II. FRAME OF THEORIES

This chapter discusses the concept covered in this research. The concepts, which come from experts’ and previous researchers’ theories, underlie the assumption formulated here, and are expected to conduct correctly to the finding of this research.

2.1 Concept of Reading Skills

Reading is one of important skill that must be understood by learners. By reading, the learners can improve their knowledge whenever and wherever they are. For example, reading newspaper, reading magazine, reading international journal and so on.

In addition, reading is an active process of guessing, deriving, and getting meaning of information stated in the printed material. Nuttal (1982) defines reading as the meaningful interpretation of written text. It means that reading is a result of the interaction between the perception of the written text that represents language and the reader’s language skills, cognitive skill and the knowledge. In this process the reader tries to recreate the meaning intended by the writer.
Furthermore, Goodman (1973b: 180) in Sutarsyah (2013: 6) defines that reading is not a process of combining individual letters into words, and string of words into sentences, from which meanings spring automatically. Moreover, Goodman (1971) views that reading is a “psycholinguistic guessing game” in which the reader reconstructs a message that has been encoded by a writer as a graphic display. He describes it as a cyclical process of sampling, predicting, testing, and confirming.

According to Heilman, Blair and Rupley (1981: 4) in Sari (2010) there are some basic aspects of reading:

a. Reading is interacting with language that has been coded into print.

b. The product of interacting with language which has been printed should be comprehension.

c. Reading ability is closely related to oral language ability.

d. Reading is an active and ongoing process that is affected directly by an individual interaction with his environment.

Moreover, reading is a complex cognitive activity that is crucial for adequate functioning and for obtaining information in current society and requires an integration of memory and meaning construction (Alfassi, 2000 in Zare & Othman, 2013). Reading has been defined as an active process in which readers shift between sources of information, elaborate meaning and strategies, monitor their comprehension, and use the social context to reflect their response (Walker, 2000 in Zare & Othman, 2013). Moreover, McWhorter (1989:212) in Sari
states that reading is a way of taking new ideas and identifying information to be learned. It means that when someone is reading a text, he may find new things that he has not known yet. And he may also find information that will help him in learning something. In this case, his knowledge will certainly be better than before.

From all the theories which have been mentioned above, it can be concluded that reading is an active process in which readers shift between sources of information stated in the printed material by relating readers’ background knowledge to the information or idea provided on a written text. This leads us to analyze notion of reading comprehension, clarified like the following.

### 2.2 Concept of Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension is a term that represent an active act of a process in understanding what the purpose of the text is, reading can be media between an author and reader to communicate indirectly through a written text and reading can support the readers to find out something new as their knowledge.

Further, Smith (1982: 6) defines that reading is something that makes sense to the reader, and always should. According to Smith, reading is seen as having four distinctive and fundamental characteristic and one of them is that reading should be based on comprehension. Understanding is the basic, not the consequence of reading. He states that comprehension in reading as a matter of “making sense” of text, of relating written language to what the readers know already and to what the readers want to know.
Comprehension can be regarded as a condition where no uncertainty exists. The learners comprehend when they have all questions answered because they have no doubt alternative interpretations or decisions in their mind. As one reads, the learners constantly asking questions; and as long as these questions are answered, and the learners uncertainty is reduced, then the learners comprehend.

In addition, Ricard (1999) in Afdaleni (2013) defines comprehension as the process by which the person understands the meaning of the written or spoken language. Related to reading, the readers can read sometimes their text well but they fail in bringing the meaning toward their text.

According to Goodman (1988) in Sutarsyah (2013) reading is a receptive process. It creates an interaction between a writer and a reader. It is uneasy thing since a writer and a reader cannot contact each other, they only communicate through the text. So the reader should try some hard effort to do this language skill.

However, reading comprehension is important because it is a matter of identifying letters in order to recognize words to get the meaning from what is read, involving making connection among words and ideas presented in the text and the readers’ own background knowledge about the text they read will have difficulties in comprehending the text (Smith, 1982: 166).

Relating to the clarifications above, it can be inferred that reading the words of a composition is one thing, but comprehension is the vital point for the reader in mastering reading. Reading the words has no benefit if the reader does not comprehend what is being read. If the learners can read the words or texts but
they do not understand what they read, they are not really reading. Thus, comprehension is fundamentally relating the new to the already known. Reading involves more that recognition, which is without comprehension, no reading takes place. In relation to this, Hughes (1989: 116) confirms that reading comprehension include the following.

2.3 Macro and Micro skills in Reading

Language teaching covers four macro-skills needed for communication – listening, speaking, reading and writing. Listening and speaking are oral skills. Reading and writing are literacy skills. The four skills can also be grouped another way. Listening and reading are receptive skills since learners need to process and understand language being communicated to them in spoken or written form. Speaking and writing are known as productive skills since learners need to produce language to communicate their ideas in either speech or text.

In this research, the researcher focused on reading as receptive skills, that is, reading skill. Since reading has some aspects that must be understood by learners, they are divided into 2 skills namely, macro-skills and micro-skills. These skills are needed in involving aspects or principles which want to be tested in a test.

According to Hughes (1989:116), the following can be classified as macro-skills that is, scanning text to locate specific information; skimming text to obtain the gist; identifying stages of an argument; identifying example presented in support of argument. Meanwhile, Hughes classifies micro-skills such as
identifying referents of pronouns, etc. It is very important that students can follow the flow of ideas through the text. It is not enough just to understand the words students find in a text, they need to be able to identify words that connect ideas and the ideas that these words connect. One way writers connect ideas is by their use of pronouns and pronoun-type words and then, using context to guess meaning of unfamiliar words. Guessing is the most common strategy. By using information, the learners assigned a meaning to the unfamiliar words or phrase. However the learners are encouraged to use this strategy in order to follow the author’s idea.

Since this study merely focuses on macro skills, so these reading skills will be elaborated in details in this research.

2.3.1 Concept of Macro Skills in Reading

In learning, there are four macro skills that we must deal with in order to communicate effectively. Macro skills refer to the primary, key, main, and largest skill set relative to a particular context. It is commonly referred to in English language.

Learning and consistently seeking to improve the macro skills are important for effective communication and to be successful in many different perspectives. Ideas, emotions, opinions and feelings need to be conveyed in different manners and in a variety of ways. To know when to use which macro skill to acquire, access, encounter, and evaluate information and ideas is a higher
order of thinking skill that can be learned over time with much practice and strategies

Reading is the third of the four-macro skills. Reading is a complex skill that is taught when the students still young as it's essential for learning and development and vocabulary. It is also an act or activity of rendering aloud written or printed material. Reading is also an ability to understand reading material in a form of a paragraph or a sentence. Usually, the learners use the skill reading for scanning information and understanding what the writers want to tell and evaluate what learners read and incorporate information from multiple sources. When the learners learned the different macro skill including reading it is very helpful in the school or workplace. And there are many advantages associated in reading like learning vocabulary in a context, seeing correct structure in English, and to it will improve your personal interest in reading. When learners read a text, they may usually encounter new word and things. It can help to improve learners’ vocabulary skill and apply it when they are communicating to other people.

2.3.2 Categories of Macro Skills in Reading

According to Hughes (1989:116), the following can be classified as macro-skills, they are:

- Scanning text to locate specific information

Scanning means glancing rapidly through a text either to search for a specific piece of information (e.g. a name, a date) to get an initial
impression of whether the text is suitable for a given purpose (e.g. whether a book on gardening deals with the cultivation of a particular vegetables) (Nuttal, 1982:31). Scanning involves moving learner eyes quickly down the page seeking specific words and phrases. Scanning is also used when the learners first find a resource to determine whether it will answer your questions. When scanning, the learners or readers look for the author's use of organizers such as numbers, letters, steps, date, or the words, first, second, or next. Here are some examples:

(a) Look at the page and find out when someone died.
(b) (Using a page from an index) on what page is the topic of the text mentioned?
c) (Using a page from a telephone directory) what is the telephone number J.B. Keith?

- Skimming text to obtain the gist

According to Nuttal (1982:34), by skimming the readers are glancing rapidly through a text to determine its gist or main idea. Actually, there are many techniques that can be used when skimming. Some learners perhaps read the first and last paragraphs using headings, summarizes and other organizers as they move down the page. They might read the title, subtitles, and subheading of a text. Skimming is very useful when the learners are determining main idea of a text. When skimming a text, students can be asked to locate facts which are expressed in sentence; or they can be asked to say briefly what text is about, or given specific questions that can be answered by glancing quickly through the text. For example:

(a) Make a list of topics in a text.
Identifying stages of an argument

Identifying of argument stage is an activity of the kind that takes place in a critical thinking course where the teacher and the students analyze an argument taken from a text of discourse in everyday conversational argumentation, for example an argument found in a newspaper article or some similar media source. Furthermore, in general, the students are also sensitive to certain words and phrases that mark arguments, e.g., 'my argument', 'my view', 'my opinion', 'what you should think'. The first step in enhancing critical thinking ability, though, requires careful reflection on this awareness.

Identifying example presented in support of argument

An argument is defined as any giving of reasons, evidence, or support for the claim that something is true. When someone presents an argument for something, the evidence, reasons or support are directed toward establishing the truth of some conclusions. Thus, the conclusion of an argument is the point that the rest of the argument is supposed to show to be correct or true. Each reason, piece of evidence, and each bit of data used in an argument in support of the conclusion is called a premise. Some key indicator words of a premise might include the following words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Also</th>
<th>for the reason that</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>as a result of</td>
<td>in addition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because of the fact that</td>
<td>in view of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>first, ..., second</td>
<td>is supported by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For</td>
<td>researchers found that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for example</td>
<td>since the evidence is</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.4 Concept of Reading Strategies

Reading strategies are a way of gaining invaluable insights into the nature of the reading comprehension (Stevenson, Schoonen & Glopper, 2003 as cited in Alsheikh & Mokhtari, 2011:151). Reading strategies are considered as one of the features of cognitive psychology which are essential for a successful comprehension (Zare, 2012; May, 2001; Walker, 2000 as cited in Zare & Othman, 2013:188). Moreover, reading strategies are defined as “techniques and methods readers use to make their reading successful” (Baker & Boonkit, 2004 as cited in Zare & Othman, 2013:188).

On the other hand, reading strategies have been defined by Cohen (1990) as mental processes that readers consciously select to use to complete reading tasks successfully. In accordance with the work of Zhou and Zhao (2014), Cohen also lists 10 subcategories of reading strategies: classification of purpose, organization of text, reading for meaning, focusing on major content, parsimonious use of a dictionary, judicious use of content, ongoing summaries, making prediction, seeking for markers of cohesion and strategies for managing strategies.

Wenden and Rubin (1987: 52-54) identify seven reading strategies that are used by good learners. The summary of these strategies is presented below:

1. Flow-charts and hierarchical summaries. When reading, a learner makes a summary by making a chart that can explain the structure of ideas in the text with its components.

2. Titles. Before reading, a learner is given the title of the text and thinks about the title as a means of building schemata.
3. Embedded headings. The role of embedded heading is used to build advance organizer which is helpful for a learner before he start reading. It can also improve a delayed recall.

4. Pre-reading questions. This strategy can focus a learner’s attention towards the topic of the text.

5. Story specific schema from general schema. In this strategy, a learner brainstorms a general problem solving schema for a short story and sets general questions derived from this schema.

6. Imagery. This ability to use image is needed in reading. A learner with high imagery is able to recall and recognize more items of information from a text than low imagery.

7. Perspective. A learner reads a story from a particular perspective which is important to that perspective. This can also build related schemata that can help him read a text.

In summary, reading strategies are the techniques and methods that learners can use to make their reading successful that learners consciously select to use to complete reading tasks successfully through a cognitive activity.

2.5 The Components of Reading Comprehension

In comprehending an English text, the learners need explicit strategies to use during the process of reading in order to support them with gaining, using, remembering information and making some questions from a text. Hence, in reading there are five components of reading comprehension which help the
learners comprehending an English text by making some questions about a text, they are:

1. Determining main idea

Main idea is the most important piece of information the author wants the readers to know about the concept of that paragraph. The main idea is also the most general statement the writer makes about the topic. Mc Whorter (1986: 32) states that the main idea is called the topic sentence. She adds that the topic sentence tells what the rest paragraph is about. Furthermore, helping the learners learn to identify the main idea is one of the most useful interventions a teacher can initiate (Stewart, 2007:111). She also stated learning to identify the main idea and then remember that idea will help the readers learn to link ideas, finally finding the connections between bits of information that have included in the text. So, the main idea is a chief point an author of making about a topic. It sums up the writer’s primary message and takes a great role in helping the learners to comprehend the content of the paragraph. In related on it, the following example can be used in learning topic about main idea. The material is taken from Source: http://www.belajarbahasainggris.us

“Look,” said the mousedeer. “That is the King’s belt. He asked me to stay here and watch it while he was away in the forest”. The tiger looked at the snake and said, “That’s a beautiful belt. I need a belt like that. Can I wear it?” he asked the mousedeer.

- What is the main idea of the second paragraph?
  a. The lion wants to wear the belt
  b. The Mousedeer play a trick to Tiger.
  c. The Mousedeer keep King’s belt
  d. The Lion needs King’s belt

- The answer is b. The Mousedeer play a trick to Tiger. The reason of this answer was caused that there was some statements than could implied in which mousedeer play a trick to tiger by telling that the tiger’s belt was beautiful. In fact, mousedeer knew that it was not a belt but a snake.
2. Finding the specific information or part of text

Even though understanding the main idea is crucial, focusing in details is also important in learning. According to Stewart (2007:112), details add color and space to ideas and concept in many field of knowledge, and they help many of the learners remember information. Moreover, finding the specific information is only scanning or looking for the relevant part(s) and ignoring the irrelevant. It is very useful when the readers or learners know exactly what they are looking for in a text since they have a very specific goal in mind and supporting the main idea. Mc Whother (1986: 36) cites that supporting detail or specific information develops the topic sentence by giving definition, examples, facts, an incidents, comparison, analogy, cause and effect statistic and question. In related on it, the following example can be used in learning of finding the specific information.

The material is taken from http://www.grupinggrisbelajar.blogspot.com

One day while a mouse deer was walking in the forest, he saw a big, black snake sleeping under the tree. When he saw the snake, the mousedeer was frightened. When he wanted to run away from the snake, he suddenly fell on top of a tiger which was sleeping not far from the snake. The tiger woke up and took hold of the mousedeer. He told the mousedeer that he was going to eat him for lunch. “Please don’t eat me now,” said the mousedeer. “I have something important to do”

- Where was the tiger sleeping?
  a. In the middle of the forest.
  b. Next to the mousedeer’s house.
  c. Near the black snake, sleeping under the tree.
  d. Far away from the place where the mousedeer fell.

- The answer is c. It was sleeping near the black snake, sleeping under the tree because it was obviously stated in the paragraph, that is, “... black snake sleeping under the tree and a tiger which was sleeping not far from the snake...”

3. Finding reference

In accordance with Latulippe (1986: 20) in Sari (2010), references are words or phrases used either before or after the references in the reading material.
It means that, such words are used, they are signal to the readers find the meaning elsewhere in the text. By mastering this ability, the readers will keep staying on what they are reading. The following question can be used in learning topic about reference. The material is taken from http:www.recountext.blogspot.com:

After getting the ticket, they went straight into the hall. It was almost full. They enjoyed the music while waiting for the show to start. The main show started at 17.15. In that film, Charles Bronson was the leading man and Jill Irelans was his partner.

- **It was almost full.** (p.3)  
  The bold word refers to ...
  a. music  
  b. ticket  
  c. hall  
  d. the movie

- The answer is c. The bold word refers to hall since the word it was explaining the condition of a thing, that is, the hall.

4. Finding inference

According to Nuttall (1982: 11), inference is a way of guessing and predicting about something unknown based on available facts and information. Inference is the intentional use of one thing to indicate something else in which one provides the information necessary to interpret the other. Finding inference means interpreting and determining one linguistic expression to another. The following question can be used in learning topic about inference meaning. The material is taken from [http://www.belajarbahasainggris.us](http://www.belajarbahasainggris.us):

Some days ago, a movie was showing at the XXI theatre. It was “Cold Sweat”. On Saturday afternoon, Rully took her sister to see it. They left home at 16.50 and got there 10 minutes later. They lived not far from it.

- It can be inferred from the text that Ruly did all of the activities, except ...
  a. took her sister to see a movie  
  b. bought tickets from a broker  
  c. could hardly breathe when Charles was almost killed  
  d. her sister went to have dinner
The answer is b. bought tickets from a broker since the paragraph above was one of pieces of a whole text, so you might see Appendix 12 to read whole of the text. Then, it seemed that there was no statement that Ruly bought tickets movie from a broker.

5. Understanding vocabulary

Vocabulary is the stock of word used by the people or even person. Vocabulary is essential for everyone who wants to speak or to produce utterance for reading. To deal with most of the reading skills, it is necessary to assume that the reader’s vocabulary is adequate (Nuttall, 1982:65). But, too much attention to vocabulary can have a harmful effect on the learners’ reading habit. If he keeps stopping to look up new words in the text, it may actually make him a less effective reader. The following question can be used in learning topic about vocabulary. The material is taken from://www.belajarbahasainggris.us:

Rully and her sister liked the movie very much. Charles and his partner played brilliantly and the story is quite thrilling. They had to face dangerous enemies. Rully could hardly breathe when Charles was almost killed. Her sister closed her eyes when he was tortured by some bandits.

“... was tortured by some bandits.” (p.4)
The bold word above means ...

a. hurt
b. killed
c. murdered
d. suffered

The answer is suffered because among the choices, that is, hurt, killed, murdered and suffered the word that has closed meaning in the content is suffered.

Hence, it can be said that reading comprehension is the learners’ ability in comprehending the content of the text. It is the learners’ ability in gaining meaning from the content of the text. By using their ability, the learners can gather any new information and knowledge from the text. It can be done by relating their background knowledge to the writer’s ideas and information drawn in the written texts. The teacher can increase their learners reading comprehension
by using more appropriate teaching technique in reading to their learners in the class. In addition, the researcher was covered main idea, specific information, references, inferences, and vocabulary on the reading test.

### 2.6 Reading Strategies in Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension strategies are the basic concern and are seen as comprehension processes that enable learners to construct meaning from the text most effectively. In other words, reading strategies show how the learners tackle a reading task, how they interpret their reading and what they do when they do not comprehend. In accordance with Brantmeier (2002: 1) summarizes that 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.

To find the five components of reading comprehension (main idea, specific information or part of the text, reference, inference, and vocabulary), there are some reading strategies that might help the learners to comprehend an English text. They are:

1. Skimming and Scanning

   According to Nuttal (1982:34), by skimming the readers are glancing rapidly through a text to determine its gist or main idea. Meanwhile, scanning means glancing rapidly through a text either to search for a specific piece of information. Actually, skimming and
scanning are not a strategy in reading comprehension but they are a skill involving flexibility of technique (Nuttal, 1982:31).

Actually, there are many techniques that can be used when skimming. Some learners perhaps read the first and last paragraphs using headings, summarizes and other organizers as they move down the page. They might read the title, subtitles, and subheading of a text. Skimming is very useful when the learners are determining main idea of a text. On the other hand, scanning involves moving learner eyes quickly down the page seeking specific words and phrases. Scanning is also used when the learners first find a resource to determine whether it will answer your questions. When scanning, the learners or readers look for the author's use of organizers such as numbers, letters, steps, date, or the words, first, second, or next.

2. Guessing

Guessing from context refers to the ability to infer the meaning of an expression using contextual clues. By using contextual clues, the learners assigned a meaning to the unknown words or phrase. However the learners are encouraged to use this strategy in order to follow the author’s idea. Instead of guessing wildly, readers will predict or hypothesize because anticipation which they bring to a text (Smith, 1979 in Sutarsyah, 2013). For example, look at this sentence:

“I didn’t sleep well because my neighbour’s dog was yapping all night.”
According to the sentence above, the learners can guess the meaning of *yapping* by thinking about his knowledge of dogs and sleeping. How can dogs wake him up? They can jump on you or make a noise. Because this is the neighbour’s dog, not his or hers, it must make a noise. So, the learners can guess that *yapping* is some kind of noise, probably like barking. In most situations, this is enough information for learners to continue reading. It doesn’t matter if the learners know exactly what kind of noise it is.

3. Prediction

Making predictions is a strategy in which readers use information from a text (including titles, headings, pictures, and diagrams) and their own personal experiences to anticipate what they are about to read (or what comes next). According to Nuttall (1982:11), the reader’s sense and experience helps him or her to predict what the writer is likely to say next. Besides, she states that the strategy is so useful to make the learners aware of it so that they can use it to tackle difficult text. For example, watching a film and stopping it part way through. In this case, students are asked to make predictions on what will happen next. Students should be able to explain why they made the prediction. For example, "I think John is going to fall off his bike because he is carrying a box while he is riding and his bike is wobbling." This way can help students to follow the logic of the story to make their predictions rather than just make guesses.
4. Interpreting Reference

To cope with reference, the learners must be able to recognize that it is the reference word that is causing the problem; since words like *it* and *this* are so common, the first step is to make the learners aware of the potential difficulties by drawing attention to them.

5. Inference from Context

To infer meaning from context, powerful aid to comprehension can be given to the learners. Inferring meaning is a way the learners all have to some degree in L1 (Nuttall, 1982:70). According to Nuttall (1982), there are some ways to infer meaning from the text. She suggests that one of way of beginning will be with sentences containing nonsense words. It is easy to show the learners that some kind of understanding is possible even in such cases. So, the learners will soon realize that they can get a good deal of information from the sentence even though the learners do not really understand it. Besides, Nuttall suggests the second step might be to get learners to suggest what range of words could be used to complete unfulfilled sentence. In this way, the learners will begin to recognize that the possibilities are not limitless.

6. Activating Background Knowledge

In accordance with Cerrell (1983) in Sutarsyah (2013) asserts that the ability to understand texts is based not only on the reader’s linguistic knowledge, but also on his general knowledge of the world and the extent to which that knowledge is activated during the mental process of reading.
To activate learners’ background knowledge, a teacher may ask the learners before giving a text to be read by the learners. The questions should relevant with what a text will be given.

7. Opening Dictionary

When finding difficulty in reading, some learners stop for a moment to find out the meaning of unknown words. Sutarsyah (2013:211) states that in using this strategy, the learners basically use a dictionary when reading. They stop reading when they find difficulty and then open a dictionary to get the meaning of the difficulty words.

2.7 Concept of Learning Strategies

Learning strategies are specific actions taken by a learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situation (Oxford, 1990: 8). Besides, Chamot (2004: 1) defines learning strategies as the thoughts and actions that individual use to accomplish learning. It means that a learning strategy is a way which is used by learner in order to acquire, accomplish and gather information effectively during teaching-learning process.

Wenden and Rubin (1987:19) cite that learning strategies include any set of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learners to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval and use of information. Furthermore, learning strategies also constitute the steps or actions consciously selected by learners either to improve the learning of the second language, the use of it or both (Cohen, 1998:3). They
include strategies for identifying the material that needs to be learned; distinguishing from other material if needed, grouping it for easier learning; repeatedly engaging oneself in contact with the material; and formally committing to memory when it does not seem to be acquired naturally.

In summary, learning strategies are a set of operations, plans or steps used by learners to get and improve their aim in acquiring, accomplishing and gathering information during teaching-learning process.

### 2.8 Categories of Learning Strategies

Two basic categories of strategies can be distinguished in language learning: learning strategies and communication strategies. In accordance with Brown (1980:83) in Suparman (2010:51), a learning strategy is a method of perceiving and storing particular items for later recall. Besides, learning strategies are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affects directly (Rubin, 1987). By contrast, a communication strategy is a method of achieving communication, of encoding or expressing meaning in a language.

The classification of language learning strategies has been reviewed by Wenden (as cited in Setiyadi, 2011, pp. 18-19). She classifies language learning strategies into two broad categories. The first category, cognitive strategies, involves selecting information from incoming data, comprehending and storing the information, and retrieving the information. The second category, which is
called self-management strategies or metacognitive strategies, involves planning, monitoring and evaluating.

In addition, language learning strategies have also been proposed by O’Malley et al. (1985) in Setiyadi (2011), who consider psychologically based issues in their classifications. In O’Malley et al.’s study (1985) the classification consists of three categories, namely: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social strategies (as cited in Setiyadi, 2011, p. 15-16). Another study that uses psychological based consideration similar to O’Malley et al.’s study is Oxford and Nyikos’s (1990a:15-47). In their study, language learning strategies are categorized into 1) direct strategies and 2) indirect strategies. The direct strategies are subdivided into 1) memory strategies, 2) cognitive strategies, and 3) compensation strategies. The indirect strategies are subdivided into metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies.

Even though the above classifications can facilitate this research, a more detailed and systematic strategy taxonomy is still needed. The researcher considers using O’Malley et al.’s language learning strategies classification, namely: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social strategies in this research since their classification seems more detailed and systematic.

### 2.8.1 Cognitive Learning Strategies

Cognitive strategies are more limited to specific learning task and they involve more manipulation directly of the learning material itself. Repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery,
auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer, inferencing are among the most important in cognitive strategies (O’Malley’s, 1985, as cited in Hismanoglu, 2000).

Meanwhile, Rubin (1981) in Wenden and Rubin (1987:23-25), cognitive strategies refer to the steps or operations used in learning or problem-solving that require direct analysis. Rubin identifies six general strategies which may contribute directly to language learning:

1. Clarification or verification refers to those strategies which learners use to verify or clarify their misunderstanding of the new language.

2. Guessing or inductive inferencing refers to strategies which use previously obtained linguistic or conceptual knowledge to derive explicit hypotheses about the linguistic form, semantic meaning or speaker’s intention. The learners can use what they know about their own or a second language to infer meaning. Furthermore, they may use their first language as a basis for understanding and/or producing the second language but they must also recognize the limits of using this knowledge as a source of inferencing.

3. Deductive reasoning is a problem-solving strategy in which the learner looks for and uses general rules in approaching the foreign or second language. The difference between inductive and deductive reasoning is that in inductive reasoning the learner is looking for a specific meaning or specific rule whereas in deductive reasoning the learner is looking for and using more general rules. The process is used to find organization and patterns that make sense to the learner in order to obtain and store
information about a language in an organized and retrievable (to the specific learner) fashion.

4. Practice refers to strategies which contribute to the storage and retrieval of language while focusing on accuracy of usage. Practice involves strategies such as repetition, rehearsal, experimentation, application of rules, imitation, and attention to detail.

5. Memorization also refers to strategies which focus on the storage and retrieval of language. However, in the case of memorization, attention is paid to the storage and retrieval process. The goal of these strategies is organization.

6. Monitoring refers to strategies in which the learner notices errors, observes how a message is received and interpreted by the addresses, and then decides what to do about it. The monitoring process appears to be a combination of cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

2.8.2 Metacognitive Strategies

In accordance with Oxford (1990), there are two major kinds of learning strategies: “Direct and indirect strategies. These two strategies are subdivided into total six groups (memory, cognitive, and comprehension under the direct strategies meanwhile metacognitive, affective, and social under the indirect strategies). Metacognitive means beyond, beside or with the cognitive. Therefore, metacognitive strategies are actions which go beyond purely cognitive devices, and provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process.”
Direct strategies require some kinds of direct mental activity. These include the way to remember effectively, activate cognitive process, and compensate for missing knowledge. Oxford describes the strategies as “a performer” in stage play, working with the language itself in a variety of specific task and situation. Meanwhile, indirect strategies are means by which learners indirectly manage or control their own learning process. The strategies involve learners' effort to organize and evaluate their own learning, to manage their emotions, and to learn from others. Indirect strategies can be linked to “the director” of the play which serves a host of functions.

It can be seen that metacognitive strategies are part of indirect learning strategies which enable learners to create and to be responsible for their own language learning. In addition, metacognitive learning strategies refer to knowledge above cognition or executive control of self-management through such processes as planning, monitoring, and evaluating (Wenden & Rubin, 1990). Moreover, they are used to oversee regulate or self-directed language learning. Learners with metacognitive strategies can make plan for their studies. Learners without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without directions and abilities to review their accomplishment, progress, and future learning direction and abilities to review their accomplishment, progress, and future learning direction (Wenden & Rubin, 1987: 25).

Further, Oxford (1990) believes that metacognitive learning strategies affect learners’ achievement in learning especially in reading skill. As she states that other metacognitive learning strategies such as paying attention, over viewing with already unknown material, organizing, setting goals and objectives,
considering the purpose, and planning for language task, help learners to arrange and plan their reading comprehension in efficient and effective way.

Considering with Oxford statement, it can be said that there is an implication between metacognitive learning strategies and learners’ achievement in reading comprehension. Moreover, based on Oxford, Wenden and Rubin, it is assumed that metacognitive strategies give possibilities for the learners to manage their own learning process through planning, monitoring, and evaluating. Moreover, the goal of this strategy teaches learners how to become purposeful, effective, and independent learners.

In addition, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) define metacognitive learning strategies as higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring, or evaluating of the success of a learning activity. Here some strategies classified under metacognitive according to O’Malley and Chamot:

- Advance organizers: planning the learning activity in advance. In this case, the students review the materials before they go into class, so that they have enough preparation in advance activity.
- Selective attention: deciding to pay attention to specific parts of the language input or the situation that will help the learners. For example, the students will focus on determining signal words when there is a question about reference. As a result, they have to give their attention toward which part they want to find out.
- Advance preparation: planning for and rehearsing linguistic components necessary to carry out an upcoming language task. In this strategy,
linguistic components are needed such 1) grammatical, 2) sociolinguistic, 3) discourse, and 4) strategic components. Grammatical component refers to the readers’ grammar knowledge which has an impact on getting meaning. Sociolinguistic is the readers’ ability to use language appropriately in various social contexts. Discourse component refers to the knowledge of acceptable patterns in written and spoken language which help interpret the texts. Strategic component refers to the readers’ ability to use a variety of language strategies while reading.

- Self-management: trying to arrange the appropriate conditions for learning and understanding necessary conditions for reading and managing their own motivation for tasks as well as adjusting reading rate. For example, the students sit in the front of the class so they can see the teacher easily.

- Self-monitoring: checking one’s performance as one speaks. Here, the students sometimes cut short a word because they realize they are unable to select appropriate word.

- Delayed production: deliberately postponing speaking that one may learn by listening. For example, the students talk when they have to, but they keep it short and hope they will be understood.

- Self-evaluation: checking how well one’s doing against one’s own standards. Here, the students can identify their achievement objectively. In this case, students evaluate what they have done on their tasks according to the standard rule. They at last can recognize how well their achievement is.
All the strategies explained above are very important for learners to gain their attention and energy on focusing to certain language ask, activities skills, or materials in their language learning process. Learners who apply these strategies have chances to organize and plan their learning especially in reading comprehension in order to get the best. Therefore, it is really necessary for learners to have knowledge about metacognitive strategies and of course to also apply these strategies in their comprehending English texts, so they can optimize and achieve their learning goals in reading.

2.8.3 Social Strategies

Social strategies are often called as a social mediation, the strategies under this category are asking question, cooperating with other, and empathizing with others (Setiyadi, 2012). Social strategies are those activities learners engage in which afford them opportunities to be exposed to and practice their knowledge (Wenden & Rubin, 1987).

Wong-Fillmore (1976) in Wenden and Rubin (1987) identifies two social strategies: join a group and act as if you understand what is going on, even if you do not, and count on your friends for help. These strategies contribute only indirectly to learning since they do not lead directly to the obtaining, storing, retrieving, and using of language.

Wenden and Rubin (1987) also makes a list other activities which may contribute indirectly to learning, all of them under the rubric: “creates opportunity for practice”. The list includes: creates situation with natives in order to verify or
test or practice; initiates conversation with student or teacher or native speaker; answer to self; questions to other students; spends extra time in language lab; listens to television or radio, attends movies or parties or uses advertisement, reads extra books often first in native language, then in target language; and identifies learning preferences and selects learning situations accordingly.

In summary, in using social strategies the learners prefer to ask other people than to learn by themselves. It indicates that the learners tend to learn with their peers or to consult with the teacher when they find some difficulties in comprehending reading text. In addition, they usually have a discussion and create an opportunity to share idea for practicing with their peers (cooperation), help the other friends when they get confused about the text, and sometimes giving praise to other. So, it can be predicted the students may have equal reading achievement.

So, in relation to reading skill, social strategies can give a big effect since these strategies contribute to develop equal opportunity for the learners practicing their reading skill indirectly by creating group discussion and sharing their opinion of a text. It can then be assumed that their reading achievement will also be relatively similar.

2.9 Good and Poor Language Learners

A good or poor language learner means a learner’s who is successful and unsuccessful in using some efforts in order to improve her or his language skill. In accordance with Fedderholdt (1998), successful language learners make use of different types of learning strategies. The language learner, who is able to use a
wide variety of language learning strategies appropriately, is better equipped to improve her language skills. In this point, we can see that good learners will know what they should do to improve their language skill than the poor ones.

Furthermore, Rubin (1987) suggests that good L2 learners are willing and accurate guessers; have a strong drive to communicate; are often uninhibited; are willing to take mistakes; focus on form by looking for and analyzing the patterns, take advantage of all practice opportunities, monitor their speech as well as that of others, and pay attention to meaning. While, according to Omaggio (1978) in Setiyadi (2011: 59) introduce language learning strategies that successful language learners employ. The learning strategies that successful language learners employ are as seen below.

1. Successful language learners have insight into their own language learning styles and preferences as well as the nature of the task itself.

   In this case, the successful learners adopt personal style or positive learning strategy that fits their needs and preferences. They can adapt to various methodologies and materials and know how to find, sort, and analyze the linguistic data.

2. Successful language learners take an active approach to the learning task.

   This actually means that the learners select learning objectives for themselves and deliberately involve themselves in the second language. They are sensitive to connotative and sociocultural meaning because they contribute to amount of implicit information people provide when communicating about a topic and
are socialised to act, communicate and ‘be’ in ways that are culturally appropriate to the groups in which the students participate as members, and through which identities are formed.

3. Good language learners are good guessers.

The learners use clues effectively and make legitimate inferences. For example, the success of reading comprehension strategies that involves guessing including using contextual clues to determine meaning and reading ‘around’ unknown words.

4. Good language learners generally have a tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language.

The learners are able to put themselves on another person’s place, identifying to some extent with the native speakers.

Moreover, Rubin in Wenden and Rubin (1987:15) assume that successful learners will differ to some extent in the particular sets on cognitive processes and behaviors which they use to enable them to be successful. Related to Rubin’s previous assumption, O’Malley in (1987:133) suggests that less competent learners should be able to improve their skills in a second language through training on strategies evident among more successful language learners. With successful training, less competent learners should be able to apply strategies to similar language task.

In addition, Hismanoglu (2000) states that the unsuccessful learners employed cognitive strategies less frequently and less effectively than successful
learners did. Unsuccessful (poor) learners adopt a word-centered model of reading, try to process word meaning rather than trying to comprehend and retrain the meaning of the text. Besides, the unsuccessful learners are less frequently certain ‘demanding’ cognitive strategies, such as guessing from the context, activating prior knowledge, using imagery, keeping meaning in mind, as well as strategies based on linguistic features of the text. For example, activating prior knowledge, the unsuccessful learners who did not know to activate their schemata when it is needed, they may not comprehend a text well. Because, the learners’ background knowledge play an important role in understanding a text. It is expected that a learner have enough background knowledge to have optimal comprehension. This is important because a learner cannot rely only on the information from a text, something intrinsic to the text, for the text itself does not carry meaning. There should be an interaction between those factors, something intrinsic to the learner and to the text.

Concerning metacognitive strategies, unsuccessful learners are aware of a smaller repertoire of metacognitive strategies. In this case, the unsuccessful learners reply on a much slower analytical procedure and tend to employ word-level cues to focus on decoding the text and they do not frequently activate content schemata when needed, and do not control reading comprehension to a sufficient degree.

Hamalik in Afdaleni (2013) says that the use of proper (good) strategies is believed to bring the satisfying learning outcomes for the learner. On the other hand, improper strategies will lead into the failure. In this case, the teachers
should be aware that the learners do not just need their explanation about the material, but the learners need to know how to learn.

Based on the previous statement, it can be said that good language learners will differ from the poor ones. They attend to use a variety of learning strategies to improve their language skill and they know exactly when they should apply the right strategy in learning. Meanwhile, the poor language learners are confused about the way to improve their language skill. Therefore, they better know how the good language learners have done in learning then train themselves to use those strategies. Hopefully it can help the unsuccessful learners to be more successful learners.

2.10 Language Learning Strategies of Successful and Unsuccessful Learners

Rubin (1971) in Wenden and Rubin (1987) mentions in her research about the strategies of successful learners that once identified, such strategies could be made available to less successful learners. Rubin (1975) in Wenden and Rubin (1987) defines language learning strategies as what learners do, that is they are active, and often itemized in term of verbs (reading, memorizing, planning, revising, etc.). In addition, Rubin (1981) in Wenden and Rubin (1987) reports of subsequent research classifies strategies in term of processes that may contribute directly to learning (i.e. clarification or verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing or inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, and practice) and those may contribute indirectly to learning (i.e. creating opportunity to practice and use of production tricks).
According to Ghonsooly (1997) in Syatriana (2011) there are thirteen cognitive strategies, and eight of them - described below – are perhaps common used in reading activity by successful learners.

1. Using background knowledge: This strategy refers to using knowledge about the words and contents of the text that contributes to understanding and processing the text. So, it can be said that using background knowledge is applying background knowledge to new concept or making personal associations in comprehending a text. This strategy corresponds to what O’Malley and Chamot call elaboration.

2. Prediction: This strategy refers to predicting the content of the text based on the information presented in part of the text. The learners can use this strategy to tackle difficult text because this strategy is so useful to make the learners aware of what will happen next in a text.

3. Repetition to get the meaning of a word: This strategy occurs when the reader repeats a word or a phrase in order to remember the meaning from the long term memory.

4. Inference (Reprocessing to get the meaning of a word): This strategy refers to the act of rereading a phrase, a clause or a sentence in order to infer or guess the meaning of an unknown word.

5. Translation: This strategy refers to using L1 to provide equivalent for a word or stating the contents of a sentence.
6. Using a dictionary: This strategy refers to the simple act of referring to a dictionary to look up the meaning of an unknown word or item. This strategy corresponds to what O’Malley and Chamot call resourcing.

7. Grammatical analysis: This strategy refers to using the knowledge of grammar to interpret and understand a word, a phrase or a sentence. This strategy corresponds to what O’Malley and Chamot call deduction.

8. Imagery: This strategy refers to using visual image and visualizing the content of a text in order to understand.

Meanwhile, Wong-Fillmore (1976) in Wenden and Rubin (1987) identifies that social strategies used by successful language learners. Further, Wong-Fillmore finds out that by using a few well chosen formulas, learners could continue to participate in activities which provided contexts for the learning of few materials.

Furthermore, Hosenfeld (1977) in Wenden and Rubin (1987) reports on the reading strategies of successful and unsuccessful second language learners obtained by using the “think aloud” type of introspection. Research shows that successful readers are good at remembering what they were reading in the process of reading. Hosenfeld finds out that successful readers use some form of contextual guessing based on the process of inductive reasoning.

On the contrary, the unsuccessful learners are more forgetful of redundant information in passage and had a negative self-sense. In addition, Hosenfeld reports on a metacognitive strategy in which the student evaluates thinking by assessing the appropriateness of the logic of a guess. Moreover, once the
strategies of good language learners are identified, they can be made available and, where useful, used by less successful learners to enable them to learn a foreign or second language more effectively (Hosenfeld, 1979 in Wenden & Rubin, 1987:16). Block (1986) in Zhou and Zhao (2014) also uses a think-aloud procedure in his investigation into two groups of non-proficient readers: integrators and non-integrators. The result shows that the former made more progress in developing their reading skills than the latter.

2.11 Measurement of Learning Strategy and Reading Comprehension

Language Learning Strategy Questionnaire (LLSQ) for reading skill was used by the researcher to measure learners learning strategies. A set of questionnaire was given by the researcher in order to know the learners’ learning strategies in studying English especially in reading skill. The researcher used Setiyadi’s questionnaire in Setiyadi (2011) because it had been arranged into three classification of learning strategies and supported by O’Malley’s classification, namely, cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, and social strategies. LLSQ had determined in which item designed to measure the three strategies. Moreover, the classification of the language was based on theories of skill-based learning strategies in which these strategies cover four areas of the language skills: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Even though, the questionnaire covers four areas of the language skill in English, in this research, the researcher focused on reading skill only. Each area in the questionnaire consists of 20 items. The items have a numerical value, for example:
1 = Never or almost never true of me

2 = Usually not true of me

3 = Somewhat true of me

4 = Usually true of me

5 = Always or almost always true of me

Table 1 Strategy Classification of the LLSQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Reading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Item no. 1 – 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive</td>
<td>Item no. 12 – 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Item no. 18 – 20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, a reading test was given in order to know students’ reading achievement in comprehending text and see how many students who pass the standard scoring criteria. After distributing the questionnaire and giving a reading test, the data will be gathered and computed through Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

2.12 Theoretical Assumption

In this research, the researcher wanted to determine the most frequent learning strategies employed by the successful learners in reading. From the literature review above, it could be assumed that learning strategies were essential factors that could influence students’ reading comprehension and the strategies had positive role toward reading comprehension. Obviously, having a good strategy was the best way to be successful language learner in learning reading especially.
In terms of the learning strategies, i.e., cognitive learning strategy, the researcher saw that this strategy seemed effective and the most frequent strategy employed by successful learners in reading comprehension. Since reading is a complex cognitive activity that is crucial for adequate functioning and for obtaining information in current society and requires an integration of memory and meaning construction (Alfassi, 2000 in Zare & Othman, 2013).

Since this research identifies the comparison of learning strategies between successful learners and unsuccessful learners in reading comprehension, the researcher made some assumptions about what the good learners were. Certainly, the successful learners were passed the standard criteria of English subject scoring. Moreover, the learners effectively used their prior knowledge about the topic of the text during reading time. While reading a text, the learners enable to build their critical thinking about what would happen and give some comments to the text itself.

2.13 Hypothesis

H₁: Cognitive learning strategies are more frequently used by successful learners in reading comprehension than unsuccessful ones.

H₀: Cognitive learning strategies are not more frequently used by unsuccessful learners than successful ones in reading comprehension.

This chapter consists of some theories which provide the information on reading comprehension, reading strategies, concepts of learning strategy,
categories of learning strategies, reading strategies of successful and unsuccessful learners, and how to measure learning strategy and reading comprehension. By referring the concepts, theoretical assumption and hypothesis are constructed.