THE EFFECTS OF EXTENSIVE READING USING A LEARNER AUTONOMY TRAINING

ON READING ABILITY AND READER AUTONOMY OF THAI UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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นางสาวปวีณา จันทร์นวล

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ปวีณา จันทร์นวล : ผลของการอ่านนอกเวลาโดยใช้การฝึกการเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองต่อ
ความสามารถในการอ่านและการอ่านเองได้อย่างอิสระของนักศึกษาไทยในระดับปริญญา
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STUDENTS) อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก : รศ.ดร.ปัญชลี วาสนสมสิทธิ์, 250 หน้า.

งานวิจัยนี้เป็นการศึกษาผลของการสอนแบบเน้นการอ่านนอกห้องเรียนโดยใช้กลวิธีการ
ฝึกการเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองที่มีต่อความสามารถด้านการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษและการอ่านเองได้อย่าง
อิสระ โดยออกแบบโครงสร้างของรูปแบบการสอนให้เหมาะกับคุณลักษณะการเรียนรู้ของ
นักศึกษาไทย วัตถุประสงค์หลักของงานวิจัยนี้ คือ ศึกษาระดับความสามารถในการเรียนรู้ด้วย
ตนเองและความสามารถของนักศึกษาไทยด้านการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษในรูปแบบการอ่านนอก
ห้องเรียน กลุ่มตัวอย่างประกอบด้วยนักศึกษาระดับปริญญาตรีที่ลงทะเบียนเรียนในรายวิชาการอ่าน
เชิงวิชาการ จำนวน 37 คน ข้อมูลเชิงปริมาณได้จากคะแนนแบบทดสอบความสามารถทั่วไปในการ
อ่านภาษาอังกฤษก่อนเรียนและหลังเรียนและแบบสอบถามกลวิธีการเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเอง โดยนำ
คะแนนมาวิเคราะห์หาค่าความแตกต่าง ส่วนข้อมูลเชิงคุณภาพได้มาจากรายงานบันทึกการอ่าน
แบบสังเกตพฤติกรรมในชั้นเรียนและการสัมภาษณ์

จากผลการทดลองเป็นระยะเวลา 10 สัปดาห์แสดงให้เห็นว่า คะแนนจากแบบทดสอบ
ความสามารถทั่วไปของนักศึกษาในการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษหลังการเรียนเพิ่มขึ้นอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทาง
สถิติ (p < 0.05) ผลของงานวิจัยยังระบุว่านักศึกษาใช้กลวิธีการเรียนแบบปริชานและอภิปริชานเพิ่ม
มากขึ้นในการอ่านนอกห้องเรียน และทัศนคติด้านบวกของนักศึกษาต่อการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษและ
การเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองก็เพิ่มตามขึ้นด้วย จากผลการศึกษาสรุปได้ว่าการสอนแบบเน้นการอ่านนอก
ห้องเรียนโดยใช้กลวิธีการฝึกการเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองช่วยเพิ่มพูนความสามารถด้านการอ่าน
ภาษาอังกฤษและส่งเสริมการเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองของนักศึกษาซึ่งจะส่งผลให้ผู้เรียนภาษากลายเป็น
ผู้อ่านเองได้อย่างอิสระเพิ่มขึ้นต่อไปในภายหน้า

สาขาวิชา....ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ....ลายมือชื่อนิสิต.........................

ปีการศึกษา..2555...ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก.........................

5187863120 : MAJOR ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE
KEYWORDS : EXTENSIVE READING/ LEARNER AUTONOMY / ENGLISH READING ABILITY

PAWEENA CHANNUAN : THE EFFECTS OF EXTENSIVE READING USING A LEARNER AUTONOMY TRAINING ON READING ABILITY AND READER AUTONOMY OF THAI UNIVERSITY STUDENTS. ADVISOR: ASSOC. PROF. PUNCHALEE WASANASOMSITHI, Ph.D., 250 pp.

This research involved the exploration of the extensive reading instruction integrated with learner autonomy training strategies framework (ERLAT), a specifically designed course to suit the Thai students' characteristics. The main objective of this study was to investigate the students' learner autonomy and English reading ability in an extensive reading program. The participants were 37 undergraduate students who were enrolled in the Reading Academic English course. The quantitative data were then collected through the General English Reading Ability pre- and post-test, and the Learner Autonomy Training Strategies Questionnaire. Qualitative data were obtained from Bookworm's Diary, Teacher's Observation Checklist, and Learner Autonomy Training Interviews.

After the ten-week treatment, the test scores showed that students' English reading ability was significantly improved ($p < 0.05$). The findings also indicated that students frequently used the cognitive and metacognitive strategies when reading extensively and their positive attitudes toward both reading and learner autonomy also increased. Based on the study finding, it could be concluded that the ERLAT could enhance reading ability and promote learner autonomy, which would eventually enabled language learners to become more autonomous readers.

Field of Study : English as an International Language Student's Signature

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INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

In the globalized world, English plays an important role as a mean of not only communication but also transactions. English proficiency thus becomes important worldwide, especially in countries where English is learned as a foreign language. For example, growing foreign investments and trades in Thailand and new technology adoption, particularly the internet throughout the country, have resulted in the need of English speaking manpower and of English instruction. This is to provide students with skills and proficiency suitable for the response to the demand of the labor market after their graduation.

English is a foreign language in the educational curriculum in Thailand, but it is crucial for students' achievement. On the one hand, apart from being a key to a large amount of educational resources and research, Thai students learn English with an expectation that they can achieve more attractive career opportunity in the future. On the other hand, in Thailand, English has now become increasingly necessary for negotiations, communications, and transaction executions because Thai companies have embraced cooperation, associations, mergers, and takeovers from regional and global investors. Effective and successful business conducts thus interrelate closely with English proficiency.

Thai students' English proficiency and their test scores (based on two TOEFL and TOEIC scores), however, is low in comparison with many Asian countries (e.g. Malaysia, Philippines, and Singapore) (Wiriyachitra, 2002; Khamkhien, 2010). In this regard, their average TOEFL scores are the same as those of Mongolians but higher

than those of North Korean and Japanese counterparts (Wiriyachitra, 2002: 1). With respect to reading skills of Thai students, it is also found that, for both computer-based and paper-based TOEFL tests, their reading scores were at a low level (Educational Testing Service, 2007). Therefore, it can be assumed that some Thai students may experience a frustration in reading English and may face certain problems in practicing or improving their reading proficiency.

Poor reading proficiency can thus be a factor that may hinder students from gaining full language learning progress resulting eventually in the ineffectiveness of L2 acquisition as a whole. In this regard, Alderson (1984: 1 cited in Swatevacharkul, 2006) states clearly that "a reading ability is often all that is needed by learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), as well as of other foreign languages." The significance of reading ability is emphasized by Carrell (2006: 1) as follows:

> In second language teaching/learning situations for academic purposes, especially in higher education in English-medium universities or other programmes that make extensive use of academic materials written in English, reading is paramount. Quite simply, without solid reading proficiency, second language readers cannot perform at levels they must in order to succeed.

One can also say that affective variables, including in particular motivation, are crucial to students' success in the reading process. Interactive reading activities that encourage students to facilitate learning as well as increase their motivation for reading may be one option in solving poor motivation problems (Day and Bomford, 2002). This means that students' commitment to reading with eagerness and their true interest in reading are essential for higher effectiveness of reading instruction. Meanwhile, students should also read extensively in order to gain adequate prior knowledge for more successful engagement in the reading process.

As a result, extensive reading seems promising for target language acquisition since it may likely enable students to read meaningfully and strategically. Benefits from the practice of extensive reading are also supported by experts and relevant research (Nuttal, 1996; Grabe and Stoller, 2001; Day and Bomford, 2002, Grabe, 2009). This is due to the fact that extensive reading instruction allows students to have an active exposure to reading activities while discussing different perspectives on issues and text contents with classmates. In this way, students' motivation may then increase and, eventually, they may not only recognize the significance of reading but also be able to read independently.

Besides extensive reading, it is also found that English reading comprehension can be improved by integrating autonomous modes of learning into classroom practice (Matsubara and Lehtinen, 2007; Imrie, 2007; Swatevacharkul, 2006). Carrell and Eisterhold argue that there is a significant relationship between autonomous learning and reading skills, and the virtue of learning autonomy for knowledge transfer to real use in real life. Hence, it is a challenging goal for language teachers to assist students in strengthening their reading skill in order to develop them into independent readers outside EFL/ESL classrooms (Carrell and Eisterhold, 1989). In other words, students should be able to apply in-class learning techniques and strategies for the use beyond classroom setting.

1.2. Significance of the Problem

Classrooms in Thailand have been dominated by teacher-centered language learning for decades. Teachers tend to become determiners, facilitators, and centers in almost every aspect of classroom activities and to take the role of the expert who takes overall responsibility of students' learning. Hence, judgments about what constitutes

suitable materials, teaching methods, and relevant elements rest with teachers. Meanwhile, students assume a passive role and have neither active interaction nor contribution in learning processes, so they fail to take responsibility and to truly learn to develop and improve their individual English skills on their own.

If teachers are to help students to be more proficient in target language use, teachers should find the way to help students to behave responsibly in order that they can make a contribution to their own learning. In this connection, the teacher may need to help students to develop the responsibility and learner autonomy in the learning process. Little (1995: 175) supports the idea of incorporating learner autonomy into the classroom that "in formal educational contexts, genuinely successful learners have always been autonomous." Similarly, Benson (2001) argues that learner autonomy development implies better language learning because learner autonomy can partly help students to use strategies suitably for effective language utterance as well as to develop their own self-direction capabilities. This may contribute not only to gradual intellectual progress but also to greater motivation in learning and using the target language (Little, 1995).

Ability and willingness are regarded as an important factor for the promotion of students' autonomous capacity. Indeed, for example, it may be impossible for learners who lack necessary knowledge or skills to organize their time effectively to become successful autonomous learners despite the fact that they may feel highly motivated to learn outside class. Hence, the ability and willingness to make choices or to take control autonomously should be enhanced. With respect to the ability and willingness, they consist of two components. The former depends on possessing both *knowledge* about available alternatives for making choices and necessary *skills* for

carrying out them appropriately. The latter encompasses both the *motivation* and the *confidence* to take responsibility for the choices required since learners who are accustomed to a high level of teacher control and support may lack the confidence to carry out skills on their own. Accordingly, it can be said that, to be successful in learning autonomously, the integration of all these components may then be essential. In other words, "the more knowledge and skills the students possess, the more confident they are likely to feel when asked to perform independently; the more confident they feel, the more they are likely to be able to mobilize their knowledge and skills in order to perform effectively; and so on" (Littlewood, 1996).

To enhance learner autonomy effectiveness, there are two important aspects to be considered. For students, their academic needs and interests should be met in order to increase their motivation and engagement in the learning process. Meanwhile, teachers may play a role in promoting students' active participation instead of being passive learners along with the provision of suitable supports or advice for them when necessary. The teacher should understand how to teach in the way that responds to students' diverse needs. This is to allow them to recognize the significant role of learner autonomy to the improvement of language proficiency (Yang, 1998; Sert, 2006).

With respect to the present study, reading is one of the four skills that English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students need for their learning and acquisition. Effective reading skill is believed to be critical for EFL students because it can serve as an important basis for them to gradually acquire language understanding and proficiency (Carrell, 2006). In particular, reading proficiency is important to tertiary students as they need to understand articles, textbooks, or journals written in English for either fulfillment of course requirements or conducting their research and studies. Further, reading

proficiency may become even more important for students to be successful in their working life after graduation, especially in Thailand where its economy is increasingly opened to international investment and business. Therefore, reading ability becomes crucial in the same way as other language skills because it is inevitable for Thais to be capable of reading English documents for business achievement.

However, it can be said that English reading instruction in the university level in Thailand may not be successful as expected. On the one hand, most English reading classes are usually conducted based on the lecture mode. Reading materials and teaching outlines determined by teachers may fail to take into account students' involvement, language background, and needs. As a result, students tend to have lower interest in those selected texts and may read them merely for the course requirement fulfillment. This notion corresponds to the reflection of Fink (2003) on lecture-mode instruction that may probably hinder teaching effectiveness. This includes students' difficulty to make pre-class preparation, their boredom due to the lack of active and enthusiastic engagement in the learning process, and poor detention of knowledge. The insufficient background knowledge may also be a contributory factor that hinders students' full understanding of texts, especially students at the university level who may need to deal with more academic texts. Such factors may not only result in students' failure to understand reading topics but also in unsatisfactory outcomes of reading. It can eventually discourage them to pursue reading in a more meaningful and effective way.

Extensive reading instruction is regarded as an alternative to traditional reading lessons because students are allowed to have an interaction and active engagement with reading materials and with their classmates in making discussion

about the topics they are reading. Students are also encouraged to read extensively to find main ideas instead of putting an effort to understand complex structure of articles in separate pieces. In addition, extensive reading allows students to choose reading materials according to their personal interests and preferences. They also have an opportunity to make a decision on their own about what reading strategies to be used. This may then enhance students' confidence and active participation in reading activities without fear or anxiety of making mistake or being frustrated by unsatisfactory reading outcomes (Day and Bomford, 2002). Therefore, such interactions and increased involvement with reading activities can probably be a means to motivate students to read more along with the promotion of learner autonomy in their learning process in the long run.

Further, the teacher's changing role is also another key component of extensive reading. The teacher may take a role of a 'provider' and a 'facilitator' who may not only create the learning environment in which students can read enjoyably but also give them the opportunity to actively engage in the learning process. For example, allowing students to choose preferred books or reading materials may allow them to feel 'confident or efficacious as readers' (Deng, 2007; Guthrie, 2010). Likewise, Goodman (1972: 117 cited in Sinhaneti, 2008) argues that "readers should be encouraged to select material on the basis of their own criteria of interest and ease…a major aspect of joyful reading is that students should be able to choose what they read–in terms of genre and, crucially, level. They are much more likely to read with enthusiasm if they have made the decision about what they read."

The integration of extensive reading and learner autonomy thus reflects the fact that English reading instruction should focus on students' needs. The

effectiveness of reading instruction can then be fostered by means of promotion of students' active participation with teachers, classmates, and the leaning process. This aims to encourage students not only to read extensively according to their preference but also to develop cognitive and metacognitive skills for reading comprehension improvement. Once students read broadly, they may acquire a range of background knowledge, which is an indispensable element for students to engage in reading activities in a meaningful way and to become autonomous readers who can read and make self-evaluation on their own. Thus, certain degree of learner autonomy can promote students' motivation to read for different purposes and to become independent readers who can enjoy reading autonomously outside the classroom (Hedge, 2003).

For Thailand, it is found that tertiary students' reading ability is generally at a low level. Most of them have studied English for over ten years but reading is considered a tough task. They often face problems or difficulties in reading English texts due to poor understanding of vocabulary and idioms, lack of sentence structure comprehension, and limited background knowledge, for example. All of these factors may constitute one important obstruction to reading achievement of Thai students (Orranuch, 2008). According to my experiences as a student and a teacher, Thai educational authorities have traditionally structured language classes in such a way that the teacher is regarded as the provider of knowledge and the student as the receiver. Students are expected to obey, not challenge, and to listen, absorb, and then repeat when asked. English teaching at a university level in Thailand remains didactic, product-oriented, and teacher-centered, so Thai students are frequently passive and dependent and lack initiatives.

In particular, as almost all the students have been educated through the traditional method, the only response students tend to give is answering questions or reading the text as directed by their teacher. In class they are used to listening to the teachers and taking notes but not participating in or asking questions. There is no exchange of information. Teachers primarily pay attention to the linguistic points of English and do not address points concerning learning strategies. It can be said that such traditional instruction is time-consuming and less effective.

For Naresuan University students, most of the students similarly face the above mentioned problems. It is therefore decided that an investigation should be conducted using the non-English major undergraduates of Academic Year 2011 to try out the Extensive Reading integrated with Learner Autonomy Training framework (ERLAT), which is a newly designed course to fulfill the gaps of such traditional instruction. Therefore, ERLAT is the adoption of extensive reading with a particular aim to encourage students to read plenty of reading materials of their own choice in a variety of interested topics both inside and outside of the classroom. They also have access to books within their competence and silently read at their own pace and time for the pleasure and comprehension of main points.

In addition, ERLAT is also guided by the concept of learner autonomy strategies including cognitive and metacognitive strategies (planning, self-monitoring, and self-evaluating). Students can then consult or discuss with their teacher for guidelines and tips; thus, direct intervention will be avoided. In such reading instruction, the teacher will act as a model reader providing students with advice when necessary and encouraging them to continue reading extensively.

In conclusion, the exploration of effects of ERLAT is more than just the reflection of how to foster students' reading comprehension. It is expected that students, especially those who have poor reading proficiency, may use reading strategies more efficiently both inside and outside the classroom, and, importantly, to get higher reading comprehension. A possible outcome of ERLAT implementation is that students may have good reading habit and greater reading pleasure as well as continue reading independently. They are also expected to choose or use reading strategies more appropriately since ERLAT allows them to plan and deal with their own learning process to a considerable degree. This is then expected to enable them to read autonomously and meaningfully.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

The aims of this study are as follows:

1. To investigate the effects of the course with incorporation of extensive reading and learner autonomy training (ERLAT) in promoting English reading ability of Thai university students

2. To examine learner autonomy training strategies used by Thai university students while participating in the ERLAT course

3. To investigate the levels of learner autonomy of Thai university students in the ERLAT course

4. To explore the opinions of the students toward the ERLAT course

1.4. Research Questions

This study addresses the following research questions:

1. To what extent does ERLAT improve English reading ability of Thai university students?

2. What are learner autonomy training strategies used by Thai university students while participating in the ERLAT course?

3. What are the levels of learner autonomy of Thai university students in the ERLAT course?

4. What are the opinions of the students toward the ERLAT course?

1.5. Statement of Hypotheses

Promoting autonomy through extensive reading instruction may result in improving students' language learning process as well as reading ability. Matsubara & Lehtinen (2007) have confirmed that students enrolled in the year-long Advanced Reading course in Japan which half of this course had an extensive reading component were able to take control of planning and managing their reading content, reading what they choose throughout the semester and creating their own projects around their reading. Similarly, Lai (1993) attests that students in extensive reading program at the Chinese University of Hong Kong indicated significant gains in general reading comprehension.

Research shows extensive reading instruction and learner autonomy are interrelated and has been beneficial to students in language learning classroom. A student who practices extensive reading is able to be an independent learner because: they can select what they want to read, at a level that suits their proficiency, out of the classroom at a time and place of their choosing. In addition, they can assume some measure of responsibility for their own learning.

To determine the effectiveness of the ERLAT course, the students' general reading ability and their attitude toward their learning experience in a reading class that

incorporate extensive reading instruction and learner autonomy training model, the following hypotheses have been formulated:

1. The students' English reading ability scores gained from the post-test taken after they have been exposed to ERLAT are significantly higher than the scores gained from the pre-test at .05 level.

2. The levels of learner autonomy of the students are increased at .05 level.

1.6. Scope of the Study

One-group pretest-posttest design is used in this research. Weekly three-sequential periods of treatment have been conducted. This includes the instruction of reading strategies and practice of language features in one IR-based session, followed by ERLAT sessions. For the latter, they involve extensive reading activities as well as cognitive and metacognitive strategies, while the last ERLAT session is devoted for sustained silent reading.

2. Population

The population in this study included about 229 undergraduate non-English-majoring students of Naresuan University. These students are enrolled in the Reading Academic English Course in the second semester of the academic year 2011. The course is divided into approximately 6 sections, with approximately 34 students per section.

3 Variables

The independent variable is extensive reading integrated with the learner autonomy training (ERLAT) course. The dependent variables are the students' reading ability and their learner autonomy level.

1.7. Delimitations

This study aims to develop extensive reading instruction integrated with learner autonomy training strategies (ERLAT) for Thai university students. Extensive reading and learner autonomy training strategies are studied based on general reading ability. Therefore, reading rate and vocabulary knowledge are not the focal point of the study. Since this study is a one-group pretest-posttest design, generalization of the findings should be done with cautions.

1.8. Definition of Terms

1.8.1. Extensive Reading integrated with Learner Autonomy Framework (ERLAT) is the integrative model of reading strategy instruction involving the promotion of proactive and independent learning process as well as of students' active engagement in planning, self-monitoring, and evaluating their own reading process. In particular, it is designed to suit the needs of the Thai students, especially those with low reading ability and motivation in order to increase their motivation and positive attitudes toward reading to improve their reading skills and overall reading proficiency.

1.8.2. Extensive Reading (ER) is an approach of the second language reading instruction which encourages students to read a large amount of books that suit their individual interest and linguistic competence (Day and Bamford, 1998). In this study, the instruction involves the reading strategy use and reading skill training through weekly out-of-class reading and 30-minute in-class sustained silent under the monitoring of the teacher. The graded content readers are used throughout the instruction.

1.8.3. Reading ability refers to the process of acquiring, interpreting, and understanding messages or meanings implied in encoded language patterns, particularly via a written or printed medium. The reading ability is evaluated by scores students

achieved from reading ability tests during the course duration. The tests measure different aspects of reading comprehension: locating main idea, determining word meaning, and making inferences.

1.8.4. Learner Autonomy refers to the students' ability to control and to take the responsibility in their own learning process. In this study, learner autonomy is the learning environment in which learners are encouraged to have an active engagement in the learning process with the promotion of active classroom activities that are relatively similar to a real-world situation. Meanwhile, the teacher plays the role of an advisor or counselor providing them with the necessary supports when needed.

1.8.5. Learner autonomy training strategies are to imbue learner autonomy focusing on the methodological and psychological preparations. The former involves cognitive and metacognitive strategies, while the latter concerns the attitudes. Therefore, learner autonomy training strategies are the process of articulating students' attitudes toward personal responsibility and learning capacity. This is to motivate the students' active participation in the learning process and to encourage them to learn responsively and independently.

1.8.6. Reader autonomy refers to the students' ability to control their own reading activities and to read for their own purposes. It focuses on the reading goal setting, proper strategy use for better text comprehension, and self-assessment. In particular, the learners will gain self-confidence that they are effective readers who can read on their own.

1.9. Significance of the study

The development and evaluation of extensive reading instruction integrated with learner autonomy in this study is the goal of this study. The results are expected to provide certain important contributions and reflections of extensive reading in ways that benefit Thai tertiary students. The finding of this study can also be used as a guideline for reading comprehension and proficiency improvement that enables students to become autonomous readers in the long run. The integration of learner autonomy into extensive reading instruction is believed to have complementary effects on each other. Students may better understand how to learn responsibly and independently. Meanwhile, extensive reading instruction may allow them to recognize that successful readers do not only read a large number of books. Rather, reading strategies should be used in order to read purposefully and successfully.

Importantly, apart from the study of the characteristics of extensive reading instruction and learner autonomy, this study also has pedagogical implications and purposes. Hence, the study puts a great effort to provide an insight into the nature of extensive reading instruction and students' reflections or opinions toward this kind of instruction. This can then be one of the valuable information and guidelines for Thai teachers who desire to implement extensive reading instruction in their reading classes. Once students' reading comprehension is gradually improved along with the increase in their learner autonomy, it can be assumed that their wider and more effective use of reading strategies, their positive motivation toward reading activities, and their good reading habits will have been fostered. This may then render to the ultimate goal of all reading instructors; that is, students can eventually become life-long readers who are capable of reading autonomously and effectively to meet their individual objectives.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This research aims to examine reading instruction in which extensive reading is integrated into a groundbreaking curriculum for Thai EFL students to promote students' reading comprehension and learner autonomy. The following topics thus are discussed in this chapter:

2.1. Extensive reading

2.2. Reading comprehension

2.3. Learner autonomy

2.4. Course development

2.1. Extensive Reading

2.1.1 Overview

Extensive Reading (ER) becomes a world-wide accepted practice in ESL and EFL reading instruction programs because it puts an emphasis on students' active engagement in the learning process (Nuttall, 1996). That is to say that extensive reading also follows the "students learn to read by reading" slogan (Smith, 1983 cited in Pino-Silva, 2006). Therefore, the integration of active activities in extensive reading classes aims to promote the participation of students in reading programs and their discussions on what they have read and understood. It also focuses on the opportunity in which students enjoy reading along with the provision of teachers' advice and access to dictionary and reference books (Nuttall, 1996; Lituanas, Jacobs, and Renandya, 1999; Pino-Silva, 2006). This agrees with the notion of social constructivism because, for the constructivists, it is believed that "effective learning begins from the learner's active participation in the process of learning," so "learning will be most effective when

learners are fully involved in decisions about the content and processes of learning"
(Benson, 2001: 35-36).

2.1.2 Definition of Extensive Reading

Different researchers have attempted to give different definitions of extensive reading. For example, according to Hafiz and Tudor (1989: 4), it can refer to "the reading of large amounts of material in the second language overtime for personal pleasure or interest, and without the addition of productive tasks or follow up language work." Likewise, Lituanas, Jacobs, and Renandya (1999: 4) give a relatively similar definition that is "the reading of large quantities of material for information or pleasure" with "the immediate focus on the content being read, rather than on language skills." Grabe and Stoller (2002: 259) also define extensive reading as "the teaching and learning of reading in which learners read large quantities of material that is within their linguistic competence." In addition, Nuttall (1996) explains that extensive reading can be one of the effective ways to improve reading skills because it provides the learning environment in which students can enjoy reading-related activities and value them for pragmatic reasons.

Thus, extensive reading can refer to the instruction of reading that allows students to read a large amount of self-selected, accessible, and interesting texts on the basis of their personal interest and preference with less or no teachers' direct intervention. This is to promote students' learning motivation and to increase their willingness to read English materials and to encourage them to learn to put an emphasis on overall comprehension rather than on given words or phrases. In so doing, students can enjoy reading in an environment most resembling to the real-world context. Meanwhile, students' increased motivation may result in the pleasure

of reading, which, in turn, is beneficial for language acquisition and for development of the reading habit to engage in reading activities beyond the classroom setting.

2.1.3 Principles of Extensive Reading

According to Powell (2002), there is evidence showing that extensive reading benefits the performance of students because it is notable for the combination of "pleasure of reading a good story with the satisfaction inherent in accomplishing a meaningful task in the target language," while learners still possess a limited language skills and understanding. Then, the pleasure of reading effectively encourages students to read more and the acquisition of language can be gradually developed. In this regard, according to Grabe and Stroller (2002), the following elements should be taken into account along with the application of extensive reading: 1) how students engage in reading activities, 2) what fluent reading skill is, 3) how reading is performed as a cognitive process, and 4) how L2 learners are able to draw meaning from their reading activities and how their reading proficiency can be specified. One can then assume that extensive reading can be a highly important way of widening and improving language knowledge and of developing an understanding of when and how words are used in different contexts and styles. The large amount of language input that students may have learned from extensive reading can enhance their language acquisition process as well as familiarity with grammatical rules and other language elements from true environment of usage (Krashen, 1993; Powell, 2002).

When reading becomes an enjoyable activity for students, they may spend more time reading. This can be an opportunity for them to be exposed to language input and to pick up new idioms, vocabulary, expressions, and writing styles from an actual context. Students hence may move away from the understanding on a word-by-word

basis to contextual comprehension, an essential skill for effective language learning and acquisition. Then, deeper understanding of language and greater fluency may partially/indirectly help improve other skills (listening, writing, and speaking) of students (Powell, 2002). That is to say, "extensive reading not only develops reading skills but it also benefits a whole range of other language skills, boosts confidence and motivation, and improves overall attitudes. Reading in this sense has to be seen holistically, as a crucial part of students' total development, not as some separate skill" (Powell, 2002: 3).

Content or difficulty level of texts or articles can be a vital factor for the success of extensive reading. It can be said that "one of the main concerns is … how to make the text accessible to the learner-reader and still retain the conventions of the genre" because this may allow students to read smoothly and effectively with fewer interruptions. The suitable texts will benefit students in light of "increased skill of prediction, making for faster comprehension and practical exposure to the rhetorical and makers found in most written discourse" (Dolan, 1998: 51).

2.1.4 Theories Pertinent to Extensive Reading

This section addresses theoretical frameworks that reflect aspects behind extensive reading. This includes social constructivism, Input Hypothesis, and Affective Filter Hypothesis.

2.1.4.1 Social Constructivists

Constructivism emphasizes the needs to encourage students to create their own meanings from texts, rather than to impose teachers' interpretation upon them, in response to the shift from teacher-centered classrooms to learners-centered ones. Therefore, reading teachers may assist students to create meaning instead of dominating

the lesson by telling them meaning of texts as in most traditional classrooms. This is to generate students' genuine interest in meanings through text awareness with an aim to promote their proficiency in learning from text contents. In other words, teacher should demonstrate a role model of what a good reader should be like (Day and Bamford, 1998). Such an effort can then be considered as "teacher scaffolding," which enables students to receive certain supports from their teacher who devises a range of reading activities possible for them to perform at a new level. Teacher modeling of good reading practices thus is a useful form of scaffolding for students (Yang and Wilson, 2006).

For constructivists, scaffolding is believed to generate the sense that, while reading, learners must interact with their background knowledge in order to construct ideas within their own minds about what they are reading as well as to make sense of essences they receive (Nuttal, 1996; Huang, 2009). 'Pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading exercises,' for example, can be the crucial scaffoldings that "empower students to choose what and how to read in ways which suit their needs and purposes" (Wilson, 2003: 2). That is to say that a reading class may not be devoted mainly to simply practicing reading but the teacher should support students to gradually develop their skills to read constructively and independently (Wilson, 2003). Therefore, reading is not merely an isolated process in which readers just decode message and information the authors convey in the articles. In so doing, interaction is important to the successful reading process. Interactive instruction can then enhance students' reading skill, particularly the introduction, by the teacher, of an environment that allows students to learn how to become independent readers (Huang, 2009). Reading in the lens of social constructivism thus is viewed as "social practice(s) which affect(s) when you read, what

you read, where you read, who you read with and of course why and how you read"
(Wilson, 2003: 1).

2.1.4.2 Collaborative Language Learning

It can be assumed that collaborative language learning is closely related to the constructivist principles, which hold that knowledge is discovered and reconstructed by learners and their learning is a social process. The interaction with classmates and collaboration in small-group activities are then expected to develop students' language skills, deeper understanding, and active learning (Wilson, 2003). This reflects a shift of focus from the teacher to students and seeks to meet various learning styles and interests of students. It is believed that active interactions and activities are one of the effective means for continuing progress in reading proficiency and for developing relevant language skills via the formation of the learning environment that resembles the real-world context (Mesh, 2010).

When viewed through constructivism's concept of scaffolding, collaborative language learning can also be supported by their teacher to a certain extent to ensure that students are stimulated to learn for the achievement of learning at higher levels. On the one hand, interaction with teacher can foster students' independence in the learning process encouraging them to engage in reading activities and self-assessment of progress instead of continuing dependence on their teacher. On the other hand, classroom instruction may also be needed, especially for students at lower-ability language levels in developing their basic and necessary skills (Dunworth, 2002; Yang and Wilson, 2006).

2.1.4.3 Input Hypothesis

Input Hypothesis is Krashen's (1982) attempt to explain how the learner acquires a second language or how second language acquisition takes place. The target language may be acquired when it is taught "a little beyond" the learners' actual competence (i+1). This is possible because contextual clues, background knowledge, and extra-linguistic information are regarded as an important tool that can help learners understand the target language in addition to their language proficiency. Therefore, it can be stated that comprehensible inputs that are just a little beyond the present capacity of learners may be the most useful form for target language acquisition. Meanwhile, unchallenging or simple inputs may not activate learners' interest to learn productively and effectively or to learn anything at all (Krashen, 1982).

Input hypothesis thus closely relates to what is called "caretaker speech," which refers to the way parents and others talk to their young children. Caretaker speech contains a wide range of simplifications or modifications in order to help the children gain understanding rather than to teach the language to them. In general, such medication is called "roughly-tuned" not "finely-tuned" because the adjustment still does not conform exactly to the actual linguist level of each child. The complexity of caretaker speech also gradually increases once children's proficiency progresses (Clark and Clark, 1977 cited in Krashen 1982: 22).

2.1.4.4 Affective Filter Hypothesis

The Affective Filter Hypothesis is crucial to successful target language acquisition. It aims to explore relationship between affective variables and the second language acquisition process. This includes: (1) which language model the learners will

select, (2) which part of the language the learners will devote themselves to, (3) when the acquisition of the language should stop, and (4) how fast the learners are able to acquire the language. Strength or level of affective filters can also have certain impact on language acquisition. This means that learners with high or strong filters will acquire less of the language directed at them because less input is "allowed in to the language-acquisition device (LAD)." On the contrary, learners with optimal affective filter "will not only seek and obtain more input, they will also have a lower or weaker filter. They will be more open to the input, and it will strike deeper" (Krashen, 1982: 31).

In the Affective Filter Hypothesis, Krashen focuses on the importance of motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety. The optimal learning can occur when affective filter is weak. This is due to the fact that the increase in an affective filter can be attributable to low motivation, low self-esteem, and debilitating anxiety. All these prevent comprehensible input from being used for the acquisition. Learners will then not seek language input, and not be opened for language acquisition. Hence, the practical application of the Affective Filter Hypothesis is that teachers must provide an atmosphere suitable for language learning in order to increase students' positive attitudes toward learning. In other words, learners with high motivation, self-confidence, and a low level of anxiety are better equipped for second language acquisition success and effectiveness (Krashen, 1982).

In this connection, one can see the similarity between ZPD and Krashen' Hypothesis in spite of different terms used. One of the common assumptions is that the interaction is a crucial factor for a fruitful language learning process. Both theories may likely focus on the importance of real-world interaction in foreign language learning with more natural, communicative, and experiential approaches rather than

structured or rule-based instruction (Lantolf and Thorne, 2007; Yu, n.d.). In particular, reading in a pleasurable context is expected to be more successful because it directs readers' focus to meanings and main ideas; hence, it "relies on comprehensible input to supply new vocabulary in enough frequency" rather than to attempt to understand the whole complex paragraphs and structures of a passage or text (Krashen, 1982: 73, 81). Meanwhile, Krashen and Vygotsky also share a common view that certain supports are still necessary for students to be successful in learning a language. This means that teachers may take a role of an advisor who gives suggestions and motivates them to learn independently instead of having direct intervention. In this regard, an analogy between readers and athletes can be useful (Vacca and Vacca, 2005). Teaching students to be competent readers can be comparable to athletes in training. For students, they must understand rules (reading strategies), rehearse, work on them, and practice in order to perform well with texts. Meanwhile, the teacher is like a coach who needs to provide positive feedback, guide, and inspire their students as well as share the knowledge and experiences that he or she possesses.

2.1.5 Motivation

Motivation to learn the target language refers to "the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity" (Gardner, 1985 cited in Du, 2009: 162). Likewise, "motivation deals with…the choices individuals make about which activity to do or not to do, their degree of persistence at the chosen activities, and the amount of effort they put forth to do the activity. Purely cognitive models of reading do not deal with these sorts of issues and so do not provide a complete picture of reading" (Wigfiled, 2000: 140: 141). Motivation thus is one of the important factors that

encourage learners either to practice the target language or to use it for communicative purpose with greater confidence. Students with high motivation tend to have more exposure to the target language because they are willing to learn it both inside and outside classrooms, resulting in greater proficiency and more successful target language acquisition (Krashen, 1982).

According to Du (2009: 162), Gardner and Krashen have shared a common notion that there are two types of motivation: integrative and instrumental. The former is that learners of the target language are interested in the target language and willing to have an engagement or participation in actual social life. Meanwhile, for the latter, learning the target language is only done to meet some sort of goals such as passing examinations and furthering study overseas, etc.

This may probably imply that motivated students will want to learn or enjoy learning a language. They can produce the consistency between 'cognitive science of reading' and 'acquisition of expertise' as well as be more confident in their reading abilities. As a result, they may likely continue reading despite the difficulty of materials resulting in quicker improvement of reading proficiency and in effective target language acquisition. Specifically, motivation allows students to become "an excellent, active reader [who] involves attunement of motivational processes with cognitive and language processes in reading." Students with an active role in reading thus tend to read extensively and to integrate different reading strategies, while their reading purpose is not merely to meet course/test requirements. Rather, reading is done to satisfy individual pleasure and to enhance language proficiency (Guthrie, n.d.).

With respect to how to motivate students to read, Day and Bamford (1998) argue that materials, reading ability, attitudes, and sociocultural environment are four

variables involved. This notion has some similarities with the three characteristics of core second language learning motivation proposed by Gardner (1993 cited in Liuolienë and Metiûnienë, 2006: 93-94), namely, the attitudes toward learning a language (Affect), the desire to learn the language (Want), and motivational intensity (Effort). Also, this can be comparable to four conditions of motivation: Interest (in the topic and activity), Relevance (to the students' lives), Expectancy (expectations of success and feelings of being in control), and Satisfaction (in the outcome) (Liuolienë and Metiûnienë, 2006: 95).

In particular, one can say that the above elements may probably be applicable with the present situation of language learning in Thailand. That is to say that a large number of Thai students nowadays do not have a reading habit and have little motivation to read books in general, let alone English-written ones. Therefore, it can likely be assumed that the provision of reading materials on the basis of students' interest and preference together with the arrangement of supportive learning environment may be one alternative to motivate Thai students to read more and to willingly enjoy reading activities both in classrooms and beyond.

With respect to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, Grabe (2009) argues that the former refers to the situation when readers engage in reading activities on their own, not for any external rewards or without any incentive. Thus, it is important to encourage students to consider what they have learned and benefits they have gained from them so that personal, process, situational and task awareness can then be enhanced. The increase in the awareness will contribute to the change of students' learning concept, which will eventually create their intrinsic motivation (Kohonen, 2001). In contrast, extrinsically motivated students may expect something in return from their reading such

as grades, course fulfillment, and rewards of any kind, etc. One can assume that the expectation of reading instruction is to guide students into intrinsic reading engagement because intrinsic motivation may translate into the inspiration to read voluntarily and willingly. This can be an essential element that drives students along the path of long-term continuance of reading and of true reading behaviors.

In this regard, a study by Takase (2007) on the impact of motivation on extensive reading of 219 high school students in Japan has revealed that motivation can be a key factor for the prediction of reading amount among L2 students. Likewise, the relatively similar result is also reported in the study by Pappa, Zafiropoulou, and Metallidou (2003) with Greek middle-school students. They report that motivation enabled experimental students to outperform the control group in light of text comprehension.

Despite the fact that both research studies were conducted with students overseas, their findings and results can be applicable to Thai students to a considerable degree. Importantly, they reveal that motivation is one of the crucial factors in extensive reading instruction. Thus, the arrangement of an extensive reading program in a way that students' reading motivation can be intrinsically enhanced may be an important foundation not only for course effectiveness as a whole but also for greater achievement of students, especially in terms of their improved reading proficiency, good readers' behavior, and positive motivation toward reading.

In brief, extensive reading seems to encourage students to read larger amounts of text on the basis of their interest and preference. It introduces students to the dynamics of reading as it is done in real life by including such key elements of real-life reading as choice and purpose. The focus of reading activities thus is placed on

the meaning of the whole passage rather than individual words. Apart from gradual development of reading comprehension, students' motivation in English reading can also be enhanced. Meanwhile, teachers' role has also been changed. They become an advisor who provides support or help when needed. Learners will then enjoy a great opportunity not only to develop both reading proficiency but also a love of reading. Such development is essential because it enables them to read, and, indeed, the more they read, the more they can develop reading proficiency. Better reading skills can thus be translated into the overall improvement of target language acquisition.

2.1.6 Characteristics of Extensive Reading

According to Day and Bamford (1998: 7-8), important characteristics of extensive reading can be summarized as follows:

1. Students read as much as possible, perhaps in and definitely out of the classroom.

2. A variety of materials on a wide range of topics is available so as to encourage reading for different reasons and in different ways.

3. Students select what they want to read and have the freedom to stop reading the material that fails to interest them.

4. The purposes of reading are usually related to pleasure, information, and general understanding determined by the nature of the material and the interests of the student.

5. Reading is its own reward as there are few or no follow-up exercises after reading.

6. Reading materials are well within the linguistic competence of the students in terms of vocabulary and grammar. Dictionaries are rarely used while

reading because the constant stopping to look up words makes fluent reading difficult.

7. Reading is individual and silent, done at the students' own pace, and, outside class, done when and where the student chooses.

8. Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower as students read books and other materials they find easily understandable.

9. Teachers orient students to the goals of the program, explain the methodology, keep track of what each student reads, and guide students in getting the most out of the program.

10. The teacher is a role model of a reader for the students who are an active member of the classroom reading community, demonstrating what it means to be a reader and the rewards of being a reader.

Comparatively, the difference between extensive and intensive reading can be found. This means that intensive reading tends to focus on slow and careful reading suitable for complicated texts such as academic papers in order to achieve full understanding. Texts are studied intensively such as distinguishing main ideas and guessing contextual clues or finding unknown words' meanings (Day and Bamford, 1997). The summary of such distinction is as follows:

Intensive Reading		Extensive Reading
Analysis of the language	*Linguistic Focus*	Fluency, skill forming
Usually difficult	*Difficulty*	More easy
Little	*Amount*	A book a week
Selected by teachers	*Selection*	Selected by learners
All learners studying the same material	*What Material*	All learners reading different things (something interesting to them)
In class	*Where*	Mostly at home
Checked by specific questions	*Comprehension*	Checked by reports/summaries

Table 2.1: Difference between Intensive and Extensive Reading (adapted from Welch, 1997)

2.1.7 Benefits of Extensive Reading

Carrell (1998) points out that one of the main objectives of extensive reading is on the concept of "learning to read into reading to learn." An obvious benefit of extensive reading thus is that students are allowed to enjoy a wide range of reading options according to their individual interests and preferences. Despite the fact that teachers may have less control over students' involvement in reading activities, they still play an active role in encouraging their students to learn/study the language outside classroom settings (Powell, 2002).

Additionally, allowing students to choose what to read according to their ability will benefit students with poor performance because they will not feel embarrassed as they may be while being with more competent classmates. Students tend to get less upset, while their satisfaction with reading activity participation may

increase. In other words, students of different proficiency levels can learn and pursue their individual interests in choosing reading materials at their own level without being locked into the inflexibility of traditional classrooms. This may then result in higher motivation and enthusiasm to read more (Powell, 2002). Similarly, learning in a more comfortable and less stressful environment can be an integral factor that motivates students to learn actively. Hence, feeling of achievement in this way will be a crucial path that encourages students' learner autonomy and leads to "learning success and enhanced motivation" (Dickinson, 1995).

Advantages of extensive reading can be summarized as follows:

1. Increased knowledge of the world

2. Enhanced language acquisition in such areas as grammar, vocabulary, and text structure

3. Improved reading and writing skills

4. Joy of reading

5. Developed reading habits

6. Individualized instruction

(Yu, 1993; Nolasco and Arthur, 1988)

2.1.8 An Extensive Reading integrated with Learner Autonomy Training Framework (ERLAT)

ERLAT is the name created in the present study for an innovative reading course. It is a result of a combination of theories of language acquisition, social interaction, and motivation along with the consideration of particular characteristics of Thai learners and reading instruction in Thailand. In this research, intensive and extensive reading instructions are integrated in order to promote reading instruction

effectiveness. According to Loucky (2005), intensive reading instruction is necessary for the systematic teaching of 'text-decoding and meaning-encoding strategies' in order to prepare a foundation for students in pursuing extensive reading techniques. Thus, main components of the reading course in this research are social factors, attitude, cognitive and metacognitive strategies, and affective factors.

As for the social factors aspect, the teacher teaches reading strategies together with the provision of reading activities in tension-free classrooms, while student-student and student-teacher interactions and active engagement are promoted in order to increase the enjoyment and interest of reading activities and related programs. With respect to language learning, the understanding of learners' *role* in the language learning process and their *capability* and *responsibility* as learners are regarded as crucial factors of learner autonomy.

On the other hand, as regards cognitive and metacognitive factors, reading extensively along with active discussions on the topics may help learners not only develop reading proficiency but increase both quantity and quality of reading. Students have opportunities to read a large selection of books for text contents and to achieve more confidence in expressing opinions about what they have read during the discussion with their classmates and teacher. They may also pragmatically learn how to effectively use different reading strategies in approaching texts or articles. In this way, students' interest and pleasure in reading which result from their ability to utilize various reading strategies to serve their purposes of reading are expected to be a key factor that eventually increases students' reading proficiency (Day and Bamford, 1998).

Regarding the affective factor, the pleasure and enjoyment of reading may increase students' motivation to read extensively voluntarily. The combination of

intensive and extensive reading instructions thus can be an alternative to enhance the success of a reading class because the active/interactive classroom environment of extensive reading can likely offset the rigidity of intensive reading instruction. It is expected that such combination may then establish positive motivation and interest of students to read actively and extensively.

The incorporation of social interaction or social factors into the integrated extensive reading is to reflect the significance of active interaction of students while engaging in reading activities. According to Grabe (2009), social interaction can be comparable to real situation of reading. By the same token, the readers in general tend to share or discuss what they have read recently with friends. Likewise, the interaction may be an opportunity for students to help each other when they face certain reading difficulties. This is also similar to a real reading environment in which when readers fail to understand one given reading material, they may generally turn to their friends, or a range of sources and references for consultation.

2.1.9 Differences between ERLAT and Typical Extensive Reading Instruction

ERLAT in this research has been designed to suit the needs of Thai students, especially those with low reading comprehension and reading motivation. In spite of the adoption of characteristics of extensive reading, certain modifications have also been made in order to meet this Particular objective. Thus, the instructions of reading strategies, learner autonomy, and the provision of interactive reading activities to promote students' motivation, learning capacity, and responsibility are important elements incorporated into the ERLAT course.

In traditional extensive reading courses, students are assumed to be ready for engaging in reading extensively at the beginning of the program; therefore, it may not be necessary to teach them reading strategies. However, the instruction of reading strategies is still crucial for L2 students. One analogy to reflect such importance is proposed. Strategic readers can be comparable to athletes, so teaching students to be strategic readers resembles training athletes (Vacca and Vacca, 2005). For students, they must understand rules (strategies), rehearse, work on, and practice them in order to perform well with texts. Similarly, reading strategies can be a key that allows students to understand a systematic and purposeful approach of reading, which enable them to read more efficiently and broadly (Nuttal, 1996; Day and Bamford, 1998).

The ERLAT course is based on the provision of opportunity for students to read extensively along with the reduction of affective filters in line with Krashen's hypothesis in order to motivate them to read willingly in an enjoyable environment. Likewise, scaffolding is also taken into account. Therefore, the teacher takes the role of an advisor or a counselor who provides guidelines or suggestions to enable them to read extensively and strategically. This means that the intensive reading instruction may also be conducted in this ERLAT course with a particular aim to teach students how to use and to benefit from different reading strategies during their engagement in the extensive reading program. Intensive reading instruction with a specific focus on the development of students' understanding of reading skills and strategies is thus important to second language reading in transferring literacy skills to students via the academic contexts (Carrell and Carson, 1997). In particular, intensive reading instruction may serve four main reasons: 'to help learners comprehend written texts,' 'to make them learn how to use and monitor effective reading strategies,' 'to make

them become more aware of text organization to ensure better understanding,' and 'to develop general literacy skills necessary to generate productive expression in L2' (Paran, 2003: 40).

In conclusion, the ERLAT course aims to enable students to use and integrate those learned reading skills and strategies while doing extensive reading. This is not only to enhance their text comprehension but also their motivation to read more and more extensively. Besides, the ERLAT course is specially designed to train students to be autonomous learners by promoting cognitive and metacognitive strategies so as to enable students to manage their own reading and learning as well.

Meanwhile, the important role of teachers is also taken into account because the teacher can be comparable to students' advisor who both teach them a range of reading strategies and provide them with guidelines and recommendations in order to enhance their reading comprehension and, importantly, to encourage them to read extensively and strategically.

2.2. Reading Ability

2.2.1 Overview

Reading is a complex cognitive process used by readers to decode symbols in order that they can construct meaning, understand messages, and acquire information and ideas from printed texts (Nuttal, 1996). Readers read to meet some purposes in individual mind and use strategies or skills in interpreting and receiving messages or contents. As a result, reading instruction for L2 students is to provide them with necessary skills and strategies with an aim to promote proficiency and comprehension. This is due to the fact that good reading proficiency can render to the development of students' language skills as a whole. For example, relevant knowledge and necessary

skills either for a good writing proficiency or for effective oral communication may partly derive from the fact that students have read broadly to acquire such knowledge and understanding (Nuttal, 1996). Besides, reading proficiency may also imply students' capacity to use different reading strategies while reading: guessing unknown words, finding contextual clues, and enhancing text comprehension based on their background knowledge (Chen, 2005; Davies, 2005).

2.2.2 Extensive reading and reading ability

One can say that by giving students the opportunities to choose their own reading materials and reading out of the classroom, their focus can be paid to reading processes so their anxiety is reduced and motivation can be maintained or increased. The development of students' reading ability through extensive reading can probably be attributable to some of the following reasons. First, students of different reading ability levels can be learning at their own level without being locked into an inflexible classroom. Second, students' chance to choose what to read can be an engaging experience that may allow them to follow; therefore, their reading motivation increases. Third, extensive reading is an opportunity for students to enjoy reading outside the classroom (Nation, 1997; Day and Bamford, 1998).

Singhal (2001) argues that, to understand reading proficiency, one may need to make a distinction between reading strategies for effective learning and strategies for the improvement of reading comprehension. Generally, for the former, it may include learning strategies in the second language, while the latter may refer to reading strategies that indicate how students as readers can comprehend a reading task and how they make sense of what they are reading. Presumably, reading proficiency may involve students'

enhanced reading comprehension and their capability to effectively overcome certain comprehension failures on their own (Singhal, 2001).

As for the characteristics of more proficient readers, one may be considered proficient readers based on the following types of reading behaviors (Day and Bamford, 1998; Singhal, 2001; Grabe, 2009):

• Do pre-reading overview and use reading strategies such as guessing the contextual clues: titles, subheading, and diagrams to aid their comprehension and to make sense of parts of text or text structure while reading or facing certain reading difficulties

• Pay greater attention to important information as a whole and to interrelation of in-text messages instead of a separate piece of information or grammatical structures

• Put an effort to make an interference of information to identify main ideas and monitor text comprehension as well as to interpret text and seek meanings based on text contents and use of prior knowledge

• Make an evaluation of reading materials' quality and, importantly, of themselves, especially in light of knowledge gained from the reading and overall comprehension

Hence, it can be said that developing students' interest and enjoyment in reading by means of rich extensive reading activities can likely be one of the most effective means leading to reading efficiency in the long run because the application of extensive reading in classrooms may not only increase students' awareness of reading strategies but also allow them to understand to a considerable degree of how extensive reading can translate into their reading achievement. All these are regarded

as the key factor contributable to students' reading proficiency (Day and Bamford, 1998; Yamashita, 2008).

In brief, extensive reading and improvement of reading proficiency are closely related because once students are able to decide what they prefer to read and read it willingly, they may have greater reading motivation and more concentration to read. They, for example, may dedicate more time to a reading activity. When they read more, their reading comprehension should be improved accordingly. In the following section, certain research findings with respect to the benefits of extensive reading will be discussed to reflect the advantages of extensive reading to the development of reading proficiency.

2.2.3 Extensive reading and reading ability: Research findings

According to a study of Robb and Susser (1990) on EFL extensive reading instruction, an extensive reading course was first introduced at Kyoto Sangyo University (KSU) in Japan. The course was specially developed to promote students' reading skills and competences as well as to imbue them with passionate readers' habit. The class met once a week, for 90 minutes per session, for 30 weeks per year. The syllabus design contained two distinct components: (1) the in-class component bounded to Science Research Associates (SRA) (1999) sets of reading materials and (2) the outside reading component that required students to select books from the class library collection and read extensive amount of them over the 30-week duration of the course. Reading materials were SRA Reading Laboratory Kits and a wide range of outside reading with different topics. All books were labeled "difficulty factor" to facilitate students to select the one with a suitable complication level. To fulfill course requirements, students needed to write a summary of each chapter they had read

through and a weekly report in a record booklet explaining their individual reading progress. According to the authors, writing a report can be an element that challenges students because they may become eager to increase the difficulty level each time they have finished reading one given book.

Lai (1993) also conducted a study on an extensive reading program in light of vocabulary recognition with 1,351 secondary students of four schools in Hong Kong. The study aimed to examine Kristen's theory of second language acquisition through the implementation of an extensive reading scheme. Students were allowed to choose books at their level of language proficiency and to have ample time to read on their own. It was on the assumption that comprehensible input could be achieved in a low affective filter environment according to Krashen's Input Hypothesis. Study results indicated that there were significant gains in the experimental group with respect to vocabulary recognition, listening comprehension, and reading speed. Therefore, the experimental group had better scores in vocabulary recognition than the control group.

A study by Liem (2005) with six students majoring in Computer Science at Saigon Institute of Information Technology aimed at investigating the effects of extensive reading on the subjects' perceptions about their reading ability, and the metacognitive strategies used while doing extensive reading. The use of cognitive and social-affective strategies during the subjects' extensive reading was also explored. A set of questionnaires (pre- and post-questionnaires) was the instrument for the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data. Meanwhile, all the subjects were required to write their reflections on forms about their reading experience and performance during the seven weeks of the study. According to the results of the study, extensive reading had a positive effect on enhancement of the subjects'

perceptions about their reading ability and on an increase in the motivation to read in English. Further, the extensive reading program had brought the subjects a chance to review metacognitive strategies they may have learned or known before attending this program, and to understand more how to apply these strategies by themselves to engage in their reading. The results also reflected the interrelation of metacognitive and cognitive strategies while the subjects were doing their extensive reading.

Tanaka and Stapleton (2007) explored the effects of an extensive reading program on reading comprehension, reading speed, and students' perceptions of the program. The sample of this research consisted of 96 Japanese high school students. In the treatment group, students engaged in a reading activity with teacher-made materials for the first five to ten minutes of class for approximately five months. They also read outside of class. Progress in reading comprehension and speed was measured in comparison to the control group that received no treatment. The results revealed that the treatment group scored significantly higher in reading speed and comprehension than the control group.

In the study of Macalister (2008), the inclusion of extensive reading in three separate 12-week courses in an EAP program at a New Zealand university was explored. This was to seek answers to two questions: would students respond positively to the extensive reading component, and how could extensive reading be included? The result revealed that the students in each of the three classes responded positively to the inclusion of extensive reading these supporting the belief that the integration of extensive reading was beneficial for students. It is also suggested that the exact nature of the integration was left to the class teacher who may need to devise the characteristics of the lessons by taking into account students' proficiency and needs.

In comparison, a study on extensive reading (Grundy, 2004) carried out in New Zealand aimed to investigate ESOL students' attitudes toward reading and to evaluate benefits of extensive reading course in a group of students between the ages of 11 and 13. It was a 10-week course during which students were motivated to read outside class. In addition to learning media and other reading materials (e.g. magazines), students were also encouraged to select their own reading materials from outside the classroom by allowing them to bring such materials to class and share with their classmates. The results also showed that almost all of the students (90%) indicated that they were more interested in reading English compared with before, while the majority (65%) indicated a positive attitude toward reading and learning.

One can assume based on the findings of these studies that students who participate in extensive reading programs have positive attitudes and successful experiences. Seemingly, this may also imply that EFL teachers should take into account how to increase the amount of reading inputs, both inside and outside of the classroom, and to integrate them in the extensive reading programs in compliance with students' linguistic levels and interest. Further, all these research studies may also reflect an important consideration that the implementation of extensive reading in classroom settings should be encouraged because extensive reading may likely be a prominent trend of reading to help students effectively develop their reading comprehension as well as their positive attitudes toward reading. Importantly, implications and conclusions of these studies, especially those conducted in Asian countries, are probably expected to be useful and meaningful for the application with research and investigations on extensive reading in the context of Thai students.

2.3. Learner Autonomy

2.3.1 Overview

Learner autonomy has become a key concern in foreign language instruction in recent decades due to the gradual change from a traditional classroom setting in which students are passive learners to more communicative and learner-centered approaches. In this regard, students' opportunities to learn by having exposure to actual language use and to engage in the learning process are focused. This means that language instruction is not merely knowledge transmission, but a challenging and active experience (Kohonen, 1992).

Various teaching techniques thus have been introduced to improve the effectiveness of language instruction to promote learner autonomy. Practitioners of linguistics have put their great effort to turn students from passive to active learners and to enhance students' confidence in target language utterance by encouraging their active role in the learning process. In Thailand, for example, teacher-centered language instruction has long dominated classroom practices. Teachers become centers, determiners, and facilitators who carry most responsibilities in classroom, while students tend to learn passively and have no active interactions for fear of making mistakes or being embarrassed in spite of the significance of such in-class engagement to the development of their linguistic proficiency and successful target language acquisition (Nuttall, 1996).

Teachers may help students acquire the target language successfully and to behave responsibly so that they can make an active contribution in the learning process. To promote learner autonomy, teachers should be "enabled through modifying the emphasis of the module's learning, teaching and assessment strategy to acquire and develop the skills needed to learn successfully and autonomously" not simply "tell

[the] students...that they should become autonomous learners" (Railton and Watson, 2005: 191). The promotion of learner autonomy may allow students to take some responsibilities because "in formal educational contexts, genuinely successful learners have always been autonomous" (Little, 1995: 175), and autonomous learning tends to be more effective than non-autonomous learning (Benson, 2001).

2.3.2 Definition of Learner Autonomy

Holec (1981: 3) defines learner autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning." This definition shares some similar notions with the one given by Kenny (1993: 1) who argues that learner autonomy is the opportunity in which learners become active learners with an ability to "generate knowledge … and initiate, plan, organize and carry out work of their own" and to "unblock capacities for independent and interdependent thought and action."

To give more examples, Little (1991: 3) claims that "autonomy is not exclusively or even primarily a matter of how learning is organized":

> Essentially, autonomy is a capacity–for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action. It presupposes, but also entails, that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning. The capacity for autonomy will be displayed both in the way the learner learns and in the way he or she transfers what has been learned to wider contexts.

(Little, 1991: 4)

The above definition of autonomy by Little is corresponding with Holec's, but vital psychological dimensions have been added to give more insight in terms of the control over the cognitive processes concerning effective self-management of learning (Benson, 2001).

Benson (2001) has summarized the definitions of Holec and Little by expanding the aspects of learner autonomy to include the ability to take control over

learning management and content as well as cognitive processes as illustrated below (see Figure 2.1).
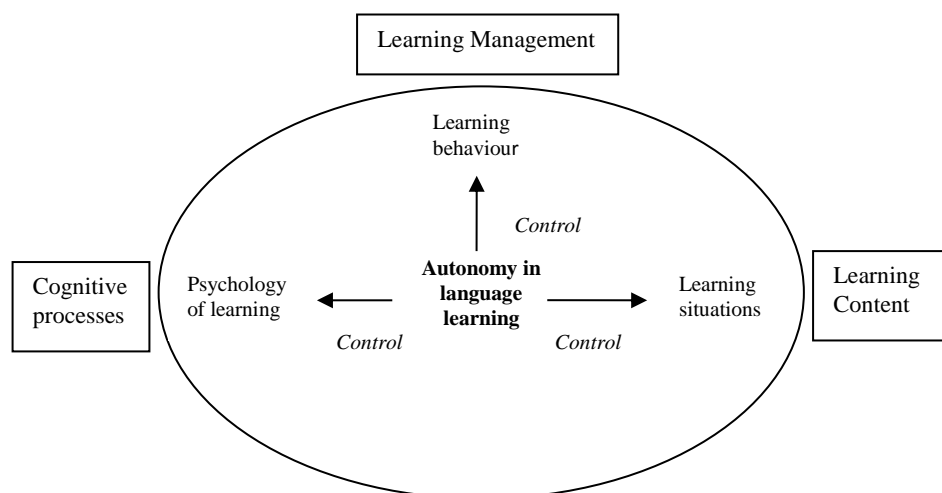
Figure 2.1: Defining Autonomy: the Capacity to Control over Learning (Adapted from Benson, 2001: 50)

In particular, learner autonomy in an English instruction context may allow learners "to manage their own learning" and "to gain an understanding of language learning" via the development of their language skills and of arrangement of their learning tasks on the basis of individual needs and interests (Kohonen, 1992: 18, 21). Therefore, autonomous learners are "those who have the capacity for being active and independent in the learning process; they can identify goals, formulate their own goals, and can change goals to suit their own learning needs and interests; they are able to use learning strategies, and to monitor their own learning" (Dickinson, 1995: 167). This means that "learners need not see themselves as consumers of language courses but can become producers too" (Kohonen, 1992).

Learner autonomy thus can be referred to the learning environment in which learners are encouraged to take certain responsibilities in their own learning processes, to have active participation as well as to acquire target language through activities that

are relatively similar to the real-world situation. Meanwhile, teachers should encourage students to use active techniques in order to optimize their language acquisition and to equip them with skills that help them undertake their own learning process autonomously beyond classrooms and textbooks.

2.3.3 Relevant Concepts and Theories Pertinent to Learner Autonomy

The concept of learner autonomy in language instruction has influenced, and has been influenced by, a variety of approaches within the field of language learning. It has also been of interest among researchers for over three decades. Its origin can date back to the founding of Centre de Recherches et d'Applications en Langues (CRAPEL) in 1971 in France. This is the first attempt to provide adult learners with lifelong learning opportunity (Benson, 2001). Then, the approach introduced by CRAPEL has become a starting point for researchers to turn their particular attention to learner motivation and language learning autonomy. In this connection, learner autonomy and adult self-directed learning shares some common ground.

2.3.3.1 Adult Self-directed Learning

The most immediate influence on the early theory and practice of autonomy in language learning came from research and practice in the field of adult self-directed learning. Adult self-directed learning refers to a process in which individuals can reflect their own learning needs, prepare plans, identify resources, pursue suitable strategies, and evaluate their performance (Knowles, 1975 cited in Benson, 2001). Comparatively, learner autonomy also involves the drastic change of language instruction from a traditional classroom to a student-centered one in which students are motivated to have the participation in relevant activities and to become active learners (Balcikanli, 2007: 2).

2.3.3.2 Self-regulated Learning

Zimmerman (1998) explains that self-regulation is a 'self-directive process through which learners transform their mental abilities into academic skills.' Forethought, performance or volitional control and self-reflection are three phases of self-regulation processes. The former involves goal setting and strategic planning, performance or volitional control concern self-control, self-instruction, imagery, attention focusing, and self-observation. The latter refers to self-judgment, self-evaluation and casual attribution, and self-reaction. Despite the fact that the self-regulation concept is narrower than learner autonomy, the literature of self-regulation is a rich source for the understanding of cognitive aspects in light of the control over the learning process, so it is regarded as an important ground for learner autonomy (Benson, 2001). Strage (1998 cited in Benson, 2001: 42) also asserts that self-regulation learning pays more attention to the role of family, teacher, and peer support in the development of autonomy.

2.3.3.3 Constructivist Theories of Learning

Social Constructivism, proposed by Lev Vygotsky, a Russian psychologist, is one of the most important theories among linguistic practitioners. Education is viewed as a part of a social process; meanwhile, 'intercommunication with others' and 'intracommunication within themselves' are the two important means that lead learners to the acquisition of knowledge. That is to say, knowledge constructs are first learned at an interpersonal level between an individual and the outside world. The knowledge then is internalized and stored in an intrapersonal level or within oneself. It seems that Social Constructivism has reflected the understanding of a 'higher mental

process' and importance of internalization, which are social and pragmatic in nature (Tenenbaum et al., 2001).

Additionally, Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is comparable to a metaphorical social space. The interpretation of the ZPD can be divided largely into two levels: microgenic and macrogenic levels. Microgenic levels refer to a way to conceptualize individual development as scaffolded performance in specific tasks. This refers to how social interaction supports the learners until such support is no longer needed. In contrast, for Macrogenic levels, development is viewed as a wider progression that takes place over the course of a life-time. To sum up, ZPD can invoke the notion that development is a creative and an unpredictable process that includes transfer and transformation of cognitive tools. It also represents activities that can be successfully carried out by learners if they are assisted by others with higher competency. Seemingly, language learning may be a process that is inseparable from social contexts because the interactions, particularly with classmates and teachers, can render to the effective language acquisition and successful learning process (Lantolf and Thorne, 2007).

2.3.4 Characteristics of Autonomous Learners

An autonomous person can be defined as one who has an independent capacity to make and carry out the choices which govern his or her actions (Littlewood, 1996). According to Holec (1981), the autonomous leaner accepts responsibility for his/her own learning and is able to take charge of the learning, determine objectives, select methods and techniques, and evaluate what has been acquired. In the same vein, Leni Dam (1990), like Holec, clarifies that someone can be qualified as an autonomous learner when he or she independently chooses aims and purposes and sets goals; chooses materials, methods and tasks; exercises choice and purpose in organising and

carrying out the chosen tasks; and chooses criteria for evaluation. It is clear that an autonomous learner takes a (pro-) active role in the learning process, generating ideas and availing him/herself of learning opportunities, rather than simply reacting to various stimuli of the teacher (Boud, 1988; Kohonen, 1992; Knowles, 1975 cited in Thanasoulasakasa, 2000).

Within the context of education, Breen and Mann (1997) describe eight main characteristics of autonomous learners as follows:

1. *The learners' stance* is to see the relationship with what to learn, how to learn, and what resources are available. Autonomy is not a set of rules or strategies that can be learned; instead learners have to explore the autonomous learning ability by themselves.

2. *The desire to learn* a particular language. Their desire to learn can be intrinsic or instrumental. This is related to motivation. Intrinsic learners are the ones who learn for their own needs and goals, while the instrumental learners pursue a goal merely to receive a reward from someone else or outside and beyond their self (Brown, 2000).

3. Autonomous learners have a *robust sense of self*, which tends not to be discouraged by any negative assessment from peers and teachers. On the other hand, assessment can be used as a meaningful feedback and it can be ignored if it is regarded as useless.

4. *Metacognitive capacity* allows learners to manage their own learning -- what to learn, when, how, and with whom, as well as material resources.

5. Autonomous learners have an ability of *management of change*. With metacognitive capacity the learners are able to monitor their learning. They are observant of change and are able to change in an effective way for their learning.

6. *Independence* is the key of being autonomous learners. They are independent and responsible in the educational process in which they belong to.

7. Autonomous learners have a *strategic engagement with learning*. They strategically make use of the learning context or environment surrounding them. They are capable of choosing the right thing at the right time for the right reasons according to their own criteria.

8. *A capacity to negotiate* is the last quality of autonomous learners. Although they are independent from their learning context, autonomous learners do not learn in isolation. They need to negotiate and collaborate with classmates so that they can make the most use of the available potential resources in the classroom.

In sum, what autonomous learners are expected to do will include some, if not all, of the following tasks: (a) set their learning goals, and identify and develop learning strategies to achieve such goals; (b) develop a study plan; (c) reflect their learning pace which includes identifying problem areas and means of addressing these problems; (d) identify and select relevant resources and necessary supports; and (e) assess their own progress and define their own criteria for evaluating performance and learning (strategies, materials, etc.). In addition, it is also viewed that after imbuing autonomous learning behavior, students seem to (a) participate actively in and contribute to class activities, (b) support classmates who experience difficulties in learning, (d) explore alternative solutions to problems, (e) evaluate teachers' decisions on management, materials, activities and assessment criteria to certain degree, and (f)

give feedbacks and initiates appropriate in- and outside-class learning activities on the basis of independent action (Chan, 2001).

2.3.5 Schema of Learner Training to Promote Learner Autonomy

Learner training is a key way for teachers to help learners learn autonomously. It raises learner awareness of how languages are learned and provide them with the skills they need to do it. McCarthy (1998) states that the objective of learner training is to improve the effectiveness of learning, and effective learning is part of autonomy. Training should be a course in learning how to learn. Along these lines, Dickinson (1992) denotes learner training as a training in various strategies of learning, whereas Ellis and Sinclare (1989) define learner training as a way that helps learners become more effective learners and be able to take responsibility of their own learning. This can be done by helping learners to consider factors that may have an effect on their learning and find the most suitable strategies for their learning (Swatevacharkul, 2006). Tudor (1996) describes learner training as the process by which learners are helped to deepen their understanding of the nature of language learning and to acquire the knowledge and skills they need in order to pursue their learning goals in an informal and self-directed manner. Likewise, the term 'learner development' signifies the same concept of learner training as an aim to improve the ability of language learners to learn a language (Wenden, 2002)

According to Dickinson (1988), in order to make learner training successful, three main components should be included. The first one is training the processes and strategies for language learning. This includes how to read a text, how to keep a record on vocabulary and how to guess the meaning of texts. The next component involves raising learner awareness of how the target language operates and in doing so

includes how to use reference books such as grammar books and dictionaries. The final component involves focusing on the theory of second language acquisition. If learners have some awareness of how languages are learned, this may influence their own practices in learning.

Inevitably, learner spends more time outside the classroom. It can be said that knowing how to learn independently will help a learner make a progress in language learning. Benson (2001: 146) also suggests that there is good evidence that learner development programs can be effective in improving language learning performance. Therefore, learner training plays an important role in encouraging learners to learn independently and prepare them to be autonomous learners. It cannot be assumed that all learners similarly know how to learn. Holec (1979: 27) has insisted earlier on this issue that "few adults are capable of assuming responsibility for their learning … for the simple reason that they have never had the occasion to use this ability." Even though education may have changed in the last 20 years, it still cannot be assumed that learners know how to learn independently (Logan and Moore, 2004). As Tudor (1996: 34) points out, "the knowledge and personal qualities that learner involvement requires cannot be taken for granted and need to be developed over time."

To sum up, learner training aims to make everyone be an effective learner and be more capable of independent learning which will finally turn them into life-long learners. According to Dickinson (1987), learner training involves two types of preparation: methodological preparation and psychological preparation.

2.3.5.1 Methodological Preparation

Methodological preparation is the process to acquire the abilities and techniques learners need for their independent learning. Learners are made aware of

the techniques they use implicitly, and then this knowledge is combined with some certain skills that are usually expected in the teacher rather than learners (Dickinson, 1987). Hence, methodological preparation deals with learning strategies, which involves helping learners develop and/or become conscious of cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Dickinson, 1995). Cognitive strategies mainly deal with learning techniques, while metacognitive strategies refer to learning management techniques, which include deciding the goals and objectives, check their own learning performance, evaluate their learning, and planning what to do next.

According to Wenden (1991), learner strategies are an approach which can translate into learner autonomy. The frameworks and functions are shown in Figure 2.2 below:

Strategies

Kind	Function	
Cognitive	1. Select input	3. Store input
	2.Comprehend input	4. Retrieve input
Self-management	1. Planning	
	2. Monitoring	
	3. Evaluating	

Figure 2.2: Learning Strategies (Adapted from Wenden, 1991: 30)

2.3.5.1.1 Cognitive Strategies

According to Wenden (1991), cognitive strategies are mental steps or operations that learners use to process both linguistic and sociolinguistic contents and relate to 'learning to think' or a general process in daily life, e.g. noticing, making guesses, formulating hypotheses or solutions, and interpreting acquired information. Cognitive strategies thus can be regarded as an act of a human learning process that

consists of four stages: (1) selecting information from incoming data; (2) comprehending it; (3) storing it; and (4) retrieving it for use (Leaver, Ehrman, and Shekhtman, 2005). Figure 2.3 displays the way human receives and processes information:
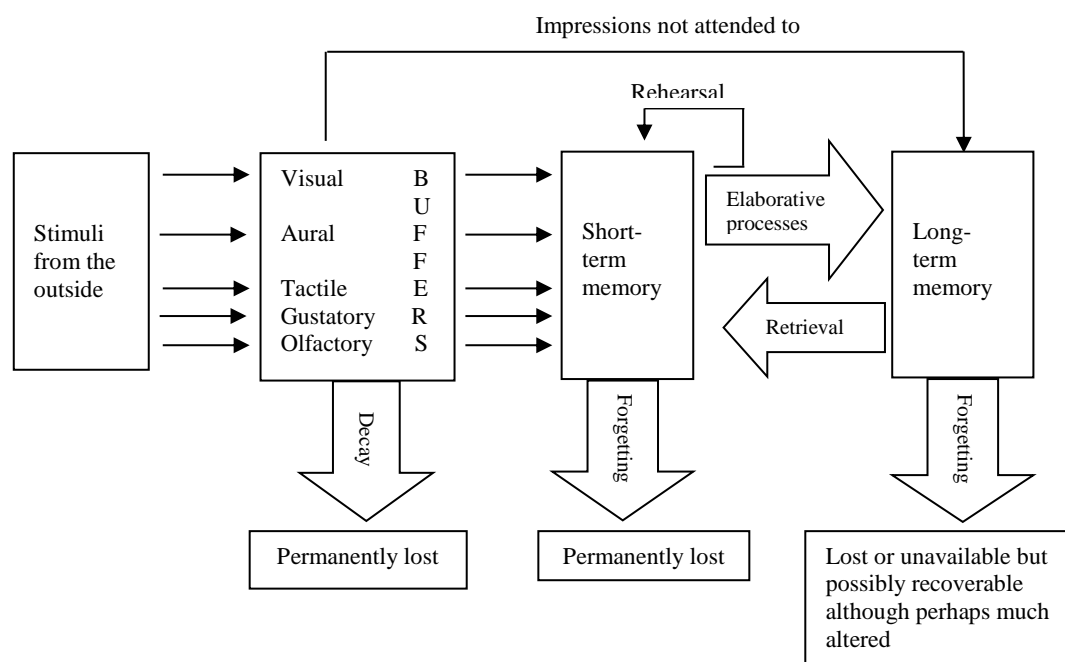
Figure 2.3: Human Memory System (Adapted from Hunt, 1982 cited in Wenden 1991: 19)

Selecting information from incoming data

According to the flow chart, what human knows and learns begins as the input which impinges upon sensory buffers; thenceforward, it is selected for either further processing or forgotten. When the information reaches the buffers, it remains there for only a very short time. As a result, it is important that learners should be prepared to select the information they wish to process by using learning strategies to enable them to select desired data.

Comprehending and storing the information

At this point, the selected information is transferred to short-term memory and then into a more permanent stage for the storage in long-term memory. Elaboration is the basic kind of processing necessary for comprehending and storing information; therefore, rehearsal strategies are necessary for the elaboration to occur. O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 119) define rehearsal as 'imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal.' Thus, rehearsal strategies and repetition of data without transforming the material likely share some similarities. When learners elaborate, they use many strategies: inferencing, deductive reasoning, grouping, recombination, and contexualization. For the latter, it is to identify data patterns and deeper meaning as well as to make association and classification of knowledge for long-term memory. Then, memorization strategies are simultaneously activated to store those processed information. Examples of memorization are included in Rubin's taxonomy as shown in Figure 2.4:

Strategies for Cognitive Learning

Getting process
1. Clarification/verification strategies (attention focus)
   - (a) Seek confirmation of their understanding of the grammar of phonology of a language
   - (b) Ask for validation of their production of words, phrases or sentences
   - (c) Ask for clarification or verification of communication rules
   - (d) Define or expand a definition of a word or concept or grammar point through use of target Language reference materials
   - (e) Ask for repetition paraphrasing, explanation, or examples
   - (f) Observe teacher or native's mouth for correct pronunciation
2. Guessing/inductive inferencing strategies
   - (a) Use own language or second language to infer meaning (prior knowledge)
   - (b) Use knowledge about world, culture, or communication process to infer meaning or predict outcomes (prior knowledge)
   - (c) Relate new information to physical actions
   - (d) Use key words to infer rest
   - (e) Distinguish relevant from irrelevant clues for determining meaning
3. Deductive reasoning strategies
   - (a) Infer grammatical rules or word formation by analogy
   - (b) Look for regularities and exceptions in grammar, word formation, and phonology style
   - (c) Synthesize understanding of language system

Strategies for Cognitive Learning (continued)

   (d) Use schema to grasp overall semantic intention
4. Resourcing strategies
   (a) Use second-language reference materials such as dictionaries, glossaries, and textbooks
Storing process
1. Memorization strategies
   (a) Associate or group words or phrases according to some principle (phonetic, semantic, visual, auditory, kinesic, kinesthetic, olfactory or sensory)
   (b) Use key word (using one item to recall a number of others)
   (c) Use a mechanical means to store information (flash cards; make lists of new items, with or without context, with or without definitions; other mechanical devices – put new words in right pocket and move to left when learned, or write out item to be learned several times)
   (d) Put selective attention focusing on specific details
   (e) Put items in special context to facilitate storage
   (f) Use imagery
   (g) Silent rehearsal with delayed production
Retrieval and using process
1. Practice strategies
   (a) Repeat
   (b) Rehearse
   (d) Experiment- use word/phrase in new sentences
   (e) Consciously apply rules
   (f) Imitate
   (g) Use wider world to enlarge exposure to second language (television, radio, second-language books, newspapers, or movies)
   (h) Talk to self in second language
   (i) Drill self
2. Monitoring strategies
   (a1) Identify problem
   (a2) Determine solution
   (a3) Make a correction
    (i) Work with peers to obtain feedback, pool information or model a language activity
3. Social strategies (less direct since they do not involve transformation of the language)
   (a) Join a group and act as if you understand
   (b) Count on your friends for help
   (c) Create opportunities for practice
    (i) Initiate conversation with native speakers
    (ii) Attend parties or other social events

Figure 2.4: Strategy for cognitive learning (Adapted from Rubin, 1989 cited in Wenden, 1991: 22)

Retrieving the information

Retrieving stored information is the last stage of the learning process. Information that has been attended to, comprehended, and stored must be easily retrieved when needed. Cognitive strategies such as practice strategies (see Figure 2.4) can facilitate the development of an automatic and suitable retrieving process. Hence,

learners may need to regain from long-term memory information that is related to the new input prior to storing the new information. As retrieval and elaboration processes occur simultaneously, cognitive strategies can be used to enable students to elicit relevant previous knowledge.

2.3.5.1.2. Self-management (Metacognitive) Strategies

Self-management conforms to the conceptual framework of learner autonomy. These strategies are employed by learners to *oversee* and *manage* their learning (Wenden, 1991). In the literature on cognitive psychology research, self-management is referred to as *metacognitive strategies* or regulatory skills (e.g. Brown et al., 1983 cited in Wenden, 1991). Learners benefit from the knowledge acquired through their cognitive and metacognitive strategies. They may plan, consciously control, and monitor their learning strategies, correct errors, and evaluate strategy effectiveness before adjusting them in a suitable manner (Ridley, Schutz, Glanz, and Weinstein, 1992 cited in Conttia, 2007). Without metacognitive strategies, students may have no direction or opportunity to plan their learning, monitor their progress, review their achievement and future learning directions (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Victori and Lockhart, 1995). According to O'Malley et al. (1985b cited in O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 119), details on cognitive and metacognitive strategies are following:

Learning strategy	Definition
A. Metacognitive Strategies Planning	
Advance organizers	Previewing the main ideas and concepts of the material to be learned, often by skimming the text for the organizing principle.
Directed attention	Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distracters.
Functional planning	Planning for and rehearsing linguistic components necessary to carry out an upcoming language task.
Selective attention	Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of input, often by scanning for key words, concepts, and/or linguistic markers.
Self-management	Understanding the conditions that help one learn and arranging for the presence of those conditions.
Monitoring	
Self-monitoring	Checking one's comprehension during listening or reading or checking the accuracy and/or appropriateness of one's oral or written production while it is taking place.
Evaluation	
Self-evaluation	Checking the outcomes of one's own language learning against a standard after it has been completed.
B. Cognitive Strategies	
Resourcing	Using target language reference materials such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, or textbooks.
Repetition	Imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal.
Grouping	Classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their attributes or meaning.
Deduction	Applying rules to understand or produce the second language or making up rules based on language analysis.
Imagery	Using visual images (either mental or actual) to understand or remember new information.
Auditory representation	Planning back in one's mind the sound of a word, phrase, or longer language sequence.
Keyword method	Remembering a new word in the second language by: (1) identifying a familiar word in the first language that sounds like or otherwise resembles the new word, and (2) generating easily recalled images of some relationship with the first language homonym and the new word in the second language.
Elaboration	Relating new information to prior knowledge, relating different parts of new information to each other, or making meaningful personal associations with the new information.

Figure 2.5: Cognitive and Metacognitive Learning Strategy Definitions and Classifications

Learning strategy	Definition
Transfer	Using previous linguistic knowledge or prior skills to assist comprehension or production.
Inferencing	Using available information to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information.
Note taking	Writing down key words or concepts in abbreviated verbal, graphic, or numerical form while listening or reading.
Summarizing	Making a mental, oral, or written summary of new information gained through listening or reading.
Recombination	Constructing a meaning of sentence or larger language sequence by combining known elements in a new way.
Translation	Using the first language as a base for understanding and/or producing the second language.

Figure 2.5: Cognitive and Metacognitive Learning Strategy Definitions and Classifications (Continued)

Planning

Planning includes objective setting and selection of necessary resources to achieve them. In the learning process, a planning strategy which is called *pre-planning* is deployed before the task. Learners determine what their objectives are and decide how to achieve them. On the contrary, planning may also go on while implementing the task or so-called *planning-in-action*. This depends on how well learners progress through the task, how effective their strategies are, and how much they learn. Objectives may be changed or adjusted according to individual progress.

Monitoring

Holec (1985b cited in Benson, 2001: 159) maintains that "the learner needs to know at all times whether, on the one hand, his performances correspond to what he is aiming at and, on the other, whether he has made any progress towards his chosen objective." This means that the aim of self-monitoring is, "to provide the learner with all the information he needs to control his learning process and progress" (159). Self-monitoring procedure thus must be "relevant to the learner in question and to the particular

learning in which he is engaged." Students who act as participants observe or oversee their learning may question themselves: How am I doing? Am I making progress on this learning task easily? Without problem? Having become aware of the problem, learners evaluate their knowledge and skills to seek the cause, and at the same time, they use their level of proficiency to explain the problem and deploy strategies to accomplish the task.

Evaluating

Evaluating differs from monitoring because the former involves the consideration of the *outcome* of a particular attempt to learn or use a strategy, whereas monitoring results in statements of self-monitoring about students' level of proficiency *in the course* of learning. The focal point is on the result and the means by which it is achieved (i.e. the strategy). In the word of Wenden (1991), evaluation involves three mental steps: (1) learners examine the outcome of an attempt to learn, (2) they access the criteria they will use to judge it, and (3) they apply it.

Cognitive and metacognitive strategies thus are integral to the learning process with the purpose of encouraging students to be more autonomous, since cognitive strategies are operations carried out directly on the material to be learned, whereas metacognitive strategies make use of knowledge of cognitive processes to regulate the learning process. The combination of both strategies may then allow students to have self-control and to put an effort in the learning process resulting in learner autonomy, improvement of students' performance, and language acquisition effectiveness (Wenden, 1991; Benson, 2001).

2.3.5.2 Psychological Preparation

In this preparation, it attempts to change attitudes of learners which can be done by persuading learners that they are capable of learning more actively and

independently. 'Attitude' can be defined as 'learned motivation,' 'value beliefs,' 'evaluations,' or 'what one believes is acceptable' (Wenden, 1991: 52). With respect to language learning, learners' attitudes that they hold about their *role* in the language learning process and their *capability* as learners are regarded as a crucial factor to learner autonomy. That is to say, they see themselves as having a crucial role in their language learning being capable of taking on the responsibility of their learning because those who have positive attitudes toward autonomy will try to become more responsible in self-directing their learning (Wenden, 1991). All this can be successfully accomplished with the cooperation of the teacher. However, the change of attitudes requires slow development over time. Wenden (1991) summarizes the learning attitudes which are essential for promoting learner autonomy as shown in Figure 2.6 below:

Attitudes

Kind	Aspect
Personal responsibility	Should I take initiative? What is my role?
Personal capability	Can I learn? Can I learn autonomously?

Figure 2.6: Learning attitudes toward autonomy (Adapted from Wenden, 1991: 30)

The learner autonomy training framework can be summarized in terms of both methodological preparation and psychological preparation in the following diagram:
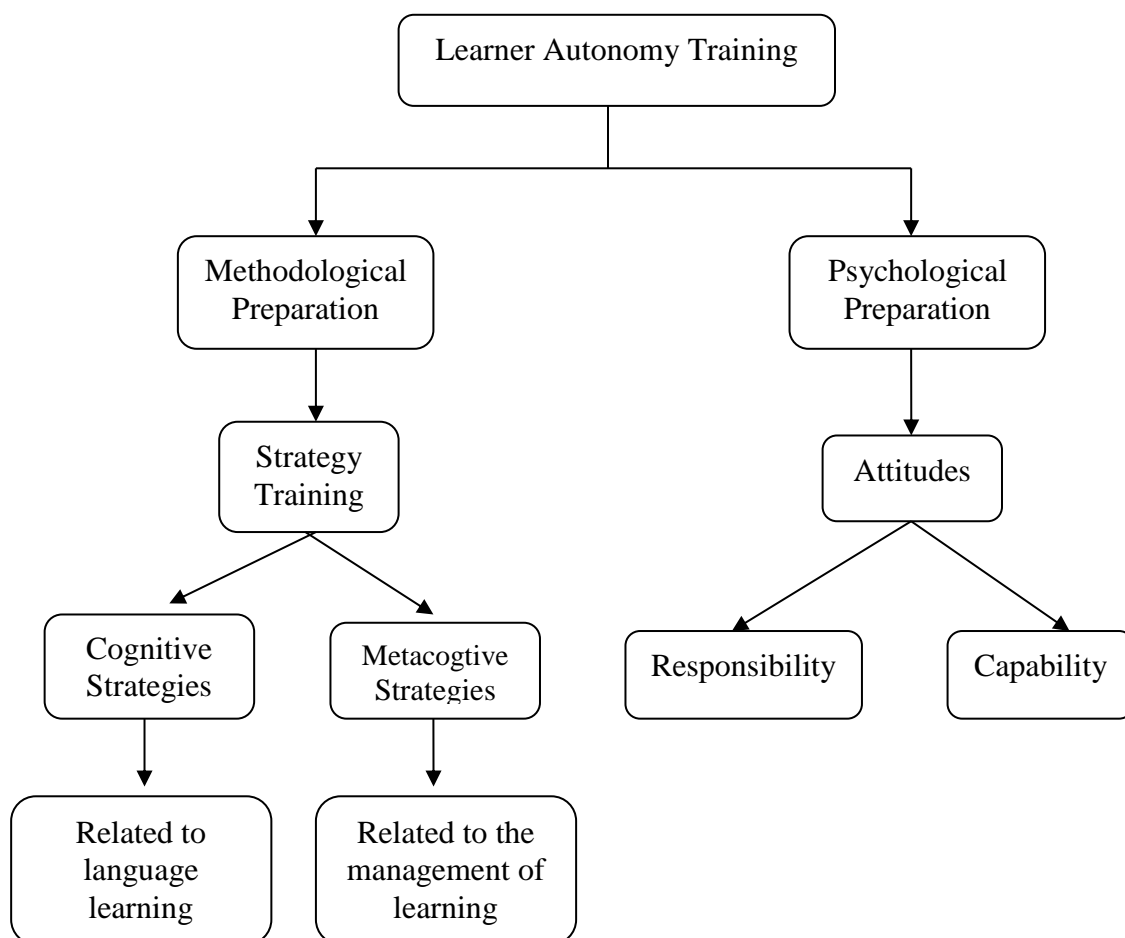
Figure 2.7: Learner Autonomy Training Framework (Adapted from Dickinson, 1995 and Wenden, 1991)

2.3.6 Traditional Language Classrooms vs. Learner Autonomy Oriented Classrooms

Students in a traditional classroom tend to have less opportunity to manage their own learning processes and needs. Further, they tend to compete with each other to get the highest mark. Poor grades are viewed as a failure that must be avoided. Meanwhile, the evaluation and assessment may not reflect actual performance of students due to the fact that test materials are inflexible (Wasanasomsithi, 2004: 30-31).

Traditional language classrooms tend to have the following characteristics:

- Students strive to be better than their classmates;

- Students work to deprive others;

- Students 'celebrate' classmates' failure;

- Students view resources such as grades as limited;

- Students recognize their negatively linked fate; and

- Students believe that the more competent and hard-working individuals become the "haves" and the less competent and deserving individuals become the "have nots" (Johnson et al., 1993 cited in Wasanasomsithi, 2004: 31).

Such competition then leads to the individualism of students. Most class materials and assignments are designed for students to do individually either in class or at home. They are required to finish such tasks on their own without interaction with other. They can be blamed if they 'copy' or 'imitate' classmates' answers. Additionally, students are also unwilling to share their ideas or understanding with others for fear that their friends may get higher grades or have better performance. Such classrooms will become one of the most important obstacles for students to enjoy in-class interactions and discussions based on the exchange of ideas and shared experience, which are greatly essential for language acquisition and skill development.

Moreover, a traditional language classroom relies heavily on grammar-related teaching. Students become passive learners who have to study teacher-prepared lessons. Teaching materials are mostly academic textbooks with some additional exercises. Meanwhile, students are required to memorize grammatical rules or related techniques as much as possible for their satisfactory performance in mid-term or final exams. The traditional classroom, therefore, lacks active learning and in-class interaction—a key

opportunity for students to gain richer and deeper understanding through wider access to learning choices and resources (Müller-Verweyen, 1999; Wasanasomsithi, 2004).

As regards students in a traditional classroom, Müller-Verweyen (1999: 80) concludes that "it is only in a school environment that students accept as comprehension of a text a situation that would not be sufficient for them outside the school environment" and that "as long as the students are obliged to perform a task according to instructions given by a teacher or workbook, they perform according to the strategic guidelines of the task. However, when left to their own devices, they adopt a more limited range of less appropriate strategies."

With respect to the role of teachers in a traditional classroom, they have to (1) analyze tasks and formulate appropriate goals for such tasks, (2) decide upon appropriate strategies (either tried and tested or to be newly developed), (3) supervise adherence to the strategies during its execution and success, and (4) examine whether tasks and goals are accomplished and correspond to learners' expectations. Teachers' performance can be criticized on the basis of students' one. This means that teachers can be blamed for formulating too difficult or too easy test materials if too many students fail to reach requirements or receive a good grade (Müller-Verweyen, 1999; Wasanasomsithi, 2004).

Learner autonomy, on the other hand, aims to move away from a traditional language classroom by promoting great participation and involvement of students in learning processes and relevant class activities. They will then become active learners who, in addition to plain academic textbooks, will benefit from a wide range of more fresh and attractive learning processes and materials, e.g. role play, in-class interactions, and group discussions. More attention thus is paid to natural acquisition of necessary

language skills and usage. Therefore, learner autonomy closely relates to the learning strategy that allows students to enjoy some freedom in directing their own learning processes and in making decision on what and when to learn and with what resources. This can partly help student develop the sense of responsibility of learning processes and results. Additionally, the role of teachers will also be changed obviously from 'teaching' to 'counselor.' That is to say, the teaching in a learner autonomy setting should not only "help the learner acquire the linguistic and communicative abilities he has defied for himself" but also "help the learner acquire autonomy for himself 'to learn to learn'" (Holec, 1981: 23).

2.3.7 Fostering Autonomy

The term 'fostering autonomy' refers to processes initiated by teachers or institutions and 'developing autonomy' refers to processes within the learner (Benson, 2001). Therefore, an autonomous learning approach requires students to exercise a high level of control over their learning. In principle, any practice that encourages and enables learners to take greater control of any aspect of their learning can be considered a means of promoting autonomy. Benson (2001) proposes that "autonomy can be fostered, but not taught" (p. 290) Broady and Kenning (1996) argue along the same line that "learner autonomy cannot be taught in the traditional sense, but can only be promoted" (p. 9).

Accordingly, Littlewood (1996: 431) contends that learner autonomy can be divided into three specific dimensions:

1. Autonomy as a Communicator depends on (a) the ability to use the language creatively; and (b) the ability to use language appropriate for communicating meaning in specific situations;

2. Autonomy as a Learner depends on (a) the ability to engage in independent work (e.g. self-directed learning) and (b) the ability to use appropriate learning strategies, both inside and outside the classroom;

3. Autonomy as a Person depends (in the foreign language learning context) on (a) the ability to express personal meaning and (b) the ability to create personal learning contexts, e.g. through interaction in the classroom.

These three specific areas of learner autonomy are closely interrelated. This means, for example, that a person who can communicate in English creatively in a given situation can also be regarded as the autonomy as a person. Similarly, a student who can learn English autonomously may be assumed as a competent English user (Littlewood, 1996: 431).

Littlewood (1996: 427-8) also remarks that the success of the application of learner autonomy in one particular classroom setting depends on two important interrelated elements: "ability" (or "knowledge" and "skills") and "willingness" (or "motivation" and "confidence"). This impies that students who are willing to learn on their own but have no suitable skills or background knowledge may fail to fully benefit from learner autonomy. In contrast, the competent students may also encounter the same situation given that they do not participate in learner autonomy voluntarily.

As mentioned in previous sections, teachers are the important player in enhancing learner autonomy and helping students to overcome problems. This is due to the fact that the role of teachers is not to turn all students into successful learners but teachers should advise students about how to take advantage from their strengths and weaknesses and to learn and acquire language skills according to learners' needs and behaviors. Teachers thus should attempt to foster autonomy through practices that encourage students to

engage in the learning process in which their proficiency can be developed (Gremmo and Riley, 1995).

A framework in Figure 2.8 is adapted from the work of Wenden (1996: 2). It will be applied in this study with a particular aim to reflect that learner autonomy can be promoted through the enhancement of students' knowledge and understanding on how to effectively use cognitive and matacognitive strategies for better text comprehension while engaging in the extensive reading activities. Also, the attitude of students including personal responsibility and capacity will also be supervised by the teacher with an aim to provide them with supports and guidelines when necessary. The framework of this present study is shown in Figure 2.8 below:

Strategies	Kind	Function
	Cognitive	1. Select input 2.Comprehend input 3. Store input 4. Retrieve input
	Self-management (Metacognitive)	1. Planning 2. Monitoring 3. Evaluating
Attitude	**Kind**	**Aspect**
	Personal responsibility	Should I take initiative? What is my role?
	Personal capability	Can I learn? Can I learn autonomously?

Figure 2.8: A Framework for Learner Training to Promote Learner Autonomy (Adapted from Wenden, 1991: 62)

2.3.8 Measuring Autonomy

To measure autonomy, teachers cannot explicitly observe students' capacity to control their learning. Rather, teachers may observe exercises of their capacity in various aspects of learning. Measuring gains in autonomy, therefore, involves identifying behaviors associated with control and judging the extent to which learners display them. The following are examples of the kinds of questions that can be asked:

- Do learners make and use learning plans?

- Do they participate in classroom decisions?

- Do they reflect upon their learning?

- Do they initiate exchanges in the target language? (Benson, 2001)

Evidence of learner autonomy development may be either direct or indirect. For the former, it can be viewed via a written learning plan indicating an individual student's ability to plan learning or a portfolio of learning outcomes related to that plan. Meanwhile, indirect evidence can be a statement recorded in an interview showing that the learner regularly plans learning activities before pursuing them (Yahong, 2009). However, indirect evidence can be important in judging whether the learner has a sense of control when displaying certain behaviors. Besides, the data should be collected before and after the change of practice. This is due to the fact that students are able to control their learning after the change of practice may be of little value but it is important for teachers to know what students are capable of prior to the introduction of such change (Benson, 2001).

2.3.9 Learner autonomy: Research findings

Yang (1998) has conducted a study on "language learning project" in which students were allowed to prepare their own language learning proposal, to keep

records, and to do self-evaluation of learning progress. It was revealed that most participants were satisfied with this research. By allowing them to have certain degree of autonomy in learning a language, students would likely have more motivation in extending their understanding of the language and their language skills. In other words, students' satisfaction with learner autonomy could translate into the improvement of students' language capability. This research also reflectes the changing role of teachers and suggests that, for leaner autonomy effectiveness, teachers should work more closely with students to encourage them to learn autonomously and not to directly control the learning process along, while advice for the effective use of strategies by students should also be provided.

Sherree (2004) conducted a study to explore whether there were any differences in learner autonomy. The sample group consisted of college students learning in a traditional face-to-face classroom environment and of those undertaking online academic programs with capability to access to lessons regardless of time and space. In this regard, the latter was usually viewed as opposite to the traditional classroom setting. Learner Autonomy Profile (LAP) was used as an instrument to assess the participants' level of autonomy. Most participants were 18 years old or older and were students in universities in Virginia. In the realm of the autonomy, the study found that the students undertaking online academic programs were likely to have higher learner autonomy than those learning in a traditional classroom setting. This research also implied that the success of the implementation of learner autonomy may not rely only on techniques or methods but also on the participation of students in autonomous learning environment on voluntary basis, while the degree of learner autonomy should also be properly tailored to suit the need and readiness of students.

In Thailand, Nantachaipan (2004) has studied the effects of learner autonomy in an English Oral Presentation course at Payap University, Chiangmai, Thailand. The target group was 24 freshmen majoring in Communication Arts enrolling in English I (AE 101). A specially designed lesson plan focusing on the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies promoted oral presentation skills and learner autonomy. This study revealed that: (1) lesson plans based on learner autonomy should be developed and implemented with undergraduate students, (2) students' English oral presentation skills were gradually improved after the implementation of learner autonomy, and (3) the majority of students could manage their own learning responsibly after the implementation of learner autonomy, while their presentation skills were also better.

Likewise, Deng (2007) conducted a survey and interview to investigate the relationship between learner autonomy and English proficiency at a teachers' college in China. It involved 129 non-English major students (The data from the subjects were analyzed by T-test and F-test with SPSS 11.0). It was found that participants' English proficiency was significantly and positively related to learner autonomy because their proficiency increased in parallel to the improvement of their learner autonomy and vice versa. In addition, high-proficient students tended to have more learner autonomy when being compared to low-proficient counterparts. Comparatively, the study on the promotion of students' learner autonomy in the basic reading skills course by Matsubara and Lehtinen (2007) with students in a university in Japan also revealed relatively similar results. That is to say that the enhancement of learner autonomy can be achieved given that students are properly provided with an opportunity and guidance to manage, to take greater responsibility, and to have active participation in classroom activities. According to the study results, students had more awareness of

the important role of learner autonomy in their reading class and that their interaction with classmates also increased resulting in greater responsibility and motivation to read extensively (Matsubara and Lehtinen, 2007).

In conclusion, learner autonomy is learning setting in which students are encouraged to change from passive learning strategies to the active and participatory ones with an aim to increase the effectiveness of their language acquisition as a whole. However, the promotion of learner autonomy also depends on students' motivation or willingness to open their mind to accept this approach. In this regard, teachers play an important role, particularly to provide students with advice and assistance when necessary instead of direct intervention as in the tradition way. This is to allow them to have active engagement in the learning process willingly as well as to recognize the significance of learner autonomy in order that they can apply its concepts outside the classroom. In this regard, one can see that the interrelation of extensive reading and learner autonomy, especially their shared notions that students' active involvement in the learning process should be promoted and that the teacher should become an advisor rather than the dominator. The following section thus presents some research findings to show the linkage between learner autonomy and extensive reading.

2.**3.9.1 Learner Autonomy and Extensive Reading: Research Findings**

The article of Irmie (2007) has reflected the benefits of the application of extensive reading across English classes of non-English major students in Tokai University, Japan. This study involved 1,470 students and more than 14,000 books. Instead of assigning students to find and borrow books at the library or learning center, the teacher brought them a large number of books in different titles. Once in the classroom, those books were then arranged on tables according to difficulty levels

and students selected two or three books on a voluntary basis to take home. In this way, an extensive reading program disturbed no normal class session and the teacher could keep record of what books had been borrowed by individual students. In addition to the enhancement of students' motivation and positive attitude towards reading, this also aimed to facilitate learner autonomy via the opportunity of students to make choice and to take more responsibility for their own learning process. Meanwhile, bringing books to the classroom not only reduced students' reluctance to visit the library or learning center but also allowed the teacher to teach certain reading strategies to them such as how to choose the right reading materials suitable to their individual proficiency and how to engage in reading strategically. Also, the teacher could monitor students' progress and responsibility.

The result of this study revealed that the extensive reading program could indeed change students' reading habits and learning style; thus, eventually, "students have become hooked on reading books… they would have both the thirst to continue reading in English and the knowledge of how to do it independently" (Imrie, 2007: 5).

2.3.9.2 Reading Strategies to Promote Learner Autonomy

According to the above research by Imrie (2007), the instruction of reading strategies may probably be regarded as an important factor for the success of learner autonomy. This is due to the fact that reading strategies are the "actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques students use, often unconsciously, to improve their progress in apprehending, internalizing, and using the L2" (Oxford, 1994: 1). With suitable knowledge of those reading strategies, students may probably become less dependent on the teacher and have more knowledge and greater awareness of the significance of reading strategies to the success of extensive reading program. In other words, the

instruction of strategies may aim to enhance students' active involvement in reading activities instead of the dependence on their teacher; therefore, apart from promoting reading comprehension, reading strategies may then become a key factor that increase students' motivation to read extensively based on their knowledge of strategies (Ciaran, 2000; Chamot, 2005). Nonetheless, reading strategies are also crucial for students with low familiarity with the target language to have better understanding of reading materials (Kolić-Vehovec, Rončević, and Bajšanski, 2008).

With respect to reading strategies, particular attention is drawn to the importance of helping students select books at an appropriate level and how to prepare for reading extensively (Ze-sheng, 2008; Yamashita, 2008). The teacher may provide certain coaching and motivational support to enable students to read more confidently and strategically and to understand situational demands, strategy choices and reflection of the reading process. Strategies thus should be flexible and accessible as well as conform to different linguistic levels of learners (Ze-sheng, 2008).

Specifically, Bosma and Blok (1992) argue that "the learner should be able to analyze the reading task and select the cognitive strategies appropriate to the task. The teacher's task, then, is to make the learner aware of all the strategies involved in constructing meaning from print. Rather than mastering the mechanics of reading, students learn to monitor their comprehension of a passage and to select an appropriate strategy to overcome a problem in either decoding or in processing the information."

Hence, apart from students' responsibilities and active participation in the learning process, the success of learner autonomy may also require the understanding of how to use different reading strategies effectively and efficiently. This is due to the

fact that most students may have limited previous experience and knowledge of autonomy at the beginning of the course. As a result, learning and practicing is necessary accordingly. Benson (2001: 75) argues that "…fostering autonomy does not imply that we simply leave learners to their own devices, but that we actively encourage and assist them to take control of their learning." The teacher, for example, can train students on how to select books suitable for difficulty levels and their proficiency, how to make choices, and how to develop a good reading habit that will continue in the long run. Meanwhile, students use those guidelines by selecting books to read at home or outside class. In this way, teachers can monitor their progress as they take on more responsibility of their own learning and the development of their learner autonomy as the readers who possess certain reading proficiency levels to pursue reading activities on their own (Bosma and Blok, 1992; Day and Bamford, 1998; Yamashita, 2008).

Zhang and Wu (2009) conducted a study with Chinese high school students in light of their degree of metacognitive awareness of EFL reading strategies, measured through their reported use of EFL reading strategies. First, despite the fact that a wide range of strategies had been used by students, it seemed the differences between good learners and the low-proficiency counterparts in respective strategic knowledge were noticeable. The former was able to make a plan for reading, monitor their comprehension, and select appropriate strategies. Meanwhile, the latter may still need teacher coaching, especially the informed metacognitive strategy training course to lead them to think about their reading processes, identify their weaknesses, and take remedial measures. Also, it was revealed that some students in this study could use reading strategies quite well due to their increased opportunity to have frequent

exposure to English through various kinds of channels such as Internet-based reading materials and English multimedia materials. Therefore, these findings may then reflect the benefit of the change of learning environment with poor language input to the one with active and more exposure input.

To sum up, the possession of reading strategies is an essential factor for students to be successful in reading activities and to have better reading comprehension but it may also be necessary for teachers to provide suitable guidelines and recommendations to students, especially those with lower reading proficiency. In particular, this may probably imply that reading strategies can be attributable to learner autonomy promotion because students tend to have greater enjoyment and motivation to pursue their reading activities inside and outside the classroom once they have more extensive knowledge of reading strategies. In addition to the progress of reading proficiency, students may likely have more learner autonomy as they may use those reading strategies while reading autonomously on their own.

2.4. Course Development

2.4.1 Overview

Course development is a range of planning and implementation processes involving course development or renewal. It focuses on how to determine what knowledge, skills, and values students learn in schools, what experiences should be provided to bring about intended learning outcomes, and how teaching and learning in educational systems can be properly planned, measured, and evaluated. Language course development in the applied linguistics field describes an interrelated set of processes with an emphasis on designing, revising, implementing, and evaluating language programs (Richards, 2001).

It can be said that there is no unitary, linear process in designing a language course. Rather, it is an interconnection between a set of processes and products. Course developers need to understand how the parts fitted together into a whole as a coherent system (Graves, 2000).

2.4.2 Frameworks for Course Development

According to Graves' framework, eight essential processes of course design are (1) defining the context, (2) articulating beliefs, (3) conceptualizing content, (4) formulating goals and objectives, (5) assessing needs, (6) developing materials and (7) designing an assessment plan. Figure 2.9 explains this framework:
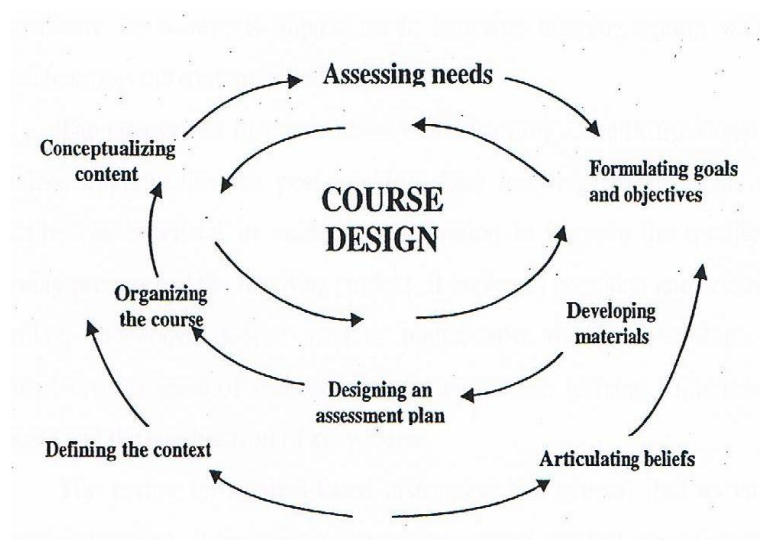
Figure 2.9: A Framework of Course Development Processes (Grave, 2000: 3)

Graves' framework displays two main aspects of course design. First, there is no process hierarchy and no sequence of accomplishment; therefore, a course designer can begin anywhere in the framework, as long as it is sensible. What makes sense is determined by individual beliefs and understandings, contextual reality and perceptions on their students. Articulating beliefs and defining the context thus are regarded as the basis for other processes.

Secondly, the course design must portray a "systems" approach. What is meant by this is that the components are interrelated and each of the processes influences and is influenced by the other in some way. For instance, if a course developer begins with formulating goals and objectives, they will need to think about the content they are teaching, or if they begin with designing an assessment plan, they will need to think about the objectives they are trying to reach an assess. Course design thus is a system in the sense that planning for one component will contribute to others and changes to one component will affect all the others.

2.4.3. Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA)

In order to develop reading materials for the ERLAT course, the CALLA framework has been employed when designing lesson plans. CALLA "is an instructional model that integrates current educational trends in standards, content-based language instruction, learning strategies, and portfolio assessment" (Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, and Robbins, 1999: 7). CALLA lessons are designed following a comprehensive lesson plan model that is grounded in part on cognitive theory and in part on the efforts to integrate language, content, and strategies (Chamot and O'Malley, 1994).

According to Chamot and O'Malley (1994), CALLA provides a five-step procedure for strategy instruction that is organized in accordance with the five phases of the CALLA instructional sequence: preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and expansion.
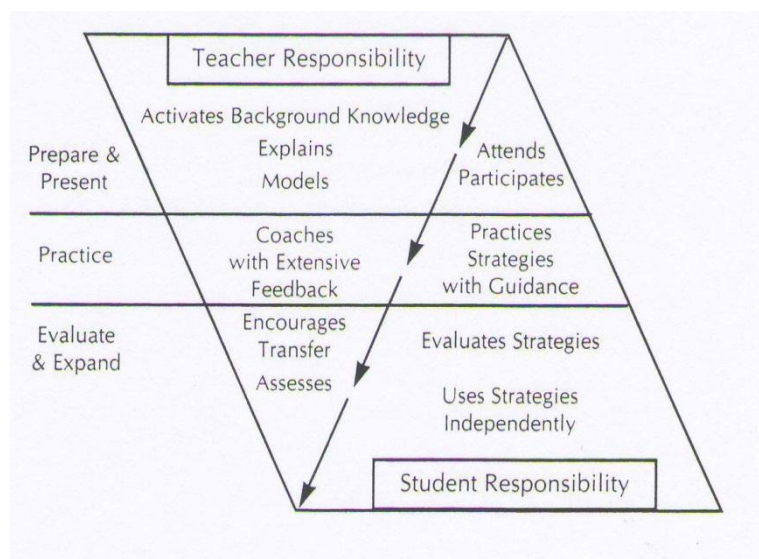
Figure 2.10: CALLA instruction Framework (Chamot and O'Malley, 1944)

1. **Preparation** – the purpose of the preparation phase is to activate students' background knowledge. Students are aware that their prior knowledge can be applied to the topic of the unit.

2. **Presentation** – teacher models the use of new strategies for a particular task and describe how those strategies can be used and when to use them. This phase thus increases students' metacognitive awareness of task requirements and of the connection between strategy use and the learning process.

3. **Practice** – students use and apply strategies in class activities either individual or group assignments. Students have opportunity to discuss their strategy use in small groups and report their thinking and reasoning processes aloud for others in the group.

4. **Evaluation** – students reflect on their strategy use. The success of strategy use and contribution of those strategies to their individual learning process will also be appraised. In addition, students are being asked to plan for, monitor, and evaluate their strategy application and keep records for further usage.

5. Expansion – students extend the use of strategies into new situations or tasks which are beyond classroom examples or instructions. Teachers can also remind students to use strategies, which are the part of an earlier presentation phase, provide scaffolding prompts as needed, and encourage students to experiment the strategies with materials they are using in other classes. Students can then benefit from the use of strategies with a wide variety of academic tasks and from the knowledge of effective use of strategies.

In CALLA lessons, learning strategies are specifically selected based on the most suitability with content materials and language tasks of ERLAT. They include, for instance, *selective attention* (scan) to the main ideas in a reading passage as well as resourcing to use and select reference materials such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, or graded readers for out-of-class reading activity. Strategies are taught explicitly by naming strategies, telling students how strategies do assist the learning process, and then ample instructional supports are provided while students practice and apply the strategies selected. The objective is to provide students with a variety of strategies which they can appropriately choose for the completion of tasks in and outside the classroom. Providing choices of strategies may then foster learner autonomy in the learning process which is the ultimate goal of the ERLAT.

In summary, language course development is an all-inclusive process which comprises the process of needs assessment; development of course objectives to address those needs; determination of a suitable syllabus, course structure, pedagogy, and materials; and course evaluation. On the other hand, the CALLA approach in designing a course lesson includes five stages which are preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and expansion. Specifically, the course design concept and CALLA approach

are then applied in designing this integrated extensive reading program in order that this study can fulfill its desired goals in developing students' reading comprehension and learner autonomy. A properly designed course and materials on the basis of needs assessment can be one of the important elements that enhance student's motivation to have an active and willing participation in the learning process or the extensive reading program for this study. Once students have more engagement in the classroom, students should then read more extensively and voluntarily. Eventually, better reading proficiency can then foster their learner autonomy because students are to enjoy reading strategically and independently.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents sample selection, research instruments, research procedures, data collection and along with data analyses.

3.1 Research Design

The one-group pretest-posttest, non-randomized design was used in this study. The group was measured before and after the exposure to the treatment (ERLAT course). Pre-and post-test assessments aimed to examine whether the independent variable contributed to participants' changes (Dane, 1990). Table 3.1 presents the research design, with O and X referring to the dependent and independent variables, respectively.

Table 3.1: One-group pretest-posttest design

	Pretest	**Treatment**	**Posttest**
ERLAT	O_1	X	O_2

In Table 3.1, O_1 is general English reading ability pre-test made before the manipulation of independent variable, which is ERLAT treatment. Pre-test scores were then compared with the scores from O_2 or post-test by the end of the experiment.

3.2 Population and Sample

The population was 229 undergraduate students from the Faculties of Education, Engineering, Allied Health Sciences, and Sciences. All of them had studied three basic compulsory English courses: Fundamental English (course code 001211), Developmental English (201212), and English for Academic Purposes (course code 001213).

The sample group was selected from the population, who were enrolled in Reading Academic English (course code 205301) in the second semester of academic year 2011. It was a compulsory course for Naresuan University undergraduates. The purpose of this course was to develop English academic reading skills by means of reading a range of topics and searching for or using references within their respective academic discipline in order to prepare them for further studies or future career.

The group of participants was randomly selected from those who were enrolled in Academic English Reading which was divided into five sections by the Office of the Registrar. In this regard, one section consisting of 37 students was selected. All of them were from the Faculty of Allied Health Sciences majoring in Cardio-thoracic technology. After ten-week ERLAT, ten students from the best and the lowest progressive rate groups (five students each) were selected based on their pre- and post-test scores for the interview, and their Bookworm's Diaries were also assessed.

3.3. Research Procedures

The research procedures were divided into two phases: 1) developing research instruments and 2) conducting the experiment. Research instruments were systematically developed to ensure their validity, reliability, and usefulness. During the course of the experiment, students attended the ten-week ERLAT course in which a lesson of three learning tasks was provided to them. The tasks included intensive reading-based activities, ERLAT-based motivating activities, and sustained silent reading.

IR-based activities

The subjects learned reading strategies for one period of approximately 50 minutes. The teacher-centered teaching approach focused on the combination of topic-

based and strategies-based lessons. The lesson plans were developed according to the CALLA framework by Chamot and O'Malley (1994). The emphasis was on practicing reading skills such as skimming, scanning, guessing word meanings, finding main ideas, finding supporting details, using references, etc. In addition, cognitive learning strategies such as resourcing, deduction, imagery, keyword method, transfer, inferencing, translation, summarizing, etc. were integrated to promote learner autonomy.

ERLAT-based motivating activities

The ER instruction lasted around one period. The teacher's roles were both the facilitator and manager. Students worked collaboratively in small groups to complete particular assignments. The focal point was on practicing ER strategies and metacognitive strategies (planning, monitoring, and evaluating). Concurrently, motivation and positive attitudes toward reading and learner autonomy were promoted during this point.

Sustained silent reading activity

A session of approximately 50 minutes was devoted to sustained silent reading activities in the classroom. Each student brought the book he/she was reading and continued doing so in class. The teacher took a role of the reading model and read just like students. Their reading behaviors were observed and noted in the observation checklist. Sustained silent reading lasted 30 minutes and the remaining 20 minutes was for class discussions, teacher consultation, and book borrowing and returning.

Apart from in-class reading, students were encouraged to enjoy outside reading as much as possible so that they had something to write in a Bookworm's Diary, present, negotiate, discuss, and share with their group members in the

following weeks during the ERLAT-based class. The research procedures are outlined

in Figure 3.1 below:

| Phase 1
The development of an extensive reading instruction with the incorporation of learner autonomy training (ERLAT) for Thai EFL undergraduate students | **Stage 1:** Exploring, studying, and synthesizing theoretical underpinnings, pedagogical principles, research, and related literature to determine the theoretical framework
Stage 2: Designing the course based on extensive reading instruction and learner autonomy training strategies
Stage 3: Designing the instructional process
Stage 4: Designing the assessment plan: pre-test and posttest
Stage 5: Designing questionnaires and interviewing questions
Stage 6: Checking for reliability and validity of instruments |

| Phase 2
Implementation and evaluation of the effectiveness of ERLAT course | **Stage 1:** Preparing for the experiment
    1.1 Determining the research design
    1.2 Specifying the population
    1.3 Determining the sample
Stage 2: Preparing the research instruments
    2.1 Research instruments
        2.1.1 Instructional instruments
        2.1.2 Reading ability tests
        2.1.3 Students' questionnaire
        2.1.4 Students' interviewing questions
        2.1.5 Bookworm's Diary
        2.1.6 Observation Checklist
Stage 3: Data collection
    3.1 Administering the pre-test
    3.2 Administering the pre-questionnaire
    3.3 Implementing the instruction (10 weeks)
    3.4 Recording students' performance in Teacher Observation Checklist
    3.5 Administering the post-test
    3.6 Administering the post-questionnaire
    3.7 Collecting students' Bookworm's Diary
    3.8 Conducting the interview
Stage 4: Data Analysis
    4.1 Comparison of pretest, and post-test scores
    4.2 Students' Bookworm's Diary
        - Content analysis
    4.3 Observation Checklist
        - Content analysis
    4.4 Questionnaires
        - Descriptive statistics (X, S.D.)
        - Content analysis
    4.5 Interview
        - Content analysis |

Figure 3.1: Phases and Stages of the Research

3.4 The Development of Extensive Reading Material Instructor's Manual with the Integration of Learner Autonomy Training (ERLAT)

I. Course Rationale

ERLAT was developed based on the extensive theory and both types of preparations for the learner training. The course allows students to extensively read and exercise reading strategies outside the classroom which an ultimate goal to encourage students to learn autonomously at their own pace and become effective learners. It is believed that effective learning results from active engagement of learners in a language learning process. Being active learners means they have to be responsible for and have the ability to facilitate their own learning. As learners cannot become independent learners by just being told to (Dickinson, 1987), learner training is essential in order to fulfill this learning purpose, as mentioned by Ellis and Sinclair (1993: 2):

> Learner training aims to help learners consider the factors that affect their learning and discover the learning strategies that suit them best so that they may become more effective learners and take on more responsibility of their own learning. It focuses their attention on the process of learning so that the emphasis is on *how* to learn rather than on *what* to learn.

One can say that learners should be prepared methodologically and psychologically in order to be affectively and cognitively active in the language learning process. Methodological preparation provides learners with a strategically learning techniques and skills such as cognitive and metacognitive strategies. In particular, the former may help them plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning. By the same token, they learn how to manage their own learning or learn *how* to learn. However, only being cognitively active does not guarantee effective learners. Therefore, psychological preparation can motivate learners to be affectively active since it aims at changing learners' attitudes to be positive towards learner independence, and making them willing to take responsibility for their own

learning and confident in their ability to learn autonomously. Methodological and psychological preparations are interrelated and they need to be presented together. For example, a person may have the ability to carry independent learning but feel no willingness to do so. On the other hand, a person may be willing to carry out their own learning but not have the ability to do so (Dickinson, 1995).

The framework for learner autonomy training in the present study was mainly adapted from Dickinson (1995) and Wenden (1991). However, extensive reading instruction was also included in this study with an aim to heighten students' learning process. Figure 3.2 portrays the framework for the ERLAT course.
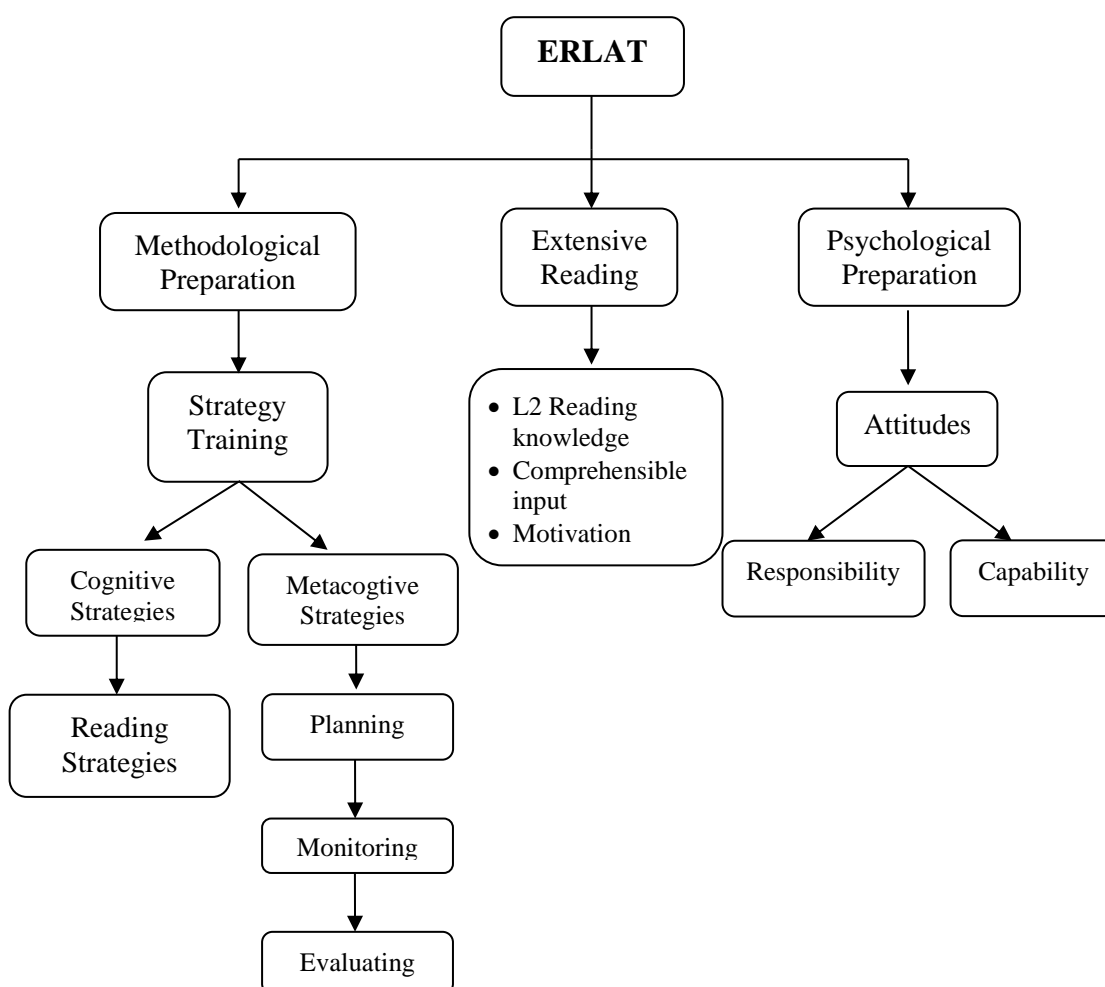
Figure 3.2: The framework of ERLAT

The promotion of learner autonomy may not be implemented merely as a way to encourage learners to learn independently from the teacher's control or from the specified curriculum and lesson plan. Rather, the teacher works with students in the process of learner autonomy development. Hence, the teacher plays an important role in the classroom, for example, monitoring the obstacles that the students may face, supporting the effective engagement in learner autonomy development, and observing students' development and progress. Also, it is crucial for the teachers to create a proper learning environment for students so that they acquire the skills and practice how to learn autonomously.

Therefore, ERLAT aims to enhance active involvement of students in all phases of learning processes for expected positive learning outcomes. That is to say that students' contribution to the classroom, such as defining reading objectives and choosing preferred or favorite books, etc. will greatly benefit not only the learning process but also the improvement of their reading skills as a whole. The participatory approach of learner autonomy, a part of ERLAT in the present study, can help students to become more aware of how to read English as it should actually be in the real world and to engage in academic achievement on their own (Little, 1995).

Specifically, the teacher's role towards students seems to have an important influence on the learning process. This means that the teacher is a key to promote students' participation in teaching and learning processes (Albanese, 2004). In contrast to traditional classrooms in which the instruction is normally dominated by the teacher while the students passively receive the knowledge, a proactive approach is promoted in the ERLAT. In this regard, the students are welcomed to define and

assess their own learning goals, needs, and preferences, as well as to do self-assessment.

The cooperation between the teacher and the students, hence, lies at the heart of ERLAT. Instead of controlling the entire learning process, the teacher does certain preparations to specify the scope of autonomy the students will enjoy. In this regard, the teacher acts, for example, as the counselor or the facilitator who imbues necessary reading abilities and skills and builds close relationships with students. This is also pursued along with the teacher's role as a model who demonstrates to students how they can read autonomously and strategically based on the appropriate selection and use of reading strategies acquired/observed from their reading model.

In conclusion, an active interaction between students and the teacher in the learning process is an essential element for the promotion of learner autonomy. The teacher's role is thus comparable to an important scaffolding of knowledge for students. Indeed, with respect to ERLAT, the teacher plays an integral role in reading classes because he/she acts as a model providing the students with real demonstrations of how to effectively use or apply those reading strategies in parallel to a chance to read their preferred books extensively and actively while in a reading class. This aims to eventually turn the students into autonomous readers who can read independently to meet their individual learning needs and preference in the long term.

II. Objectives

After completing ERLAT, the students will be able:

6. To read a wide range of English authentic texts with the ability to deal with challenges and problems without significant difficulty;

7. To identify and independently use most of reading strategies learned in class;

8. To be aware of learning strategies in enhancing their reading abilities for reading success, either in or out of classroom;

9. To maintain persistence in reading;

10. To possess a critical thinking skill and ability to read purposefully;

11. To develop learner autonomy strategies; and

12. To become autonomous readers.

III. Course content

The ERLAT instruction lasted for ten weeks. For time allotment, the class met twice per week, two contact hours and fifty minutes respectively. Activities in the lesson plans were divided into three phases: 1) intensive reading-based (IR-based) for the first 50 minutes session, while the other two contact hours were devoted to 2) extensive reading and learner autonomy training (ERLAT- based) and 3) sustained silent reading activity (see Table 3.2). With respect to the IR-based or traditional reading part, it emphasized practice of reading strategies such as skimming, scanning, knowing text organization, and so on. In addition, cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies were integrated in IR with an attempt to build up students' level of autonomy in terms of methodological preparation. Cognitive strategies included attention focus, inferencing, deductive reasoning, resourcing, memorization, etc. Meanwhile, metacognitive strategies included the verification of the reasonability and self-assessment (see Figure 2.4 on page 54 for more detail).

Table 3.2: Outline of ERLAT Weekly Session

Period	Approximate time in minutes	Instructional based	Activities
1	50	IR-based (Intensive reading and cognitive strategies)	• Learning reading strategies • Practicing reading strategically • Doing follow-up exercises
2	50	ERLAT-based (Extensive reading activities & Learner autonomy strategy training: psychological preparation and methodological preparation)	• Doing extensive reading tasks with integration of learner autonomy training strategies • Promoting positive attitudes toward personal responsibility and capability to learn as autonomous learners • Working collaboratively in groups
3	50	Sustained silent reading	• Borrowing and returning books • Doing in-class silent reading • Discussing and sharing ideas in groups • Teacher consultation

As regards ERLAT, it aimed to encourage students to engage in reading extensively both in and out of class. This was to provide motivation and positive attitudes toward reading in English and allowed students to read and be exposed to comprehensible input through reading as much as possible on their own pace and within their linguistic competence which would in turn increase students' second language knowledge. In this regard, learner autonomy training strategies were also incorporated.

Weekly ERLAT-based instruction mainly focused on extensive reading activities, psychological preparation, and methodological preparation. Extensive reading activities allowed the teacher introduce extensive reading to students, organize

suitable reading materials, motivate and support them to read, and monitor and evaluate their reading performance. Furthermore, some activities linked reading with particular aspects of language learning, such as increasing oral fluency, improving reading and writing skills, or learning new vocabulary. For psychological preparation, students were trained to be affectively active and willing to take responsible for their own learning as well as boosting their self-confidence in learning. For methodological preparation, it focused on metacognitive strategies which included planning, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation. In the planning stage, students planed and set a goal such as the number of pages, time, and when and where to read. Then, in the self-monitoring stage, students examined their own learning process and strategies and kept records of achievement and problems they experienced while reading. Next, students evaluated their learning process outcomes, reflected, and thought about the cause of the success and failure of their performance. Lastly, they formulated the goal of the following week for their learning improvement. In this way, students were encouraged to take responsibility of their own learning process within their own learning capacity. Under the learner autonomy training strategies framework's influence, cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, and attitudes were the three phases that progress. As a result, students achieved both process and product simultaneously. For the former, they learned how to gain control over their learning; that is, they became more autonomous learners, while, for the latter, students improved their overall reading comprehension ability.

ERLAT consisted of ten units focusing on one academic topic weekly. Each unit lasted for three hours of in-class learning and the extra time for out-of-class reading on individual students' voluntary basis. In each class, the ERLAT training modules were

addressed through class activities. The outline of the course content is shown in Table 3.3. Lesson plans on ER activities were adapted from Bamford and Day (2004), meanwhile, some lesson plans for learner autonomy training strategies were adapted from Cottrell (2003), Lum Yok Lin (1995), Scharle and Szabo (2000), and Swatevacharkul (2006).

Table 3.3: Course Content of ERLAT

Week	Session 1: IR-based (50 mins)	Session 2: ERLAT-based (50 mins)	Sustained Silent Reading (50 mins)
1	Pre-test of reading comprehension		Pre-questionnaire
2	**Unit 1:** Disaster **Reading strategies:** - recognizing reading strategies - identifying main ideas, supporting details, topics **Methodological preparation** **Cognitive strategies:** - using background knowledge, predicting, summarizing	**Lesson 1** **ER activity:** **Activity 1:** Reading and you **Psychological Preparation** **Activity 2:** Describing learner autonomy	- Introducing Bookworm's diary - Borrowing and returning books - Reading book chosen by themselves - Discussing and sharing ideas in groups or pairs - Teacher consultation
3	**Unit 2:** Human journey **Reading strategies:** - previewing a reading - understanding acronyms and abbreviations **Methodological preparation** **Cognitive strategies:** - guessing/inductive inferencing	**Lesson 2** **ER activity:** **Activity 3:** Finding your book **Methodological Preparation:** **Metacognitive strategies:** **Activity 4:** Planning and setting goals	- Teacher introducing books. - Borrowing and returning books - Reading book chosen by themselves - Discussing and sharing ideas in groups or pairs - Teacher consultation
4	**Unit 3:** Food and Health **Reading strategies:** - scanning - getting information from a graph **Methodological preparation** **Cognitive strategies:** - Inferring/using resources	**Lesson 3** **ER activity:** **Activity 5: Explore the real world reading** **Methodological Preparation:** **Metacognitive strategies:** **Activity 6:** Monitor your learning	- Broadening what you have read by teacher. - Borrowing and returning books - Reading book chosen by themselves - Discussing and sharing ideas in groups or pairs

Table 3.3: Course Content of ERLAT (Continued)

Week	Session 1: IR-based (50 mins)	Session 2: ERLAT-based (50 mins)	Sustained Silent Reading (50 mins)
5	**Unit 4:** Money matters **Reading strategies:** - Skimming **Methodological preparation Cognitive strategies: - selective attention/ Metacognitive strategies:** asking if it makes sense/ self-assessment	**Lesson 4 ER activity: Activity 7:** Rate it! **Psychological Preparation Activity 8:** Learner contact (Responsibility)	- Introducing books by volunteers. - Borrowing and returning books - Reading book chosen by themselves - Discussing and sharing ideas in groups or pairs - Teacher consultation
6	**Unit 5:** Green living **Reading strategies:** - Identifying fact vs. opinion - Imagery and predicting - Identifying causes and effects **Methodological preparation Cognitive strategies: -** Imagery/predicting/using a mechanical means to store information	**Lesson 5 ER activity: Activity 9:** Book review **Psychological Preparation Activity 10:** Your responsible attitudes	- Broadening what you have read. - Borrowing and returning books - Reading book chosen by themselves - Discussing and sharing ideas in groups or pairs - Teacher consultation
7	**Unit 6:** Love and relationships **Reading strategies: -** recognizing sequence of events - using a timeline - drawing conclusion **Methodological preparation Cognitive strategies: -** Using key word to find in formation	**Lesson 6 ER activity: Activity 11: Power point presentation** **Methodological Preparation Metacognitive strategies: Activity 12:** Your leaning resources (self-monitoring)	- Poster presentation - Borrowing and returning books - Reading book chosen by themselves - Discussing and sharing ideas in groups or pairs - Teacher consultation

Table 3.3: Course Content of ERLAT (Continued)

Week	Session 1: IR-based (50 mins)	Session 2: ERLAT-based (50 mins)	Sustained Silent Reading (50 mins)
8	**Unit 7:** Culture **Reading strategies:** - Understanding purpose and tone **Methodological preparation** **Cognitive strategies:** **-** Taking notes	**Lesson 7** **ER activity:** **Activity 13:** One sentence check **Psychological Preparation** **Activity 14:** Your hidden strengths (Capability)	- Introducing books by volunteers. - Borrowing and returning books - Reading book chosen by themselves - Discussing and sharing ideas in groups or pairs - Teacher consultation
9	**Unit 8:** Quality of life **Reading strategies:** - Recognizing points of view - understanding italics and quotation marks - Getting contextual meanings - Distinguishing facts from assumptions **Methodological preparation** **Matacognitive strategies:** - Self talk (Talk yourself through it)	**Lesson 8** **ER activity:** **Activity 15:** Predicting content from title **Methodological Preparation** **Metacognitive strategies:** **Activity 16:** Discover Your Learning styles	- Broadening what you have read. - Borrowing and returning books - Reading book chosen by themselves - Discussing and sharing ideas in groups or pairs - Teacher consultation
10	**Unit 9:** The way of Life **Reading strategies:** **-** Getting meaning from context - Finding definition using context clues **Methodological preparation** **Cognitive strategies:** - Transferring	**Lesson 9** **ER activity:** **Activity 17:** Time reading **Methodological Preparation** **Metacognitive strategies:** **Activity 18:** Identifying problems and solutions	- Favorite books - Borrowing and returning books - Reading book chosen by themselves - Discussing and sharing ideas in groups or pairs - Teacher consultation

Table 3.3: Course Content of ERLAT (Continued)

Week	Session 1: IR-based (50 mins)	Session 2: ERLAT-based (50 mins)	Sustained Silent Reading (50 mins)
11	**Unit 10:** Technology **Reading strategies:** - Scanning for the definition of key terms - Learning specialized terms **Methodological preparation** **Cognitive strategies:** - Translation	**Lesson 10** **Activity 19:** Developing metacognitive awareness	- Reading quiz and prizes for hardworking bookworms. - Borrowing and returning books - Reading book chosen by themselves - Discussing and sharing ideas in groups or pairs - Teacher consultation
12	Post-test of reading comprehension	Post-questionnaire	

IV. Materials

Graded content readers of a wide range of topics with the difficulty levels from beginner to advanced were made available for the subjects who could choose them according to their interests. They were from several well-known publishers such as Oxford, Macmillan, Penguin, Heinemann, etc. There are approximately 150 titles with headwords ranging from 250 to 3,000 headwords.

Instructional and learning materials include reading passages which are extracted from a variety sources such as magazine articles, websites, and students' textbooks. These materials along with activities and task types are modified and followed the ERLAT framework (see Appendix A).

V. Instructor's Manual

The instructor's manual and lesson plans include some guidelines for teaching which specified rationale, framework, content, activities, and an assessment plan of

the instruction and notes of concerns for lesson implementation. The manual included lesson plans and answer keys for each unit. It also stated objectives, learning strategies, teaching and learning materials, activities, teaching and learning procedures, and time allotments (see Appendix B for a sample of a lesson plan).

VI. Evaluation

The evaluation of ERLAT consisted of 4 parts:

1) Reading and writing assignment   30%

2) Class participations   10%

3) Midterm exam   30%

4) Final exam   30%

3.4.1 The Validation of ERLAT

The ERLAT instructional manual was reviewed by three experts in English reading instruction. They validated the main items: rationale, theoretical framework, scopes and sequences, and components of lesson plans (goal, objectives, time allotment, contents and materials, evaluation and assessment). The content validity of instruments was based on the Index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC) (Rovinelli & Hambleton, 1977). Therefore, the rating was as follows: 1 (for congruent), 0 (questionable or unclear), or -1 (incongruent). The IOC of each item was then calculated. The open-ended section was also provided to all experts for their additional comments and suggestions. The validation of the ERLAT instructional manual was shown in Table 3.4 below:

Table 3.4: Validity of ERLAT Instructional Manual

Assessment Issues	IOC values
1. Rationale	1.00
2. Theoretical Framework	0.67
3. Scope and Sequence of the ERLAT	
3.1 Goal and objectives	1.00
3.2 Time allotment	1.00
3.3 Contents and Materials	1.00
3.4 Evaluation and Assessment	1.00
3.5 Sample reading materials and an instructional manual	1.00
3.6 Sample lesson plan	1.00
4. Instructional material	
4.1 Reading article	0.67
4.2 Reading strategies	1.00
4.3 Directions	1.00
4.4 Activities	0.67
4.5 Worksheets	0.67

0.50-1.00 = reserved; 0-0.49= modified

According to Table 3.4, mean scores of all item ranged from 0.67 to 1 indicating the suitability of instructional manual. For the ERLAT instructional material, only three units from the ERLAT were reviewed by experts. The other seven units of ERLAT were designed following the three revised chapters after the validation. The experts' useful comments were taken into account for the instructional manual improvement.

3.4.2 ERLAT Pilot Study

ERLAT pilot study was conducted with a sample group of 53 students from the same faculties; however, they had different majors. A three-week trial was in the first semester of the academic year 2011 during which three units of ERLAT lessons were taught.

3.5 Research Instruments

For research instruments, there were two main types of research instruments: one for measuring reading ability and the other for the aspects related to levels of learner autonomy. The former consisted of the general English reading ability tests (pre-test and post-test), which had the same contents. The latter set of the instruments were used to explore learner autonomy enhancement including learner autonomy strategies questionnaire, Bookworm's Diary, learner autonomy interview, and teacher's observation checklist. These were to determine if students' learner autonomy level had been progressed during the course of study.

3.5.1. The general English reading ability test

The general English reading ability test comprising 45 multiple choice questions is used to assess students' reading ability before and after the treatment. It focused on different aspects of reading ability: word recognition, reading comprehension, referencing, finding main ideas and details, inferencing, dictionary usage, identifying types of writing, predicting, and identifying reading purposes (McKenna and Dougherty Stahl, 2009). Pre- and post-tests had the same contents. The tests were practical for grade administration and assignment. The test lasted for one hour and a half. Mean scores and standard deviation were to identify dependent

samples *t*-test in order to study the changes of students' English reading ability (see Appendix C for the general English reading test).

The test was developed according to the following processes:

1) Outlining the test blueprint and specifications

2) Selecting reading passages with different topics for multiple reading skills

3) Designing the test type. The multiple-choice format was used since it can be used to measure different objectives and adapted to various levels of learning outcomes (Burton, et al., 1991).

4) Developing the test

   Forty-five test items developed from eight passages in the reading ability tests were based on the combination of two formats: multiple-choice test and multiple-choice cloze. The former was useful for reading comprehension test (Heaton, 1995: 117). The passages were 150-300 words long or about the same length of texts used in other standardized tests. According to Alderson et al. (1995), each test item consisted of 4 choices (a, b, c, or d) or 25 percents of a chance of correctness (Cohen, 1994). Reading passages were adapted from Mini A-Net & O-Net for Entrance: English 2010 and English Practice for Admission 2011, which were intermediate proficiency test design.

5) Validation of the Test

   Content and construct validity of the test were assessed by three experts in English language instruction and assessment based on the Index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC). The overall content validity was 0.91. Revision of the test was done based on the expert's suggestions.

6) The Trials of the Test

6.1) Fifty-three students from the Faculty of Allied Health Sciences majoring in radiological technology were the sample group for pilot testing. They enrolled in Reading Academic English course in the first semester of the academic year 2011. Those who attended in pilot testing were not the subjects of the main study.

6.2) Pilot testing scores were calculated by SPPSS program for item analysis to identify the functionality of test (reliability), test item difficulty (difficulty index), and gap between high and low scorers (discrimination index). According to reliability coefficient (Kuder-Richardson 20 formula or KR20), the overall test reliability, difficulty index, and discrimination index were 0.72, 0.39, and 0.33, respectively. Such results were satisfactory because the internal consistency or reliability of the test was expected to be over 0.70 (Sukamolson, 1995 cited in Swatevacharkul, 2006). Meanwhile, the difficulty index should be between 0.20-0.80 and the discrimination index should be equal to 0.25 or higher. Table 3.5 illustrated the domains of general reading ability test and the test number of each domain.

Table 3.5: Domain of General Reading Ability Test and Its Test Number

(Based on Bloom's Taxonomy)

Category in the Cognitive Domain	Domains of Reading Comprehension	No. of Items	Items
Knowledge	- Know specific facts (Scanning to identify specific information)	6	8,13,17,22,25,31
	(Identifying pronoun and noun phrase)	4	4,7,15,24
	- Dictionary usage	3	43,44,45
Comprehension	- Guess meaning from the context	4	2,6,19,34
	- Skim to understand general idea	5	5,12,23,33,35
	- Conclude ideas	4	3,20,28,30
	- Fill the gap with a calculated guess (using linguistic expectancies and background knowledge)/ Make a coherent guesses	6	37,38,39,40,41,42
Analysis	- Identify sequence of events/ stages of argument	3	11,16,36
Synthesis	- Make inferences	4	14,18,21,29
	- Read for author's purpose	3	9,26,32
	- Read to obtain the gist	3	1,10,27
	Total	**45**	

3.5.2 Learner autonomy training questionnaire

The use of learner autonomy training questionnaire was to measure students' perception towards learner autonomy: cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, attitudes toward learner autonomy and ERLAT course, and learner autonomy levels. The type of the questionnaire was based on 5-point Likert Scale – the subjects rate their degree of opinion in a scale of 1 to 5. The Likert Scale is wildly used in research to obtain information from the target subjects by using questions or statements to reflect individual attitude or belief.

The questionnaire was developed based on the components of learner autonomy model (Figure 2.7 on page 61). Sixty-nine statements regarding learner autonomy

training strategies in the questionnaire were written in English, and then translated into Thai. They reflected what students have been trained throughout the course. Students were required to rate either 'strongly agree,' 'agree,' 'uncertain,' 'disagree,' or 'strongly disagree' on each statement. The positive statement's weights were 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1 respectively, while the reversed ones for negative statements were 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5.

To fully answer all the aspects of the research questions 3, 4, and 5, the questionnaire was divided into three separate parts: Learner autonomy training strategies, learner autonomy level scale, and opinions towards ERLAT course.

Part 1: The first part of the questionnaires aims to measure students' reading strategies which they had been trained during the course implementation. The questions were adapted from Oxford (1990), and O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) learning strategies (figure 2.5 on page 57). Questions in this part were also split into three main categories, and each category contains its subscales – cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, and attitudes (personal responsibility and personal capacity). This part corresponded to the methodological preparation in terms of both cognitive and metacognitive strategies and psychological preparation which included personal responsibility and personal capability. Therefore, it intended to gain information on learner's behaviors of independent learning ability regarding the use of learning strategies in general and reading strategies before and after the ERLAT course. In addition, the comparative of pre- and post-questionnaires enabled the researcher to capture students' methodological and psychological progress at the end of the course.

Part 2: The second part of the questionnaire concerned students' attitudes towards learner autonomy which included general readiness for learner autonomy,

independent work in language learning, the teacher's roles, and self-evaluation and external assessment.

Most statements of this part were adapted from Learner Autonomy Profile (LAP) by Confessore (2000) and Broady's questionnaire (1996). It involved psychological preparation which aimed to find out students' attitudes towards learner autonomy both before and after the exposure to the course. A comparison of the results would indicate how their attitudes changed over the period of the experiment.

Part 3: It aimed to elicit students' opinions towards the course. This section allowed them to do self-evaluation on what they had learned, the benefits they received or what they had to be improved. It was distributed to them by the end of the course.

The interpretation of 5 degrees of Likert Scale for the questionnaire in this study was as follows:

5   means a 'very high' level of positive attitude towards learner autonomy.

4   means a 'high' level of positive attitude towards learner autonomy.

3   means a 'moderate' level of positive attitude towards learner autonomy.

2   means a 'low' level of positive attitude towards learner autonomy.

1   means a 'very low' level of positive attitude towards learner autonomy.

The evaluation criteria of the questionnaire were as follows:

0.00 – 1.50   means a 'very low' level of positive attitude towards learner autonomy.

1.51 – 2.50   means a 'low' level of positive attitude towards learner autonomy.

2.51 – 3.50   means a 'moderate' level of positive attitude towards learner autonomy.

3.51 – 4.50   means a 'high' level of positive attitude towards learner

autonomy.

4.51 – 5.00   means a 'very high' level of positive attitude towards

learner autonomy.

3.5.2.1 The validation of the learner autonomy training questionnaire

The content validity of questionnaire was validated by three ESL experts with the specialty in learner autonomy based on the Index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC). In this regard, the content validity of the questionnaire was 0.93. However, two statements were revised because their IOC values were unacceptable (Item 13 was adjusted from 'I usually do self-assessment after I finish reading' to 'I usually review the strategies I use while reading,' and Item 23 was changed from 'I check my understanding by reviewing main ideas after I finish reading' to 'I check my understanding by doing the follow up exercise or summarize the story'). Some of cognitive and metacognitive statements were rearranged to suit the experts' comments. Also, some wordings were corrected. At last, the questionnaire was made up of 69 statements of two parts which were in the following subcategories (see Appendix D):

Part 1: Learner autonomy training strategies (35 statements)

1.1 Reading strategies: Cognitive and   15

Metacognitive strategies statements

1.2 Metacognitive strategies   statements   10

1.3 Attitudes

1.3.1 Personal responsibility statements   5

1.3.2 Personal capability statements   5

Part 2: Learner autonomy level scale (24 statements)

<div style="margin-left:2em">

2.1 General readiness for learner autonomy statements   6

2.2 Independent work in language learning statements   6

2.3 Students' attitudes toward teacher's roles statements   6

2.4 Students attitudes toward self-evaluation and external   6

statements assessment

</div>

Part 3: Students' attitudes toward the ERLAT course (10 statements)

3.5.2.2 The pilot study of the learner autonomy training questionnaire

The pilot study was done in the first semester of the academic year 2011 with 53 second-year students in the Reading Academic English class. The obtained data from the questionnaires were analyzed using the SPSS program to identify Cronbach's alpha coefficient. In this regard, the reliability of the questionnaire was 0.91, so the questionnaire was applicable for the main study.

3.5.3 Learner autonomy training interviews

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with ten students with the highest and lowest progressive rate. This was to gain deeper understanding of how learner autonomy helped them achieve better reading performance and whether it could encourage them to learn more autonomously. The interview questionnaire was based on the components of the learner autonomy training questionnaire. The interview questions were arranged according to the questionnaire's categories (see Appendix E for the full version of interview questions). The questions were translated from English into Thai for students' full understanding. The interview was scheduled at the end of the course on

the basis of the convenience of both students and the teacher. The data were then transcribed, coded, and analyzed with descriptive statistics.

3.5.3.1 The validation and pilot study of the learner autonomy training interviews

According to the Index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC), the content validity of the interview questions was 0.86. The interview was first conducted in September 2011 with ten students from Faculty of Allied Health Sciences who had the highest and lowest test scores in Reading Academic English course. Learner autonomy training interviews trial was in Thai; students were also allowed to respond in Thai. Some ambiguous questions were revised to complete leaner autonomy training interviews for the main study as shown in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Revision of the Learner Autonomy Training Interviews

Original Statement	Revised Statement
2. When teacher assigns you to write a bookworm's diary, do you have any technique to help you plan and complete a bookworm's diary? (เมื่อครูมอบหมายให้นิสิตเขียน Bookworm Diary นิสิตมีเทคนิคอย่างไรบ้างเพื่อช่วยในการวางแผนและทำให้ Bookworm Diary มีความสมบูรณ์)	2. When a teacher assigns you to write a Bookworm's diary, do you know what is it and why it is significant for your learning? (เมื่อครูมอบหมายให้นิสิตเขียน Bookworm's Diary นิสิตทราบหรือไม่ว่ามันคืออะไร? และทำไมมันจึงมีความสำคัญต่อการเรียนของนิสิต?)
2.1 What do you normally do before you start writing a bookworm's diary? (ก่อนลงมือเขียน Bookworm Diary นิสิตมักจะทำสิ่งใดก่อน?)	2.1 What do you normally do before you start reading extensively and writing a Bookworm's dairy? (ก่อนเริ่มอ่านหนังสือนอกเวลาและเขียน Bookworm's Dairy นิสิตมักจะทำสิ่งใดก่อน?)

3.5.4 Bookworm's Diary

The Bookworm's Diary was used to capture students' learner autonomy training strategies process. It examined students' progress in ER and learner autonomy training according to three phases: planning, self-monitoring, and evaluation. For planning, students set up their weekly reading goal. Students monitored their learning by informing their reading strategies used and problems they encountered. They reported the success and failure in using strategies, and they planned for following performance as well as explained self-evaluation. The Bookworm's Diary had both in English and Thai versions. Data were coded and categorized in order to investigate students' progress.

3.5.4.1 The validation of Bookworm's Diary

Three experts validated Bookworm's Diary in terms of its content, organization, word choice, and syntax/sentences. Each item was rated according to the Index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC) scale.

Table 3.7: The validation of the Bookworm's Dairy

Assessment Issues	IOC values
Clarity of Content:	
1. Do the questions demonstrate the use of metacognitive Process ?	0.67
2. Do the questions contain enough information for students to keep track of their learning?	1.00
Organization:	
3. Do the words, phrases, and sentences tie ideas together logically?	1.00
4. Is the format of the tool easy to fill in?	1.00
Syntax/Sentences:	
6. The spelling has been checked?	1.00
7. Are the sentences effective?	1.00

0.50-1.00 = reserved; 0-0.49= modified

According to Table 3.7, the overall IOC values of each item were above 0.50 indicating the suitability of Bookworm's Dairy. Also, the experts' suggestions were adopted for its improvement. For example, Expert G suggested that the questions should be divided into three main categories of metacognitive strategies (planning, monitoring, and evaluation). This would be much easier for students to answer and fill out the form consecutively (see Appendix F for revised version of Bookworm's Diary).

3.5.5 Teacher's observation checklist

The Teacher's Observation Checklist was a worksheet that recorded major aspects of learner training, specifically the observation of students while participating in-class discussion. The teacher observed students metacognitive behavior and rated the checklist during training sessions. The teacher's observation checklist aimed to obtain information on the effectiveness of learner training schemes in order to see whether learners can develop positive attitudes toward learner autonomy and capability to be reader autonomy, and being able to use effective learning and reading strategies. The teacher's observation checklist was designed based on the framework of learner autonomy training strategy (Figure 2.7) by Dickinson (1995) and Wenden (1991) (see Appendix G). The researcher observed and recorded students' behavior based on the checklist in weeks 2, 6, and 10 of the experimental period. The researcher also added some comments and took notes of some observed performances that occurred in the classroom. It is worth nothing here that the teacher observation checklist was the personal impression and views of the researcher towards the whole classroom at the time of conducting this study. During the observation, no students receive particular attention from the researcher. Thus, the findings from the observation should not be

considered as the main findings. Instead, the data were analyzed and used to provide additional information to support the research results.

3.5.5.1 The validation of the teacher's observation checklist

The teacher's observation checklist was reviewed and rated by three experts based on the Index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC) scale. The overall IOC value was 0.74. However, some items with the scores below 0.50 were either changed or revised according to the experts' comments. Some statements were also added to cover all important aspects. The details were in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8: Revision of the teacher's observation checklist

Part 1: Methodological Preparation

Original Statement	Revised Statement
1.1 Students apply different strategies while reading	Reserved
1.2 Students choose suitable reading strategies for different kinds of reading.	Reserved
1.3 Students are able to choose reading materials that suit their abilities and preferences	Reserved
1.4 Students set practical reading objectives beforehand.	Reserved
1.5 Students have clear plans for their weekly reading assignments.	Reserved
1.6 Students are able to identify their reading problems while reading.	Reserved
1.7 Students do not have difficulty dealing with their reading problems.	Changed Students apply different strategies to solve their reading problems.
1.8 Students share their reading experiences with their classmates.	Changed Students revise their plan after they finish their reading.
1.9 Students make self-assessment after finishing their reading tasks.	Reserved
2.1 Students finish their reading within their own timeframe.	Reserved

Part 2: Psychological Preparation	
2.2 Students participate the activities willingly and Enthusiastically without teacher direct intervention.	Reserved
2.3 Students has a strong intention to achieve their plan	Added
2.4 Students are confident to read on their own.	Reserved
2.5 Students can manage their time for reading effectively.	Changed Students believe that they can improve their reading skill by themselves.
2.6 Students can do their reading assignments individually.	Revised Students can do their reading assignment independently

3.6 Data Collection

ERLAT was put into practice at the target university during the second semester of the academic year 2011. The total number of students who were participated in this research was 37 including nine males and twenty-eight females. They were from the second year of the Allied Health Sciences Faculty majoring in cardio-thoracic technology. They were enrolled in the required English course named Reading for Academic English course (course code 205301). The course training ran for 2 contact hours and one separated hour per week. The first session was dedicated to intensive reading, extensive reading motivated activity, and methodological and psychological preparations for learner autonomy while the latter was devoted to sustained silent reading and returning and borrowing books. Students were expected to spend additional time on their extensive reading and complete the work assigned as part of the course.

The ERLAT instruction lasts ten weeks. Figure 3.3 illustrates the data collection process comprising three phases: before, during, and after the course implementation.

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Undergraduate students enrolled     │
│  in 'Reading Academic English'       │
│  5 groups from 4 faculties           │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                  ⇓
        ┌───────────────────┐
        │      ERLAT        │
        │  1 group (n = 37) │
        └───────────────────┘
                  ⇓
┌──────────────────────────────┐   ⊕   ┌──────────────────────┐
│ The General English Reading  │       │  Learner Autonomy    │
│ Ability Pre-test             │       │  Training Questionnaire │
└──────────────────────────────┘       └──────────────────────┘
          ⇙        ⇘
        ┌─────────────┐    ⇒    ┌──────────────────────┐
        │   ERLAT     │         │ Teacher's Observation│
        │  10 weeks   │         │ Checklist            │
        └─────────────┘         │ Week 2, 6, 10        │
          ⇓        ⇓            └──────────────────────┘
┌──────────────────────────────┐   ⊕   ┌──────────────────────┐
│ The General English Reading  │       │  Learner Autonomy    │
│ Ability Post-test            │       │  Training Questionnaire │
└──────────────────────────────┘       └──────────────────────┘
       ⇙              ⇘
┌─────────────┐  ⊕  ┌─────────────┐  ⇒  ┌──────────────────────┐
│    Best     │     │   Lowest    │     │ 1. Learner Autonomy  │
│ Progressive │     │ Progressive │     │    Training Interview│
│ (BP)  n = 5 │     │ (LP)  n = 5 │     │ 2. Bookworm's Diary  │
└─────────────┘     └─────────────┘     └──────────────────────┘
```

Figure: 3.3: Outline of Data Collection

3.6.1. Before the treatment

The General English Reading Ability Pre-test

The general English reading ability pre-test was administered to the subjects of the study on the first week. The scores were used to examine student's overall reading

ability before the treatment and to compare with the post-test scores after the course ended.

Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire

The questionnaire was distributed to all students during the first week of the class. They spent approximately 20 minutes to complete it. Students raised questions when they did not understand any item listed in the questionnaire. Data were collected for comparison with those collected at the end of the course by means of the questionnaire as well.

3.6.2. During the treatment

Data collection was accomplished within ten weeks of the treatment. Students were exposed to ERLAT. In this phase, students selected books on their own and were encouraged to read extensively, or as much as possible. Reading amounts were noted in their Bookworm's Diary. Meanwhile, students' performances were recorded in the teacher's observation checklist.

Bookworm's Diary

Each student received a Bookworm's Diary every week which was in the form of a worksheet to keep students' reading records. Each week, students were asked to complete the diary by providing information on what they had read during the previous week, even though they did not finish the book. They were also encouraged to reflect on their reasons they continued or stopped reading. The teacher checked the diary regularly, provided feedback, and monitored reading performance. The Bookworm's Dairies of five students with the highest scores and five students with the lowest scores of the reading ability test were selected. Only the Bookworm's Diaries from weeks 2, 6, and 10 were chosen. The Bookworm's Diaries from week 2

represented information of students' learner autonomy training strategies used at the beginning of the treatment. After having an exposure to some components of learner autonomy training in week 6, their Bookworm's Dairies indicated information on the progress of their learner autonomy. Lastly, the Bookworm's Diaries from week 10 provided information on students' learner autonomy training strategies at the end of the treatment. All Bookworm' Diaries were photocopied and kept as the data source for subsequent analysis.

Teacher's Observation Checklist

Teacher's Observation Checklist was designed to keep record of students' performance during the treatment with particular focus on their methodological (cognitive and metacognitive) and psychological (attitudes) preparations. The observation was made while students were being engaged in class discussion. In this regard, the whole class was observed only in weeks 2, 6, and 10. Such observation was to triangulate the data obtained from Bookworm's Diary in order to assure data reliability.

3.6.3. After the treatment

The General English Reading Ability Post-test

After completing the ten-week treatment, all students were finally assessed with the General English Reading Ability post-test. The scores were compared with their pretest scores within their group to answer research question one.

Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire

The questionnaires were distributed to students in the last week of the class. Students spent approximately 20 minutes to complete it.

Learner autonomy training interview

Ten students with highest and lowest progressive rate were assigned an interview with the teacher. They were informed that the interview held after the completion of the course and their answers would not affect their grades. Each interview sessions took approximately 15 minutes. Students were able to answer in Thai to eliminate language barrier. Their answers were digitally recorded, transcribed, coded, and analyzed with descriptive statistics.

3.7 Data Analysis

This study employed a mixed-research method which obtained both quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data consisted of students' scores from general reading ability test and learner autonomy training questionnaire. On the other hand, the qualitative data included narratives in the Bookworm's Diary, teacher observation checklist, and learner autonomy interviews. Data analysis according to each research questions is discussed in the following section:

Research Question 1: To what extent does ERLAT improve English reading ability of Thai university students?

Answers to Research Question 1 were obtained from students' scores from the general English reading ability test. Pre-and post-tests scores from the general English reading ability tests were compared using dependent samples t-test to examine effects of the treatment on students' overall general reading ability. Moreover, the effect size of the mean scores was computed in order to measure the relationship between the pre- and post-scores regardless of the sample size (Cohen, 1988). Cohen's *d* indicated effects of the treatment on students' reading ability. An

effect size of .20 referred to a small effect of the treatment on students' reading ability, .50 had a medium effect, and .80 showed a large effect.

Research Question 2: What are learner autonomy training strategies used by Thai university students while participating in the ERLAT course?

Answers for Research Question 2 were from four research instruments: learner autonomy training questionnaire (part 1), Bookworm's Diary, teacher observation checklist, and learner autonomy training interviews (items 1-4).

The learner autonomy questionnaire (part 1) and its three subscales—cognitive and metacognitive strategies (reading strategies), metacognitve strategies (planning, monitoring, and evaluating) and attitudes were analyzed with descriptive statistics. The questionnaire aimed to examine the use of learner autonomy training strategies before and after the treatment, so a 5-point Likert Scale questionnaire was used to identify mean scores and standard deviation (SD) of each item in each domain. Then, mean scores and SD of every item in each domain were computed for the comparison purpose to reflect whether those scores significantly increased.

Data recorded in the Bookworm's Diary from week 2, 6, and 10 were collected to observe the progress of learner autonomy training strategies employed by students during the treatment period. For week 2, it showed student's learner autonomy learning strategies as the beginning of the treatment. Meanwhile, students' use of learner autonomy strategies during the course of the treatment was observed in week 6. Lastly, students' learner autonomy learning strategies were revealed in week 10 after the completion of the treatment. Bookworm's Diary provided additional evidence regarding the ability to become autonomous learners based on learner autonomy training. Learner autonomy strategies in terms of metacognitive strategies—planning,

self-monitoring, and evaluating were based on the data obtained. 'Content analysis' was then used to analyze such data. The answers provided by the subjects were read to identify the key concept, and then categorized according to those key concepts. They were used for data analysis in order to elicit any patterns or progresses students had made in each week of the treatment period.

The researcher observed students and recorded their behaviors and reactions in the teacher observation checklist form during the class activities. The form was categorized into two main sections: methodological preparation (cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies) and psychological preparation (attitudes: responsibility and capability). Only the checklist from weeks 2, 6, and 10 were examined since they represented the data from the beginning, during, and the end of the treatment. The researcher then marked 'not observed' (No), 'need improvement' (NI), 'satisfactory' (S), and 'outstanding' (O) and made notes in additional space if needed. To obtain the frequency of each item, the information was categorized along with the percentage calculation. Additional comments were transcribed, coded, and analyzed. This was to support those data obtained from Bookworm's Dairy for data interpretation and discussion purposes.

The learner autonomy training interview (items 1-4) were transcribed, coded, and analyzed. The additional information and examples from learner autonomy training questionnaire were added.

Research Question 3: What are the levels of learner autonomy of Thai university students in the ERLAT course?

To answer Research Questions 3, data from the learner autonomy training questionnaire (part 2) and the learner autonomy training interview (items 5-8) were used.

The learner autonomy training questionnaire (part 2) aimed to assess whether the degree of learner autonomy students perceived before and after the exposure to the treatment significantly increased. Scores from the pre- and post-questionnaires were first calculated to determine mean scores and standard deviation (SD), before they were compared to determine if there was a significant increase. The learner autonomy training interview (items 5-8) elicited in-depth information on how the students regulated themselves as autonomous learners. The answers from the interview sessions were used as further evidence to support the finding from the questionnaire.

Research Question 4: What are the opinions of the students toward the ERLAT course?

The answers for this research question were drawn from the learner autonomy training questionnaire (part 3) and the learner autonomy training interview (item 9) to reflect students' opinions towards the ERLAT course. Scores from the pre- and post-questionnaires were first calculated to find the mean scores and standard deviation (SD) to see which items had the mean scores and SD greater than 3.50 (out of 5.00). The high scores indicated the effectiveness of the course. The last interview question was for students to express their opinions toward the course and give any comments for further revision and improvement of the course.

In conclusion, statistical analyses based on research questions are briefly summarized in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9: Research Instruments and Data Analysis

Research Questions	Instruments	Distribution	Data analysis
1. To what extent does ERLAT improve English reading ability of Thai university students?	1. General English Reading pre- and post-tests	• Before & after the treatment	• Means, Standard-deviation • Dependent Sample t-test • cohen's d
2. What are learner learner autonomy training strategies used by Thai university students while participating in ERLAT course?	2. • Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire Part 1, • Bookworm's Diary • Teacher Observation Checklist • Learner Autonomy Training Interview	• Before & after the treatment • Week 2,6 10 • Week 2,6,10 • After the treatment	• Dependent sample t-test • Content analysis • Content analysis • Content analysis
3. What are the levels of learner autonomy of Thai university students in the ERLAT course?	3. • Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire Part 2, • Learner Autonomy Training Interview	• Before & after the treatment • After the treatment	• Dependent sample t-test • Content analysis
4. What are the opinions of the students toward ERLAT course? students toward the ERLAT course?	4. • Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire Part 3, • Learner Autonomy Training Interview	• After the treatment • After the treatment	• Means, Standard-deviation • Content analysis

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter reported the data obtained from the implementation of the ERLAT which included the General English Reading Ability Test, Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire, Learner Autonomy Training Interview, Bookworm's Diary, and Teacher's Observation Checklist. Data were analyzed and presented in light of the four main research questions:

4.1 Results of Research Question 1

Research Question 1: To what extent does ERLAT improve English reading ability of Thai university students?

Hypothesis 1: Students' English reading ability scores based on post-test after their exposure to ERLAT were significantly higher than the pre-test ones at .05 level.

This research question aimed to investigate the effects of the extensive reading instruction and learner autonomy training framework on Thai university students' English reading ability by assessing pre- and post- test scores of General English Reading Ability. The results in Table 4.1 indicated the students' significant improvement, $t(36) = 4.12$, $p < 0.05$, on their English reading ability after the ten-week intervention.

Table 4.1: Pre- and Post-test Results of English Reading Ability

	n	*Mean*	*SD*	**Mean Difference**	*t*	*df*	*Sig*	**Effect Size**
Pre-test	37	21.35	5.22	3.19	4.12	36	.000*	.68
Post-test	37	24.54	5.16					

*p<0.05

According to the Cohen's *d* scale of magnitudes of a correlation (Cohen, 1988), the value of d was as follows:

d = 0.2-0.4 – the effect size was small

d = 0.5-0.7 – the effect size was medium

d = or > 0.8 – the effect size was large

The effect size of ERLAT's pre- and post- test mean scores based on ETA squared was 0.68 or a medium effect (Cohen, 1988). This indicated the significant increase of Thai university students' English reading ability by ERLAT; therefore, Research Hypothesis One was acceptable.

4.2 Results of Research Question 2

Research Question 2: *What are learner autonomy training strategies used by Thai university students while participating in the ERLAT course?*

The second research question involved students' use of autonomous learning strategies. The application of learner autonomy training framework to this study covered two main categories or domains: *methodological preparation* and *psychological preparation*. The former was concerned with learning strategies used by students to develop and/or become conscious of cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Dickinson, 1995). It comprised two subcategories: *cognitive* and *metacognitive* strategies. Meanwhile, the latter described the students' changing attitude towards their *role* in the language learning process and their *capability* as learners (Wenden, 1991). Similarly, it also had two subcategories: *responsibility* and *capability*.

To address this research question, quantitative and qualitative data were used in the measurement of learner autonomy training strategies, while triangulation and data validity confirmation had been made based on different research methodologies.

The quantitative data were drawn from Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire (Part 1) and the qualitative data were from 'Bookworm's Dairy' -- a self-report, Learner Autonomy Training Interview (Items 1-4), and Teacher's Observation Checklist. In this regard, there were two interview sessions: with students with the highest and lowest progressive rates. Their answers were recorded, transcribed, and coded according to learner autonomy learning strategies components.

Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire (Part 1) was distributed to 37 participants in Week 1 before the implementation of ERLAT and in Week 10 after course completion. The students responded to the questionnaire in a 5-point Likert scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). In part 1, there were 35 questions exploring three components of learner autonomy training strategies: 1) cognitive, 2) metacognitive, and 3) attitudes – personal responsibility and personal capability.

To answer Research Question two, the results based on the 35-item questionnaire were analyzed and illustrated in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Learner Autonomy Training

Domain	Items	N	Pre-questionnaire		Post-questionnaire		Df	t	P
			Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*			
Cognitive strategies	15	37	3.38	0.38	3.66	0.45	36	2.79	0.01*
Metacognitive Strategies	10	37	3.24	0.45	3.61	0.48	36	3.87	0.00*
Attitudes	10	37	3.56	0.34	3.74	0.42	36	2.47	0.02*

*p < 0.05 (1.00-1.05 = very low; 1.51-2.50 = low; 2.51-3.50 = moderate; 3.51- 4.50 = high; 4.51-5.00 = very high)

According to Table 4.2, a statistically significant difference of each domain in the pre- and post- questionnaire was found. The results indicated that the use of

cognitive strategies were significantly increased after the ten-week treatment (Mean = 3.66, SD = 2.28, $t(36)$ = 2.79, p < 0.05). Significant improvement of metacognitive strategies was also reported (Mean = 3.61, SD = 0.48, $t(36)$ =3.87, p < 0.05). Moreover, students' attitudes toward learner autonomy were positively enhanced (Mean = 3.74, SD = 0.42, $t(36)$ = 2.47, p<0.05). It can be inferred that students actively used those strategies to regulate their learning process effectively.

To elaborate more insights into students' responses to each category of learner autonomy training strategies, the qualitative data obtained from the interview sessions, Bookworm's Diary and Teacher's Observation Checklist were examined in corresponding to each component of the learner autonomy training questionnaire. Inter-rater reliability was obtained from an independent rater who assessed the coding, categorization, and summarization of data. The reliability coefficient for the Learner Autonomy Training Interview, Bookworm's Diary and Teacher's Observation Checklist was .80, .78, and .84, respectively. This indicated high consistency of coding for both sets of data.

The data presented below were an integration of quantitative data from Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire (Part 1) based on qualitative data from Learner Autonomy Training Interview (Items 1-4), Bookworm's Diary, and Teacher's Observation Checklist. According to those data, the similarities and differences in performance, behavior, and perspectives of students in ERLAT were reflected.

a) **Cognitive Strategies**

In Table 4.3, the difference in some components in cognitive domain between pre and post-questionnaires was statically significant. The significant increase was found in the following domains: 'using background knowledge' (Mean = 3.57, SD = 0.83, $t(36)$ = 2.58, p < 0.05), 'transferring' (Mean = 3.68, SD = 0.71, $t(36)$ = 2.28, p <

0.05), 'selective attention' (Mean = 3.51, SD = 0.69, $t(36)$ = 3.42, p < 0.05), 'checking

if it make sense' (Mean = 3.35, SD = 0.75, $t(36)$ = 2.30, p < 0.05), and 'self-

assessment' (Mean = 3.24, SD = 0.98, $t(36)$ = 2.90, p < 0.05). It could be said that

students used more of these strategies after the treatment than before the treatment.

Table 4.3: A Comparison of Each Component between Pre- and Post-Questionnaires of Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive Domain	*n*	Pre		Post		*df*	*t*	*P*	Meaning
		Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*				
1. Cognitive Strategies	**37**	**3.38**	**0.38**	**3.66**	**0.45**	**36**	**2.79**	**0.01***	**High**
1. Using background knowledge	37	3.16	0.90	3.57	0.83	36	2.58	0.01*	High
2. Summarizing	37	3.81	0.91	4.08	0.64	36	1.62	0.12	High
3. Predicting	37	3.78	0.91	3.95	0.81	36	1.03	0.31	High
4. Making inference/ Guessing	37	3.76	0.83	3.97	0.87	36	1.48	0.15	High
5. Using resource	37	4.00	0.85	3.81	0.84	36	-1.13	0.27	High
6. Imagine	37	4.10	0.77	4.46	0.84	36	1.84	0.07	High
7. Taking note	37	2.70	1.05	3.08	1.34	36	1.38	0.18	Moderate
8. Using a mechanical means to store information	37	2.76	0.83	2.95	1.00	36	1.05	0.30	Moderate
9. Transferring	37	3.30	0.85	3.68	0.71	36	2.28	0.03*	High
10. Selective attention	37	2.98	0.76	3.51	0.69	36	3.42	0.00*	High
11. Checking if it make sense	37	2.92	0.95	3.35	0.75	36	2.30	0.03*	Moderate
12. Using key word to find information	37	3.83	0.73	3.78	0.82	36	-0.33	0.74	High
13. Self-assessment	37	2.68	0.85	3.24	0.98	36	2.90	0.01*	Moderate
14. Translation	37	3.78	1.23	3.92	0.92	36	0.54	0.59	High
15. Self-talk	37	3.16	1.01	3.49	0.87	36	1.55	0.13	Moderate

*p < 0.05 (1.00-1.05 = very low; 1.51-2.50 = low; 2.51-3.50 = moderate; 3.51- 4.50 = high;

4.51-5.00 = very high)

Based on means scores of post-questionnaire, students used cognitive learning strategies at a high level (Mean = 3.66, SD = 0.45) as illustrated in Table 4.3. They said that they most often used the 'imagine' strategy while reading (Item 6; Mean = 4.46, SD = 0.84) but they used the 'mechanical means to store information' strategy (Item 8; Mean = 2.95, SD = 1.00) at the low level when comparing to other strategies. This suggested that they often looked at pictures in the text and imagined what the text would be about; however, they moderately jotted down or made lists of new words or phrases they found while reading for their future reviews or references.

According to the interviews, not all of 15 strategies were used. In Table 4.4, seven strategies were used by students to varying degrees, while other eight strategies (taking note, transferring, selective attention, checking if it makes sense, using key word to find information, self-assessment, translation, and self-talk) were not used at all. 'Using resource' and 'making inference/guessing' strategies were frequently used, while the least frequent ones were 'using background knowledge' and 'predicting.'

Table 4.4: Learner Autonomy Training Interviews

Items	Best Progressive (n=5)	Low Progressive (n =5)
	Frequency	
1. Cognitive strategies		
1.1 Using background knowledge	1	0
1.2 Summarizing	2	1
1.3 Predicting	0	1
1.4 Making inference/ Guessing	3	2
1.5 Using resource	4	3
1.6 Imagine	1	1
1.7 Taking note	0	0
1.8 Using a mechanical means to to store information	1	1
1.9 Transferring	0	0
1.10 Selective attention	0	0
1.11 Checking if it make sense	0	0
1.12 Using key word to find information	0	0
1.13 Self-assessment	0	0
1.14 Translation	0	0
1.15 Self-talk	0	0

Interestingly, the data obtained from Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire (Part 1) showed that students often used 'imaginary' strategy while reading, but Learner Autonomy Training Interviews (Item 1) indicated that the students from high and low reading achiever groups frequently relied on the 'using resource' strategy. This suggested that they used resources such as a dictionary to overcome the difficulties in their reading. The Teacher's Observation Checklist clearly indicated that students could choose reading materials that suited their abilities and preferences. They looked at the book title and pictures, read the synopsis, and imagined what the story would be about before making their own decision to choose suitable ones to read. It was also observed that students applied different strategies while reading. For

instance, they tried to guess contextual meanings/clues of unknown words, used the dictionary, or made predictions when they struggled with a complicated text. With respect to the group discussion, they applied the 'summarize' strategy to tell their classmates what they had read. These data were supported by students' responses in the interview session:

"I started with previewing the text and picture. This gave me an overview of the book. I also used dictionary to find the meaning of difficult words, but I tried to guess its meaning by reading a whole sentences first." (Student # BP 1)

"The strategies I often used were skimming through the whole text, and viewing the pictures, charts, diagrams, or anything that were contained in the reading to predict what the story would be about."(Student # LP5)

To sum up, the findings indicated that students used varying degrees of cognitive strategies while participating in ERLAT. The questionnaire results also revealed the significant improvement of the use of cognitive strategies -- students applied cognitive strategies into their learning process more often when compared to the pre-intervention. Besides, the qualitative data confirmed that 'imagine strategy' and 'using resource' were the strategies frequently used by students than others.

b) Metacognitive Strategies

For metacognitive strategies, there was statistically significant evidence in terms of metacognitive strategies. Students reported using planning strategy (Mean = 3.46, SD = 0.54, $t(36) = 5.15$, $p < 0.05$) and self-evaluating strategy (Mean = 3.61, SD = 0.65, $t(36) = 2.15$, $p < 0.05$) greater than before the beginning of the treatment.

However, self-monitoring strategy was the most used strategies in this domain (Mean = 3.83, SD = 0.55). Overall, students highly performed the use of metacognitive strategies in their learning process.

Table 4.5: Metacognitive Learning Strategies used by Students

Domain	n	Pre-		Post-		df	t	P	Meaning
		Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*P*	
1.2. Metacognitive Strategies	**37**	**3.24**	**0.45**	**3.61**	**0.48**	**36**	**3.87**	**0.00***	**High**
1.2.1 Planning	37	2.84	0.55	3.46	0.57	36	5.15	0.00*	Moderate
1.2.2 Monitoring	37	3.70	0.60	3.83	0.55	36	1.21	0.24	High
1.2.3 Self-evaluating	37	3.32	0.68	3.61	0.65	36	2.15	0.04*	High

*p < 0.05 (1.00-1.05 = very low; 1.51-2.50 = low; 2.51-3.50 = moderate; 3.51- 4.50 = high; 4.51-5.00 = very high)

To study the development of metacognitive strategies consisting three phases: planning, self-monitoring, and self-evaluating, data were collected from ten students (n = 10) with the best progressive rates (BP) and the lowest progressive rates (LP) based on Bookworm's Diary in weeks 2, 6, and 10. In particular, the researcher has made the comparison of students' Bookworm's Diary before, during and after the treatment and calculated the percentage based on the frequency of metacognitive strategy use in those weeks (see Table 4.6).

According to Table 4.6, students with the highest (n = 5) and lowest (n = 5) progressive rates of reading ability progressed towards becoming autonomous learners to some extent. Bookworm's Diary from week 2 also demonstrated students' use of learner autonomy strategies before the treatment. All components of learner autonomy training strategies were taught in week 6 and Bookworm's Diary was gathered to examine students' development. Then, Bookworm's Diary was collected in week 10 (the last

week of treatment) to explore students' post-treatment improvement in using learner autonomy learning strategies.

Table 4.6: Strategies Use as Indicated in Bookworm's Diary

Phases	Groups	Week 2	Week 6	Week 10
Planning	BP	48.00%	56.00%	60.00%
	LP	40.00%	60.00%	60.00%
Self-monitoring	BP	43.48%	60.87%	73.91%
	LP	47.82%	52.17%	65.22%
Self-evaluating	BP	61.90%	66.66%	76.17%
	LP	42.86%	47.62%	57.14%

To elaborate more insight into the components of metacognitive strategies (planning, self-monitoring, and self-evaluating), the data of each component were discussed based on the information obtained from Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire (Items 16-25), Learner Autonomy Training Interview (Item 2), Bookworm's Diary, and Teacher Observation Checklist.

Planning Phase

Based on the data obtained from Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire (Table 4.7), substantial evidence indicated that the 'planning' strategy was significantly enhanced after the ten-week intervention. Students applied planning strategy more in their learning process, which included setting their reading objectives in advance (Item 17; Mean = 3.46, SD = 0.80, $t(36)$ = 5.25, p < 0.05), following their reading schedule (Item 18; Mean = 3.03, SD = 0.76, $t(36)$ = 5.32, p < 0.05), and finishing their reading on time (Item 19; Mean = 3.57, SD = 0.80, $t(36)$ = 2.83, p < 0.05). Even though the use of planning strategy significantly improved, students still moderately planned their reading beforehand. They preferred browsing throughout books and paid

attention only to them contents that interested them (Item 16; Mean = 3.73, SD = 1.04). It could be concluded that such data revealed students' improvement in using the planning phase at the moderate level.

Table 4.7: A Comparison of Planning Strategy between the Pre- and Post-Questionnaires of Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive Components		Pre-		Post-					
	n	*Mean*	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*P*	**Meaning**
1. Planning	**37**	**2.84**	**0.55**	**3.46**	**0.57**	**36**	**5.15**	**0.00***	**Moderate**
16. I start reading with browsing throughout the book I would read focus on the content that interests me	37	3.51	1.22	3.73	1.04	36	1.39	0.17	High
17. Before reading, I set my reading objectives in advance and read with those objectives in mind.	37	2.54	0.90	3.46	0.80	36	5.25	0.00*	Moderate
18. I have set reading schedule and I could follow it.	37	2.19	0.70	3.03	0.76	36	5.32	0.00*	Moderate
19. I finish reading faster after I make a reading plan	37	3.14	0.79	3.57	0.80	36	2.83	0.01*	Moderate

*p < 0.05 (1.00-1.05 = very low; 1.51-2.50 = low; 2.51-3.50 = moderate; 3.51- 4.50 = high; 4.51-5.00 = very high)

According to the report obtained from Bookworm's Diary in week 2, the frequency of planning in the highest progressive rate group was 48 percent, while it was 56 percent in the lowest progressive rate group. They said that their goals mostly focused on the outcomes such as the number of pages or the hours spent on reading rather than reading proficiency. The two groups progressed steadily; the students with lowest progressive rate slightly surpassed those who had the highest progressive rate in

week 6. However, 60 percent of them reported that they reached the same level of the goal-setting strategy in week 10 (see Figure 4.1). In addition, they also said that they planned their learning ahead of time by setting a goal for better language proficient outcomes, e.g. faster reading speed or practice of various strategies that they had learned in classrooms.
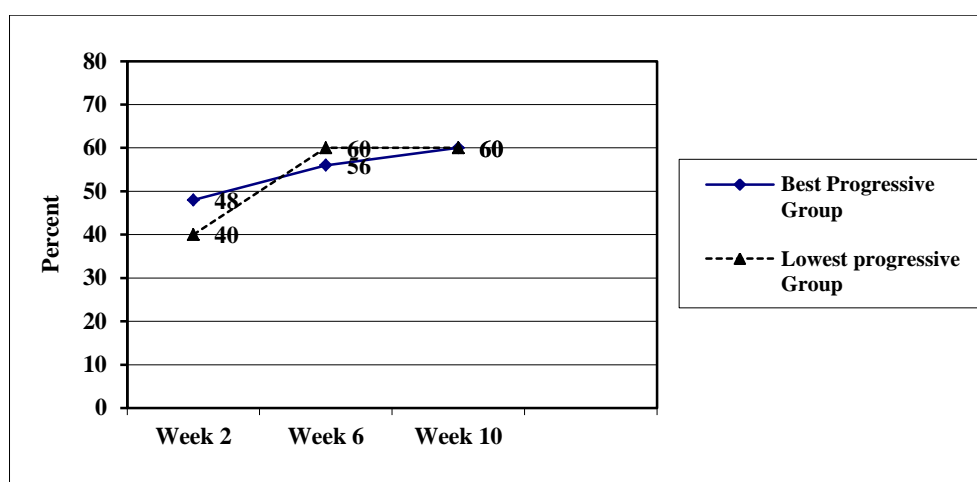
Figure 4.1: Planning phase in Bookworm's Diary

Similar to the data from the questionnaire and Bookworm's Diary in which students reported their active use of metacognitive strategies in making reading plans, the researcher observed the students' attempt to set specific and achievable goals though they may not be able to follow their plan because of their busy study schedules.

Also, during interview sessions, most students from both groups described that they had set their reading plan and followed it; however, some of them hesitated to do so because they thought that they might not be able to follow their plan. Therefore, they decided to read on every occasion that they felt comfortable to do.

"I recalled the reading strategies such as using background knowledge and imagine. I have learned in class, and set my goal to practice those strategies; then I chose the books. I started browsing throughout the book to see how difficult it was, the content of the story, so that I could set my achievable reading plan, for example, if the content was too much and difficult, I would set more time for reading and choose strategy to be used"(Students BP 3)

"I looked over the title of the book, difficulty level, number of pages, and pictures. In this way I can predict what the story would be about, then I think of what type of strategies I would practice and how much time I need to cover the whole book." (Student # LP 3)

"I skimmed throughout the book I have chosen to see how many pages I have to read, what the title of the book was, and what the story would be about, and then I started to read." (Student # BP 1)

"I chose the book by its cover, difficulty level, and title, whether it was caught my eyes. Then I started to read whenever I had time" (Student # LP 2)

In sum, most students in general did not make their reading plan explicitly at the beginning of the ERLAT course. However, they gradually learned to set their learning objective in the following lessons. The students had achieved the improvement of specific goal setting, and they could apply it into their learning process to enhance their comprehension.

Self-monitoring Phase

As illustrated in Table 4.8, there was no statistical difference between the use of the 'self-monitoring' strategy after the course implementation. However, students' performance in the self-monitoring strategy was at a high level (Mean = 3.83, SD = 0.55). It was also found that, after the end of the treatment, students could keep track of their own learning at a moderate level (Item 22; Mean = 3.32, SD = 0.78, $t(36)$ = 2.49, p < 0.05).

Table 4.8: A Comparison of Self-Monitoring Strategy between the Pre- and Post- Questionnaires of Metacognitive Strategies

| Metacognitive Components | n | Pre- | | Post- | | df | t | P | Meaning |
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD				
2. Self-Monitoring	**37**	**3.70**	**0.60**	**3.83**	**0.55**	**36**	**1.21**	**0.24**	**High**
20. While reading, I usually ask myself whether I understand	37	4.14	0.82	4.08	0.83	36	-0.39	0.70	High
21. I know my weaknesses in reading and try to improve them by myself.	37	4.03	0.93	4.08	0.64	36	0.31	0.76	High
22. I always keep track on my own reading.	37	2.94	0.57	3.32	0.78	36	2.49	0.02*	Moderate

*p < 0.05 (1.00-1.05 = very low; 1.51-2.50 = low; 2.51-3.50 = moderate; 3.51-4.50 = high; 4.51-5.00 = very high)

The findings from Bookworm's Dairy were corresponding to the above data in which significant progress of self-monitoring was observed. In week 2, students in the highest and lowest progressive groups had a relatively similar level of self-monitoring (43.48 percent and 47.82 percent, respectively). Students made an effort to monitor their learning progress by expressing their concern with vocabulary, contents, and time constraints. They also stated that, to solve reading difficulties, they may use a

dictionary, guess contextual meaning, search web-based information, manage their reading time, and find the suitable places for reading. The two groups steadily progress in week 6 through week 10. In this regard, the progressed level among students with the lowest progressive rate was 65.22 percent, while those with the highest progressive rate continued to progress to 73.91 percent (see Figure 4.2).
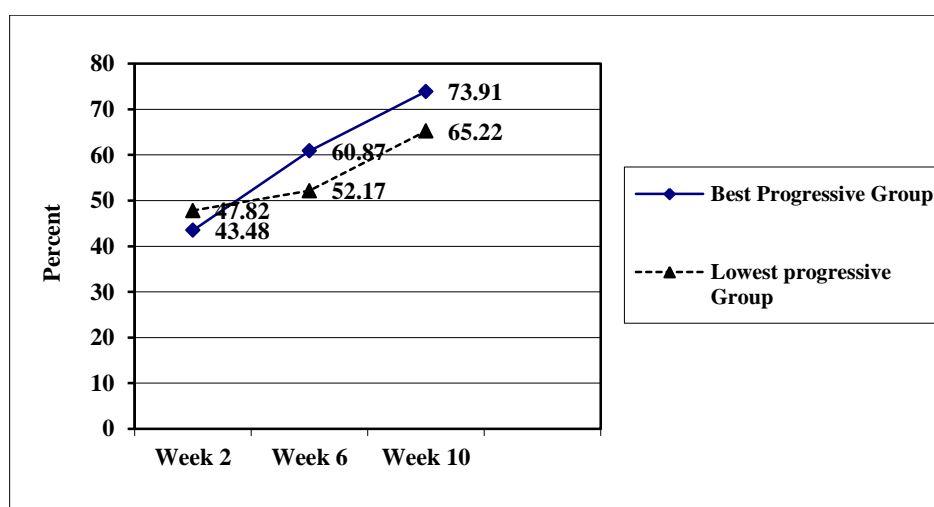
Figure 4.2: Self-Monitoring phase in Bookworm's Diary

Based on the data from three sessions of the Teacher's Observation Checklist, there was clear evidence that students were able to identify their reading problems and tried to cope with them. For example, they tried to guess contextual meanings if they did not understand the word. If the problem persisted, they may use a resource strategy (dictionary or Internet access). This finding was consistent with students' responses in the interviews -- both groups of students recounted their problems and tried to solve them on their own:

"I found that the most challenging in reading English books was vocabulary, most of the time I did not understand it. So, I tried to skip it and pay attention to a whole sentences rather than only own word, I tried to guess meaning from

the context and looked at the pictures to help me understand the whole story.
But, if that word is the key word I opened dictionary. Some words were idioms,
jargon technical terms or personal name, I would check on Internet." (Student
 # BP 1)

"Sometime, I was busy with my study schedule. So I had to well-manage my
reading plan. Most of the time I spent an hour before my bed time reading a
book. It looked like my bedtime story." (Student # BP 4).

It was found that the students in general were able to monitor their own learning process. Both groups of students said that they could identify the cause of success and failure, knew their strengths and weaknesses, and looked toward reading ability improvement.

Self-evaluating Phase

Significant improvement in the *self-evaluating* phase was found after the ten-week intervention. Students highly employed self-evaluating strategies to assess their learning performance (Mean = 3.61, SD = 0.65, $t(36) = 2.15$, p < 0.05). As shown in Table 4.9, students reported that they moderately checked their understanding by reviewing main ideas after they had finished reading (Item 23; Mean = 3.50, SD = 0.61, $t(36) = -0.78$, p < 0.05). They also moderately made sure that the reading strategies they used were effective for their reading performance (Item 24; Mean = 3.49, SD = 0.77, $t(36) = 2.66$, p < 0.05). In addition, they often checked their reading goals after finishing the reading (Item 25; Mean = 3.70, SD = 0.74, $t(36) = 2.75$, p <

0.05). It can be said that students had good performance in this strategy and knew how to observe their learning process on their own.

Table 4.9: A Comparison of Self-Evaluating Strategy between the Pre- and Post- Questionnaires of Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive Components		Pre-		Post-		Test Value = 3.50			
	n	*Mean*	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*P*	Meaning
3. Self-evaluating	**37**	**3.31**	**0.67**	**3.61**	**0.65**	**36**	**2.15**	**0.04***	**High**
23. I check my understanding by reviewing main ideas after I finish reading.	37	3.64	0.96	3.50	0.61	36	-0.78	0.44	Low
24. After reading, I decide whether the reading strategies I used helped me understand the passages better and I think that I could have helped.	37	3.05	1.00	3.49	0.77	36	2.66	0.01*	Low
25. After reading, I check whether I accomplished my reading objectives such as finishing the reading on time	37	3.24	0.68	3.70	0.74	36	2.75	0.01*	Moderate

*p < 0.05 (1.00-1.05 = very low; 1.51-2.50 = low; 2.51-3.50 = moderate; 3.51- 4.50 = high; 4.51-5.00 = very high)

According to the data from Bookworm's Diary, the modest use of self-evaluating in week 2 by students with the highest and lowest progressive rate started was 61.90 percent and 42.86 percent, respectively. Both group continued to make progress in week 6, and again the students with highest progressive rate outdid their counterparts with lowest progressive rate in week 10 and reached 76.17 percent (see Figure 4.3). The self-evaluation strategy was found when students evaluated

themselves according to their goal, checked their reading comprehension, summarized what they read, and rated their overall reading performance.
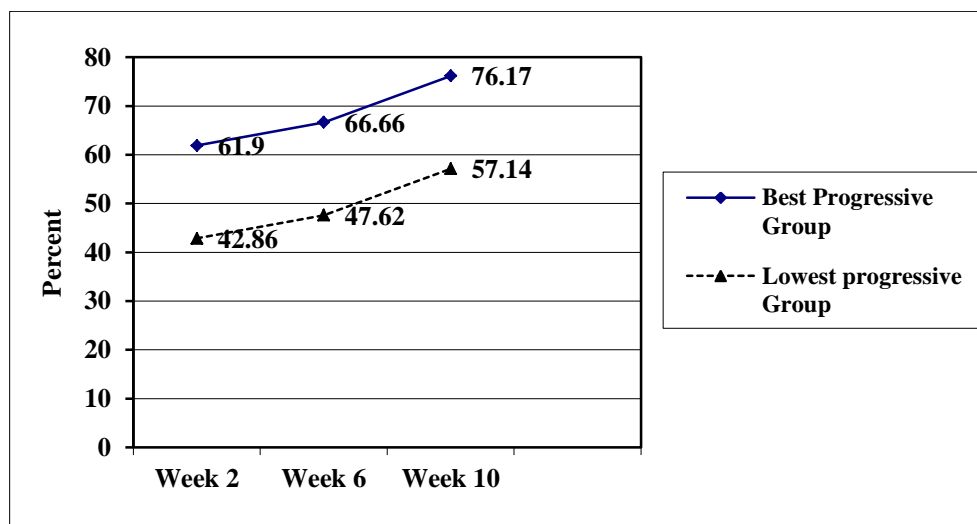
Figure 4.3: Self-Evaluating Phase in Bookworm's Diary

According to classroom observations, the students made self-evaluation after finishing their reading task and summarized it. They were also willing to share their story with their classmate when requested by the teacher. The observation also revealed that students revised their plan after they finished reading. In group discussion, students shared their experiences and discussed how they coped with problems they had encountered during reading. They were asked to rate their own performance and compared it with their own progress, not with their classmates' progress. Then, they revised and changed their reading plan for the following week by taking into account their peers' comments. Additionally, they also exchanged their stories and suggested books for other classmates.

According to the data from Learner Autonomy Training Interview, both groups used the 'summarization' strategy for reading comprehension reassessment:

"After I finish reading, I also asked myself whether how much I understand a whole story. If I didn't understand some parts, I would go back and reread it. I also summarized the story in Bookworm's Diary. I think it was a good way for me to recheck my reading comprehension and practice summarizing strategy at the same time." (Students # BP 5 and LP 2)

"In group discussion, I retold the story to the group and if I found that book was interesting I suggested it to my friends. But, some of my friends said they already knew the story from my telling," (Students # LP 1)

Students with the highest progressive rate said that additional strategies were also used for reading performance evaluation because those strategies helped them optimize reading outcome effectively:

"I did the exercise which was appeared in the last section of the book. I did it and rechecked the answer in the story." (Students # BP 2)

Apart from reading summary, some students stated that they did not use any extra self-evaluation strategy except a summary report since it was a course requirement:

"I didn't do any self-evaluation, except a summary report in Bookworm's diary. It was a requirement. I only did it because I have to turn it in. Apart from that I didn't know how to do other self-evaluation." (Students # LP 4)

In brief, this strategy increased students' motivation to engage in self-development. They were willing to perform their self-evaluation and they felt motivated when comparing their achievement with their peers. Moreover, their reflection enabled them to make progress in their subsequent learning process.

To sum up, students used the metacognitive strategy at a high level after the intervention of ERLAT and the self-monitoring strategy was the most used strategy in this domain. Presumably, the students may be proactive and prospective to become autonomous learner as they could manage their own learning.

C) Attitudes

The last domain to be discussed is the promotion of students' attitudes toward learner autonomy in ERLAT. Students have positively changed their attitudes toward learner autonomy after the course implementation (Table 4.10). However, there was no statistically significant difference in their personal responsibility (Mean = 4.03, SD = 0.46, $t(36) = 1.46$, $p < 0.05$) toward their independent work between pre - and post-treatments except for personal capability (Mean = 3.45, SD = 0.47, $t(36) = 2.77$, $p < 0.05$) to learn independently. This indicated that their post-treatment responsibilities were more or less the same as before the treatment, except students' perception gain that they viewed themselves as autonomous learners and that they had more capability to control over their language learning process.

Table 4.10: The Attitudes toward Learner Autonomy

Components	n	Pre- Mean	Pre- SD	Post- Mean	Post- SD	df	t	P	Meaning
1.3 Attitudes	**37**	**3.24**	**0.45**	**3.61**	**0.48**	**36**	**3.87**	**0.00***	**High**
1.3.1 Personal Responsibility	37	3.90	0.42	4.03	0.46	36	1.46	0.15	High
1. 3.2 Personal	37	3.23	0.42	3.45	0.47	36	2.77	0.01*	Moderate

Capability

*p < 0.05 (1.00-1.05 = very low; 1.51-2.50 = low; 2.51-3.50 = moderate; 3.51- 4.50 = high; 4.51-5.00 = very high)

The details of each component in this section were explored and discussed based on the quantitative data gained from Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire (Part 2; Items 26-35), and qualitative data from the Learner Autonomy Training Interview (Items 3-4), and Teacher Observation Checklist. The data exhibited the students' attitudes toward learner autonomy in pre- and post- exposure to ERLAT.

Personal Responsibility

As illustrated in Table 4.11, the students in ERLAT were highly responsible for their own learning (Mean = 4.03, SD = 0.46). After the ten-week intervention, students practiced setting goals/objectives for their reading. By the end of the course, students reported that they were able to follow their reading schedule that they had set beforehand (Item 29; Mean = 3.41, SD = 0.80, $t(36) = 3.15$, p < 0.05). Additionally, they viewed that they had to take charge of their own learning and be responsible for any assigned tasks in order to enhance their language acquisition. Above all, students thought that the learning process was a cooperation between students and the teacher, not the teacher's burden alone. By the same token, success or failure in language learning depended upon students' efforts to take charge of and be attentive to their own learning.

Table 4.11: Comparison of Personal Responsibility between the Pre- and Post- Questionnaires of ERLAT Students

Attitudes Components	n	Pre-		Post-		df	t	P	Meaning
		Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*P*	
1.3 Personal Responsibility	**37**	**3.90**	**0.42**	**4.03**	**0.46**	**36**	**1.46**	**0.15**	**High**
26. I think improving my reading ability by reading extensive is my own responsibility.	37	4.03	0.93	4.22	0.79	36	1.10	0.28	High
27. I am pleased to take responsibility of my own learning	37	4.16	0.65	4.11	0.52	36	-0.44	0.66	High
28. I think students should be responsible for learning not teacher alone	37	4.54	0.51	4.38	0.68	36	-1.23	0.23	High
29. I am able to follow the reading schedule that I have set beforehand.	37	2.86	0.67	3.41	0.80	36	3.15	0.00*	Moderate
30. I am able to complete the reading tasks by myself.	37	3.90	0.84	4.03	0.64	36	1.00	0.32	High

*p < 0.05 (1.00-1.05 = very low; 1.51-2.50 = low; 2.51-3.50 = moderate; 3.51- 4.50 = high; 4.51-5.00 = very high)

The Teacher's Observation Checklist showed clear evidence of students' responsibility for their own learning. Most students could finish their reading on time. Although they took a passive role most of the time, they willingly and enthusiastically participated in classroom activities with close attention. These data were supported by the findings from Learner Autonomy Training Interviews when all students said that

they were able to be responsible for their reading tasks and continued to read extensively without teacher's supervision after the end of course:

> *"I think that I can handle it, I mean I can read by myself. I can apply the reading strategies that I have learned in the class to make useful with other English texts."(Student # BP5)*

> *"Certainly, yes, this course had taught me how to do self-reported like Bookworm's Dairy, which trained me to have more responsible. It's become my habit to read extensively. I also get used to with English book, it was not too difficult than I thought. I might find other books to read on my own." (Students BP 2 and LP2)*

However, only one student with the highest progressive rate said that she could not be responsible for her own learning without the teacher's stimulation or assignment scores.

> *"I don't think I can read on my own if there wasn't a mark for reading. The level of the difficulty of the book I chose may drop down." (Student # BP 4)*

To conclude, students regarded the contribution to language classes as the key to success. They reported that they had self-discipline and were able to take responsibility of their own learning without the teacher's command. Such interpersonal behavior may lead them to become autonomous learners.

Personal Capability

Personal capability significantly increased after the intervention. Students exhibited moderate personal capability in general in this component. As demonstrated

in Table 4.12, they reported that they knew their strengths and weaknesses in English learning (Item 31; Mean 4.11, SD = 0.81). However, they could not remember what they had learned from class (Item 33; Mean 2.61, SD = 0.87). After the ten-week treatment, students gained more confidence in solving the problems that occurred while reading (Item 34; Mean = 3.57, SD = 0.65, $t(36)$ = 4.36, p < 0.05). They also believed that they could take a role of autonomous readers, who can effectively manage their own reading both inside and outside classes (Item 35; Mean = 3.30, SD = 0.70, $t(36)$ = 3.40, p < 0.05).

Table 4.12: A Comparison of Personal Capability between the Pre- and Post- Questionnaires of ERLAT Students

Attitude Components	n	Pre-		Post-		df	t	P	Meaning
		Mean	SD	*Mean*	SD	df	t	P	
1. 3.2 Personal Capability	**37**	**3.23**	**0.42**	**3.45**	**0.47**	**36**	**2.77**	**0.01***	**Moderate**
31. I know the reason why I am or am not good at reading.	37	4.19	0.74	4.11	0.81	36	-0.50	0.62	High
32. I know my learning style and I can find appropriate learning methods and techniques for myself.	37	3.24	0.76	3.51	0.73	36	1.96	0.06	High
33. I cannot tell about what I have learned.	37	2.67	0.89	2.61	0.87	36	-0.36	0.72	Moderate
34. When encountering reading problems, I am able to overcome the difficulty quite well.	37	3.14	0.63	3.57	0.65	36	4.36	0.00*	High
35. I can take a role of the effective independent readers of	37	2.89	0.66	3.30	0.70	36	3.40	0.00*	Moderate

both in and out of class

*p < 0.05 (1.00-1.05 = very low; 1.51-2.50 = low; 2.51-3.50 = moderate; 3.51- 4.50 = high; 4.51-5.00 = very high)

With respect to the Teacher Observation Checklist, there was evidence that students were able to do reading assignments independently to a certain degree; they sometimes asked and discussed with their peers about the reading stories and problems and solutions that arose while they read. In the last session, students felt more confident that they could read on their own and most of them determined to continue reading, though the class had ended. These data were supported by the findings from Learner Autonomy Training Interviews when all students felt that they were confident to regulate their own learning without the teacher's intervention. They said that:

"Sure, I think I can read it on my own because I always buy and read English novels by myself. English is very important nowadays and everyone needs improvement." *(Students # BP 2)*

After I finished this course, I felt that English reading is fun and it's not too difficult. So I think I will continue to read extensive reading on my own." *(Student # BP 3 and LP 3)*

"Yes, certainly, I can follow my reading plan that I have set, and I love English. So, I think I have no problem with it." (Student # LP 5)

On the other hand, the results from the interview indicated that some students from both groups were uncertain about their capability to learn English independently:

"I'm not really sure, but I think I can learn independently if that new knowledge is interesting. At least, I will eager to learn it." (Student # BP 4)

"No, I don't think I can learn English independently because I'm not sure that I do understand clearly about what I have read. Plus, I have low reading skills when comparing with a different kind of reading texts. It's too complicate to understand them." (Students # LP 4)

In conclusion, even though the students recognized the responsibility and capability to manage their own learning, they were able to handle it with moderate confidence and found that the promotion of ERLAT enhanced their positive perception toward reading in such a way that helped them overcome the discouragement.

According to the responses to Research Question two, the data from Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire, Learner Autonomy Training Interview, Bookworm's Diary, and Teacher's Observation Checklist revealed that students progressively used learner autonomy training strategies for independent learning at a high level. For the cognitive domain, 'imagine', 'using resource', and 'making inference/guessing' strategies were often used by them. On the other hand, in the metacognitive domain, students had high progress toward learner autonomy, especially when they performed well with the self-monitoring strategy. Lastly, students' attitudes positively increased after ERLAT implementation. They also viewed themselves as capable and responsible learners who could learn on their own. In other words, they had potentials to be autonomous learners.

4.3 Results of Research Question 3

Research Question 3: *What are the levels of learner autonomy of Thai university students in the ERLAT course?*

Hypothesis 2: *The levels of learner autonomy of the students increased at .05 level.*

In response to this research question, the data from the questionnaire (Part 2; Items 36-59) and interview (Items 5-8) were analyzed in order to uncover Thai university students' readiness and perspectives toward learner autonomy before and after exposure to ERLAT. First, the results of every component in this domain were summarized in Table 4.13. Then, the details of each component were discussed in the next section.

In Table 4.13, there was a statistically significant difference in the increase the students' learner autonomy level (Mean = 2.99, SD = 0.21, $t(36) = 2.27$, p < 0.05) after 10-week treatment. As a significant difference between the scores from the pre- and post-questionnaire was found, this research hypothesis was accepted.

Table 4.13: Results of Learner Autonomy Level in ERLAT

| Domain | n | Pre- | | Post- | | df | t | P | Meaning |
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD				
2. Learner Autonomy Level	37	2.89	0.24	2.99	0.21	36	2.27	0.03*	Moderate
2.1 General readiness for learner autonomy	37	3.22	0.45	3.46	0.09	36	2.50	0.02*	Moderate
2.2 Independent work in language learning	37	2.76	0.72	3.01	0.40	36	0.70	0.49	Moderate

Table 4.13: Results of Learner Autonomy Level in ERLAT (Continued)

| Domain | n | Pre- | | Post- | | df | t | P | Meaning |
		Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*				
2.3 Students' attitudes toward teacher's roles	37	2.53	0.37	2.52	0.41	36	-0.14	0.90	Moderate
2.4 Students' attitudes toward self-evaluation and external assessment	37	3.00	0.34	3.02	0.40	36	0.30	0.70	Moderate

*p < 0.05 (1.00-1.05 = very low; 1.51-2.50 = low; 2.51-3.50 = moderate; 3.51- 4.50 = high; 4.51-5.00 = very high)

Based on the above data, there was only statistically significant difference in terms of general readiness for learner autonomy (Mean = 3.46, SD = 0.09, $t(36) = 2.50$, p < 0.05) in this domain. Thus, students acknowledged their own potential to become autonomous learners, but they had no clear understanding how to achieve that goal.

In addition, it was worthwhile to examine particular statements of each component to reflect the interesting findings. Therefore, major findings of each item in the questionnaire were comparatively and contrastively analyzed based on the data from the interviews.

a) General Readiness for Learner Autonomy

According to Table 4.14, students highly agreed that they preferred classes in which they could decide what and how to learn (Item 40; Mean 3.84, SD = 0.83). After the course had ended, students moderately agreed that they felt confident to learn on

their own with certain level of teacher's support (Item 37; Mean = 2.57, SD = 0.96, $t(36) = 3.50$, p < 0.05).

Table 4.14: General Readiness for Learner Autonomy

| Domain | n | Pre- | | Post- | | df | t | P | Meaning |
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD				
2.1 General readiness for learner autonomy	37	3.22	0.45	3.46	0.09	36	2.50	0.02*	Moderate
36. I have a good effort to seek for knowledge I want to know.	37	3.46	0.73	3.62	0.68	36	1.14	0.26	Moderate
#37. I like teacher to be my supporter all the time so that I can be confident in my learning.	37	1.92	0.93	2.57	0.96	36	3.05	0.00*	Moderate
38. I am confident that I can well manage the time for learning.	37	3.16	0.60	3.30	0.70	36	1.00	0.32	Moderate
39. I learn a lot working on myself.	37	3.46	1.58	3.60	1.44	36	0.39	0.70	High
40. I prefer classes where I can decide what will be learned, and how to learn.	37	3.62	0.72	3.84	0.83	36	1.39	0.17	High
41. I know what I want to learn in English class.	37	3.65	0.75	3.81	0.88	36	1.03	0.31	High

#Reversed question, *p < 0.05 (1.00-1.05 = very low; 1.51-2.50 = low; 2.51-3.50 = moderate; 3.51- 4.50 = high; 4.51-5.00 = very high)

Conversely, the findings from Learner Autonomy Training Interview were somewhat contradictory. Most students reported in Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire that they had moderate confidence to learn independently without teacher intervention. However, the findings from the interview showed that the majority of them in both groups preferred the teacher's support in their learning process because they were uncertain about their English competency to learn on their own and they still needed external motivation from their teacher. They mentioned that:

"I'm not ready to learn independently because the reading is complicated. I can't comprehend it by myself, I need teacher to explain and clarify what I don't know." (Students # BP 4, and LP 1)

"No, I need a motivation to learn, I need the teacher to be my supporter and also give me a motivation all the time. Otherwise, I'm not enthusiastic."
(Student # LP 3)

Some students expressed their intention to take responsibility of their own learning. They assured that they could seek the new knowledge and skills to enhance their performance to improve their language proficiency and manage their learning to certain degree. For example, they could choose reading materials themselves and make the suitable learning plans based on their Bookworm's Diary experiences. They also reported that they would read more because they have already recognized the importance of reading activities in improving their language and proficiency.

"I think I'm ready to learn independently, I can prepare for my classes by finding books to read by myself." (Student # BP 1)

"I'm ready to learn autonomously. I never stop learning. I know my weakness in English learning, especially grammar. Well, I do my best to practice grammar by reading more books." (Student # BP 2)

"I can control my own way of learning to certain degree. I apply what I have learned in the class with other subjects such as I know how to making plan, doing self-evaluation. It just like I did in Bookworm's Diary." (Student # LP 5)

b) Independent Work in Language Learning

Students' perceptions toward their effort to perform independent work in language learning in order to improve their English were shown in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15: Independent Work in Language Learning

Domain	n	Pre-		Post-		df	t	P	Meaning
		Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*P*	
2.2 Independent Work in Language Learning	37	2.76	0.72	3.01	0.40	36	0.70	0.49	Moderate
42. I know that English learning involves lot of self-study	37	4.32	0.53	4.24	0.72	36	-0.62	0.54	High
43. If language class is not useful, I can learn on my own.	37	3.08	0.80	3.19	0.88	36	0.68	0.50	Moderate
#44. I do not like to seek additional knowledge outside class if the teacher	37	3.05	0.85	3.00	0.85	36	-0.28	0.78	Moderate

does not tell me to do so.									
45. I preview before the class.	37	2.70	1.24	2.68	0.75	36	-0.12	0.91	Moderate

Table 4.15: Independent Work in Language Learning (Continued)

		Pre-		Post-		Test Value = 3.50			
Domain	***n***	***Mean***	***SD***	***Mean***	***SD***	***df***	***t***	***P***	**Meaning**
46. I keep a record of my study, such as keeping a diary, writing a review, etc.	37	2.84	0.83	2.86	0.75	36	0.18	0.86	Moderate
47. I make good use of my free time in English study such as attending a self-access center, English lab, etc.	37	2.08	0.64	2.49	0.77	36	2.58	0.01*	Low

Reversed question, *p < 0.05 (1.00-1.05 = very low; 1.51-2.50 = low; 2.51-3.50 = moderate; 3.51- 4.50 = high; 4.51-5.00 = very high)

It was found that students exercised independent study in language learning at a moderate level. Remarkably, students knew that English learning required personal effort and self-study (Item 42; Mean = 4.24, SD = 0.72), but they spent their free time in English learning (such as visiting the self-access center or reading extensively) at a low level. However, they engaged more in self-study after the ten-week implementation of ERLAT (Item 47; Mean = 2.49, SD = 0.77, $t(36)$ = 2.58, p < 0.05). It might be because they got familiar with spending their free time on reading extensively, which have changed their attitudes toward English learning and the use of their spare time in a way that benefit their English learning development.

Regarding Learner Autonomy Training Interview, all students reported that they spent their free time in a meaningful way to reinforce their English. For example:

"I listen to English songs, watch soundtrack movies, reading English novels or chat with foreigner friends in Facebook." (Students # BP 2)

"I review vocabulary, practice English grammar, and sometime, I learn new words from newspaper or magazine." (Students # BP 4 and LP 1)

c) Students' attitudes toward the teacher's roles

Based on Table 4.16, the most striking findings were found in Item 50: students viewed the teacher as a counselor who advised students and provided necessary supports instead of being a traditional teacher who controlled over the learning (Mean = 3.73, SD = 0.77). Also, students reported that they did not rely on the teacher explanation (Item 51; Mean = 1.92, SD = 0.80).

Table 4.16: Students' Attitudes toward Teacher's Roles

Domain	*n*	Pre-		Post-		*df*	*t*	*P*	Meaning
		Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*				
2.3 Students' attitudes toward teacher's roles	**37**	**2.53**	**0.37**	**2.52**	**0.41**	**36**	**-0.14**	**0.90**	**Moderate**
48. I think a lot of language learning can be done without a teacher.	37	2.68	0.85	2.76	0.72	36	0.57	0.57	Moderate
#49. I want teacher to explain grammar and vocabulary in detail	37	1.84	0.90	2.22	1.06	36	1.77	0.09	Low
50. I think teacher should be a counselor instead of controller who takes overall responsibility for	37	3.86	0.75	3.73	0.77	36	-0.96	0.34	High

students' learning									
#51. I think the best way to learn a language is by the teacher's explanations.	37	1.92	0.98	1.92	0.80	36	0.00	1.00	Low

Table 4.16: Students' Attitudes toward Teacher's Roles (Continued)

Domain	n	Pre-		Post-		df	t	P	Meaning
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD				
#52. I think teacher should decide on course content for language classes	37	2.46	0.51	2.30	0.66	36	-1.14	0.26	Low
#53. I think teacher should choose materials for language classes	37	2.40	0.64	2.19	0.78	36	-1.16	0.12	Low

Reversed question, *p < 0.05 (1.00-1.05 = very low; 1.51-2.50 = low; 2.51-3.50 = moderate; 3.51- 4.50 = high; 4.51-5.00 = very high)

Students from both groups reported at the end of the course that they still needed the teacher's supports and guidelines to a certain degree. Their point of views toward the teacher's roles in language learning was shown below:

"*Teachers still have crucial role in language learning. Sometimes I don't understand some subjects, I try to search internet but it's still not clear. So, it's better to ask the teacher.*" (Student # BP 1).

"*I preferred to have a teacher who takes a role as an instructor and counselor. And I like a classroom that allows students to take part of their own learning.*" (Student # BP 4).

"I can learn by myself, but I feel more certain if there is a support from teacher because I sometimes find the wrong information." (Student # LP 4)

d) Students' attitudes toward self-evaluation and external assessment

In this part, students' perceptions toward self-evaluation and external assessment were discussed. According to Table 4.17, students realized the important of self-evaluation at a moderate level. There was a statistically significant difference in Item 56 -- students did homework and exercises only if they had to hand them in to the teacher (Mean = 2.65, SD = 0.86, $t(36)$ = 2.37, p < 0.05).

Table 4.17: Students' Attitudes toward Self-Evaluation and External Assessment

Components	n	Pre-		Post-		df	t	P	Meaning
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD				
2.4 Students' attitudes toward self-evaluation	**37**	**3.00**	**0.34**	**3.02**	**0.40**	**36**	**0.30**	**0.70**	**Moderate**
#54. I feel uncertain if I asked to assess my language work.	37	2.65	0.82	2.65	0.89	36	0.00	1.00	Moderate
55. I make self-exam with the exam papers chosen by myself.	37	2.86	0.92	2.95	0.91	36	0.49	0.63	Moderate
#56. I only work on an exercise if I have to hand it in.	37	2.24	0.80	2.65	0.86	36	2.37	0.02*	Moderate
57. I feel that exams motivate me to work hard in language learning	37	3.78	0.85	3.70	0.81	36	-0.57	0.57	High
58. I think that self-evaluation can improve my language learning to certain degree.	37	3.65	0.86	3.60	0.80	36	-0.35	0.73	High

# 59. I think that a language exercise is only worth doing if it marked.	37	2.78	0.85	2.57	0.87	36	-1.00	0.32	Moderate

Reversed question, *p < 0.05 (1.00-1.05 = very low; 1.51-2.50 = low; 2.51-3.50 = moderate; 3.51- 4.50 = high; 4.51-5.00 = very high)

In relation to results from the questionnaire, most students with the highest and lowest progressive rates stated that they were able to do self-assessment and had positive views toward it. They said:

"I think self-practice and self-evaluation help me improve my English. It tells me my weakness, and I focus more on that particular area. I usually do the English exercise on the available resources such as the library. It's free and there are lots of books to select from." (Student # BP 2)

"I think I can evaluate myself, for example, I did English tests outside the class and I check the results from the answered key. So, in this way, I know that how good or bad I am in that area. I also check my understanding each time I finish reading a new book." (Students # BP 5 and LP 4)

Some students accepted that they did only the assigned tasks and ignored self-evaluation. Sometimes they could not complete those tasks because of their busy study schedule and the difficulty of the tasks.

"I didn't do any exercise more than the teacher had assigned. I'm quite busy with all my homework and quizzes from my major subjects." (Student # BP 1)

"Sometimes, I couldn't finish the assignment from the previous class, it was difficult and I had to ask my friend to help me out." (Students # LP 3)

In conclusion, the data from Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire and Learner Autonomy Training Interview showed that there was a statistically significant difference in terms of learner autonomy levels between pre- and post-treatments after the ten-week intervention. It could be said that the overall level of students' learner autonomy increased. Moreover, the findings based on each component of students' learner autonomy levels indicated the students' readiness to learn on their own were at moderate level. They also realized that, to be successful in language learning, they needed to put greater effort and engagement more in self-study but they were reluctant to do so outside classroom because of their study loaded. They also reported that they still needed teacher's support from time to time. Also, they became conscious that self-evaluation and external assessment were enhancing their language learning progress but they did not make any effort to do so as teacher's expected.

4.4 Results of Research Question 4

Research Question 4: *What are the opinions of the students toward ERLAT course?*

Mean scores of Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire (Part 3; Items 60-69) and Learner Autonomy Training Interview (Item 9) were examined for ERLAT success and failure evaluation.

As illustrated in Table 4.18, students had highly positive attitudes toward ERLAT. They viewed that the course enhanced their reading skills (Item 60; Mean = 4.14, SD = 0.76), encouraged them to read more (Item 65; Mean = 4.25, SD = 0.65),

and enabled them to use the strategies they had learned to cope with reading problems

(Item 67; Mean = 4.05, SD = 0.66).

Table 4.18: Students' Attitudes toward ERLAT Course

Domain	*n*	*Mean*	*SD*	Meaning
3. Students' attitudes toward ERAT course	**37**	**3.92**	**0.45**	**High**
60. I think ERLAT course improves my reading skills	36	4.14	0.76	High
61. I think ERLAT course has increased my confidence to read.	37	3.84	0.69	High
62. The classroom atmosphere supports my effective reading.	37	3.68	0.67	High
63. The classroom activities support my effective reading.	37	3.70	0.78	High
64. I benefit from reading strategies I have learned from ERLAT course	37	3.92	0.72	High
65. ERLAT course encourage me to read more.	36	4.25	0.65	High
66. I benefit from guidelines that my teacher gives me during ERLAT course	37	3.95	0.62	High
67. I use reading strategies I have learned from ERLAT course to overcome difficulty that I find while reading.	37	4.05	0.66	High
68. After ERLAT course, I know how to manage my language learning	37	3.86	0.59	High
69. After ERLAT course, I think I become autonomous reader.	37	3.84	0.65	High

(1.00-1.05 = very low; 1.51-2.50 = low; 2.51-3.50 = moderate; 3.51- 4.50 = high;
4.51-5.00 = very high)

Students also gave comments about the experience participating in ERLAT, as they reflected in the interview session:

"This course taught me how to read systemically, how to set goals, and how to pursue my reading plan effectively. I learned a many useful reading strategies that I can apply in other subjects." (Student # BP 2)

"I think this course is useful because I was required to read first. Then, reading becomes my habit. Moreover, Bookworm's diary increase myself discipline." (Student # LP 3)

In brief, students were highly satisfied and had positive opinion toward ERLAT. They reported that they benefited most from reading strategies because they could apply them into their future use and they became avid readers to a certain degree.

4.5 Summary of the Results

4.5.1 English Reading Ability: Pre- and post-test scores of General Reading Ability indicated that ERLAT significantly improved the students' English reading skill. However, ERLAT did not lead to major differences in student' reading ability based on the means scores of General English Ability Test.

4.5.2 Learner Autonomy Training Strategies: According to Research Question two, students highly used the leaner autonomy training strategies in all three domains: cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, and attitudes. However, they reported that they often used metacognitive strategies to regulate their learning process.

4.5.3 Learner Autonomy Level: The findings indicated that there was significant increase of learner autonomy level in students after the ten-week implementation.

4.5.4 ERLAT Evaluation: Students' opinions towards ERLAT were highly positive since they said that they benefited from it, especially in light of improved reading skills and strategies. ERLAT also enhanced their reading habit and encouraged them to become avid readers.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This final chapter presents summary of research findings, discussion, conclusion, pedagogical implications, and recommendations for further studies drawn from the findings.

5.1 Summary of the study

This study aimed to investigate the effect of extensive reading instruction with the integration of learner autonomy learning training (ERLAT) on Thai university students' English reading ability and the use of learner autonomy learning strategies. The main focus of ERLAT is to develop students' reading skill through extensive reading, motivate them to read a large amount of texts, and establish their reading habit as avid readers. ERLAT also promotes learner autonomy and emphasizes the learner autonomy strategies and self-attribution so that students learn to regulate their own learning process and become more confident and independent in their reading and continue reading activities/habits.

The ten-week study was conducted at a public university in Thailand during the second semester of the academic year 2011. ERLAT was integrated in the Reading Academic English – the university' requisite course. Participants (n = 37) were second-year undergraduates from the Faculty of Allied Health Sciences. Since this research used a one group pretest-posttest design, all of the participants were assigned to participate in ERLAT. Six research instruments were employed: (1) the General English Reading Ability Test, (2) an ERLAT instructional manual, including a set of lesson plans, materials and learning tasks, and an assessment plan, (3) the Learner

Autonomy Training Questionnaire, (4) Bookworm's Diary (self-report), (5) the Teacher Observation Checklist, and (6) the Learner Autonomy Training Interview.

In order to explore the effects of ELAT on Thai university students, this study attempted to answer the following four research questions:

1. To what extent does ERLAT improve English reading ability of Thai university students?

2. What are learner autonomy training strategies used by Thai university students while participating in the ERLAT course?

3. What are the levels of learner autonomy of Thai university students in the ERLAT course?

4. What are the opinions of the students toward the ERLAT course?

The findings of the study can be summarized in accordance with the research questions: (1) the students scored significantly higher in their English reading ability after the ten-week ERLAT; (2) students highly used the leaner autonomy training strategies in all three domains: cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, and attitudes; (3)there was a significant increase in learner autonomy levels in students after ten weeks, particularly in the general readiness category of leaner autonomy; and (4) the evaluation of ERLAT was effective in terms of improving students' reading skills and strategies, enhancing their reading habit, and encouraging them to become autonomous readers.

5.2 Discussion

The findings are discussed in four aspects: ERLAT and English reading comprehension, ERLAT and learner autonomy training strategies, learner autonomy level gains in ERLAT, and the effectiveness of ERLAT from students' perspectives.

5.2.1 ERLAT and English reading comprehension. With respect to Research Question 1, ERLAT significantly increased the students' reading comprehension. This finding is discussed in 2 parts: a) ERLAT and gains in reading comprehension, and b) levels of reading ability.

a) ERLAT and gains in reading comprehension

The improved students' English reading comprehension after ERLAT implementation can be explained as follows:

After 10-week implementation, the findings indicated that the overall English reading ability of students increased dramatically. This supported the idea that ER had a positive impact on ESL students' reading ability. Many studies also reported that reading comprehension was enhanced through the use of ER in ESL classrooms (DoHuy, Hull and Tepsuriwong, 2006, Kirin and Wasanasomsithi, 2010; Pratontep and Chinwonno, 2008; Tanaka and Stapleton, 2007; Yamashita, 2008). According to the input hypothesis (Krashen, 1982), ESL learners' reading comprehension improved once they were exposed to comprehensible input for a period of time. Anderson (1996) explained that the amount of book reading substantially correlated with reading comprehension improvement. In other words, the more students read, the more improvement they gain after time goes by.

ER is basically a meaning-focused rather than a form-focused process (Nation, 2005); therefore, students keep reading at their own pace without being worried about unknown and difficult words. When they read extensively in ER-based classrooms under a stress-free environment, they may gain more experiences and potentials in reading as well as broaden their vocabulary knowledge. ER provides a prospect to extend "the components upon which fluent second language reading depends: a large

sight vocabulary, a wide general vocabulary, and knowledge of the target language, the world and text types" (Day and Bamford, 1998: 16). For Thai tertiary students, they tended to have less exposure to English reading due to the lack of resources, inactive reading habit, and low language proficiency. All these factors may hinder their reading improvement. For this matter of fact, the innovation of ER instruction such as ERLAT can help students overcome these obstacles by providing them with a valuable chance to strengthen their reading ability. Students are allowed to make choices of their own reading materials so that they can follow their interests and they can choose the books that interest them based on their own proficiency level. They are motivated to manage their own reading time and take responsibility of their own reading outside the classrooms. They gradually become active readers who enjoyed reading extensively and they finally moved from a learning-to-read to a reading-to-learn emphasis. By reading their own selected books with enjoyable and flexibility based on their individual needs and interests, students eventually developed their reading skills and reading competency more rapidly.

It is noteworthy that most traditional English instructions focus on grammar. During such instructions, the students are taught to memorize grammatical rules, structures, and linguistic details (Shila and Trudell, 2010). Also, the academic textbooks are mainly designed for intensive reading courses; therefore, they may not suit students' preferences or interests. Most of them are short and authentic texts with certain exercises requiring the students to study vocabulary and grammar. The classroom is controlled by the teacher who explains the vocabulary, grammar and sentence formation so that the students are able to pass the exams. The reading activities become 'a process of detailed study, memorization, analysis and guessing' (Field, 2002:

78). Urquhart and Weir (1998: 200) explained this type of reading instruction as 'testing, but not teaching.' The reading instruction based on grammatical and vocabulary learning may create boredom resulting in the negative attitude toward reading and their ignorance to read eagerly. Finally, they miss opportunities to develop their English learning through reading. Students may end up in a 'vicious circle' in which they cannot develop good reading skills, especially slow readers who will not read much because of their poor understanding an inability to enjoy reading (Nuttal 1996: 127). Day and Bamford (1998 cited in Meng, 2009) believe that L2 readers can realize improvement of their reading skills only through the actual reading experience. In ERLAT, the students had freedom to choose their reading materials that interested them and to learn reading strategies in class while practicing them during their extensive reading sessions. They thus were exposed to many writing styles with certain levels of difficulty that challenged their reading skills. These crucial language components were automatically instilled within the readers' linguistics competences and their reading fluency progress over time. Krashen (1993) concludes that free voluntary reading or sustained independent reading can lead to the development of better reading comprehension.

b) Levels of reading abilities

The increase in the general English reading ability was evident as pre- and post-test mean scores were significantly improved. The reason why the students made significant improvement may be that they used various language learning strategies to optimize their learning (Griffith, 2008). Previous studies (Block, 1986; Hosenfeld, 1977; Grabe, 2009) have discovered that successful L2 readers as well as L1 readers employ a number of various reading strategies. Students have learned numerous

useful reading skills and strategies to help them improve their reading performances during ten weeks of the ERLAT program. They practiced those strategies in an intensive reading class and reiterated outside class as an extensive reading. According to Day and Bamford (1998), ER is a very enjoyable and motivating way for enhancing language input. Students could practice their reading strategies that they have learned under a tension-free environment and are motivated to read more. After a period of time, their English skills, in particular their reading skills are ladder up.

In addition, ERLAT provided suitable reading materials for students. Graded content readers of an array of topics and levels of difficulty were available for students to choose and read independently. The aim was to develop the habit of reading by gradually stepping the learner through difficulty levels by reading meaningful, enjoyable and engaging materials (Susser and Robb, 1990; Hill, 2001). This also conformed to Krashen's Input Hypothesis the learners' exposure to the large quantities of meaningful 'comprehension input' was greatly beneficial to their proficiency. In the same line, ERLAT aimed to 'flood' students with large quantities of L2 input in order to let students gain their reading ability naturally through their reading experiences. The results of this study were compatible with the study of Wan-a-rom (2012) which specifically investigated the role of ER on development of L2 proficiency. The study was conducted over a period of six-week extensive reading program using graded readers with 80 Thai high school students. The study results based on the observation, semi-structured interviews, book journals, and post-reading questionnaire indicated that ER with graded readers was beneficial to ESL learners, especially in light of reading speed and proficiency development. In ERLAT reading materials, a collection of non-fiction graded readers including the biographies, factual reports, and profiles

were provided for students to choose from (Hill and Thomas, 1988; Hill, 2001). The topics concerned the real world story such as famous places, well-know people, and different lifestyles of people around the world, etc. Therefore, students were able to relate their reading to the real phenomenon or situation. A recent study showed that non-fiction has some benefits on fostering better attitudes toward reading (Duke et al. 2003). After finishing reading, the students can also search through the library or online resources for a particular topic that interests them. This may expand their knowledge, fulfill their interests in one particular area, and lead them to read more. In the end, students' reading ability increases gradually when the time goes by.

5.2.2 ERLAT and learner autonomy training strategies With reference to Research Question 2, students highly employed learner autonomy training strategies in all domains: cognitive, metacognitive, and attitudes. The details are discussed as follows:

Cognitive Strategies

In the cognitive phase, the findings from the Learner Autonomy Training Strategies and the Learner Autonomy Training Interview yielded the consistent results indicating that the imagination, summarizing and using resource strategies were frequently used by the students while attending ERLAT. These strategies helped students to overcome reading difficulties when they encountered a problem and helped them read successfully.

Imagery Strategy

One of the students' frequently-used cognitive strategies was imagery strategy. A number of studies (Nell, 1988; Sadoski, 1983; Wingenbach, 1983) have mentioned the benefit of imagery strategy in increasing the reading comprehension and reading

pleasure among good and poor readers. In this study, imagery strategy was considered a key problem-solving strategy for students when they encountered complicated texts.

The finding from this study is also consistent with Waxman and Padron's (1987) research involving 82 Hispanic ESL students. The 14-item Likert-type Questionnaire on Reading Strategy was distributed to the subjects in order to investigate their use of reading strategy. The results indicated that the most cited strategies were mental imagery and looking up words in the dictionary. According to the comparison between the questionnaire-based and task-based results, the correlation between the students' strategy perceptions and their reading proficiency was found. In brief, low proficient students tended to use a few unsophisticated strategies when compared to more highly proficient counterparts.

In ERLAT, most students rarely read longer English texts before; therefore, it was the first time for most of them to read extensively. They might thus have felt that reading was difficult due to the lack of proper experience in English reading. When they were exposed to the massive amounts of different input with various complexity degrees, the easiest way to overcome the problems was to look at pictures, created mental images, and linked them to their prior knowledge so that they could predict and understand the story. It could be noted that the imagery strategy was useful for students with limited reading proficiency who began to read extensively.

Summarizing Strategy

Learner Autonomy Training Interview revealed that students applied the summarizing strategy for their better understanding of the text. Summarization is a method to create a summary by extracting the text meaning (Irwin and Doyle, 1992). Readers summarize and conceptualize the main points in their mind to facilitate their

memorization of what they have read before transferring it into their mother tongue (Keen and Zimmerman, 1997; Richardson and Morgan, 2000). The summary indirectly enables the students to review the key ideas from what they have read and it is an assessment tool for the teacher (Barfield, n.d.). In short, it was also found that ERLAT students used the summarizing strategy to review the information in silence or in writing and to recheck those unclear points in the passage for clarifying their understanding and assessment.

It should be noted that, while participating in ERLAT, students were required to do self-report in Bookworm's Diary including summarizing the texts. This could be one reason why the summarizing strategy was frequently used when compared to other strategies.

Using resource strategy

Using resource strategy in this study referred to the use of the dictionary and finding information from the available sources (e.g. the Internet). It was one of the most popular strategies among ERLAT students. The similar finding of students using dictionary as a medium tool to overcome their reading obstacle was also reported by Wimolkasem (2001) and Swatevacharkul (2006). Most students used this strategy because they found numerous unknown words which held back their comprehension while reading.

It was also found sometimes that the students who began to read extensively for the first time may not be familiar with the long texts with multiple levels of text comprehension. Their vocabulary knowledge may also be limited, so they could not fully understand the text meanings or purposes, resulting in their frustration and boredom to read. Using resource strategy allows students to solve this problem by consulting the dictionary or browsing the Internet.

However, Macaro (2005 cited in Swatevacharkul, 2006) cautions that the improvement of vocabulary acquisition through the use of dictionary may be realized given that the students had an ability to guess the contextual meanings and subsequently check the words in the dictionary. Use of the dictionary may be a good method for acquiring vocabulary and understanding the texts; however, it should be used along with the 'guessing meaning from context' strategy. Otherwise, it would delay the reading speed and disrupt the whole reading process.

Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies involved planning, monitoring, evaluation, and manipulation of cognitive processes. It referred to how learners manage those processes for achieving their desired learning objectives and optimal learning outcomes (Paris, 2002; Veeman et al., 2006). The finding from the questionnaire, interview, and Bookworm's diary showed that the students used the strategies to regulate metacognition at a high level. They usually employed self-monitoring strategies: the awareness of reading performance, recognition of strengths and weaknesses in learning process, identification of problems and solutions, and keeping track of learning outcomes. Schraw (1994: 105) noted that the students were less able to manage their learning and had worst performance given that they had poor monitoring skills.

The frequent use of metacognitive strategies among the students indicated that they may have some degree of active reader characteristics. They were aware of the metacognitive process and used a wide range of reading strategies while reading to achieve the understanding. These findings were consistent with previous studies (Hadwin et al., 2001; Sheorey and Mokhtari, 2001; Zhang et al., 2008) claiming that effective successful ESL readers were conscious of what reading strategies should be used.

Lian and Seepho (2012) provided a Metacognitive Strategy Training (MST) model for EFL learners in a Chinese context. It was found that MST effectively improved the students' use of metacognitive strategies and reading comprehension. This finding agreed with the findings of the present study that ERLAT enabled the students to use the metacognitive strategies, which eventually helped them to become autonomous learners. They were trained to regulate their own reading tasks such as formulating their reading plan, monitoring their reading performances, and evaluating their reading outcome. The repetition of such a learning circle over a period of time could increase the students' consciousness of metacognition, which is a key element of effective learners.

Attitudes

After the ten-week implementation, students had positive attitudes toward reading. ER is one of the effective methods to encourage students to read and change their reading attitudes. The positive effects of extensive reading on the development of learners' attitudes toward reading and increase of reading motivation were reported in many research studies (Mason and Krashen, 1997; Hayashi, 1999; Day and Bamford, 1998). In addition, a study by Takase (2007) has revealed that extensive reading increased the Japanese students' motivation to read English extensively with enthusiasm and this feeling sustained their reading in the L2 throughout the year.

Positive attitudes towards learner autonomy among ERLAT students were significantly increased, especially their greater responsibility for their own learning. Students reported that their reading ability improved after reading extensively and they were also pleased to take charge of their own learning. They were able to follow their reading plans that they had set beforehand and completed the reading tasks by themselves.

ERLAT allowed students to be exposed to a large amount of reading, to foster their reading enjoyment, and to promote reading autonomy. They were trained to take responsibility of their own reading by choosing the books they wanted to read, and reading outside the classroom in any time and place of their choices. They could stop reading if the book was not interesting or not what they had expected. They could opt for other interesting ones. In addition, the significant gain in students' English reading ability after they had been exposed to an array of reading texts and trained with autonomous learning strategies enabled them to gain more confidence in English learning over time. Students became more interested in foreign language texts and gain confidence as readers (Day and Bamford, 1998; Mason and Krashen, 1997). As a result, they perceived themselves as learners who had capabilities to learn and manage their own learning in the most effective way. They eventually gained confidence to learn actively and dedicatedly.

5.2.3 Learner autonomy level gains in ERLAT

With respect to Research Question 3, ERLAT significantly increased students' learner autonomy level. A possible explanation was that the nature of ER allowed them to read a large number of books and articles which they could enjoy in their own free time, at a place they liked and in the manner they preferred. The continual reading was expected to enhance the students' reading ability resulting in higher confidence in learning English. Eventually, the students perceived themselves as capable learners who could learn independently. Therefore, the core construct of this learning method was to teach reading strategies and to train the students to control over their learning process through the use of metacognitive strategies.

To measure students' learner autonomy levels, four components of learner autonomy were examined: (a) general readiness for learner autonomy, (b) independent work in language learning, (c) students' attitudes toward the teacher's role, and (d). students' attitudes toward self-evaluation and external assessment. The findings of each component of learner autonomy are discussed as follows:

a) General readiness for learner autonomy

In this study, the significant increase in the students' general readiness for learner autonomy was found after their exposure to the treatment. They preferred classes where they could make their own decision on what they would learn. This conformed to the findings of Curran (1976 cited in Cotterall, 1995: 200) and Little (1995). They argued that the students' active participation and full involvement in decisions about the class contents were crucial for the effectiveness of the learning process because higher motivation in learning and using the target language may then be translated into better academic performance and the improvement of their own strategy use for effective language instruction (Benson, 2001). In the ERLAT course, students were provided with numerous chances to learn actively. They were welcomed to their own reading materials that interested them and to have the discussions with their classmates in light of the topics they had read. Meanwhile, their teacher would be a reading model who advised, not 'dictated', them when they faced reading difficulties. This agreed with the claim of Broady and Kenning (1996 cited in Conttia, 2007: 9) that "learner autonomy cannot be taught in the traditional sense, but can only be promoted." Therefore, the students' active role in the classroom and their opportunity to choose their preferred learning materials to a certain degree were the key component of

the successful integration of learning autonomy into the traditional classroom (Day and Bamford, 1998: 27).

Students also reported that they recognized their own strength and weakness in learning English. According to Haughton and Dickinson (1988 cited in Cotterall, 1995: 199), the ability to make an evaluation of the learning effectiveness is crucial for language learners because it is necessary for the students to monitor their progress, understand how they can benefit from those skills they have learned and improve their weaknesses in order that they could learn efficiently (Blanche, 1988 cited in Cotterall, 1995: 199). However, the contradictory findings were also found in this study. The students reported that they were still unprepared to assume full self-responsibility of their own learning; therefore, they said that the teacher's support was still essential for them. Presumably, the students believed they could become a autonomous learners but they lacked the understanding of how to achieve that goal. Further, it may likely be difficult to change the students' attitudes toward the teacher supports because they may be familiar with traditional classrooms in which students played the passive role and followed the instruction of their teachers.

The above findings were consistent with the study of Üstünlüoglu (2009), Chan and Humphreys (2002), and Littlewood (2000) and who revealed that the students in Asia also desired to learn actively and independently in the same way to the European counterparts but, in their view, the teachers are still an 'authority figure' for them. The teachers tend to believe that the students are incapable of taking their own responsibility in the learning process although the students may have in fact the ability to do so (Üstünlüoglu, 2009). Hence, the ERLAT course could be an alternative to enhance the students' active learning behavior while reducing the teacher's roles.

b) Independent work in language learning

After the ten-week implementation of ERLAT, students recognized the important role of self-study in English instruction, so they had dedicated more free time to practicing English. Nonetheless, it can be said that, in most traditional classroom, the students tend to have less opportunity encouraging them to spend their free time meaningfully. Further, they rarely visit the self-access learning center or language laboratory or library because they may not recognize its significance to their English learning. In this regard, Palinscar and Brown (1985 cited in Sani et al., 2011: 34) argue that the lack of sufficient reading skill and of the interest among the students was one of the contributory factors to their unwillingness to read in their free time because, with such a poor reading skill, they may likely be afraid of reading failure and text complexity.

ERLAT was thus introduced in order to alleviate this problem through the promotion of leaner autonomy in order that students would be able to learn independently to a certain degree. Apart from the selection of reading materials according to their interest and preference, they were encouraged to read outside the classroom using the reading strategies based on their teacher's guidance. Likewise, they were also recommended to visit the self-access center (SAC) to read or browse the articles or texts that they were interested in because their involvement in the SAC would allow them to be more self-reliant and responsible for their learning and, importantly, enhance their positive attitude toward English learning (Aston 1993 cited in Yamaguchi, 2011: 269). Therefore, the enhancement of classroom autonomy will not only inspire the students to use a part of their free time to practice English but also promote their positive attitude toward English instruction resulting in better academic performance and achievement rate. This

notion is supportive of the claim of Crabbe (1993) who argues that a key to language learning success is to provide the students with in- and out-of-class learning opportunity on the condition that the students wisely employ those chances on their own.

c) Students' opinions toward the teacher's role

According to the questionnaires and interviews, the students needed their teachers' supports, but not all the time. Presumably, the students may feel that their English proficiency was not sufficient to take charge of all learning responsibilities. Some of them were used to playing the passive roles in the classroom, so they still expected their teacher's explanations when facing difficulties. In contrast, they preferred the teacher to be their 'counselor' advising them when needed rather than a 'controller' who completely controlled the entire classroom.

The unsuccessful change from teacher- to learner-controlled learning in the tertiary level was also reported in Stephenson (1981) who stated that the existed traditional teacher-controlled curriculum and didactic university classes hindered the change. Hence, one way to foster the students' learning responsibility may probably be 'learning contract.' According to Collins (1991), the learning contract allowed the individual students to set their learning goals, to plan the possible actions for goal achievement and to set certain criteria for self-evaluation. In particular, learning contract also aimed to enhance the students' motivation.

Therefore, the learning contract concept was also applied in ERLAT with the introduction of Bookworm's Diary which was distributed to all students at the beginning of the ERLAT class. In Bookworm's Diary, the students were welcomed to formulate their weekly reading targets such as the expected time to finish reading a text or an article they have chosen and the strategies to be used. Once their reading was complete, they

would write a short report in the Bookworm's Diary for example, whether they could finish reading with the said specified time, what difficulties they have faced while reading and the effectiveness of using the reading strategies.

In this regard, the application of the learning contract concept could be a way to reduce the in-class roles of the teacher while enhancing students' active learning behaviors. In this way, students can begin taking control of their own learning process and gradually change from passive- to active-learner behaviors. Eventually, it may be expected that the students would not only have more classroom contributions but also gain higher self-confidence to learn actively and autonomously without teacher support in the long term.

d) Students' attitudes toward self-evaluation and external assessment.

This research revealed the moderate level of post-experiment positive attitudes toward self-assessment. ERLAT positively influenced students' involvement in self-evaluation. Despite the fact that the students understand that self-evaluation and external assessment could enhance their language learning progress but less attention was paid to them. One possible explanation could likely be that the students may have full learning loads each day and the English language was not their major; therefore, their focus was put on their major courses in Public Health Science instead. Furthermore, their limited language proficiency may also be another reason behind their reluctance to do self-assessment. Thus, self-evaluation, including self-assessment schedules, learning contract, learning journals, cognitive maps and repertory grids should be promoted to enhance the autonomous learning an important factor for English proficiency improvement (Candy, 1991). Similarly, Boud (1992) also suggest the use of self-assessment schedules in which students detail their own learning goals and possible

plans to achieve them. Meanwhile, according to Garder (2000), the teacher should be a role model who facilitates self-assessment in three aspects, namely, to increase the awareness of self-assessment benefits, to advise and to provide necessary resources and materials as well as to enable the students to recognize the significance of the results.

The successful implementation of self-assessment was also reported by Bachman and Palmer (1989) and Blanche (1990). They found that the learners could reliably engage in self-assessment of their language skills. Also, Janssen-van Dieten (1989: 44 cited in Garder, 2005: 53) confirmed the self-assessment effectiveness by arguing that "the value of self-assessment is its positive influence on the learning process."

In particular, the Bookworm's Diary was a good example of self-assessment because students could do self-report on their weekly reading plans and progress, strategy use, as well as problems and solutions. Apart from monitoring their weekly learning progress for English proficiency improvement, Bookworm's Diary would be a chance for the students to practice self-evaluation and become more aware of its great benefits to their academic performance.

5.2.4 The effectiveness of ERLAT in the students' perspectives

According to the research findings, the students had positive opinions toward ERLAT. There were many successful aspects of ERLAT based on the questionnaire and interview: (1) to encourage students to read more; (2) to improve the reading skills; (3) to use the strategies to solve the problems while reading.

Reading motivation is crucial factor for the effective reader. ERLAT has successfully instilled good reading habits in students. One of the students had reflected during the interview session that reading had become her habit after her

exposure to ERLAT. Prior research (Takase, 2003; Mori, 2002; Nishino, 2007; Macalister, 2008) had confirmed the positive effect of ER on students' motivation to read. It can thus be said "the motivation…is associated with a dynamically changing and evolving mental process… and…the reading motivation might change as they continue reading extensively" (Dörnyei and Skehan, 2005: 240). It can then be presumed that if the students continue reading for a longer period or after the end of ERLAT program, their reading habit may emerge and they would likely eventually become avid readers.

It was also revealed that implementation of ERLAT resulted in their improved reading skills and that they were encouraged to read more as well as to apply different reading strategies in a wide range of reading exercises. Jolley (1985) claims that the reading instruction centering on skills/strategies training alone is not sufficient enough to enhance students' reading proficiency. The use of ERLAT also conforms to Charubusp's study (2010) which examined the effects of Academic Literacy based Intervention (ALI) on reading comprehension and engagement. It was a combination of multiple strategy instruction and self-efficacy enhancement and could increase reading skills and comprehension. Comparatively, ERLAT was a specially-designed program that moved away from the traditional reading class to an all-inclusive reading class in which intensive- and extensive reading instruction, and learner autonomy training strategies were integrated. Students were taught explicit reading strategies that were important for academic reading such as finding the main ideas, separating facts from opinions, drawing inferences and conclusion, skimming and scanning, activating the background knowledge, and summarizing. Then, they were allowed to practice those strategies

outside class while doing the extensive reading. These repetitious learning circles resulted in more reading fluency of students.

With this course, students were also trained the metacognitive strategy use in order to increase their metacognitive awareness which, according to Mokharti & Reichard, 2002, has been defined as the perceived use of reading strategies while reading. The students' abilities to monitor their own learning were a crucial factor leading to successful readers who could understand how to use the strategies successfully (Anderson, 1991: 19).

ERLAT has encouraged students to use metacognitive strategies to facilitate their own reading process. Students would understand their individual reading strengths and weaknesses and use proper reading skills and strategies to overcome the reading problems. They have reflected in Bookworm's dairy, their problems and strategies, observed their successful and failure, discussed with their teachers and peers, and re-planned their reading strategies for better outcome. It can be concluded that ERLAT had successfully increased students' metacognition and problem-solving abilities which may benefit their learning process as a whole.

5.3 Implications

According to the study results, three pedagogical notions in Thai classroom contexts are found.

First, ER has a positive relation with the reading ability gained. Therefore, ER should be integrated in the Thai classroom context whether as a stand-alone activities or in-class reading activities. Reading educators should, for example, formulate a curriculum to promote reading skill among younger students to instill good reading habit from the beginning. Moreover, to provide the students with more reading choices, more graded readers should be available in the libraries. Learner autonomy

strategies should be promoted together with ER to optimize students' learning process. This is to enable the students to set a goal and draft a plan to reach that goal before reading as well as to monitor their comprehension through the use of different strategies. They may also be able to evaluate their performance after reading and to identify the strategies that contributed to their success or failure.

Second, according to one finding of this study, the success of ER depends first and foremost on the teachers' guidance. The teacher should guide students throughout the extensive reading experience. They, for instance, keep record of the students' reading progress and their reactions to what they read. The teacher should also encourage them to read extensively, as much as they can, and tailor the extensive reading activity according to the students' level of proficiency for maximum benefits. For example, the teacher should challenge the ability of the high-proficiency students by encouraging them to choose and read the articles beyond their actual level of English proficiency. Moreover, the teacher should create an active learning environment to motivate them to read more, such as the group discussion where the students can share their reading experiences with their peers. Meanwhile, the low-proficiency students need more supports from their teacher in terms of the reading strategies and motivation. They may begin reading uncomplicated books that suit their proficiency, while the difficulty level increases over time according to the progress of their language competency throughout the semester. By doing so, the students do not feel that reading is an enjoyable activity not a burden. Leung (2002) suggests that learners' motivation to read in L2 can be enhanced if they are provided with the interesting materials at a suitable difficulty level.

Finally, this study showed that students perceived themselves as autonomous learners and they were willing to take responsibility of their own learning. However,

the students may not truly know how to become autonomous learners because they still need teacher supports or they are still used to being under the teacher's dominance. To become independent learners, students should not be allowed to read on their own at the beginning because of their limited experience of autonomy. Therefore, the teacher is a key to the success or failure of the students' learning process. The students may be provided with a training session (e.g. reading methodology, extensive reading activities, and learner autonomy strategies) with proper assistance as necessary before ER implementation in order to encourage them to gradually begin taking control of their own learning process (Benson, 2001). Thus, ERLAT in this particular research is an alternative for the teacher to apply for the benefit of Thai tertiary students and, importantly, for their improved English proficiency in the long run.

5.4 Conclusion

This study investigated students' learner autonomy learning strategies and English reading ability in ER. The findings support the ideas that ER has positive effects on students' reading ability. ER should be promoted in ESL classroom contexts so that students become more motivated to read. Meanwhile, students should be familiar with the process of learner autonomy learning so they can read with a concrete goal, become aware of their successful and failure, evaluate their learning performance. Once students are able to take control over their own learning process, they are ready to become autonomous learners sooner or later.

5.5 Recommendations for Further Research

This study was subject to some limitations; therefore, the recommendations in such regard are made as follows:

First, this study was a one-group experiment and the participants were from a homogeneous group in which they shared similar educational background, age, academic language exposure, and level of language proficiency. Moreover, the sample size of the participants was small. Thus, the generalizability is thus limited. Further research may involve different groups or a larger scale of students so that the results could be more valid and generalizable.

Second, due to the different learner autonomy levels among the students according to their individual motivation and behavior, it may not possible for this research to assess all aspects of students' learner autonomy. As a result, it is suggested that different assessment tools or methods should be employed to examine the changes in students' performance in greater extent as possible.

Third, the current study took place in the university setting for one semester. Since the treatment would not be extended for a longer period of time, students' improved reading abilities and learning performances may not obviously be revealed. Therefore, further research should promote ER instruction in different reading classes with students from other majors for a longer continual duration such as one academic year or so, which may contribute to the substantial learning outcomes.

Finally, there are few studies about learner autonomy in English language learning in the Thai classroom context and this study only pays attention to the promotion of learner autonomy in English language reading. It is recommended that further study should, for example, investigate on learner autonomy in other English skills such as the promotion of fluency in conversation through the extensive reading program.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Instructional Materials

Unit 1
Disaster

Connecting to the topic

Discuss these questions with a partner.

1. Have you ever experienced a disaster?

2. What kind of damage can disaster cause?

3. How do you prepare yourself in case of the disaster strikes?

Part 1: Reading Skills and Strategies

When Disaster Strikes

▣ Before You Read

1. Discussion. Discuss these questions in small groups.

    1. Describe the place and types of disaster you have known. What are the causes of these disasters (Natural/ Man made)? How were people affected by these disasters?

    2. What types of disaster frequently occur in your country? How do you prepare prepare yourself for it? How can it be prevented?

2. Matching. Look at the picture and match the types of disaster using the given words.

Terrorist attacks	Volcanos	Chemical leaks	Floods
Structural collapse	Hurricane	Nuclear leaks	Earthquakes

_____

_____

_____

_____
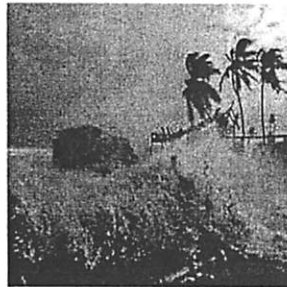
Strategy

Using Background Knowledge/Predicting

Before you read, it's helpful to review what you already know about the topic or recall their background knowledge. This will help you to predict the things you will read about, and will increase your understanding of the reading.

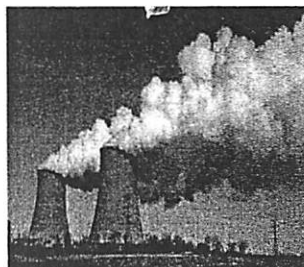| Mexico 1995 11m 1 killed | Nicaragua 1992 10m 170 killed | India Ocean 2004 10m+ 280,000 killed | Indonesia 1996 3.4m 9 killed | Mindoro 1994 7m 49 killed | Japan 1993 31m 239 killed |

Irian Jaya 1996 8m 161 killed

Solomon Is 2007 10m >50 killed

Samoa 2009 10m >100 killed

New Guinea 1998 15m 2200 killed

Based on Bryant 2001 & Gonzalez 1999

Major Tsunami since 1990

| Peru 1996 5m 12 killed | Chile 2010 6m+ >50 killed | Indonesia 2006 2m+ 650 killed | Indonesia 1994 14m 238 killed | Indonesia 1992 26m 1000 killed |

M Paire 2010

3. Using Background Knowledge/Predicting. Work in groups. Think about and discuss possible answers to these questions. Write down your answers. If you don't know the answers, you can guess. Then you can look for the answer when you read "*Tsunami Disaster*."

1. What do you think caused Tsunami?

2. What are the impacts of Tsunami?

▣ Read

4. Reading an article. Read the following article. Then do the activities that follow.


A **Understanding Tsunami**

A tsunami is a huge ocean wave that can travel at speeds up to 600 mi/hr (965 km/hr), hundreds of miles over open sea before it hits land. Sometimes incorrectly called a *tidal* wave, a tsunami is usually caused by an earthquake, volcanic eruption or coastal *landslide*. Tsunami is Japanese for "*harbor* wave".

It is, in fact, a series of waves which travel outward on the ocean surface in all directions in a kind of ripple effect. Since the waves can start out hundreds of miles long and only a few feet high, they would not necessarily be noticeable to passing ship or a plane flying overhead.
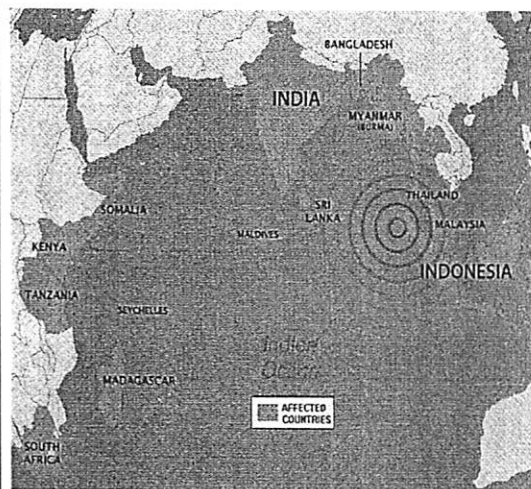
⇐ On December 26, 2004, one of the largest earthquakes in recorded history struck just off Sumatra, Indonesia, in a fault line running under the sea. The rupture caused massive waves, or tsunamis, that hurtled away from the epicenter, reaching shores as far away as Africa. Some 230,000 people were killed and the livelihoods of millions were destroyed in over 10 countries.

B   Tsunami's Wave Arrives

As the waves get closer to shore, they decrease in speed and increase in height. They approach the coastline as a series of high and low water levels, *approximately* 10-45 minutes apart, with their speed decreasing to about 30-40 mi/hr (50-60 km/hr). The depth of the water and the layout of the coastal area can affect the tsunami's shape when it hits the shore.

It can grow to 30-50 meters high and *smash* into the shore as a wall of water or sweep over the land as a fast-moving flood. Although tsunamis can happen in any large body of water, most occur in the Pacific Ocean. A tsunami that is generated from close-by can reach the shore in less than ten minutes. This does not allow authorities time to issue a warning. The only warning might be movement in the ground, which could alert people close to the shore that a tsunami is coming. Areas at greatest risk are usually within one mile (1.6 km) of the shoreline and less than 25 feet (7.6 meters) above sea level.

C   The impact of Tsunami

Since the tsunami arrives as a series of waves, the danger exists even after the first wave hits. Often, subsequent waves may be more dangerous than the first one. The force of the tsunami is enormous, with waves carrying huge *boulders*, trees, buildings and vehicles in its *wake*. It can wrap around an island and be just as dangerous on the far side of the island as on the side facing the source of the tsunami.

D   What you need to know to prepare for a tsunami

Tsunamis that originate far away allow more time for disaster preparation, but tsunami waves originating in the nearby *vicinity* may not give much warning. People who live near the coastline of Tsunami can follow some preparation plan for their safety.

- Since earthquakes frequently precipitate a tsunami, if an earthquake happens, expect a tsunami warning in its wake. Leave low-lying areas until the danger passes.
- As a tsunami approaches there is often a noticeable drop in sea level; take it as nature's warning to leave the area. An incoming tsunami often sounds like an oncoming train — another of nature's warnings.
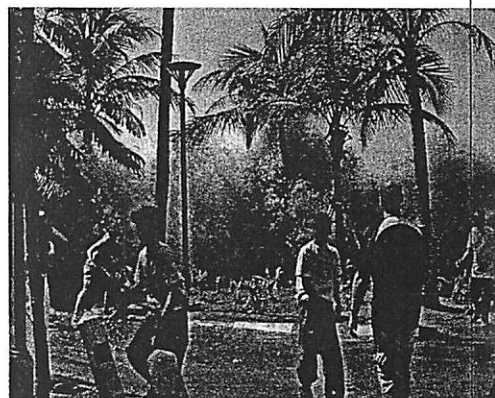
Δ Tsunami's waves hit Ao Nang, Krabi, Thailand in 2004

- Though a tsunami may be small and harmless on one point on the shore, a little further away it could be much larger and carry far greater dangers.
- Do not go to the shore to look for a tsunami; if you can see it, you are already too close to outrun it.
- You should never try to surf a tsunami; the wave does not behave like a regular wave, curling or breaking.
- If you are at the beach and feel the earth shake, *immediately* move to higher ground.
- *Drowning* is the cause of most tsunami-related deaths. Other dangers to property and person include flooding, fires from *ruptured* tanks or gas lines, contaminated drinking water, and the loss of vital community infrastructure (police, fire, medical).
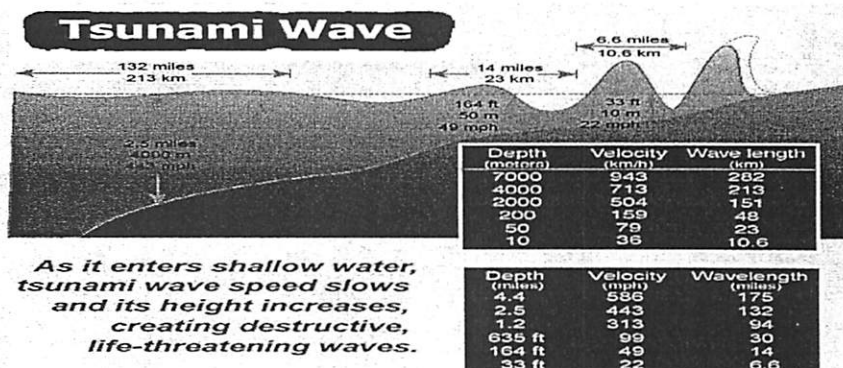

⇐ On March 11, 2011, Japan experienced the strongest earthquake in its recorded history. The earthquake struck below the North Pacific Ocean, 130 kms. (81 miles) off the coast of northeast Japan. As a result, tsunami waves up to 10 meters (33 feet) high hit the east coast of the island of Honshu. More than 400,000 people have been made homeless by the natural disasters, and the death toll may eventually top 10,000. The earthquake and the tsunami both severely crippled the infrastructure of the country. At a nuclear power plant near the coast, workers continue attempts to control the temperature of the reactors and prevent more radiation from leaking into the atmosphere.

E **Great Tsunami in Human History**

Tsunami has been one of the devastating disasters in recent human history. In 2004, an earthquake shook the ocean floor in the Indian Ocean near Indonesia. The resulting tsunami killed more than 200,000 people in Indonesia, Sri Lanka, Thailand, India and as far away as the African countries of Somalia and Madagascar. Waves reached a height of 65 feet (20 meters). Other devastating tsunamis include one that took place in 1883, after Krakatoa[1] erupted. Waves up to 100 feet (30 meters) high caused some 36,000 deaths. In Japan, in 1896, a wave that reached a height of about 65 feet (20 meters) killed about 26,000 people in villages around Sanriku. And in 1755, Lisbon, Portugal, was hit by an earthquake that precipitated a tsunami. More than 100,000 people were killed by the quake, tsunami and fires that broke out in the aftermath. Recently, more than 20,000 Japanese were dead or disappeared in the tsunami caused by a massive earthquake in Pacific Ocean close to north-eastern part of Japan in March 2011.

Adapted from http://www.answer.com/topic/tsunami

Krakatoa[1] or Kra·ka·to·a (-tō'ə) is a volcanic island of Indonesia between Sumatra and Java. An explosive eruption in August 1883 destroyed most of the island and caused a tsunami that killed more than 36,000 people.

Tsunami Wave

As it enters shallow water, tsunami wave speed slows and its height increases, creating destructive, life-threatening waves.

132 miles / 213 km

14 miles / 23 km

6.6 miles / 10.6 km

164 ft / 50 m / 49 mph

33 ft / 10 m / 22 mph

Depth (meters)	Velocity (km/h)	Wave length (km)
7000	943	282
4000	713	213
2000	504	151
200	159	48
50	79	23
10	36	10.6

Depth (miles)	Velocity (mph)	Wavelength (miles)
4.4	586	175
2.5	443	132
1.2	313	94
635 ft	99	30
164 ft	49	14
33 ft	22	6.6

☐ **After You Read**

Strategy

Recognizing Reading Structure in a Text

Most reading material has reading structure. The word underline structure means "organization or form." This article has a structure. It has a title, paragraphs, and a heading for each paragraph.

5. **Recognizing Reading Structure.** Read the information below about the structure of this article and answer the questions.

1. A *title* is the name of something to read. What is the title of this article?

   _____

2. *Units* are the largest division of the book. What is the title of Unit 1?

   _____

3. The information of most reading selections is in paragraphs. A *paragraph* is a division or part about one idea or one kind of information. How many paragraphs are there in the passage "Tsunami"?

   _____

4. There is a heading in each paragraph. The *heading* of the first paragraph is "understanding Tsunami." What is the heading of the last paragraph?

   _____

Strategy

Recognizing Topics, Main Ideas, and Supporting Details

- The word *topic* means "the subject of speech or writing." A paragraph usually tells about one topic. The heading of a paragraph gives information about its topic.
- The main idea tells the main point, or idea, about the topic. Sometimes one or two sentences of a paragraph tell the main idea.
- The supporting details give examples or more information about the main idea. Some kinds of details are definitions, examples, facts, and reasons.

Example

Tsunami Causes

Tsunamis, also called seismic waves, are most frequently caused by earthquakes beneath the sea. However, anything that displaces a large volume of water can cause a tsunami, including volcanic eruptions under the ocean, submarine landslides, or rarely, a meteor's impact in the ocean.

Topic: In the example above, the title is the topic. The topic of the paragraph is "Tsunami Causes."

Main idea: The first sentence is underlined. It is the main idea of the paragraph. It gives the main point of the whole topic.

Supporting details: Some other sentences tell the other causes of Tsunami: anything displaces a large volume of water (volcanic eruptions under the ocean, submarine landslides, and a meteor's impact in the ocean).

6. Recognizing the Topic and Main Ideas of Paragraphs. From the article "Tsunami" on pages 3-6, answer these questions about the article.

    1. What is the topic of the article? _____

    2. What is the topic of each paragraph? (Hint: Look at the paragraph heading.)

A: _____

B: _____

C: _____

D: _____

E: _____

3. What is the main idea of each paragraph? Underline it and then read it aloud. Remember: the main idea is not always the first sentence. The main idea in Paragraph A has been underlined.

Strategy

Summarizing

- A summary is a short statement of the main points and important details of reading material.
- A summary has some words form the reading and some not from the reading.
- A summary of a paragraph or short article has only a few sentences. It is much shorter than the original.
- A good summary tells the main idea and the important details in your own words.

Example

Summary of Paragraph A from the reading "Tsunami".

A Tsunami is a huge wave that can travel across the ocean with a great high speed. It is usually caused by an earthquake, volcanic eruption or coastal landslide. It starts from a few feet high wave under the deep ocean, so it would not be noticeable to passing ship or a plane flying overhead.

To write a summary:

- Reread the article.
- Take notes as you read. Put the main ideas into your own words.
- Reread what you wrote. Make sure you have only the main ideas. Make sure you don't Include opinions.
- Revise if necessary.

7. Summarizing a Paragraph. Work in groups of three. Have each person choose one of the remaining paragraphs from the above reading "Tsunami". Read it carefully. Write a summary of your paragraph. Begin with a sentence about the topic or title.

Paragraph _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Compare your summary with a partner. Answer the following questions about your partner's summary.

1. How long is the summary?
2. Did you partner include all the main ideas and *only* main ideas?
3. Does the summary mention the title of the passage?
4. Is there any information that should not be in the summary? Is there any information missing from the summary?

Now, go back to activity 3 on page 2 and look at the questions again. Now look at the Answers you wrote down before you read the article. Change them if necessary.

• Give reasons in your answers to Questions 1 and 2

🔲 Evaluation

8. Self-evaluation. Read the lists below. Check (✓) the strategies that you learned in this unit.
Look through the unit or ask your instructor about the strategies that you do not understand.

Self-Assessment Log

Strategies	When I used it	Helped make it easier	Why
☐ Previewing the topic		☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Not sure	
☐ Previewing vocabulary		☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Not sure	
☐ Recognizing reading structure in a text		☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Not sure	
☐ Recognizing topics, main ideas, and supporting details.		☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Not sure	
☐ Summarizing		☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Not sure	

Problem: _____

_____

_____

Solution: _____

_____

_____

How can I use these strategies to improve my reading skills? In what way?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Note: _____

_____

◩ **Expanding Your Language**

9. **Internet Search**

1. Use Google (www.google.com) or another major search engine to begin your online research.

2. Search for information about disaster that occurred in your country. Then, complete the table with the information you find.

Disaster	When	Where	Causes	Aftermaths
Fire Accident at Santika Club	Between Dec. 31, 2008 – Jan. 1, 2009	Santika club, nightclub in Watthana Rd., Bangkok	Fireworks or Electrical explosion	66 people killed and injured

Following up. Share your findings with others in a small group. Discuss how to prevent or avoid the problem. Choose one incident and report it to the class.

Extensive Reading Using a Learner Autonomy Training Framework (ERLAT)

A. Complete the questionnaires. Then, share your answers in a small group.

Reading and You ☺

Name: _____ Code _____

Date: ___/___/___

Reading in English

For each statement, circle Y (Yes) or N (No).

1. I always read every word of a passage.   Y   N
2. Reading aloud helps me improve my reading   Y   N
3. I say the words aloud when I read.   Y   N
4. I use different reading methods in my native   Y   N
   language and in English.
5. When I read in English, I understand more   Y   N
   when I read slowly.
6. If I don't know the meaning of a word in English, Y   N
   I always look it up in the dictionary.
7. The best way to improve my reading in English   Y   N
   is by learning as much grammar as possible.
8. The best way to improve my reading in English   Y   N
   is by learning as much new vocabulary as
   possible.
9. When I am reading material in English, I need   Y   N
   to know every word in order to understand.
10. To read well in English, I must be able to   Y   N
    Pronounce every word.
11. I can't understand a paragraph if it has several   Y   N
    new words in it.
12. I use the same reading methods for all kinds of   Y   N
    text.

Source: Adapted from Mikulecky & Jeffroes, 2003

Pleasure Reading Questionnaire

1. For the following statements, give a number from 1 to 5.

   (1 = totally disagree; 5 = totally agree)

   _____ a. I enjoy reading for pleasure.

   _____ b. My parents enjoy reading for pleasure.

   _____ c. Most of my friends read for pleasure.

   _____ d. I read only books assigned by a teacher.

   _____ e. I have no time to read for pleasure.

2. Do you have a favorite book? Writing the book's title and author here:

   _____

   _____

   What did you like about this book? _____

   _____

   Would you recommend it to friend? Why or why not? _____

   _____

3. Circle the types of books you generally enjoy reading for pleasure:

a. novels	e. mysteries
b. romances	f. biographies
c. spy thrillers	g. factual books (nonfiction)
d. adventures	h. other (give examples) _____

   _____

4. In what language do you usually read for pleasure?_____

5. Do you read for pleasure in English? If so, what book(s) have you read

   _____

   Discuss your answers with some classmates. Have you read any of the books

   they recommend?

What Is Learner Autonomy?

What does 'learner autonomy' suggest to you?
B1. In pencil, underline all the words you associate with the phrase 'learner autonomy.'

Freedom (อิสระ)

Going it alone (เรียนเองลำพัง)

Maturity (การบรรลุนิติภาวะ)

Making my own success (ประสบความสำเร็จด้วยตัวเอง)

Pursuing my own interests (ทำตามความสนใจของตัวเอง)

Being in control (ถูกควบคุม)

Free time (เวลาว่าง)

Isolation (การแยกตัวโดยลำพัง)

Managing my time (การบริหารเวลาของฉันเอง)

Being left to my own devices (ถูกปล่อยให้เรียนตามกลวิธีของฉันเอง)

Failure! (ความล้มเหลว)

Less help (ความช่วยเหลือน้อยลง)

Finding support (หาการสนับสนุนที่ให้ความช่วยเหลือและกำลังใจ)

Working on my own (เรียนด้วยตัวฉันเอง)

Enjoyment (ความสนุกสนานเพลิดเพลิน)

Less guidance (ได้รับคำแนะนำน้อยลง)

Good study management (มีทักษะการจัดการการเรียนดี)

Responsibility (ความรับผิดชอบ)

B2. Using a red pen, draw a ring round all the words that describe how you would like learner autonomy to be. Use the bubbles to add words of your own.
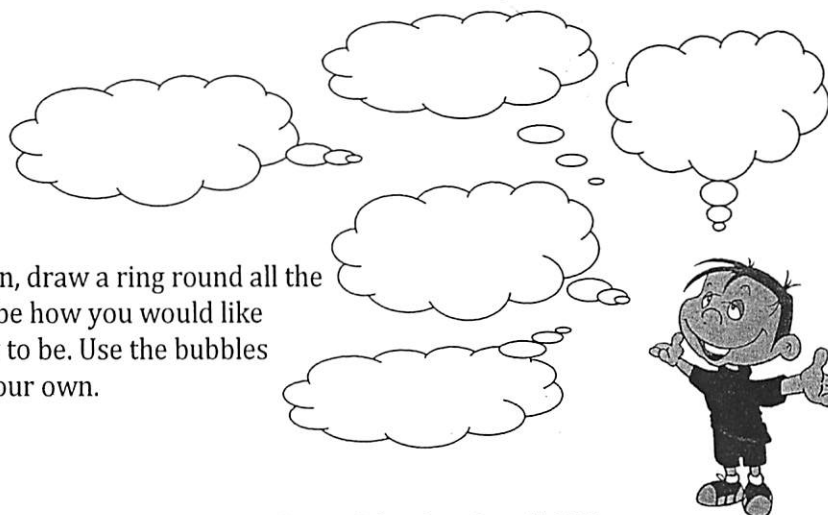
Source: Taken from Cottrell, 2003

| Nature of Learner Autonomy | Lesson 1: Activity 2 Worksheet 3 |

Plan: Before doing the task
> Set goals
> Plan the task
> Plan how to accomplish the task

Monitor/ Identify Problems: While doing the task
> Check progress
> Check comprehension
> Check the understanding?
> Any Problems?

☑ Excellent
☐ Very good
☐ Good
☐ Average
☐ Poor

Evaluate: After doing the task
> How well you did the task
> Assess how well you used the strategies
> Identify changes for the future

Examples of Learner Autonomy

Example 1: Jittima

Jittima learned some English in school ten years ago, but now has forgotten it. She was thinking of her job opportunities, which would be enhanced if her English language skill was acceptable. Therefore, she decided to attend the classes two evenings a week at one language school. In class, she learned the prepared materials; however, she supplements her learning by borrowing some interesting books from the school library. She wanted to study by herself at home for improving her reading comprehension ability. After reading, she tried to test herself how well she did each week by producing a cloze test or doing an exercise if available in the books that she borrowed. She recorded her progress and difficulties that she encountered when reading and tried to solve those problems by either practicing more or consulted her instructor to obtain useful guidance and advice to improve her reading comprehension ability.

Example 2: Antoine Gardin

Antoine Gardin is eighteen years old and is at the university. His English classes would be familiar enough to many people. His teacher uses the course book selected by the Modern Language department; the teacher presents the new material to the class, gets the class, either all together or in groups, to practice it in various ways, and she devises ways in which the students can use the new language. In addition, every week Antoine, and other students in the class, is asked to think about the reading he is going to do in English for the next week. The library and the self-access language learning center in the university has a good selection of books in English, ranging from simple, sometimes simplified, stories to full novels and non-fiction books on a range of topics. Each student is expected to do some reading in English each week, although what each student does depends on his or her ability in English and interests. The students select the books and have to decide approximately how much of the book- how many pages- he will read during the week. Finally, he writes a note on how he is going to demonstrate that he has achieved what he set out to do. If he is engaged in reading a book on cooking he may decide to make notes on recipes and to build up a specialized vocabulary of cooking terms. The teacher checks the contracts at intervals and looks at a sample of students' written work each week.

Source: Taken from Cottrell, 2003

Learner Autonomy: Taking Control	Lesson 1 Activity 2 Worksheet 5

Benefit	Challenges
More control over your study time	• To manage time effectively to meet deadlines • To meet deadlines
More control over your spare time	• To recognize the difference between Spare time and independent learning time
More choice about when and where to study	• To organize place to study • To work on the best places and times for your study
More choice about how to study	• To take responsibility of your learning and achieving your goals
More responsibility for your own success	• To identify barriers to your learning • To identify ways of improving your own Performance • To make effective use of feedback and to Learn from mistakes
There isn't a teacher looking over your shoulder all the time	• To keep on target with little guidance • To keep yourself motivated • To take responsibility for pursuing solutions to problems on your own • To recognize when you need help to ask for it

Source: Taken from Cottrell, 2003

References:

Anderson, N. J. (2007). Active: Skills for Reading. Canada: Thomson ELT.

Cottrell: S. (2003). The study skills handbook. New York: Palgrave Macmillan

Kirn, E. & Hartmann, P. (2007). Interaction 1: Reading. Singapore: McGraw Hill.

Mikulecky, B. S. and Jeffries, L. (2003). More reading power. New York: Pearson Education, Inc.

<u>Appendix B</u>

Sample Lesson Plan

Lesson Plan

Course Code/ Title: 205301 Reading Academic English

Credit: 3(2-1)

Level: 2nd year, undergraduates

Pre-requisites: 001211 Fundamental English 1 and 001212 Fundamental English 2

> **Unit 1:** Disaster

Unit's Objectives:

1. Students will be able to recognize reading structure in a reading text.

2. Students will be able to identify main ideas, supporting details, and topics

3. Students will be able to use their background knowledge to predict the story before they begin to read.

4. Students will be able to summarize reading text.

5. Students will be able to examine their general reading habits and attitudes, as well as their feeling about reading in English by completing questionnaires.

6. Students will be able to provide description of the possibilities for learner autonomy and give examples.

7. Students will understand concept of learner autonomy and can apply it into their learning process.

Class duration: two hours

Evaluation

1.   Students complete reading tasks after reading.

2.   Students are engaged in reading and classroom discussion.

3.   Students check their prediction against the information in the passage.

4.   Students actively engage in learning tasks.

5.   Students complete questionnaires and assignments.

Strategy focuses:

Reading strategy/skill: recognize reading structure, identify main ideas, supporting details, and topics

Cognitive strategy (Methodological Preparation): using background knowledge, prediction, and summarizing.

Attitude (Psychological Preparation): describing learner autonomy

Materials:

1. Reading passages and exercises
2. Worksheet 1: *Reading and You* and *Pleasure Reading* questionnaires
3. Worksheet 2 : What is Learner Autonomy
4. Worksheet 3: Nature of Learner Autonomy,
5. Worksheet 4: Examples of Learner Autonomy
6. Worksheet 5: Learner Autonomy: Taking Control

Teaching and Learning Procedure

Part 1: IR-base Lesson Plan

Preparation 1

1. Direct students' attention to the photo and ask questions: what do you think about this photo? What will happen next? What is the cause of the event in this photo?

2. Divide students into the small groups for the discussion on **Connecting to the Topic (page 1)** questions.

3. Put this sentence on the board: If I see this storm coming when I'm on the beach, I will _____. Tell students to complete the sentence.

4. Call on students to share their ideas with classmates.

 Before You Read (page 2-3)

5. **Discussion.** Divide students into the small groups for the discussion on the questions. Ask them to take note while discussing. Call on students to share their answers with classmates.

Teacher Note:
Collaborative activities: These Activities are to help student to understand better about the ideas in the reading passage through interacting with other students. They can clarify answers and reinforce knowledge with the assistance of their group members.

6. **Matching.** Read the direction aloud and explain the first example. Have students complete the activity as you check their work. Call on students to share their answers.

Presentation 1

7. Introduce the strategy *using background knowledge* and *predicting.*

'Before you begin to read any texts, first things you should do is to recall your background knowledge. You ask yourself what you have already known about the topic to help you familiarize and comprehend what you are going to read. When you read try to think what you are going to read before you start. For example, you may think about what might happen in the articles. You can use pictures or graphics in the text to help you predict more accurately.'

Teacher Note:
Activating Prior Knowledge These Activities are to allow students to tap into their prior knowledge. Students learn more effectively when new information is meaningful to them; while, working in groups to discuss and think about what they already know about a topic will enable them to actively link their prior knowledge to upcoming new information.

Practice 1

8. **Using Background Knowledge/Predicting.** Divide students into groups of three to discuss and write answers to the questions. Explain that it is OK to guess if they don't know the answers. Call on students to share their answers with the class. Tell students to look for the answers to the questions in the reading passage as they read.

9. **Reading an Article**. Have students read the article silently within a time limit (10-15 minutes). Tell them to underline any words or phrases that are new or that they don't understand.

Presentation 2

10. **After You Read.** Introducing the strategy *recognizing reading structure, topics, main ideas, and supporting details* to students.

11. Tell students to read the information in the Strategy box silently. When they finished, ask volunteers to read the individual bullet points aloud.

13. Explain that the topic of a paragraph is what the paragraph is about. To check comprehension, ask students what the main idea of a paragraph is (the most important idea.)

14. Ask students what a supporting detail of a paragraph is. Tell students to look at the paragraph. Call on students to identify the topic, the main idea, and a few supporting details.

Practice 2

15. **Recognizing Reading Structure.** Tell students to find the answers to the questions. Remind them to refer to the instruction note above the activity as they work. Have them write their answers on the lines. Call on students to share their answers with the class.

16. **Recognizing the Topic and Main Ideas of Paragraphs.** Read the directions. Give students time to complete the activity as you can check their work. Call on students to share their answers.

Presentation 3

17. Introducing the strategy *summarizing*.

18. Tell students to read the information in the strategy box silently. When they finished, ask volunteers to read the individual bullet points aloud.

19. To check comprehension, ask volunteers to explain what a summary is, whether it's longer or shorter than the original text, and what a good summary does.

20. Tell students to reread paragraph A of the previous reading. Ask volunteers to tell you, without looking at the paragraph, what the topic is, what the main idea is, and what the supporting details are. Write their responses on the board.

Practice 3

21. **Summarizing a Paragraph**. Divide students into groups of three and read the directions to them. Have them choose a paragraph to summarize. Have students summarize their paragraphs and read their summaries to the class.

Evaluation

22. Read the direction aloud and have students check the strategies they learned in the unit**.**

23. Ask volunteers to tell you where in the unit they can find information or an activity related to each strategy.

Expanding

24. **Taking It Online**. The aim of this activity is for students to expand their knowledge beyond the textbook. If you have access to a computer lab, conduct this activity in the lab so you can help students with their research. Let students search for information and complete the table with the information they find. Have students work in a small group to share the information they found. Call on students to share their research with the class. If you do not have access to a computer lab, assign this activity as homework.

Part 2: **ER-based Lesson Plan**

Lesson 1

Activity 1: Reading and You questionnaire

Objectives: 1. To examine students' general reading habits and attitudes, as well as   their feelings about reading in English by completing "Reading and You" questionnaire.

2. To give teachers insights into students' reading preferences and their attitudes toward reading in the second or foreign language for enjoyment and learning.

Materials: Worksheet 1: *Reading and You* and *Pleasure Reading* questionnaires

Teaching and Learning Procedure

1. In class, distribute the questionnaire and go over any questions that might be difficult. Give examples of possible answers. Assure students that there are no rights or wrong answers. Ask students to answer the questions for homework.

2. During the next class, have students work in small groups and share their answers. Tell students they may discuss whatever items seem interesting,

in no particular order, for about 15 minutes.

3. Then bring the class together and ask individuals or groups to share their responses to particular questions.

4. Collect the questionnaires for later evaluation.

(Source: Adapted from Mikulecky & Jeffries, 2003)

Psychological Preparation (Attitude)

Activity 2: Describing Learner Autonomy

Objectives: 1. To develop students' positive attitudes towards learner autonomy

2. To provide a general description of the possibilities for learner autonomy and give examples.

Materials: Worksheet 2: What is learner autonomy?

Worksheet 3: Nature of learner autonomy

Worksheet 4: Examples of learner autonomy

Worksheet 5: Learner autonomy: Taking control

Teaching and Learning Procedure

Step 1: What is learner autonomy?

1. Teacher asks 'What does *learner autonomy* suggest to you?'

2. Teacher elicits answers from the class.

3. Teacher distributes the 'learner autonomy' worksheet to each student, and asks them to choose the words that they think associated the phrase 'learner autonomy'.

4. Teacher elicits answers from the class emphasizing on reasons why students choose those words.

5. Teacher asks each student to draw a ring round all the words that describe how they would like independent learning to be. Students can also use the bubbles to add words of their own.

6. Students work in groups of six or seven and discuss their answers and reasons.

7. Each group reports to the class what they would like 'learner autonomy' to be with reasons.

8. Teacher discusses with the class the nature of the learner autonomy, i.e. by using 'Nature of Learner Autonomy' worksheet.

9. Teacher asks student who used to do learner autonomy share their experiences to the class.

10. Teacher gives examples of learner autonomy.

Step 2: Values of learner autonomy

11. Each students thinks about the pros and cons of learner autonomy.

12. Students discuss in a small group and decide on the three main points in favor of and against learner autonomy.

13. Each group shares their ideas with the whole class.

14. Teacher writes the points on the board.

15. Teacher holds a plenary session to discuss the points listed on the board, and points out benefits and challenges of this mode of learning.

<u>**Answer Key**</u>

Before You Read

1. **Discussion.** Answer will vary

2. **Matching.**   1. Hurricane   2. Chemical leaks   3. Earthquake

4. Structural collapse   5. Terrorist attacks 6. Nuclear leaks

7. Volcanoes   8. Floods

3. **Use background knowledge/Predicting**. Answer will vary

After You Read

5. **Recognizing Reading Structure.**

    1. Tsunami   2. Disaster 3. 5 paragraphs 4. Great Tsunami in Human History

6. **Recognizing the Topic and Main Ideas of Paragraphs.**

1. Tsunami

2. A. Understanding Tsunami

   B. Tsunami's wave arrives

   C. The impact of tsunami

  D. What you need to know to prepare for a tsunami

  E. Great Tsunami in Human History

3. A. A tsunami is a huge ocean wave that can travel at speeds up to 600 mi/hr (965 km/hr). A tsunami is usually caused by an earthquake, volcanic eruption or coastal landslide.

  B. When the waves get closer to shore, they decrease in speed and increase in height.

  C. Since, the tsunami arrives as a series of waves; the danger exists even after the first wave hits.

  D. Although the tsunami cannot be avoided, good preparation is very essential because it can reduce the loss of life and injury.

  E. Tsunami has been one of the devastating   disasters in human history because it results in death and injury of a large number of people and loss of properties.

7. Summarizing a Paragraph. Answer will vary.

<u>Appendix C</u>

The General English Reading Ability Test

Instruction: There are 8 passages. Read each passage and answer the questions on the answer sheet (45 points).

Passage 1 (9 points)

Depression isn't just feeling down. It's a real illness with real causes. Depression can be **triggered** by stressful life events, like divorce or a death in the family. Or it can appear suddenly, for no apparent reason.

Some people think you can just will yourself out of a depression. That's not true. Many doctors believe that one thing that may cause depression is an imbalance of serotonin a chemical in your body. If **this** happens, you may have trouble sleeping, feel unusually sad or irritable, find it hard to **concentrate**, lose your appetite, lack energy or have trouble feeling pleasure. These are some of the symptoms that can point to depression-especially if **they** last for more than a couple of weeks and if normal, everyday life feels like too much to handle.

To help fight depression, doctors now prescribe anti-depressant drugs. They are not "happy pills". They won't turn you into a different person. Some people do experience mild side effects, like upset stomach, headaches, difficulty sleeping, drowsiness, anxiety and nervousness. These tend to go away within a few weeks of starting treatment and usually aren't serious enough to make most people stop taking them.

1. The best title for the passage is …………….. .
   a. Levels of Depression   b. The Truth about Depression
   c. Stressful Life Events   c. The Symptoms of Stress

2. The word "**triggered**" in Paragraph 1(line 2) means …………. .
   a. decreased   b. caused   c. noticed   d. treated

3. The main idea of paragraph 2 is ……………………….
   a. depression affects our body and mind
   b. depression can be prevented
   c. nobody knows the effects of depression
   d. there are effective ways to reduce depression

4. The word "**this**" in paragraph 2 (line 6) refers to ……………… .
   a. a chemical imbalance   b. divorce
   c. the belief   d. a daily event

5. According to the passage, depression results from ……….. .
   a. poor diet   b. lack of exercise
   c. known and unknown factors   d. taking specific drugs

6. The word "**concentrate**" in paragraph 2 (line 7) means ………….. .
   a. direct your actions   b. earn your living
   c. make up your mind   d. control your thoughts

7. The pronoun "**they**" in paragraph 2 (line 8) refers to ………. .

    a. drugs   b. treatment   c. symptoms   d. events

8. Which of the following is not a symptom of depression?

    a. Inability to sleep   b. Sadness

    c. Serotonin   d. Loss of appetite

9. The purpose of the passage is to ……………….. .

    a. advertise a drug for depression

    b. compare depression symptoms before and after medication

    c. present information about depression

    d. share negative feelings of depression

Passage 2 (5 points)

Berlin – Two German teenagers robbed a girl but accidentally left their own pictures behind for police on a discarded mobile phone. After stealing a 15-year-old's shoes, money and mobile phone, the two older girls gave her an old mobile phone, police in the western city of Bochum said on Wednesday.

        But the two 17-year-olds had forgotten that the phone had their own photos, striking smiley poses, which police published online on Tuesday in an effort to find the culprits. The two robbers turned themselves in when the pictures appeared on the evening news.

10. The best headline for this news article would be ………….. .

    a. Girl accidentally robbed   b. Robbers leave photos

    c. Mobile phone discarded   d. Photos appear online

11. Which incident happened first?

    a. The robbers left their pictures.

    b. The police reported the crime on Monday.

    c. The robbers took the girl's stuff.

    d. The robbers gave the girl a mobile phone.

12. This case was easy enough for the police because the robbers ………….. .

    a. saw their pictures published online

    b. gave their own mobile phone to the police

    c. left their own pictures in the phone they gave to the victim

    d. threw away their own mobile phone after stealing the girl's

13. All of the following statements are true EXCEPT …………… .

    a. the two robbers were German teenagers

    b. the police arrested the robbers the following day

    c. the incident took place in the western city of Bochum

    d. the police solved the case with the help of the Internet

14. It can be inferred that …………. .
    a. the unlucky teenager was new to the city
    b. the robbers were older than the girl who was robbed
    c. the two German teenagers were smiling in the pictures
    d. the unlucky girl's mobile phone was newer than the robbers'

Passage 3 (6 points)

Cloth is used for more garments than any other material. There are three basic types of finished cloth- woven, knitted, and nonwoven. Woven cloth is the most widely used, but it is easier to produce a patterned cloth by knitting. The fibers of nonwoven cloth are bonded to abacking or locked together. Nonwoven fabrics may be created by using heat, mechanical energy, or chemicals.

Just a fibers are woven into finished cloth before garments can be made from **them**, so other materials must also be processed before they can be made into clothing. Animal skins are treated by a chemical process called tanning to make soft and pliable leather. Furs may be let out, or cut into small pieces and re-sewn into a long, narrow strip. Latex must be converted into finished rubber.

Many steps are involved in producing an article of clothing. Some of these steps may be taken even before the processed material reaches the clothing factory. First a designer makes a sketch of the garment. From that sketch a sample is made to see if the style is practical. If the style is approved, a pattern is cut. Then the pattern must be remade in several different sizes.

The pieces of a pattern are placed on many layers of cloth for cutting. The worker who cuts out a pattern uses an electric knife that can slice through many thicknesses of cloth at once. After they have been cut, all the pieces of a garment are tied together according to size and passed on to a worker who sews them. Many different operators may work on a garment before it is completed.

Finished items of clothing are pressed, tagged, **inspected**, and packaged. Then they are shipped to the stores that will sell them. They may be transported by truck, train, ship, or airplane.

15. The word "them" in paragraph 2 (line 6) refers to_____.
    a. fibers   b. finished cloth   c. garments   d. materials

16. The first step in making a garment is _____.
    a. the designer's sketch   b. weaving the fibers
    c. a sample product   d. cutting the pattern

17. Cloth is cut for clothing according to a _____.
    a. formula   b. photograph   c. pattern   d. sketch

18. Patterns are cut from many thicknesses of cloth at once to _____.
    a. save time   b. make cutting easier
    c. produce different sizes   d. make many layers

19. Which word could be used to replace "inspected" in the last paragraph?
    a. checked   b. looked   c. supplied   d. delivered

20. You can conclude from the article that the textile industry uses machines to make clothing because _____.
    a. the finished product is better   b. machines are fast and cheap
    c. people are lazy   d. It's easy to be shipped

Passage 4 (6 points)

Smoking tobacco causes more death and suffering by far among adults than any other environment factor. Each cigarette smoked reduces one's average lifespan by five and a half minutes. Worldwide, at least 3 million smokers die prematurely each year from heart disease, lung cancer, bronchitis, emphysema. Other cancer, and stroke - - all related to smoking.

In 1989 smoking killed about 390,000 Americans - - an average of 1,068 lives a day. This annual death toll in the United States is equal to three fully loaded jumbo jets crashing every day with no survivors, almost eight times the number of people killed in traffic accidents each year, and seven times the number of American soldiers killed in the nine-year Vietnam War.

Nicotine is not classified as an illegal drug. Yet, it kills and harms more people each year in the United State than all illegal drugs and alcohol (the second most harmful drug), automobile accidents, suicide, and homicide combined.

Numerous studies have shown that the nicotine in tobacco is a highly addictive drug that, like heroin and cocaine, can quickly and strongly hook **its** victims. A British government study showed that adolescents who smoke more than one cigarette have an 85% chance of becoming smokers. An inhaled hit of nicotine takes only 5 to 10 seconds to reach the brain twice as fast as intravenous drugs and three times faster than alcohol. The typical smoker has a 200 to 400 hit a day legalized habit.

Smokers develop tolerance to nicotine and experience withdrawal symptoms when they try to stop. Some recovering heroin addicts report they had a much harder time quitting smoking than quitting heroin. About 75% of smokers who quit start smoking again within six months, about the same relapse rate as recovering alcoholics and heroin addicts.

21. "Each cigarette smoked reduces one's average lifespan by five and a half minutes." This statement implies that a person ……………… .
    a. can be short-lived if he smokes
    b. can easily develop diseases related to smoking
    c. may suffer from nicotine addiction when he gets older
    d. may live longer than the average if he does not smoke

22. What is the estimated number of people killed in traffic accidents each year in the USA?
    a. 1,068 deaths   b. 8,500 deaths
    c. 48,000 deaths   d. 55,000 deaths

23. According to a British government study, it was found that teenagers ………..
    a. can quickly and strongly be hooked to nicotine in tobacco
    b. can become smokers if they inhale nicotine 200 to 400 times a day
    c. smoking more than one cigarette are likely to become smokers
    d. can become smokers if nicotine reaches their brains in 5 to 10 seconds

24. What does the word "**its**" in paragraph 4 line 2 refer to?
    a. drug   b. heroin   c. alcohol   d. nicotine

25. Which is true according to the finding of a British government study?
    a. Alcohol takes a shorter time to reach the brain than intravenous drugs.
    b. Intravenous drugs and alcohol take the longest time to reach the brain
    c. An inhaled hit of nicotine takes the shortest time to reach the brain.
    d. Intravenous drugs take a shorter time to reach the brain than that of
       nicotine.

26. What is the purpose of this passage?
    a. To alert people of the danger of smoking.
    b. To show the facts about smoking tobacco
    c. To report the death tolls of Americans caused by smoking
    d. To explain the components of tobacco

Passage 5 (5 points)

Some students shirking ethics

A new survey of American teenagers finds that academic dishonesty is rampant and getting worse at high schools.

Students' ethical behavior
Admitted stealing from a store in the last year and …
BOYS 35%
GIRLS 26
… from a friend:
26
14
Sometimes lied to save money:
49
36

Had lied to a parent about something significant (public and religious private schools):
83
Had cheated on a test:
2006 60
2008 64
Used the Internet to plagiarize an assignment
2004 33
2008 36

SOURCE: Josephson Institute   AP

27. What is the graph about?
    a. worsened ethics among American high school students
    b. the stable rate of plagiarism
    c. better academic performance among American high school
    d. the decrease of academic dishonesty among American university students

28. What is the trend of academic dishonesty among American teenagers?
   a. It is improved.
   b. It is well controlled.
   c. It is increasing.
   d. There is no information about this issue in the graph.

29. What can be implied from this graph?
   a. The internet is not necessary for the assignments.
   b. The students can use internet appropriately.
   c. The teacher control the use of internet in the assignments.
   d. Some American students used the internet improperly.

30. What can you partly conclude from this graph?
   a. The American high school students have good academic performance.
   b. The ethics of American high school students should be improved.
   c. The US is a good place for higher education.
   d. The teacher well conduct their instruction.

31. According to the graph, what is increased at the highest percentage?
   a. Students' plagiarism
   b. Cheat in the examination
   c. Store burglary by American high school students
   d. Telling lies for money saving

Passage 6 (5 points)

FOR SAFETY'S SAKE

There are some precautions that you should take while using your credit card.

   To protect yourself:

* Keep your card in view when you give it to a clerk.

* Examine each draft before you sign it, making sure that the total amount is filled in so that additional charges cannot be added later.

* Do not sign blank sales drafts, and make sure that incorrect drafts are voided or destroyed.

* Destroy any carbons from completed sales drafts so that others cannot use the information on the carbon paper.

* Promptly retrieve your card after use, and make sure that you get your own card back.

* Keep all your sales receipts and check them against your monthly statement. If you should find any **discrepancies** on your monthly statement, be sure to report them immediately to the card issuer.

For more information, contact your local police department.

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32. The purpose of this passage is to ………………
    a. promote the use of credit cards
    b. prevent unnecessary spending
    c. prepare credit card applications
    d. protect credit card users

33. If the total amount is not filled in on a signed draft, ………….. .
    a. the credit card company will not accept it
    b. you may be charged later for items you didn't buy
    c. the signature is not valid
    d. the store will not accept it

34. What is the closest meaning of the word "discrepancies" in line 11?
    a. disregards
    b. discredits
    c. inconsistencies
    d. difficulties

35. When your card is returned to you after a purchase, you should …………….
.
    a. make sure it is really your card
    b. sign it
    c. tear it up or cut it in half
    d. request your monthly statement right away

36. In case of discrepancies on your monthly statement, you're advised to first
    ………….. .
    a. contact your local police department
    b. report it to the credit card company
    c. ask the salesperson for your money back
    d. apply for a replacement card

Passage 7 (6 points)

Reading

Like many human abilities, reading is a learned skill. It (37) _____ be taught. Young children learn to read a very few years after learning to speak. In doing so, they are made to see a (38)_____ between the words they have learned to say and the ones they see on a printed page. The words that appear on a page are printed symbols. The mind interprets those symbols as words it already knows in a rapid recognition process based on the individual's past experiences.

Perception or decoding of words is basic to all reading. Perception is an activity of the senses, and in the case of reading the sense involved for most people is sight. For (39) _____ blind the sense is touch, because a blind person uses the fingers to read a code called Braille.

Words and their meanings are recognized together. Beyond the decoding of words is comprehension. This is (40) _____ just understanding the words, sentences, and paragraphs. It is a (41)_____ of seeing relationships and of connecting what is stated on a page with what one already knows about a subject. A good deal of reading stimulates the imagination as the reader pictures what is being read.

Comprehension, assimilation, and interpretation of literature are steps toward building new concepts or ideas as well as toward increasing (42) _____ vocabulary. A reader corrects and refines concepts through each new reading experience. Part of a reader's reaction involves making judgments about the worth of what is read. Some responses are emotional, while others may be intellectual assessing the truth of what is read.

37. a. necessity   b. requirement   c. essential   d. must

38. a. connection   b. bond   c. friendship   d. acquaintance

39. a. a   b. the   c. that   d. those

40. a. more than   b. more then   c. most than   d. most then

41. a. stuff   b. material   c. theme   d. matter

42. a. one   b. ones   c. one'   d. one's

Dictionary Usage (3 points)

dra⁺mat⁺ic /drəˈmætɪk/ adj. 1 Great and sudden. 2 exciting or impressive. 3 connected with acting or plays. 4 intended to be impressive, so that people notice

In each of the following sentences, choose the appropriate meaning of the word "dramatic" from the dictionary entry provided above.

43. Facebook has brought **dramatic** changes to the social networks.
   a. definition 1   b. definition 2   c. definition 3   4. definition 4

44. Angelina Jolie needed a stunning dress to help her make a **dramatic** entrance at the Academy Awards.
   a. definition 1   b. definition 2   c. definition 3   4. definition 4

45. A serious earthquake can have a **dramatic** effect on a whole country's economy.
   a. definition 1   b. definition 2   c. definition 3   4. definition 4

LEARNER AUTONOMY TRAINING QUESTIONNAIRE

Attitude toward learner autonomy training of the Thai university students on English reading ability and reader autonomy

เจตคติเกี่ยวกับการฝึกการเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองของนิสิตไทยต่อความสามารถในการอ่านและการอ่านเองได้อย่างอิสระ

Instruction

This questionnaire was constructed for a survey of students' attitudes towards learner autonomy training in regard to the English reading skill. Please rate each item according to the fact applied to you. Total information confidentiality will be assured, and the information of each individual will not be revealed. Besides, your answers will not have any effect on your grades.

คำชี้แจง

แบบสอบถามชุดนี้จัดทำขึ้นเพื่อทราบความคิดเห็นและความสามารถในการฝึกการเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองโดยเน้นทักษะการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษ ขอให้นิสิตตอบแบบสอบถามตามข้อมูลที่เป็นจริง ข้อมูลทั้งหมดจะถือเป็นความลับไม่เปิดเผยเป็นรายบุคคล และจะไม่มีผลกระทบใดๆ ต่อคะแนนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษของนิสิต

Name (ชื่อ): .... Student ID (เลขประจำตัวนิสิต): ....

Faculty(คณะ): .... Age(อายุ): .... years Gender(เพศ) ☐ Male (ชาย) ☐ Female(หญิง)

Directions: Making a tick (✓) under the number for each of the following items.

คำแนะนำ: กรุณาตอบว่าท่านเห็นด้วยกับข้อความข้างล่างนี้มากน้อยเท่าใด โดยทำเครื่องหมาย(✓)ลงในช่องที่มีความหมายดังต่อไปนี้

      5 = Strongly agree (เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด)

      4 = Agree (เห็นด้วย)

      3 = Uncertain (ไม่แน่ใจว่าเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วย)

      2 = Disagree (ไม่เห็นด้วย)

      1 = Strongly disagree (ไม่เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด)

Part 1: Learner Autonomy Training Strategies (กลวิธีการเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเอง)

1.1. Cognitive and Metacognitive Strategies (Reading Strategies) (กลวิธีการเรียนแบบปริชานและอภิปริชาน)

	5	4	3	2	1
1. Before I read, I think about what I've already know about the topic which help me to better understand the story. (ก่อนเริ่มอ่าน ฉันนึกทบทวนว่าฉันรู้อะไรเกี่ยวกับเรื่องที่จะอ่าน ซึ่งวิธีนี้ทำให้ฉันเข้าใจเนื้อเรื่องที่จะอ่านได้มากขึ้น)					
2. I try to summarize (in my head or in writing) important information that I read (ฉันพยายามสรุปความ (สรุปในใจหรือเขียน) ข้อมูลสำคัญที่อ่าน)					

	5	4	3	2	1
3. I usually make a prediction about a story while I am reading along. (โดยปกติฉันมักจะคาดเดาเนื้อเรื่องในระหว่างที่อ่านไปด้วย)					
4. I usually try to guess meaning of unknown words from the context. (ฉันมักจะเดาความหมายของคำศัพท์ใหม่จากเนื้อเรื่องที่อ่าน)					
5. I use a dictionary to find meaning of the really important words that I do not know. (ฉันใช้พจนานุกรมเพื่อหาความหมายของศัพท์ที่สำคัญจริงๆ ที่ไม่ทราบความหมายเท่านั้น)					
6. If there are pictures in a text, I usually imagine of what the text would be about. (ถ้ามีรูปภาพประกอบเรื่องที่อ่าน ฉันมักจะจินตนาการโดยนึกว่าเนื้อเรื่องจะเกี่ยวกับอะไร)					
7. I take note while reading. (ฉันจดบันทึกขณะที่อ่าน)					
8. I write down or make lists of new words or phrases I see in the reading passages to be learned several times. (ฉันจดบันทึกหรือทำรายการคำศัพท์หรือวลีใหม่ๆ ที่พบในเรื่องที่อ่าน เพื่อทบทวนหลายๆ ครั้ง)					
9. I try to understand the vocabulary from its prefix or suffix. (ฉันพยายามเข้าใจคำศัพท์จาก prefix (คำนำหน้า) หรือ suffix (คำต่อท้าย))					
10. I periodically focus on specific information to achieve my reading objectives. (ฉันสามารถเพ่งความสนใจไปที่ข้อมูลเฉพาะเพื่อบรรลุวัตถุประสงค์ของการอ่านนั้นๆ)					
11. I usually ask myself questions about the texts and check if it makes sense or not to ensure my reading comprehension. (ฉันมักจะถามคำถามกับตัวเองเกี่ยวกับเรื่องที่อ่านและตรวจสอบว่าคำตอบที่ได้สมเหตุสมผลหรือไม่เพื่อทำให้มั่นใจว่าฉันเข้าใจเนื้อเรื่องได้อย่างถูกต้อง)					
12. When I need to find some information in a text, I usually look for keywords. (เมื่อฉันต้องการหาข้อมูลบางอย่างในเนื้อเรื่องที่อ่าน ฉันมักมองหาจากคำสำคัญ)					
13. I usually review the strategies I use while reading. (ฉันมักจะทบทวนกลวิธีการอ่านที่ฉันใช้ในขณะที่อ่าน)					
14. I translate from English into Thai when I read the texts. (ฉันแปลความหมายจากอังกฤษเป็นไทยในขณะที่อ่านหนังสือภาษาอังกฤษ)					
15. When I encounter a long difficult text, I tell myself that I can read it and I will try my best by using all the strategies that I have practiced. (เมื่อฉันพบเรื่องที่ยาวและยาก ฉันบอกตัวเองว่าฉันสามารถอ่านมันได้ และฉันจะพยายามอย่างเต็มความสามารถเพื่อที่จะอ่านมันโดยใช้กลวิธีที่ได้ฝึกฝนและเรียนรู้มาช่วย)					

1.2. Metacognitve Strategies (Planning, monitoring, evaluating) (กลวิธีการเรียนแบบอภิปริชาน)

	5	4	3	2	1
16. I start reading with browsing throughout the book I would read and focus on the content that interests me. (ฉันเริ่มต้นอ่านหนังสือด้วยการเปิดอ่านคร่าวๆและหยุดอ่านเฉพาะในส่วนที่ฉันสนใจ)					
17. Before reading, I set my reading objectives in advance and read with those objectives in mind. (ก่อนอ่านเนื้อเรื่อง ฉันจะกำหนดวัตถุประสงค์การอ่านไว้ล่วงหน้า และอ่านตามวัตถุประสงค์นั้นๆ)					

	5	4	3	2	1
18. I have set reading schedule and I could follow it. (ฉันได้จัดตารางเวลาการอ่าน และอ่านตามตารางเวลาที่กำหนดไว้)					
19. I finish reading faster after I make a reading plan. (ฉันอ่านจบได้เร็วขึ้นหลังจากที่ได้มีการวางแผนการอ่าน)					
20. While reading, I usually ask myself whether I understand what I am reading. (ขณะอ่าน ฉันมักถามตัวเองว่าฉันเข้าใจเรื่องที่กำลังอ่านอยู่หรือไม่)					
21. I know my weaknesses in reading and try to improve them by myself. (ฉันรู้จุดอ่อนในการอ่านของฉันเองและฉันพยายามที่จะพัฒนามันให้ดีขึ้น)					
22. I always keep track of my own reading progress. (ฉันติดตามความก้าวหน้าในการอ่านของตัวเองอยู่เสมอ)					
23. I check my understanding by doing the follow up exercise or summarize the story. (เมื่ออ่านเนื้อเรื่องจบ ฉันตรวจสอบความเข้าใจในเนื้อเรื่องที่อ่านโดยการทำแบบฝึกหัดท้ายเล่มหรือสรุปใจความสำคัญของเนื้อเรื่อง)					
24. After reading, I decide whether the reading strategies I used helped me understand the passages better and I think of other strategies that I could have helped. (เมื่ออ่านจบแล้ว ฉันจะพิจารณาดูว่ากลวิธีการอ่านที่ฉันใช้ช่วยให้เข้าใจเรื่องมากขึ้นหรือไม่ และจะนึกถึงกลวิธีการอ่านอื่นๆ ที่น่าจะช่วยให้เข้าใจได้มากกว่าเดิม)					
25. After reading, I check whether I accomplished my reading objectives such as finishing the reading on time (หลังจากอ่านเนื้อเรื่อง ฉันจะตรวจสอบว่าทำได้ตามเป้าหมายที่ตั้งไว้หรือไม่ เช่นอ่านหนังสือจบตามเวลาที่ตั้งเป้าไว้หรือไม่)					

1.3. Attitude (เจตคติของผู้เรียน)
1.3.1 Personal Responsibility (ความรับผิดชอบโดยส่วนตัวของผู้เรียน)

	5	4	3	2	1
26. I think improving my reading ability by reading extensively is my own responsibility. (ฉันคิดว่าการพัฒนาความสามารถในการอ่านของตัวเอง โดยการอ่านนอกเวลาเป็นความรับผิดชอบของฉันเอง)					
27. I am pleased to take responsibility of my own learning. (ฉันยินดีที่จะรับผิดชอบการเรียนของตนเอง)					
28. I think students should be responsible for learning not teacher alone. (ฉันคิดว่าผู้เรียนควรมีส่วนรับผิดชอบต่อการเรียน ไม่ใช่เป็นหน้าที่ของผู้สอนแต่เพียงผู้เดียว)					
29. I am able to follow the reading schedule that I have set before hand. (ฉันสามารถทำตามตารางการอ่านที่ฉันได้วางแผนไว้ล่วงหน้า)					
30. I am able to complete the reading tasks by myself. (ฉันสามารถทำงานที่ได้รับมอบหมายได้สำเร็จด้วยตนเอง)					

1.3.2 Personal Capability (ความสามารถในการเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองของผู้เรียน)

	5	4	3	2	1
31. I know the reason why I am or am not good at reading. (ฉันรู้สาเหตุที่ทำให้ฉันสามารถ/ไม่สามารถ อ่านได้ดี)					

	5	4	3	2	1
32. I know my learning style and I can find appropriate learning methods and techniques for myself. (ฉันรู้รูปแบบการเรียนรู้ที่เหมาะกับตนเอง และฉันสามารถหาวิธีและเทคนิคในการเรียนให้กับตนเองได้อย่างเหมาะสม)					
33. I cannot tell about what I have learned. (ฉันไม่สามารถบอกได้ว่าได้เรียนรู้สิ่งใดไปบ้างแล้ว)					
34. When encountering reading problems, I am able to overcome the difficulty quite well. (เมื่อประสบปัญหาในการทำความเข้าใจในเนื้อเรื่องที่อ่าน ฉันสามารถหาวิธีแก้ปัญหาได้ และสามารถทำความเข้าใจ ความหมายของเรื่องที่อ่านได้)					
35. I can take a role of the effective independent readers of both in and out of class. (ฉันสามารถเป็นผู้อ่านเองได้อย่างมีประสิทธิภาพทั้งในและนอกห้องเรียน)					

Part 2: Learner Autonomy Level Scale (ระดับความสามารถในการเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเอง)

2.1. General Readiness for Learner Autonomy (ความพร้อมทั่วไปในการเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเอง)

	5	4	3	2	1
36. I have a good effort to seek for knowledge I want to know. (ฉันมีความพยายามที่จะค้นคว้าหาความรู้ที่ต้องการจะทราบได้ดี)					
*37. I like teacher to be my supporter all the time so that I can be confident in my learning. (ฉันชอบให้ผู้สอนเป็นที่พึ่งเกี่ยวกับการเรียนได้ตลอดเวลา เพื่อความมั่นใจในการเรียน)					
38. I am confident that I can well manage the time for learning. (ฉันเชื่อมั่นว่าสามารถบริหารเวลาเรียนได้เป็นอย่างดี)					
39. I learn a lot working by myself. (ฉันเรียนรู้ได้มากโดยการเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเอง)					
40. I prefer classes where I can decide what will be learned, and how to learn. (ฉันชอบชั้นเรียนที่ฉันสามารถมีส่วนร่วมในการตัดสินใจว่าควรเรียนอะไร และเรียนด้วยวิธีใด)					
41. I know what I want to learn in English class. (ฉันรู้ว่าฉันต้องการเรียนรู้อะไรในชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ)					

2.2. Independent work in language learning (กิจกรรมเพื่อการเรียนรู้ภาษาโดยอิสระ)

	5	4	3	2	1
42. I know that English learning involves lot of self-study. (ฉันรู้ว่าการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษต้องอาศัยการเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองมากพอสมควร)					
43. If language class is not useful, I can learn on my own. (ถ้าฉันไม่ได้ประโยชน์อะไรจากชั้นเรียน ฉันสามารถเรียนรู้ได้ด้วยตนเอง)					
*44. I do not like to seek additional knowledge outside class if the teacher does not tell me to do so. (ฉันไม่ชอบค้นคว้าหาความรู้เพิ่มเติมนอกชั้นเรียนถ้าผู้สอนไม่บอกให้ทำ)					
45. I preview before the class. (ฉันเตรียมตัวก่อนเข้าชั้นเรียน)					
46. I keep a record of my study, such as keeping a diary, writing a review, etc. (ฉันจดบันทึกเกี่ยวกับการเรียนรู้ของตนเอง เช่น การทำบันทึกส่วนตัว, เขียนทบทวนเนื้อหา และอื่นๆ)					
47. I make good use of my free time in English study such as attending a self-access center, English lab, etc. (ฉันใช้เวลาว่างให้เป็นประโยชน์ในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ เช่นเข้าร่วมศูนย์การเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเอง, ห้องปฏิบัติการทางภาษาอังกฤษ ฯลฯ)					

2.3. Students' attitudes toward teacher's roles (เจตคติของผู้เรียนที่มีต่อบทบาทของผู้สอน)

	5	4	3	2	1
48. I think a lot of language learning can be done without a teacher. (ฉันคิดว่าการเรียนภาษาโดยมากสามารถเรียนรู้ได้โดยปราศจากการสอนโดยผู้สอน)					
*49. I want a teacher to explain grammar and vocabulary in detail. (ฉันต้องการให้ผู้สอนอธิบายไวยากรณ์และคำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษโดยละเอียด)					
50. I think a teacher should be a counselor instead of controller who takes overall responsibility for student's learning. (ฉันคิดว่าครูควรทำหน้าที่เป็นที่ปรึกษาแทนที่จะเป็นผู้ควบคุมการเรียนการสอนทั้งหมดของนักเรียน)					
*51. I think the best way to learn a language is by the teacher's explanations. (ฉันคิดว่าการเรียนภาษาโดยมีผู้สอนคอยให้คำอธิบายเป็นการเรียนภาษาที่ดีที่สุด)					
*52. I think a teacher should decide on course content for language classes. (ฉันคิดว่าผู้สอนควรเป็นผู้เลือกเนื้อหาในการสอนภาษาในชั้นเรียน)					
*53. I think a teacher should choose materials for language classes. (ฉันคิดว่าผู้สอนควรเป็นผู้เลือกสื่อการสอนสำหรับใช้ในชั้นเรียนภาษา)					

2.4. Students' attitudes toward self-evaluation and external assessment (เจตคติของผู้เรียนต่อการประเมินตนเอง และการประเมินจากภายนอก)

*54. I feel uncertain if I am asked to assess my language work. (ฉันรู้สึกไม่มั่นใจถ้ามีผู้ขอให้ฉันประเมินงานเกี่ยวกับภาษาของตนเอง)					
55. I make self-exam with the exam papers chosen by myself outside the classroom. (ฉันทดสอบตนเองด้วยข้อสอบที่ฉันเลือกด้วยตนเองจากภายนอกห้องเรียน)					
*56. I only work on an exercise if I have to hand it in. (ฉันจะทำแบบฝึกหัดก็ต่อเมื่อต้องส่งผู้สอน)					
57. I feel that exams motivate me to work hard in language learning. (ฉันรู้สึกว่าการสอบกระตุ้นให้ฉันขยันในการเรียนภาษา)					
58. I think that self-evaluation can improve my language learning to certain degree. (ฉันคิดว่าการประเมินตนเองช่วยทำให้ภาษาอังกฤษของฉันดีขึ้นในระดับหนึ่ง)					
*59. I think that a language exercise is only worth doing if it is marked. (ฉันคิดว่าฉันจะทำแบบฝึกหัดภาษาอังกฤษก็ต่อเมื่อเป็นแบบฝึกหัดที่ได้คะแนน)					

Part 3: Students' attitudes toward ERLAT course (เจตคติของผู้เรียนต่อชั้นเรียนการอ่านนอกเวลาโดยใช้การฝึกการเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเอง (ERLAT)

60. I think ERLAT course improves my reading skill. (ฉันคิดว่าวิชานี้ทำให้ทักษะการอ่านของฉันดีขึ้น)					

	5	4	3	2	1
61. I think ERLAT course has increased my confidence to read. (ฉันคิดว่าวิชานี้เพิ่มความมั่นใจในการอ่านของฉัน)					
62. The classroom atmosphere supports my effective reading. (บรรยากาศการอ่านในห้องเรียนเอื้ออำนวยให้ฉันอ่านอย่างมีประสิทธิภาพ)					
63. The classroom activities support my effective reading. (กิจกรรมในห้องเรียนส่งเสริมให้ฉันอ่านอย่างมีประสิทธิภาพ)					
64. I benefit from reading strategies I have learned from ERLAT Course. (ฉันได้รับประโยชน์จากกลวิธีการอ่านที่ฉันได้เรียนรู้จากหลักสูตรนี้)					
65. ERLAT course encourages me to read more. (วิชานี้กระตุ้นให้ฉันอ่านมากขึ้น)					
66. I benefit from guidelines that my teacher gives me during ERLAT Course. (ฉันได้รับประโยชน์จากแนวทางที่ผู้สอนให้ฉันระหว่างการเรียนในหลักสูตร)					
67. I use reading strategies I have learned from ERLAT course to overcome difficulties that I find while reading (ฉันใช้กลวิธีการอ่านที่เรียนรู้จากวิชานี้เพื่อแก้ไขอุปสรรคที่พบระหว่างการอ่าน)					
68. After ERAT course, I know how to manage my language learning. (หลังจากจบวิชานี้ ฉันรู้วิธีจัดการการเรียนภาษาได้ด้วยตนเอง)					
69. After ERLAT course, I think I become autonomous reader. (หลังจากจบวิชานี้ ฉันคิดว่าฉันสามารถเป็นผู้ที่สามารถอ่านได้ด้วยตนเอง)					

Thank you very much for your co-operation

ขอขอบคุณในความร่วมมือ

Adapted from Broady (1996); Charubusp (2010); Confessore (2000); O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990); Swatevacharkul (2006)

<u>Appendix E</u>

Learner Autonomy Interview Questions

1. Which strategies do you often/rarely used while reading outside the class?
   (กลวิธีใดบ้างที่นักศึกษา ใช้บ่อย/แทบไม่ได้ใช้ ในการอ่านนอกชั้นเรียน)

2. When a teacher assigns you to write a bookworm's diary, do you know what is it and why it is significant for your learning?
   (เมื่อครูมอบหมายให้นักศึกษาเขียน Bookworm Diary นักศึกษาทราบหรือไม่ว่ามันคืออะไร และทำไมมันมีความสำคัญต่อการเรียนของนักศึกษา)

    2.1 What do you normally do before you start reading extensively and writing a bookworm's diary?
    (ก่อนเริ่มอ่านหนังสืออ่านนอกเวลาและเขียน Bookworm Diary นักศึกษามักจะทำสิ่งใดก่อน)

    2.2 While reading and writing a bookworm's diary, have you encountered any problems and how did you solve these problems?
    (ขณะกำลังอ่านหนังสือนอกเวลา และเขียน Bookworm Diary นักศึกษาพบปัญหาอะไรบ้างและแก้ไขปัญหาเหล่านั้นอย่างไร)

    2.3 After you complete a bookworm's diary, do you make other self-assessment?
    (หลังจากเขียน Bookworm Diary เสร็จเรียบร้อยแล้ว นักศึกษาได้ทำการประเมินตนเองด้วยวิธีการอื่นอีกหรือไม่)

3. After finishing the course, can you take responsibility for your own reading? How?
   (หลังจากเรียนวิชานี้จนจบแล้ว นักศึกษาสามารถรับผิดชอบการอ่านได้ด้วยตนเองหรือไม่? เหตุผล)

4. Do you have more confident to learn independently? Why?
   (นักศึกษามีความมั่นใจในการเรียนอย่างอิสระ(ด้วยตนเอง)หรือไม่? เหตุผล)

5. After finished the course, are you ready to become autonomous learner? How?
   (หลังจากเรียนวิชานี้จนจบแล้ว นักศึกษามีความพร้อมจะเป็นผู้เรียนที่เรียนรู้ได้ด้วยตนเองหรือไม่? อย่างไร?)

6. What do you do in your free time to improve your language learning?
   (เมื่อนิสิตมีเวลาว่าง นักศึกษาทำอะไรบ้างเพื่อพัฒนาการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษให้ดียิ่งขึ้น)

7. What is/are your expectation (s) toward teacher's roles in language learning?
   (นักศึกษามีความคาดหวังต่อบทบาทของครูต่อการเรียนรู้ภาษาอย่างไรบ้าง)

8. Can you assess your learning progress? How?
   (นักศึกษาสามารถประเมินความก้าวหน้าทางการเรียนรู้ของตนเองได้หรือไม่ อย่างไร)

9. What are the benefits of this course? What should be improved?
   (วิชานี้มีประโยชน์อะไรบ้าง มีสิ่งใดบ้างที่ควรได้รับการปรับปรุง)

Appendix F

Bookworm's Diary

ชื่อ _____ เลขประจำตัวนิสิต _____ วันที่_____ ครั้งที่ ____

1. ชื่อหนังสือ: _____ 2. ระดับความยาก_____

3. ชื่อผู้แต่ง: _____ 4. สำนักพิมพ์ _____

<u>การวางแผนก่อนการอ่านนอกเวลา</u>

5. จำนวนหน้าที่จะอ่าน:_____ หน้า 6. เวลาที่จะใช้ในการอ่าน: _____

7. วัตถุประสงค์ของการอ่านในครั้งนี้ _____

_____

<u>การสังเกต การเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองระหว่างการอ่านนอกเวลา</u>

8. ปัญหาหาหรืออุปสรรคที่พบระหว่างการอ่าน _____

_____

9. คุณแก้ปัญหาด้วยวิธีใด _____

_____

10. คุณใช้กลวิธีการอ่าน (Reading strategies) อ่านแบบใด เพื่อช่วยทำความเข้าใจเนื้อเรื่องที่อ่าน และช่วยพัฒนาการอ่านของคุณให้ดีขึ้น _____

_____

11. วิธีดังกล่าวได้ผลหรือไม่ _____ ได้ _____ ไม่ได้

12. ถ้าไม่ได้ผลคุณคิดว่าเป็นเพราะเหตุใด

_____

_____

13. คุณวางแผนที่จะแก้ปัญหาในครั้งต่อไป อย่างไร_____

_____

_____

1

14. คุณคิดว่าในการอ่านหนังสือเล่มต่อไป คุณจะทำอย่างไรเพื่อให้สามารถอ่านได้เข้าใจจนจบ และมีปัญหาในการอ่านน้อยที่สุด

_____

_____

_____

<u>การประเมินตนเองหลังการอ่านนอกเวลา</u>

14. จำนวนหน้าที่อ่านได้ในครั้งนี้ _____ หน้า   15. เวลาที่ใช้ไปในการอ่าน _____

16. สิ่งที่คุณได้จากการอ่านในครั้งนี้เป็นไปตามวัตถุประสงค์ที่ตั้งไว้ หรือไม่ อย่างไร _____

_____

_____

17. ระดับความยากของหนังสือเล่มนี้ ___ยากเกินไป ___เหมาะสมกับฉันแล้ว ___ง่าย ___ง่ายเกินไป

18. ความเข้าใจในเนื้อหาของหนังสือเล่มนี้ ___0% ___25% ___50% ___75% ___100%

19. คะแนนความพอใจที่ให้กับตนเองจากการพัฒนาทักษะการอ่าน ที่ได้ในครั้งนี้ อยู่ในระดับใด (1-10) _____

20. เนื้อหาโดยย่อของหนังสือเล่มนี้

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<u>การวางแผนในการอ่านนอกเวลาครั้งต่อไป</u>

21. เป้าหมายในการอ่านหนังสือเล่มต่อไป ที่จะทำให้ได้ผลในสัปดาห์ต่อไป_____

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22. คุณวางแผนจะฝึกกลวิธีการอ่าน (Reading strategies) แบบใด ในการอ่านครั้งต่อไป _____

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Appendix G

Teacher Observation Checklist

Course................Class..........................Week........ Topic....................

NO =Not Observed   NI= Need Improvement   S = Satisfactory   O = Outstanding

Learner Autonomy components	Incidents	NO	NI	S	O	Comments
1. Methodological Preparation						
Cognitive strategies	1.1 Students apply different strategies while reading					
	1.2 Students choose suitable reading strategies for different kinds of reading.					
	1.3 Students are able to choose reading materials that şuit their abilities and preferences					
Metacognitive strategies						
Planning	1.4 Students set practical reading objectives beforehand.					
	1.5. Students have clear plans for their weekly reading assignments.					
Monitoring	1.6 Students are able to identify their reading problems while reading.					
	1.7 Students apply different strategies to solve their reading problem.					
Evaluating	1.8 Students revise their plan after they finish their reading.					
	1.9. Students make self-assessment after finishing their reading tasks.					
2. Psychological Preparation						
Attitudes						
Responsibility	2.1 Students finish their reading within their own time frame.					
	2.2 Students participate the activities willingly and enthusiastically without teacher direct intervention.					
	2.3 Students has a strong intention to achieve their plan					
Capability	2.4 Students are confident to read on their own.					
	2.5 Students believe that they can improve their reading skill by themselves.					
	2.6 Students can do their reading assignments independently.					

Additional Comments:

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Date ....../....../.......

Time ....

List of Experts Validating Research Instruments

1. The Research Framework, Instructional Manual and Lesson Plan

      1.1 Asst. Prof. Areerug Mejang, Ph.D. (Naresuan University)

      1.2 Assoc. Prof. Wilairat Kirin, Ph.D. (Nakhon Pathom Rajabhat University)

      1.3. Ajarn Sasima Charubusp, Ph.D. (Mae Fah Luang University)

2. The Learner Autonomy Training Questionnaire/interview

      1.1 Assoc. Prof. Boonsiri Anantasate, Ph.D. (Chula)

      1.2 Asst. Prof. Piyathida Changpueng, Ph.D. (KMITNB)

      1.3 Ajarn Sudsuang Yutthana, Ph.D. (Naresuan Univeristy)

3. Bookworm's Diary/ Teacher Observation Checklist

      1.1 Asst. Prof. Dutsadee Rungratanakul, Ph.D. (Naresuan Uinversity)

      1.2 Ajarn Nittaya Sanguanngarm, Ph.D. (Chiang Mai Rajabhat University)

      1.3 Ajarn Apichai Rungruang, Ph.D. (Naresuan University)

4. The Reading Test

      1.1 Asst. Prof. Jantima Simson, Ph.D. (Naresuan University)

      1.2 Ajarn Supalak Nakornsri, Ph.D. (KMITNB)

      1.3 Ajarn Chutinan Chantarasenanon, Ph.D. (OBEC)

Biography

Ms. Paweena Channuan has been working as an English lecturer for 6 years. She graduated with a Bachelor's Degree in English from Ramkhamhaeng University and a Master's Degree in Applied Linguistics from California State University of Fresno, California, USA. At present, she is working in English Department, Faculty of Humanities at Naresuan University. Her areas of interest involve English instruction, curriculum development, material design, learner autonomy and classroom research.