TEACHERS’ BELIEFS ABOUT TEACHING READING STRATEGIES AND THEIR CLASSROOM PRACTICES: A CASE STUDY OF VIET BA HIGH SCHOOL
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1. Rationale:

English has been widely used in many areas such as politics, economics, tourism, electronics, telecommunication, culture and science and technology. English is not only a means of but also a key to accessing the latest achievements of science and technology. Therefore, it is necessary for many Vietnamese to have a good command of English to satisfy the growing needs in a developing country like Viet Nam.

Reading is an essential skill for English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL). For many, reading is the most important skill to master. With strengthened reading skills, ESL/ EFL readers will make greater progress and attain greater development in all academic areas.

In Vietnam, English is taught and learned in a non–native environment so reading is not only an important means to gain knowledge but also a means by which further study takes place. According to Carrell (1984:1): “for many students, reading is by far the most important of the four macro skills, particularly in English as a second or a foreign language”. This is also true to the students at Viet Ba High School since the reading skill offers them a wide range of interesting information as well as a variety of language expressions and structures which are of great usefulness for developing other language skills.

When dealing with a reading lesson, students often experience the lack of reading strategies which are essential for them to overcome the challenges in the classroom. Research into reading has found that effective readers are aware of the strategies they use and that they use strategies flexibly and efficiently (Garner, 1987; Presley, Beard EL, Dinary & Brown, 1992). Researchers believed that these strategies could be taught to ineffective language learners so that they can become more successful in language
learning. As Oxford (1990:1) states, language learning strategies "... are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed movement, which is essential for developing communicative competence." Therefore, teachers should consider teaching students effective reading strategies, especially showing them how to utilize the skills and knowledge that they bring from their first language in order to cope with reading in the second language.

Besides developing reading proficiency for students, teachers who train students to use reading strategies can also help them become autonomous language learners. As a result, teaching students learning strategies is an important duty of the language teachers since learning strategies can help students monitor and take charge of their own learning. Helping students understand good language learning strategies and training them to develop and use such good language learning strategies can be considered to be the appreciated characteristics of a good language teacher (Lessard-Clouston, 1997:3).

Research into teachers’ beliefs generally show that teachers have their own beliefs / cognitions / theories about teaching and learning which might have been influenced by their training, work experience and so on. Teachers are not passive recipients of theories but do construct their own theories.

For all of these reasons, it would be necessary to have an investigation into teachers’ beliefs about teaching reading strategies and their classroom practice. By doing so, we could recognize the relationship between teacher beliefs and practice and student learning. Moreover, teachers’ beliefs are related to student learning through some event or sequences of events, mediated by the teachers that happen in the classroom. These events might be said to "cause" student learning in the sense that the events in the classroom lead, in the case of effective teaching, to student learning.

It is hoped that this study will reveal issues concerning teaching reading strategies and provide classroom English teachers with an in – depth understanding about reading strategies to make decisions on how and what they should do to keep their students much more involved in the reading process.
1.2. Aims of the study:

This study aims at exploring teachers’ beliefs about teaching reading strategies and reading strategies instruction by teachers at Viet Ba High School with a view to giving some recommendations on how to instruct reading strategies in reading classrooms effectively. The specific aims of the research are as follows:

- To find out the teacher’s beliefs about teaching reading strategies at Viet Ba High School.
- To examine the extent to which their beliefs are reflected in their reading classes / classroom practices.
- To give recommendations for teaching reading strategies so as to improve students’ ability of reading in English

1.3. Scope of the study:

Learners’ success or failure in acquiring a language can be affected by many intertwining factors. Among these factors, teaching reading strategies should be taken into consideration. However, this study only focuses on the teaching of reading strategies by teachers at Viet Ba High School and some implications for handling these strategies in their classrooms.

1.4. Significance of the study:

The study highlights the important role of teachers’ beliefs and the important role of teaching reading strategies to students in general and students at Viet Ba High School in particular. More importantly, it offers the theoretical basis for the application of reading techniques in the classroom.
1.5. Research methods used in the study:

To achieve the aims mentioned above, the study employed interview and class observation to collect information on teachers’ beliefs about teaching reading strategies and their classroom practice.

1.6. Organization of the thesis:

The thesis is divided into five chapters.

Chapter 1 is the Introduction which presents the rationale for conducting the study, the scope of the study, its significance, aims as well as research methods.

Chapter 2 provides a theoretical framework for the study, including definitions and types of reading, issues in teaching reading skills and reading strategies, teachers’ beliefs and their classroom practices.

Chapter 3 reports the methodology used in the research including research questions, participants, instruments and the procedures for data collection and analysis.

Chapter 4 reports and discusses the major findings.

Chapter 5 is the last part of the study, “Conclusion” that summarizes what is addressed in the study, points out the limitations, draws pedagogical implications and provides some suggestions for further study.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews theories related to reading and reading activities in general and reading strategies in particular. It also reviews current research on teachers’ beliefs and classroom practice and summarizes some studies on teachers’ beliefs about teaching reading strategies that have been conducted so far. All of these serve as a basis for an investigation into teachers’ beliefs about teaching reading strategies and their classroom practices which is carried out and presented in the next chapter.

2.1. Reading and reading activities:

2.1.1. Definition and types of reading:

Reading is a completely individual activity which takes place in all different ways from reading newspapers, magazines, written texts, telephone directories, labels on medicine bottles, etc. The ability to read is such a natural part of human beings that they seldom try to define reading. However, there are still different points of views on what reading is.

These views are often grouped under three different reading models named the bottom – up, the top – down and the interactive ones.

2.1.1.1. Bottom – up model:

According to the bottom – up model, reading was viewed as “the process of meaning interpretation” in which “the language is translated from one form of symbolic representation to another” (Nunan, 1991). It was also understood as the process of recognizing the printed letters and words and building up a meaning from the smallest textual units at the bottom (letter and words) to larger units at the top (phrases, clauses, intersentential linkages) (Rivers 1964, 1968; Plaister 1968; Yorio 1971). In other words, in the bottom – up model, the reader begins with the written text (the bottom) and constructs meaning from letters, words, phrases and sentences found within, and then
processes the text in a linear fashion. Clearly, in the view of this driven model, the reader seems to play a relatively passive role because the basis of bottom – up processing is the linguistic knowledge of the reader.

Samuel and Kamil (188: 31) pointed out the shortcomings of these models as follows:

“Because of the lack of feedback loops in the early bottom – up models, it was difficult to account for sentence – context effects and the role of prior knowledge of text topic as facilitating variables in word recognition and comprehension”.

Due to this limitation, the bottom – up view of reading fell into disfavor.

2.1.1.2. Top – down model:

In this model, reading was seen as the process in which readers move from the top, the higher level of mental stages down to the text itself. This approach emphasizes the reconstruction of meaning rather than the decoding of form, the interaction between the reader and the text rather than the graphic forms of the printed pages. The reader proves his active role in the reading process by bringing to the interaction his/ her available knowledge of the subject, knowledge of and expectations about how language works, motivation, interest and attitudes towards the content of the text.

According to Ur (1996: 138) “reading means reading and understanding” and according to Anderson (1999: 1) “reading is not a passive process but an active fluent process which involves the reader and the reading material in building meaning”. What is more, meaning of the reading materials does not reside on the printed page, nor it is only in the head of the reader. A synergy occurs in reading which is the combination of the words on the printed page with the reader’s background knowledge and experiences.

Apparently, the strong points of top – down models outnumber those of the bottom – up as the reader – the center of the reading process – proves his active role. However, for some researchers, these models still reveal certain shortcomings. Stanovich (1988) stated that “the generation of hypotheses would actually be more time – consuming than decoding” and Eskey (1988: 93) believed that “in making the perfectly valid point that fluent reading is primarily a cognitive process, they (N.B: researchers who approved top
– down models) tend to deemphasize the perceptual and decoding dimensions of that process”.

Due to limitations of both bottom – up and top – down models, a new and more insightful reading process has been proposed under the name of interactive model.

2.1.1.3. Interactive model:

Interactive theorists appreciate the role of prior knowledge and prediction, and at the same time emphasize the importance of rapid and accurate processing of the actual words of the text.

According to Hayes (1991: 7) “in interactive models, different processes are thought to be responsible for providing information that is shared with other processes. The information obtained from each type of processing is combined to determine the most appropriate interpretation of the printed pages”.

To sum up, the arrival and popularity of interactive models show that interactive models can maximize the strengths and minimizes the weaknesses of born bottom – up and top – down models.

2.1.2. Characteristics of an effective reader:

Research has generally shown that an effective reader knows how to use reading strategies that work for himself / herself. According to Wassman and Rinsky (1993: 5), an effective reader needs ‘an understanding of the reading process and an understanding of how to go about reading different types of printed information’. In this way, a second or foreign learner can practice techniques that will help to succeed in becoming an effective reader. Besides, they also point out two necessary ingredients for an effective reader, i.e. the willingness to change reading habits that limit the learner’s reading ability and the willingness to practice. Apart from this, there are other factors helping second or foreign language readers to become effective:
• Organize properly for reading and study: this requirement forces the reader to understand the importance of disciplined study so that they can appropriately time to devote to reading and study.

• Improve the concentration: actually concentration is important to learning in general and learning in particular for the fact that readers need to comprehend the printed information.

• Maintain confidence: confident reading is chiefly the result of preparation. Without this, readers can’t become effective readers.

2.1.3. Teaching reading skills:

In an article about teaching reading, Bamford and Day (1998: 124 -141) state that around the world there are at least four distinctive approaches to the teaching of foreign or second language reading: grammar – translation, comprehension questions, skills and strategies and extensive reading.

• Grammar – translation: Under this approach, students may be taught to read texts written in the foreign language by translating them into the native language. As a result, meaning is taken at the sentence level with less attention paid to the meaning of the text as a whole and meaning is constructed via the native language, not directly from the foreign language.

• Comprehension questions and language work: This approach focuses on teaching a textbook containing short passages that demonstrate the use of foreign language words or points of grammar. These texts, short enough to encourage students to read them word by word, are followed by comprehension questions and exercises.

• Skills and strategies: to follow skills and strategies approach, the teacher has to prepare for students to read a one or two - page passage from a textbook by providing or activating any background knowledge needed for comprehension. This preparation may include pre – teaching vocabulary that appears in the
reading passage. Students then read the passage silently while keeping in mind two or three while reading questions.

- Extensive reading: The goal of this is for students to become willing and able readers in a second or foreign language. Students individually read books and other materials at their own speed mainly for homework.

2.2. Reading strategies:

2.2.1. Defining strategies:

Learning strategies are defined as “specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques - such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task - used by students to enhance their own learning” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992: 63). In other words, they are mental a communicative procedure learners use in order to learn and use a language (Nunan, 1991). When the learner consciously chooses strategies that fit his or her learning style and the L2 task at hand, these strategies become a useful toolkit for active, conscious, and purposeful self-regulation of learning.

Language Learning Strategies have been classified by many scholars (Wenden and Rubin 1987; O'Malley et al. 1985; Oxford 1990; Stern 1992; Ellis 1994, etc.). For example, Rubin (1987) classified language learning strategies as Learning Strategies, Communication Strategies and Social Strategies. Oxford (1990: 9) divides language learning strategies into two main classes, direct and indirect. The former consists of memory, cognitive and compensation strategies while the latter includes metacognitive, affective and social strategies. However, Oxford’s classification of learning strategies is somewhat complicated and confusing as she treats compensation strategies as a direct type of learning strategies and memory strategies as separate ones from cognitive strategies.

The framework that has been most useful and generally accepted is O’Malley and Chamot (1990)’s. In O’Malley and Chamot’s framework, three major types of strategies named as metacognitive, cognitive and social/affective are distinguished in accordance with the information processing model, on which their research is based. The subtypes of these strategies were identified by O’Malley and Chamot on the basis of their several descriptive studies on learning strategies used by second language learners (see Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning strategies</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Planning</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Advance organizers</td>
<td>Previewing the main ideas and concepts of the material to be learned, often by skimming the text for the organizing principle</td>
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<tr>
<td>Directed attention</td>
<td>Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distracters.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Functional planning</td>
<td>Planning for and rehearsing linguistic components necessary to carry out an upcoming task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selective attention</td>
<td>Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of input, often by scanning for key words, concepts and/or linguistic markers</td>
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<tr>
<td>Self – management</td>
<td>Understanding the conditions that help one learn and arranging for</td>
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<td><strong>Monitoring</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Self – monitoring</td>
<td>Checking one’s comprehension during listening or reading checking the accuracy and/or appropriateness of one’s oral or written production while it is taking place</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Evaluation</strong></th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self – evaluation</td>
<td>Checking the outcomes of one’s own language against a standard after it has been completed</td>
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</table>

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<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>B.COGNITIVE STRATEGIES</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resourcing</td>
<td>Using target language reference materials such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, or textbooks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>Imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grouping</td>
<td>Classifying words, terminology or concepts according to the attributes or meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deduction</td>
<td>Applying rules to understand or produce the second language making up rules based on language analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imagery</td>
<td>Using visual images (either mental or actual) to understand or remember new information</td>
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<tr>
<td>Auditory representation</td>
<td>Planning back in one’s mind the sound of a word, phrase or longer language sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key word method</td>
<td>Remember 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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elaboration</td>
<td>Relating new information to prior knowledge, relating different parts of new information to each other, or making meaningful personal associations with the new information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer</td>
<td>Using previous linguistic knowledge or prior skills to assist comprehension or production.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inferencing</td>
<td>Using available information to guess meaning of new items, predict outcomes or fill in missing information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note taking</td>
<td>Writing down key words or concepts in abbreviated verbal, graphic or numerical form while listening or reading.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarizing</td>
<td>Making a mental, oral or written summary of new information gained through listening or reading.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recombination</td>
<td>Constructing a meaningful sentence or larger language sequence by combining known elements in a new way.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>Using the first language as a base for understanding and/or producing the second language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C.SOCIAL / AFFECTIVE STRATEGIES</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question for clarification</td>
<td>Eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanations, rephrasing, examples or verification.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperation</td>
<td>Working together with one or more peers to solve a problem, pool information, check a learning task, model a language activity, or get feedback on oral or written performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-talk</td>
<td>Reducing anxiety by using mental techniques that make one feel competent to do the learning task.</td>
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2.2.2. *The importance of strategies in the learning process:*

Knowledge of strategies is important because if one is conscious of the processes underlying the learning that s/he is involved in, then the learning will be more effective. The fact showed that learners who are taught learning strategies are more highly motivated than those who are not. However, not all learners automatically know which strategies work best for them. For this reason, explicit strategy training, coupled with thinking about how one goes about learning, and experimenting with different strategies, can lead to more effective learning.
Oxford (1990: 1) argues that strategies are important for two reasons. In the first place, strategies “…are tools for active, self – directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence”. Secondly, learners who have developed appropriate learning strategies have greater self – confidence and learn more effectively. In her book, she identifies twelve key features of strategies. According to Oxford, language learning strategies:

- contribute to the main goal, communicative competence
- allow learners to become more self – directed
- expand the role of teachers
- support learning both directly and indirectly

2.2.3. Strategies in teaching second language reading:

Reading comprehension strategies are seen as comprehension processes that enable readers to construct meaning from the printed page most effectively. In other words, those strategies show how readers tackle a reading task, how they interpret their reading and what they do when they do not comprehend.

Many researchers have similarities in categorizing reading strategies. For example, Anderson (1999), Brantmeier (2002), Almasi (2003) and Sugirin (1999) emphasized the role of prior knowledge in reading. Brantmeier (2002) and Brown (1990) introduced skimming, scanning and guessing as effective strategies in reading. However, there are some differences in their classification.

For instance, Brantmeier (2002: 1) summarizes reading strategies as follows:

“The strategies may involve skimming, scanning, guessing, recognizing cognates and word families, reading for meaning, predicting, activating general knowledge, making inferences, following references, and separating main ideas from supporting ideas”. 
Furthermore, reading strategies can consist of evaluating content, such as agreeing or disagreeing, making an association with prior knowledge or experience, asking and answering questions, looking at the key words, using sentence structure analysis such as determining the subject, verb or object of the sentence, skipping and rereading (Almasi, 2003; Sugirin, 1999). Clearly, not all strategies are of equal effectiveness due to the different types of reading texts and tasks, and reading strategy use by each reader.

Brown (1990: 3) provides strategies that can help students read more quickly and effectively:

- **Previewing**: reviewing titles, section headings and photo captions to get a sense of the structure and content of a reading selection.

- **Predicting**: using knowledge of the subject matter to make predictions about content and vocabulary and check comprehension, using knowledge of the text type and purpose to make predictions about discourse structure, using knowledge about the author to make predictions about writing style, vocabulary and content.

- **Skimming and scanning**: using a quick survey of the text to get the main idea, identify text structure, confirm or question predictions.

- **Guessing from context**: using prior knowledge of the subject and the ideas in the text as clues to the meanings of unknown words, instead of stopping to look them up.

- **Paraphrasing**: stopping at the end of a selection to check comprehension by restarting the information and ideas in the text.

Anderson (1999: 4) introduces six strategies for consideration when teaching reading:
Effective language instructors show students how they can adjust their reading behavior to deal with a variety of situations, types of input, and reading purposes. They help students develop a set of reading strategies and match appropriate strategies to each reading situation.

Finally, these strategies appear to be effective since they help language learners enhance the reading ability.

2.3. Teachers’ beliefs and classroom practice:

2.3.1. Teachers’ beliefs:

People use the word *belief* in a variety of ways. Beliefs are often known as our attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions. Pajares (1992: 4) puts it:

“…Defining beliefs is at best a game of player’s choice. They travel in disguise and often under alias—attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertories of understanding, and social strategy, to name but a few that can be found in the literature.”

Beliefs affect not only how people behave but also what they perceive (or pay attention to) in their environment. Contrary to the old saying “seeing is believing”, it is more likely that “believing is seeing.” When people believe something is true, they perceive
information supporting that belief. Beliefs alter expectations. People perceive what they expect to perceive. (Tara, 1996)

Beliefs are formed early; remain relatively stable, and are resistant to change (Eisenhart, Shrum, Harding, & Cuthbert, 1988; Pajares, 1992). They are hierarchical in nature and arranged to correspond with their attachment to other beliefs (Bem, 1970; Pajares, 1992). Belief systems organize and guide the decisions and actions of teachers (Eisenhart, Shrum, Harding, & Cuthbert, 1988). Belief systems serve as a contextual filter (Kinzer, 1988) or intuitive screen (Goodman, 1988) through which teacher’s processing information from their experiences in the classroom, make sense of them, and modify or adapt subsequent actions (Pajares, 1992).

2.3.2. The role of teachers’ beliefs in language learning and teaching:

In fact, the way teachers think about, understand, and value instruction influences their practice. According to Johnson (1994: 439), research on teachers’ beliefs consists of three basic assumptions: (1) Teachers’ beliefs influence their perception and judgment. (2) Teachers’ beliefs play a role in how information on teaching is translated into classroom practices. (3) Understanding teachers’ beliefs is essential to improving teaching practices and teacher education programs. Because teachers are the critical factor in the implementation of an appropriate approach; their values, attitudes, and beliefs about classroom practices are important.

Classroom practices are based on a logical system of beliefs. Yet past research on teacher practice has focused little attention on the thoughts and beliefs teachers have about their practice (Erickson, 1986; Garner, 1987). Because teachers’ beliefs are central to the instructional strategies they implement, beliefs become one of foremost important factors in driving their actions in class and contributing to the effectiveness of teaching and learning (Fenstermacher, 1979; Feiman-Nemser & Floden, 1983; Stallings & Stipek, 1986). It is important, therefore, to have an understanding of teachers’ belief systems, in order to begin to identify and understand the variables that mediate the difference between teachers’ thinking and practices (Abelson, 1979; Garner, 1987).
2.3.3. The role of teachers’ beliefs in teaching reading strategies:

The relationship between teachers’ beliefs and their classroom practice is that the teachers’ actions can cause students to learn. Teacher beliefs are related to students’ learning through something that the teacher does in the classroom. According to Borg (1999), teachers’ decision in teaching are influenced by a set of complex and conflicting cognitions about language, learning in general, L2 learning and students. Borg provides a graph which presents the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and other factors involved.
Extensive experience of classrooms which defines early cognitions and shapes teachers’ perceptions of initial training may affect existing cognitions although especially when unacknowledged, this may limit its impact.

Schooling → Professional Coursework

Beliefs, knowledge theories, attitudes, images, assumptions, metaphors, conceptions, perspectives. About teaching, teachers, learning, students, subject matter, curricula, materials, Instructional activities, self.

TEACHER COGNITION

Contextual Factors → Classroom practice including practice teaching

Influence practice either by modifying cognitions or else directly, in which case incongruence between cognition and practice may result Defined by the interaction of cognitions and contextual factors. In turn, classroom experience influences cognitions unconsciously and/or through conscious reflection.
The above figure represents a schematic conceptualization of teaching within which teacher cognition plays an essential role. Teacher cognition includes their beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, images and has a close relationship with teacher cognition, teacher learning (both schooling and professional education), and classroom practice. The research also shows that teacher cognition and practice are mutual informing with contextual factors playing an important role in determining the extent to which teachers are able to implement instruction congruent with their cognition.

2.4. Research into teachers’ beliefs about teaching reading strategies:

The impact of teacher cognition in terms of reading strategies has been recognized significantly by many educational researchers.

Foertsch (1998) collected the qualitative data from a local evaluative study about teachers' beliefs about reading and reading instruction. The participants in this study were teachers from primary school to middle school level. He found out some concerns of elementary teachers. These elementary teachers in his study believed that they should emphasize decoding within the context of a story. In middle school level, the teachers believed that good readers had many different strategies and were able to monitor their own comprehension, and no single approach works for everyone so students should be able to respond personally and critically and make connections with a variety of texts.

Liang et al (1998) carried out a study into reading problems and strategies from teacher’s perspective. Their study aimed to find out what one experienced teacher thought were the main reading problems among her primary school pupils and how she helped them cope with their reading problems. It was an initial study to find out whether the in-service teacher was aware of the types of reading strategies she could use to resolve her pupils’ reading problems and the reasons why she employed certain approaches and strategies to tackle the problems she had identified. Liang et al also said that there appeared to be a link between one’s background (both academic and social) and the strategies employed to teach and handle reading in the classroom. The study was based on one case study and it was far-fetched to make any generalizations about reading problems and associated strategies for other teachers. Nevertheless the initial findings might still be useful for both
teacher trainers and curriculum designers in order to provide the potential of teacher training for ELT in teacher training institutions.

Richardson et al (1991) studied the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and practices in reading comprehension instruction. The study, dealing with teachers from grade 4, 5 and 6, used a beliefs interview technique borrowed from anthropology. Predictions about teaching practices were made from the belief interview of 39 teachers and were related to practices observed in their classrooms. The study demonstrated that in most cases, the beliefs of teachers in this sample related to their classroom practices in the teaching of reading comprehension.

However, there are some exceptions. Their study explored a situation in which the teachers’ beliefs did not relate to her practices. They also suggested that the teacher was in the process of changing beliefs and practices, but that the changes in beliefs were preceding changes in practices.

Anderson (1999) told anecdotes of personal life experiences that had influenced his thinking about teaching, learning and reading in a second language. In his book, his teacher-colleagues and their students explained their experiences, attitudes and beliefs about teaching reading to learners in academic focus programs.

He also provided us the opportunities to explore our own beliefs through reflecting, experimenting and learners' responses to the teaching strategies offered. He outlined the theoretical underpinnings of the teaching strategy and its importance in a reading program for second language learners. To this he added a treasure trove of teaching suggestions and activities for each of the recommended strategies. These were detailed guidelines for teaching sequences that scaffold learners' development of effective reading skills and strategies for academic purposes. The teaching strategies instructed learners quite explicitly on the purpose and value of the reading strategy or skill, supported learners as they applied it, and helped them to evaluate its effectiveness for themselves. Anderson's teacher—colleagues commented candidly on the effectiveness of these teaching strategies for their own learners.
Overall, there have been a number of studies into teachers’ beliefs about reading strategies. However, there has been little research into teachers’ beliefs about teaching reading strategies. This is the gap that the current thesis study tries to bridge. By using O’Malley and Chamot’s scheme to investigate teachers’ beliefs about teaching reading strategies and their classroom practices, this study hopes to add further evidence to the small but growing body of research on this topic.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research methodology

3.1.1. Research questions:

This study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What are teachers’ beliefs about reading strategies and teaching reading strategies?

2. To what extent do their classroom practices reflect their beliefs?

3.1.2. Informants:

The study was carried out to investigate six teachers of English at Viet Ba High School. Four of them have been teaching English for more than 5 years and two of them have been teaching English for 1 year. Two of them graduated from Russian department, one of them graduated from French Department and they got English as the 2nd Degree. Three of them graduated from English Department. Two of them attended two workshops on teaching writing and speaking by British Council and EFL. Two of them never attended any postgraduate studies or workshops on teaching methodology (see Table 2).
Table 2: Background information about the participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Numbers of years of teaching English</th>
<th>Extra degree or workshops</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>2\textsuperscript{nd} Degree of English</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>2\textsuperscript{nd} Degree of English</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2 Methodology workshops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>2\textsuperscript{nd} Degree of English</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2 Methodology workshops</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Regular English</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2 Methodology workshops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Regular English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2 Methodology workshops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Regular English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.3. Instruments:

3.1.3.1. Pre - interview:

A semi-structured interview was constructed and used to examine and probe teachers’ beliefs about reading strategies. In designing the interview questions, the author first assumed that teachers’ knowledge and beliefs can be best characterized as personal or tacit rather than propositional in form (Feiman-Nemser & Flooden, 1983). That is,
personal knowledge is more likely stored and reported in the form of stories and incidents (Smith, Edelsky, Draper, Rottenberg, & Cherland, 1991). The author further assumed that such personal knowledge is best ascertained through soliciting examples and stories from teachers and then inferring knowledge and beliefs from this case knowledge (Richardson, Anders, Tidwell & Lloyd, 1991; Smith & Shepard, 1988). Informal and clinical interviewing methods (McCracken, 1988; Polkinghome, 1988) are best suited to these principles about the nature of teacher beliefs and knowledge and the ways to elicit them. In this type of interviewing, the researcher starts with an agenda, or list of general topics to cover, as well as an opening statement and open-ended question designed to elicit the participants' perspectives without sensitizing the participants to any hypotheses of the researcher. The content, feeling, and word choice of the participants' initial response then become the structuring mechanisms for the next phase in the interview. As the interview progresses through mutual negotiation, the researcher’s agenda is covered naturally. If not, in the later stages of the interview, more direct questioning can broach the remaining topics.

In this study, the interview agenda (see Appendix 1) was developed after an initial review of the literature, and informal talk with teachers. Most of the interviews lasted 20 - 30 minutes; a few took a little longer. The interviews were semi-structured and took place in each teacher’s classroom at a time convenient for the teacher. Since the purpose of the interview was to have an in depth understanding of the teachers’ belief about teaching reading strategies, the individual interviews were guided by an individualized set of questions. The questions were developed before the interview and necessary modifications and additions to the questions were made as the interview was being conducted. Each interview was audio taped and transcribed for subsequent analysis.

Because all teachers are Vietnamese, the interviews were conducted in Vietnamese so that teachers would feel free to talk about teaching reading strategies in a relaxed atmosphere. Then the interviews were translated into English for analysis.
3.1.3.2. Classroom observation:

Data on teachers’ classroom practices were collected via classroom observations (see Appendix 3 for the observation scheme). Three observations of reading lessons were conducted for each of the six teachers. During observations, the researcher was an observer and did not take part in any classroom activity. At first, the presence of the observer made the atmosphere in the reading classes unnatural but when the classes were familiar with it, the researcher found that the atmosphere became more natural during each observation. Field notes on the teacher’s use of reading strategies were taken. After each observation was completed, the researcher shared the observation notes and interpretations with the teacher to check if the researcher’s interpretations about the classroom activities were accurate.

3.1.3.3. Post interviews:

Post interviews were selected for use in this study because they allowed to probe further into teachers’ beliefs and helped the researcher to clarify points which were observed, thus avoiding a misinterpretation of the observation data. In post interviews, the researcher wished to find out the objectives of the lessons, the reasons beyond activities that the teacher used in the lesson and teachers’ ways of conducting the reading lessons that were observed. The interviews were also conducted in Vietnamese and then transcribed into English for analysis.

3.1.3.4. Procedure:

Data were collected and analyzed in the following steps:

- Interviewing the teachers at Viet Ba High School.

- Analyzing the interviews by looking for and grouping the common and recurrent themes in the data.

- Based on the interview data, identifying the contents to observe in teachers’ actual classroom practice.
- Collecting the data on teachers’ practices via observations.

- Analyzing observation data based on the observation scheme.

- Interviewing teachers about the observed data.

- Comparing the results of real class observation with teachers’ beliefs.
CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Teachers’ beliefs:

This section addresses the research question “What are teachers’ beliefs about reading strategies and teaching reading strategies?” It was based on the interview data collected from six teachers at Viet Ba High School. In this section, the researcher used only the English translation of the interview extracts.

4.1.1. Teachers’ beliefs about reading strategies:

In general, most of the teachers were aware of the reading strategies, their contents and importance. Brantmeier (2002:1) defined reading strategies as “the comprehension processes that readers use in order to make sense of what they read”. This process may involve skimming, scanning, guessing, recognizing cognates and word families, reading for meaning, predicting, activating general knowledge, making inferences, following references and separating main ideas from supporting ones (Barnet, 1988). Most of the teachers in this study shared the same concept. They defined reading strategies as:

“…the techniques used by readers to read the text effectively.” (Teacher 1)

“...what readers use to understand thoroughly what they are reading.”(Teachers 2, 3 and 4).

“…the strategies readers use to understand different kinds of reading texts and these strategies help readers do reading comprehension tasks with the best results.” (Teacher 5).

“essential skills (as the skills for guessing words, getting main ideas..) that readers use to enhance their own reading (fast reading, reading in a limited time) to achieve desired goals or objectives. (Teacher 6)
4.1.2. Teachers’ beliefs about teaching reading strategies:

To answer the question: “Do you often teach students reading strategies? What are they? Why?” all six teachers emphasized the importance of teaching reading strategies in reading lessons:

“Normally, reading is a difficult skill which could only be improved after a long time. Background knowledge, vocabulary and grammar competence could be important factors to have an adequate understanding but without reading strategies, students could hardly complete the reading tasks in a limited time” (Teachers 3 and 4.)

“Sometimes, thanks to having effective reading strategies, some students could finish the reading tasks in a limit period of time without having to understand some irrelevant distracters”. (Teachers 1 and 2).

By this, they all meant the necessity of teaching reading strategies to students. For example, a teacher was concerned that although students know how to read in their first language, they do not offer transfer these skills to cope with reading in the second language:

“Teachers are often frustrated by the fact that students did not transfer the strategies they used when reading in their native language to reading in English. Instead, students seem to think reading means going word by word, stopping to look up every unknown vocabularies item until they finish reading.” (Teacher 5)

Another teacher discussed the difficulties students have to face when they were not aware of reading strategies.

“Students are relying exclusively on their linguistic knowledge. It can be a bad habit and students would have many difficulties when they have a long text or a text with many terminologies.” (Teacher 6)

Thus, according to the teachers, to help students overcome these kinds of challenges, it is important to help them build up their own reading strategies.
“Students should be taught the reading strategies so that they could apply different strategies for different reading texts”. (Teacher 1)

On the one hand, students should know about reading strategies. On the other hand, the teachers believed that teachers’ role in teaching reading strategies is also very important:

“Teachers should take into account the necessary reading strategies to teach. Therefore, students could develop a set of reading strategies and match appropriate strategies to each reading material”. (Teacher 3)

However, when discussing the methods of teaching reading often used in their classrooms, four teachers said that they were paying attention to solving the learning tasks and how to get students to do the tasks well without teaching students how to deal with different texts.

“I am asking students to do the tasks in while – reading stage and how to do the tasks fast to get the answer”. (Teacher 2)

In short, all six teachers in this study acknowledged the importance of teaching reading strategies to students “to enhance their reading skills”(teacher 4). This is because if students were “just reading every word from the reading text and doing all the tasks” (teacher 5), it seemed that they would not be able to improve their own reading.

4.1.3. Teachers’ beliefs about the appropriate reading strategies for enhancing and supporting the development of students’ reading skills:

Metacognitive awareness:

Discussing the effective reading strategies that aimed to develop students’ reading proficiency, two teachers in this study reported asking students to preview the headings, illustrations and the text before reading. The students, therefore, were prepared for the coming text. Then they asked students to skim the text; read the comprehension questions to know what to focus on before reading in details; scan for key words or skip inessential words.
“Normally, I ask students to have a quick look at the title of the reading text or pictures (if have) to guess the content of the text” (Teacher 3)

“They are told to read the comprehension questions before reading, underline key words before they read.” (Teacher 4)

According to these two teachers, these activities are very important to form the essential reading skills for the students. O’Malley and Chamot (1990) classified these activities as metacognitive strategies and they were named advanced organizers, directed attention and selective attention respectively.

The other three teachers reported also asking students to preview the text and brainstorm some words relating to the reading text. They believed that by doing so, they could elicit students’ background knowledge about the text. These activities could be categorized as advanced organizers and functional planning (O’Malley and Chamot: 1990).

For example:

“I often ask students to look at the headings or illustrations to guess what they are going to read, then I ask them to brainstorm the words that may happen in the text” (Teachers 3, 4 and 5)

However, one teacher said she only focused on solving the reading tasks without employing any of the above strategies. She tried to direct students to the content of the reading text: new words and new structures and hardly taught students reading strategies though she still emphasized the importance of teaching reading strategies to students. She mentioned some difficulties when teaching reading strategies to her reading class which will be discussed later.

**Cognitive awareness:**

All the six teachers reported using the strategies such as elaboration, inferencing, translation and summarizing that O’Malley and Chamot (1990) classified as cognitive strategies.
For example:

“I often elicit students’ background knowledge of the reading text or ask students guess the content of new words by using related information” (Teacher 4)

“Students are asked to do the post - reading by translating the reading text, summarizing the text in oral or written form” (Teachers 1 and 2)

By inferencing, some teachers implied that they expected students not just to understand the words but to:

“be able to express the words in a different way”. (Teacher 3)

“relate new information to old information” (Teacher 4)

Another strategy reported to be used in the post – reading was summarizing. It could be done in spoken or written form. Four teachers shared the idea that it was very important for students to know how to synthesize new information gained through reading. Moreover, this strategy was perceived to be important in a sense that “when students could summarize the content or main ideas of the text, they must have something in their mind. Therefore, they could remember key words or main ideas” (Teacher 1) Also, the teachers “can develop or improve students’ knowledge about the issues presented in the reading text”. (Teacher 2)

Some teachers admitted that they used translation strategy as the way “to get the full understanding from the students” (teacher 5) but few of them used this at the beginning of the reading lesson due to the fact that “this could cause the laziness from students when everything was clear to them” (teacher 6). At that time, “guessing meaning of words or content would become meaningless” (teacher 5).
Social/ affective awareness:

Results from the interviews indicated that six teachers usually used pair work or group work in reading activities. According to teachers, some students may be shy to speak and afraid of making mistakes in front of the class so “peer, whole class, groups and pair discussion should be encouraged to minimize their anxiety” (Teachers 3 and 4). What is more, this strategy was thought to be effective since “it creates opportunities for students to work together to solve a task or get feedback” (Teacher 5)

Another social strategy was reported to be used by six teachers. That was question for clarification. Teachers believed that:

“Students should be encouraged to ask teachers or their classmates for what they do not understand” (Teachers 3, 4 and 5)

“Students always ask their partners to explain new words or new information and I encourage them to do that. They could have a chance to learn form their friends” (Teacher 6)

Only two teachers indicated the need of teaching self – talk to students to reduce anxiety, especially for low level students. Usually, teachers reported letting students solve the learning tasks without paying attention to their mental problems.

I myself think that pair work and group work are good examples of social strategy since they encouraged the cooperation between students as active readers. For low level students, it is necessary to encourage them to make questions for the teachers and even their friends to get explanations or examples for what they have not understood. It is also important to teach students to use self – talk strategy. Low level students always felt lack of confidence to do the learning tasks and must depend much on the help from teachers or other advanced learners.
4.2. Teachers’ actual classroom practices:

This section addresses the research question “To what extent do teachers’ classroom practices reflect their beliefs?” It was based on the data of classroom observations with 6 teachers.

4.2.1. Metacognitive strategies:

According to O’Malley and Chamot (1990: 119), metacognitive strategies can be divided into 3 stages: planning, monitoring and evaluation. Table 3 shows the use of metacognitive strategies by 6 teachers in two periods of their classes.

Two teachers introduced metacognitive strategies with such activities as skimming, scanning, brainstorming and picture word association. This can be seen in class of teachers 3 and 4 where most strategies were introduced.

As table 3 shows, metacognitive strategy was taught quite frequently. Six teachers focused on advance organizers, directed attention and selective attention. In class of teachers 5 and 6, directed attention strategy was used from five to ten minutes. These teachers asked students to ignore some irrelevant distracters in the reading texts as new words or structures to pay attention to the learning tasks. It was useful for students and they could move to the reading text without being upset by many new distracters.

This was also the trend with teachers 3 and 4 who directed their focus on directed attention, functional planning and selective attention strategies. When being asked why they chose to do these strategies, teachers explained they used these strategies to prepare students for the reading material. Advance organizers, for example, was thought to be effective for learners to get the main ideas before reading.

In the classes of teachers 1 and 2, teachers taught students to read comprehension questions before reading and highlighted the key words in the questions. The author observed that the students in these classes initially knew how to direct their attention to the reading tasks with the teacher’s instructions.
Although in the interview, all six teachers believed all metacognitive strategies are effective in helping students improve their reading skill; however, in their real classroom practices, only some strategies were taught: directed attention (6 classes), functional planning (3 classes), advanced organizers (2 classes), selective attention (2 classes). In post interviews, two teachers explained that they did not have time to teach these strategies. Most of the time they used translation to help students understand the content of the text. What they could do more was to help students remember the new information in the reading text. These two teachers were older people who, perhaps, minded to apply new method of teaching. Another reason was that they were not trained about these strategies in the past. Other teachers said the reading tasks in the textbook are not varied. That is why they only teach some certain strategies but not all.

### Table 3: The use of metacognitive strategies in real classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Advance organizers</th>
<th>Directed attention</th>
<th>Functional planning</th>
<th>Selective attention</th>
<th>Self - management</th>
<th>Self - monitoring</th>
<th>Self - evaluation</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>1</td>
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4.2.2. Cognitive strategies:

Table 4 reflects cognitive strategies used by six teachers in their real classrooms. In fact, the author observed that most teachers used imagery strategy to teach reading. This strategy was seen in such activities as using pictures in the reading texts or real objects to help students understand or remember new words or new information. The students seemed to be excited when their teachers used this strategy. However, teachers only asked students to carry out activities without explaining clearly to the students the purposes of doing these.

All six teachers said they liked to teach students how to elaborate, transfer or inference but as we can see from the table, only four teachers used elaboration and transfer and only two teachers used inferencing strategy. To explain this, teachers 1 and 2 said they also focused much on the content of the text and that their students lacked prior knowledge so they could not use strategies such as in elaboration, transfer or inferencing strategy.

Again, summarizing was liked by most teachers but two teachers did not teach students how to summarize. Students were only asked to understand the new words, structures and answer the reading comprehension questions.

Four teachers used translation strategy in the reading lesson. They asked students to translate the whole text into their mother tongue to make sure that students could understand the text. However, these four teachers showed their hesitation when dealing with this strategy. According to them, this strategy was done because they wanted their students to understand the text in full but they added that it could slow down students’ reading speed and form bad habit of reading if they wanted to understand every word of the text.
Table 4: The use of cognitive strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Resourcing</th>
<th>Repetition</th>
<th>Grouping</th>
<th>Deduction</th>
<th>Imagery</th>
<th>Auditory representation</th>
<th>Key – word method</th>
<th>Elaboration</th>
<th>Transfer</th>
<th>Inferencing</th>
<th>Note-taking</th>
<th>Summarizing</th>
<th>Recombination</th>
<th>Translation</th>
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4.2.3. Social / Affective strategies:

It was very easy to realize that in six classes observed, there were four classes in which teachers used the pair – work, group – work very often (teachers 3, 4, 5, 6). However, in
classes of teachers 1 and 2, pair work and group work was rare. When asked, these two teachers explained that they wanted their students to speak out their answers in chorus (whole class) to get their attention to the lesson. Individual work was also emphasized and the result was checked with the whole class. One advantage of this method was students had to work by themselves actively to find the right answer for each task. However, it could be seen that when there was no cooperation between students, they could find it difficult to check their work or solve a problem beyond their ability. If they could work together, they could have opportunities to share information, pool information, check a learning task or get feedback from the partners.

Pair – work and group – work are mainly students’ interactions with one or several students. This is a common feature in classes of teacher 3 and 4.

It could be seen in the interview that 6 teachers liked to use the mixture of working between students: pair – work, group – work, whole – class work and individual work. As a complement to foreign language teaching material, this might contribute to the strengthening of the students’ self-esteem once they got through the text and understood it. In two periods (90 minutes), students were asked to work with each other in different tasks and this brought about the flexibility in controlling of students’ work.

Two teachers used pair work and group work in while – reading and they explained that this was an effective method for students to share ideas with others or simply to check their answers.

According to Table 5, all 6 teachers teach students question for clarification. It was a strategy to elicit explanations from teachers or other students to get the correct answer for the reading tasks. In the classes I observed, students always wanted to ask their teachers about new information (new words, new structures) and the teachers also encouraged students to ask questions so that students could understand the questions clearly.

Self – talk was preferred by six teachers although in the pre – interviews, only two teachers said they used this strategy in their classrooms. In fact, all six teachers taught students to use self – talk “as the method to reduce their inner anxiety” (teacher 3).
Table 5: The use of Social / affective strategies in classroom.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Question clarification</th>
<th>Cooperation</th>
<th>Self-talk</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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4.3. Discussion:

This section discusses the reasons why teachers’ beliefs did not correspond to their actual classroom practices. It was based on the data of classroom observations and post-interviews with 6 teachers.
4.3.1. Metacognitive strategies:

Six teachers believed in the importance of teaching these strategies in the reading lesson but only two of them applied most of the strategies mentioned and four of them used one or two strategies. Among these teachers, three teachers said teaching these strategies took much time in reading lesson.

4.3.2. Cognitive strategies:

As for metacognitive strategies, all 6 teachers were aware of the necessity of teaching cognitive strategies to students but two teachers still did not apply these strategies. The preferable strategies in classes of these teachers were summary and translation. Four other teachers believed in using cognitive strategies as good method to teach students reading skills. In this point, their beliefs about teaching reading strategies were consistent with what they did in their real classroom practices.

According to the teachers who taught students elaboration, transfer and summarizing, “these strategies were essential for students because they could use their background knowledge to assist their reading comprehension or production” (Teachers 3, 4 and 5). Teachers 1 and 2 were afraid that these strategies could not apply for their classes because their students lacked knowledge while teachers 3, 4, 5 and 6 said that students should be encouraged to use their knowledge to understand the reading text and practice the skills of guessing meaning of words or getting the main ideas of the reading text.

Actually, in the classroom where teachers taught students how to elaborate (or transfer or summarize), I found that students were more interested in the reading lesson because they could compare what they had known to what they were reading. Students became more active in class when they were asked to write fast about what they knew about the topic or guess the meaning of words. Sometimes, students’ predictions were similar to what they were going to read.
4.3.4. Social strategies:

According to the information from the classroom observation, all six teachers liked to use question for clarification and self – talk and only four teachers used cooperation in their classroom. Comparing with what they believed they should do, it can be seen that although they thought it was a good idea for students to have opportunities to work with one another to solve the problems or to check their answers, in fact, only four teachers did so. This was explained that “it was a waste of time” and the teachers who said so said they could not control such big classes if they gave students time to work in pairs or groups. This seemed untrue with teachers 3, 4, 5, and 6 because these teachers’ classes were also very crowded and some students were also lowly motivated but they still taught students the social strategies and they worked well.

4.4. The factors influence teachers’ beliefs underlying their actual classroom practices:

In general, teachers’ beliefs were not simple and their classroom practices did not always reflect their underlying attitudes. There were factors which affected the process of teaching and learning reading skills. These factors seemed to make teachers’ beliefs more complex and could create problems for both teachers and students. These factors were analyzed based on classroom observation and post – interviews.

(1) The teaching context: consists of the amount of time, the physical condition of the reading class, the levels of students, etc. The teachers reported that limited time caused them a lot of difficulties. In 45 minutes, they tried to “help students understand the reading texts and do all designed tasks” (teacher 1) and they found it “difficult to teach all necessary strategies to students” (teacher 2). As a result, teachers just focused on getting students to do the reading activities and could not teach reading strategies. However, I thought that 45 minutes is enough for teaching a 250 to 300 word passage and what might cause them difficulties was their lack of reading strategies. Sometimes, they hesitated to apply new method of teaching. Moreover, mixed ability classes also caused teachers’ difficulties: Teachers had to teach students of different abilities who wanted to learn different
things at different speeds and in different ways so teachers could not satisfy all of them.

(2) *Teachers’ professional experience*: The younger teachers were fully aware of the necessity of teaching reading strategies to the students but the older teachers did not teach their students these strategies. The reasons for this could be that: the younger teachers were trained in reading strategies while older teachers did not know about these. Or in some cases, they could know about these strategies but they minded to teach in their classrooms.

(3) *Students’ low level of motivation*: Some students were lowly motivated so two teachers did not want to teach reading strategies. The reason was simple “I try to get the tasks done. I can’t do anything when students don’t want to listen”. (Teacher 1).

(4) *Materials and curriculum*: The materials do not provide appropriate strategies to apply for specific activities. This makes it even more difficult for potential “strategic” teachers to corporate learning strategy instruction into their classrooms.

These were different reasons which accounted for the teachers’ beliefs about teaching reading strategies and their classroom practices.
CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

The objective of this study was to examine the relationship between teacher’s beliefs about teaching reading strategies and their classroom practices. The data was collected from pre – interviews, classroom observations and post interviews.

5.1. Summary of main findings:

The study addressed two research questions:

(1) What are teachers’ beliefs about reading strategies and teaching reading strategies?

(2) To what extent do teachers’ classroom practices reflect their beliefs?

The major findings are summarized as follows:

5.1.1. Research question 1:

Teachers’ beliefs are very important as they are what drive teachers’ instructions in their classroom practices. From the interviews, it is apparent that teachers’ beliefs about teaching reading strategies and the appropriate reading strategies for enhancing and supporting the development of students’ reading skill were not always consistent. The lack of knowledge about reading strategies caused them problems, which they both consciously and unconsciously were aware of.

5.1.2. Research question 2:

The way teachers think about, understand, and value instruction influences their classroom practices. However, in this study, teachers’ classroom practices did not always correspond to their beliefs. To some extent, their classroom practices were based on their cognition and theories. To other extent, their beliefs were not reflected. The beliefs of the teachers in this study were affected by a variety of external (teaching context, materials
and curriculum, students’ motivation) and internal factors (teachers’ ability, teachers’ training, teachers’ view). These factors interplayed to influence them in their process of teaching.

5.2. Some pedagogical implications of the study:

This study has also found out a mismatch between teachers’ beliefs about teaching reading strategies and their classroom practices. Based on these findings, some recommendations can be made to the teachers as follows.

It can be seen clearly that all six teachers in Viet Ba High School were aware of the importance of teaching reading strategies to their students but they did not really teach these strategies in their classrooms. Two teachers explicitly taught reading strategies but four others did not really do so, partly because of their lack of knowledge about reading strategies. Therefore, it is necessary for a teacher to be aware of this difference and think of ways to improve students’ reading proficiency by providing them instructions on reading strategies. In order to do this, teachers should improve their own theoretical knowledge about reading strategies. Then, a number of metacognitive and cognitive strategies can be taught to students to develop their reading comprehension ability. These strategies may include advanced organizers (i.e. previewing the title, the text and illustrations) selective attention (i.e. scanning for specific information), elaboration of prior knowledge, making inferences about meanings of new words, taking notes, producing oral or written summary and so on.

Furthermore, teachers should be given opportunities to participate in training activities that extend over one or more school years and include frequent workshops, collaborative planning and classroom observation with a peer.

The teachers in Viet Ba High School can also consult other studies on the training of reading strategies. One of the most effective strategy – based instruction models to date that the teacher can refer to is the CALLA (Learning Strategies Taught in The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach). This model was developed by O’Malley and Chamot (1990) and is capable of developing four languages skills for limited English
proficient students. In their book, Learning Strategies Taught in Second Language Acquisition, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) described different steps and procedures of strategy – based instruction in their own studies (the CALLA Model) as well as in other researchers’ such as Rubin and Thompson (1982), Ellis and Sinclair (1989), Hosenfeld et al (1981). These steps and procedures are useful and valuable reference materials that the teachers can make use of in order to enhance students’ reading proficiency (see Appendix 5).

5.3. Limitations:

While the study provides some implications for teachers in Viet Ba High School, it is not free from limitations. First of all, limitations were found in the number of participants: only six teachers were interviewed and six classrooms observed so the result may not apply for all teachers in High Schools. Secondly, the study was done in a limited time duration, so it cannot fully reflect the complex beliefs system of teachers which may only be revealed after an extensive period of observation.

5.4. Suggestions for further study:

Teachers’ beliefs are very important in teaching reading strategies. It is apparent that classroom practices are based on a logical system of beliefs. However, teachers’ beliefs are complicated so there should be further study into the same topic.

In addition, a similar study should be conducted with other High Schools to find out more about teachers’ beliefs about teaching reading strategies.

Further research may look at the students’ beliefs about reading strategies when dealing with texts in designed materials. It would be interesting to see their attitudes towards reading strategies and what reading strategies they employed. This research would be useful for teachers to enhance their students’ reading proficiency.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX 1: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Mong cô chia sẻ những kinh nghiệm dạy đọc hiểu của cô. Cô hãy cho biết cách cô vẫn dạy đọc cho học sinh trên lớp?

2. Cách dạy đọc hiểu nào cô hay dùng nhất? Đó có phải là cách cô thích không? Nếu có, tại sao? Nếu không, tại sao cô dạy theo cách đó?

3. Cô hiểu thế nào về các thủ thuật đọc hiểu?


5. Khi dạy cho học sinh các thủ thuật đọc, cô có thấy hiệu quả không? Có gặp khó khăn gì không? Tại sao lại có các khó khăn đó?

6. Ngoài các thủ thuật cô thường dạy, cô có thấy thủ thuật nào hiểu quả hơn không? Tại sao?
APPENDIX 2:  SAMPLE OF AN INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

Interview transcript with Oanh – teacher of 10A3 and 10A4:

N: the initial letter for Nga, the interviewer’s name

O: the initial letter for teacher 1, the interviewee’s name.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Content</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lead – in</td>
<td>N: Sau hơn 10 năm dạy ngoại ngữ, chị có thể chia sẻ với em một số phương pháp dạy đọc hiểu được không? Chị vẫn thường dạy đọc cho hs trên lớp như thế nào?</td>
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</table>
| 1            | O: Dạy đọc à? Uhm, trước đây thì vẫn dạy kiểu cho hs đọc to bài khóa, giáo viên giải thích từ và cấu trúc mới, sau đó cho hs trả lời các câu hỏi trong sách và cuối cùng thì cho hs dịch lại bài đọc. Nhưng bây giờ chủ trương đổi mới phương pháp nên dạy đọc được tiến hành theo 3 bước là pre – while và post.  
N: Cụ thể là ở mỗi bước chị thường làm gì?  
O: Ví dụ trong phần pre – reading, mình thường cho hs xem tranh (nếu có) và nếu các câu hỏi leading để hs tự do phát biểu về những gì chúng thấy trong tranh, hoặc nếu các câu hỏi liên quan đến nội dung bài đọc để xem hs có biết gì về vấn đề sắp đọc không, sau đó giải thích một số từ khó hoặc câu trúc mới (dĩ nhiên là các từ hoặc câu trúc có liên quan đến việc hiểu nghĩa của bài, còn nếu không thì để chúng tự đoán). |
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<th>N: Tại sao phải làm thế?</th>
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<td>O: Để học sinh chuẩn bị tâm thế cho bài đọc.</td>
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<td>Còn ở phần while, tùy từng lớp mà mình sẽ yêu cầu cụ thể. Ví dụ ở lớp khá, mình yêu cầu học sinh đọc lướt, đọc quyết tâm thông tin, rồi đọc chi tiết để trả lời câu hỏi. Nếu ở lớp kém hơn thì yêu cầu học sinh phải đọc câu hỏi trước rồi tìm thông tin đúng trong bài.</td>
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<td>N: Tại sao lại có sự phân biệt như thế?</td>
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<td>C: Vì ở các lớp khá, học sinh có vốn từ vựng khá hơn và biết cách biểu đạt ý tưởng, còn ở các lớp bình thường thì chỉ cần yêu cầu học sinh tìm đúng thông tin, hiểu được câu hỏi.</td>
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<td>Phần post thường được tiến hành bằng việc yêu cầu học sinh tóm tắt lại bài đọc hoặc thảo luận về bài đọc. Các hoạt động này có trong SGK nên giáo viên có thể giải quyết hết các tasks trong đó. Nhiệm vụ này giúp học sinh cũng có lại thông tin vừa đọc và tái hiện lại theo cách của chúng, có thể phát triển hay mở rộng đề tài</td>
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<th>N: Ở mỗi bước như chị nói, cách nào chị dùng thường xuyên nhất?</th>
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<td>O: Cũng tùy thuộc vào đối tượng học sinh và nội dung bài đọc. Nếu đó là học sinh khá, phần pre – reading, mình sẽ cho học sinh làm việc nhóm trả lời câu hỏi liên quan đến nội dung bài đọc và chọn ra một số từ khó để học sinh đoán nghĩa còn với lớp bình thường thì chủ yếu là yêu cầu học sinh trả lời câu hỏi liên quan đến nội dung bài đọc và tìm từ mới và mình giải thích nghĩa cho học sinh. Phần while – reading là học đọc và trả lời các câu hỏi trong bài, lớp khá hơn thì hướng dẫn đọc lướt, đọc chi tiết. Phần post chủ yếu là discussion.</td>
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<td>N: Đó có phải là những cách chị ưa thích không?</td>
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| O: Cũng khó nói, đây là cách mình cho là hiệu quả. Dĩ nhiên cũng có thể tiến
hành theo một số kiểu khác, nhưng tùy theo hs và nội dung bài đọc đó

| 3 | N: Chị hiểu “thủ thuật đọc” (reading strategies) là gì? Chị có thể định nghĩa thủ thuật đọc?  
O: Umn, reading strategies là các thủ thuật mà người đọc dùng để giải quyết các reading tasks trong một khoảng thời gian nhất định. Cũng có thể hiểu reading strategies là các thủ thuật học sinh sử dụng để đọc nhanh bài đọc, tìm kiếm thông tin và giải quyết các nhiệm vụ trong bài một cách tốt nhất. |

| 4 | N: Chị có dạy cho hs các thủ thuật để đọc không? Đó là các thủ thuật nào?  
O: Có chứ, ví dụ như trong phần pre–reading, mình dạy hs cách đoán nội dung bài đọc bằng các câu hỏi leading, hay trong phần while – reading thì mình dạy hs xác định từ key words, tìm thông tin chính xác để trả lời câu hỏi hay post – reading là cách tóm tắt lại nội dung bài đọc dựa vào các thông tin chính. |

| 6 | N: Ngoài những thủ thuật mà chị thường dùng thì chị thấy có thủ thuật dạy đọc nào khác hiệu quả hơn không? Tại sao?  
O: Ngoài việc dùng các câu hỏi liên quan đến nội dung bài đọc, mình có thể cho hs làm việc theo nhóm/ cặp brainstorm words, structures hay ideas liên quan đến bài đọc, đúng tiêu đề bài đọc để thảo luận trước về nội dung, đúng giáo cụ trực quan hay games nhỏ để giới thiệu nội dung bài đọc. Hay phần while thì có thể hướng dẫn hs chia bài đọc thành các đoạn nhỏ, đọc lướt để tìm thông tin chính và đọc chi tiết để tìm ý. Chọn ra từ khóa để trả lời câu hỏi. Đây là một số gợi ý. Phần post thì có thể cho hs discuss hoặc summarize bài |
đọc dưới dạng nói hoặc viết hay dùng các cloze passage cho hs luyện tập sau khi đọc bài.

5

N: Khi dạy các thủ thuật đọc hiểu đó trong lớp chị thì chị có thấy hiệu quả không, có khó khăn gì không?

O: Hiệu quả chứ, nhất là các lớp khá thì mình thay đổi các phương pháp dạy linh hoạt theo bài thì hs sẽ rất thích thú. Tuy nhiên ở lớp bình thường thì chỉ có gắng áp dụng một hay hai cách như cách mình vẫn làm, vì hs chỉ cần giải quyết hết các task trong SGK là tốt rồi. Khó khăn là ở chỗ hs mình ít chịu đọc, vốn kiến thức nền hạn hẹp, từ vựng hạn chế, và chủ yếu là động cơ học tiếng Anh chưa cao, hs học vì đó là một môn bắt buộc.
# APPENDIX 3: CLASS OBSERVATION SCHEME

Table 3: The use of metacognitive strategies in real classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Advance organizers</th>
<th>Directed attention</th>
<th>Functional planning</th>
<th>Selective attention</th>
<th>Self-management</th>
<th>Self-monitoring</th>
<th>Self-evaluation</th>
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### Table 4: The use of cognitive strategies

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<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Repetition</th>
<th>Grouping</th>
<th>Deduction</th>
<th>Imagery</th>
<th>Auditory representation</th>
<th>Key-word method</th>
<th>Elaboration</th>
<th>Transfer</th>
<th>Inferencing</th>
<th>Note-taking</th>
<th>Summarizing</th>
<th>Recombination</th>
<th>Translation</th>
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Table 5: The use of Social / affective strategies in classroom.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Question clarification</th>
<th>Cooperation</th>
<th>Self-talk</th>
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APPENDIX 4: POST - INTERVIEW

1. Theo cô, dạy thủ thuật đọc (reading strategies) cho học sinh có quan trọng không, tại sao?

2. Học sinh cần phải làm gì trong một tiết đọc?

3. Cô có hài lòng với tiết học này không? Tại sao? Tại sao không?

4. Cô có đạt được mục tiêu của tiết dạy không?

5. Cô hãy cho biết vì sao cô dạy học sinh scan bài đọc trước khi đọc (ví dụ như ở bài 6), skim, guess new words trong khi đọc?

6. Theo cô, đâu là yếu tố ảnh hưởng đến việc dạy các thủ thuật đọc cho học sinh trong các giờ dạy đọc?

APPENDIX 5: STEPS IN CALLA MODEL (Chamot, 2005; Chamot et al., 1999)

1. Preparation: Teacher identifies students’ current learning strategies for familiar tasks.

2. Presentation: Teacher models, names, explains new strategy; asks students if and how they have used it.

3. Practice: Students practice new strategy; in subsequent strategy practice, teacher fades reminders to encourage independent strategy use.

4. Self-evaluation: Students evaluate their own strategy use immediately after practice.

5. Expansion: Students transfer strategies to new tasks, combine strategies into clusters, develop repertoire of preferred strategies.
6. **Assessment**: Teacher assesses students’ use of strategies and impact on performance.