers to make sure that the correct answer is not always shorter or longer than the distractors. To make marking easier, a special answer sheet and an answer key may be used.⁵⁴

Also, the writer measured students' ability in producing question by gave the text to the students and asked them to make questions as many as they could, related to the text in pre-whilst-after reading.

F. The Taxonomy of Educational Objectives

The taxonomy of educational objectives is a framework for classifying statements of what we expect or intend students to learn as a result of instruction. The framework was conceived as a means of facilitating the exchange of test items among faculty at various universities in order to create banks of items, each

⁵² I. S. P. Nation, *Teaching ESL/EFL Reading and Writing*, p. 77

⁵³ *Ibid*, p. 78

⁵⁴ *Ibid*.

measuring the same educational objective. Bloom saw the original Taxonomy as more than a measurement tool. He believed it could serve as a⁵⁵:

1. common language about learning goals to facilitate communication across persons, subject matter, and grade levels;
2. basis for determining for a particular course or curriculum the specific meaning of broad educational goals, such as those found in the currently prevalent national, state, and local standards;
3. means for determining the congruence of educational objectives, activities, and assessments in a unit, course, or curriculum; and
4. panorama of the range of educational possibilities against which the limited breadth and depth of any particular educational course or curriculum could be contrasted.

The list on the following paragraphs contains lists of verbs that approximate the particular levels of student learning. It is important to “unwrap” standards and ensure each standard is placed in the taxonomy table before designing appropriate assessment items.

Cognitive process 1: To remember. To remember is to retrieve relevant knowledge from long-term memory. Verbs associated with this level: choose, define, describe, find, identify, label, list, locate, match, name, recall, recite.

Cognitive process 2: To understand. To understand is to construct meaning from instructional messages, including oral, written, and graphic

⁵⁵ David R. Krathwohl, *A Revision of Bloom's Taxonomy: An Overview*, Theory Into Practice, Volume 41, Number 4, Autumn 2002 (Copyright C) 2002 College of Education, The Ohio State University, p. 212.

communication. Verbs associated with this level: compare, conclude, explain, match, paraphrase, predict, summarize, translate, understand.

Cognitive process 3: To apply. To apply is to carry out or use a procedure in a given situation. Verbs associated with this level: apply, carry out, construct, develop, display, execute, illustrate, implement, model, solve, use.

Cognitive process 4: To analyze. To analyze is to break material into its constituent parts and determine how the parts relate to one another and to an overall structure or purpose. Verbs associated with this level: analyze, connect, inspect, integrate, investigate, organize, outline, reduce, solve (a problem).

Cognitive process 5: To evaluate. To evaluate is to make judgments based on criteria and standards. Verbs associated with this level: appraise, assess, award, check, conclude, convince, coordinate, criticize, critique, defend, detect, discriminate, evaluate, judge, justify, monitor, prioritize, rank, recommend, support, test, value.

Cognitive process 6: To create. To create is to put elements together to form a coherent or functional whole; reorganize elements into a new pattern or structure; inventing a product. Verbs associated with this level: adapt, build, develop, generate, hypothesize, invent, make, modify, plan, produce, originate, refine, transform.⁵⁶

Related to the study, the writer taught self-questioning strategy belongs to C5 (Cognitive Process 5), because self-questioning indicated that students could evaluate their own comprehension in reading activity.

⁵⁶ Anderson, L. W., et al. *A Taxonomy for Learning, Teaching, and Assessing: A Revision of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*. New York: Longman. 2001. p.67-68