Arising Reading Patterns in Understanding Literary Texts

Revathi Gopal1
Charanjit Kaur Swaran Singh2

1Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Languages and Communications, Sultan Idris Education University, Tanjung Malim, Perak 35900, MALAYSIA
2Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Languages and Communications, Sultan Idris Education University, Tanjung Malim, Perak 35900, MALAYSIA

Abstract
This paper reviews reading attempts made by students at the lower secondary level in oral reading and retelling to understand literary texts. The study involved a qualitative research method in collecting data, which relates to the students’ reading patterns in understanding literary texts and the impact of students’ reading patterns on literary texts comprehension. The sample in this study comprised six average ability Form One (i.e. seventh grade) students from a secondary school. Data collection techniques included content analysis of students’ oral reading and retelling. Students’ oral reading and retelling were centred in the literature textbook currently used in lower secondary school. Data collected were subsequently analysed by using frequency counts in the form of percentages. The findings from oral readings show that students formed their own mental framework to guide them through in text comprehension, and the results of retellings analysis suggest that the literary texts were readable and were within the students’ comprehension level. However, none was able to infer beyond the text and to relate the text to one’s own life. This did not influence students’ text comprehension. The study indicates that different forms of patterns arose during oral reading among students in ways how they connected the ideas on the page to comprehend the literary texts. This aided teachers in their choices of classroom instructions that best fit the students’ reading ability.

Keywords: Reading patterns, retelling, text comprehension

* Corresponding author, email: revathi@fbk.upsi.edu.my


Received May 8, 2020; Revised July 22, 2020; Accepted August 10, 2020

https://doi.org/10.24815/siele.v7i2.16663
©Syiah Kuala University. All rights reserved.
1. INTRODUCTION

English language reading materials catered for students at the secondary level are English language textbook and literature component (Ministry of Education in Malaysia, 2000). Literature component was incorporated in the English language syllabus in the year 2000 (Ministry of Education in Malaysia, 2000). It is a reading program aiming to enhance the students’ language proficiency. After about eleven years of implementation of the literature component, a new cycle of literary texts was introduced to the secondary level students in the year 2011. Teaching literature in an English classroom can be a smooth process if students at lower secondary schools could interact with the literary texts efficiently. Students from different social backgrounds with different language ability, react differently towards the literary texts. Literary texts must be at the students’ level of understanding, otherwise reading process could be crippled (Isa & Mahmud, 2012). Proficient students may find text comprehension easy but not for the rest in the classroom. This requires the teacher to look into each individual - student’s reading skills so that all of the students can participate and engage themselves in the classroom activities. Significantly, this study is conducted to find out whether the literary texts prescribed for lower secondary students are within their level of comprehension, and for this, students’ reading patterns are analysed as to how they comprehend the literary text. This provides authentic information about the students’ reading strategies and a means to identify specific weaknesses and strengths. Accordingly, teachers would be able to develop appropriate lessons in order to aid the development of students’ reading strategies. Studies have been conducted on how students read to understand texts since 1967 (Goodman, 1967).

Research on understanding reading processes, especially on meaning construction through reading patterns with monolingual and bilingual students and adults in a variety of languages, has also been conducted (Brown et al., 1996). Additionally, scholars found out three common patterns which are the specific word-reading difficulties, specific reading comprehension difficulties, and mixed reading difficulties in reading patterns among students (Spear-Swerling, 2015). In the Malaysian context, studies on students’ reading patterns helped in identifying proficient and less proficient readers (Adeena & Shamala, 2014). Even though many studies have been dealt with reading patterns that gauge text comprehension, little is explored in the reading patterns that relate to the type of text. Therefore, this study is conducted to fill the gap and provide insights into reading patterns that correlate the literary text prescribed for Malaysian lower secondary school students. Accordingly, the research objectives help to identify the students’ reading patterns in literary text comprehension and find out the impact of the students’ reading patterns on literary text comprehension. In achieving the research objectives, research questions are formulated to seek answers to the research problem. The research questions are:

i) What are the students’ reading patterns in literary text comprehension?

ii) How do the students’ reading patterns impact on their literary text comprehension?
2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Reading models provide an overview of different theories of reading because they form the basis of this study. Reading models that are important in this study include bottom-up, top-down, and socio-psycholinguistics.

2.1 Bottom-up Model

Gough (1972), an important proponent of the bottom-up model, states that this model of reading begins with the eyes identifying visual information from the reading text. The visual information is picked during the process of fixation. In this model, reading is perceived as a serial process, beginning from left to right. Readers need to identify each word at a time. This model is text-driven and reading begins from low-level processing. Meaning is found in the text, and successful reading depends on the ability of the readers to decode accurately. The bottom-up model describes information flow as a series of stages that transform the input and passes it to the next stage without any feedback or possibility of later stages of the process influencing earlier stages (Stanovich, 1980). In other words, language is viewed as a code and the readers’ main task is to identify graphemes and convert them into phonemes. Consequently, readers are regarded as passive recipients of information in the text. This means that meaning resides in the text and the reader has to reproduce it.

2.2 Top-down Model

Goodman (1967) proposes that conceptual knowledge is mainly responsible for forming hypotheses and constructing meaning. Reading is conceptually driven because it starts with what readers bring to the text and works its way down to the print. Readers will use their non-visual information to select minimum visual cues and meaning is achieved through higher-level information. In this model, readers start reading by using their knowledge of the language and the subject matter to predict the text. The top-down reading model connotes to the psycholinguistic process, a process that involves thought and the language.

2.3 Socio-psycholinguistic Model

Goodman (1967) proposes that reading is an interactive process which involves the thought and the language as in the psycholinguistics stance. Later, Goodman (1996), points out that contexts are influential during reading. Contexts, according to Goodman (1996) refers to three linguistics system which readers make use of while reading. They are grapho-phonics, syntax, and semantics. The cueing system may differ among readers in grasping the meaning from texts because of different prior knowledge.

The reading models explain how one reads to understand a text. The bottom-up emphasises that the meaning is constructed from the print followed by the top-down reading model which is a conceptually driven method, where the meaning is brought to the text by the readers. Meanwhile, the socio-psycholinguistic model sheds light that reading is a process bounded by certain contexts, the three-linguistics system.
2.4  Reading Patterns

It is interesting to know how students attempt to make sense of a literary text. Students make use of the three language cueing systems when they read. These systems are grapho-phonetic, semantic, and syntactic cues. Tolistelf (2007) refers to the language cueing systems to an actual observed response in oral reading which does not match the expected response. The responses are not random errors, but are rather cued by the interaction between thought and language in the readers’ mind as the written material is processed (Brown et al., 1996). Students’ miscue patterns vary across the function of the interaction among the students’ skills and backgrounds, the nature of the written material, and the conditions surrounding its presentation (Goodman, 1996).

According to Goodman (1996), miscues suggest ineffective reading strategies. It is assumed that students’ language system is developed but they failed to use their knowledge of the language while reading. Language competence varies considerably among students, and reading proficiency is related to language competence. The patterns which arise in oral reading are the result of differently developed language systems in students.

2.5  Retelling

Retelling requires students to reconstruct their text comprehension within their own minds, and then present the information about the literary text, as they understand it (Goodman et al., 2005). Students must use their language skills as reading, writing, listening, speaking, summarizing, and interpreting, among others (Lapp et al., 2010). Students must read or listen to a story by using appropriate strategies for reading or listening (Schisler et al., 2010). Then, students must recall, interpret, organize, and summarize the story, extracting the main ideas and key terms (John et al., 2003). This helps students to organize, summarize, and process the information. In order to do this, students must remember the story, all the events, pick out the important pieces, and retell the story in the correct order. They must analyse the events, reconstruct the story, and put the events in the correct sequence (Lapp et al., 2010). When retelling the story, students must tie up the events cohesively.

Many studies have found that retelling can help improve students’ comprehension. Retelling has benefits for both literal and inferential comprehension (Gambrell et al., 2015). Besides, Morrow (1985) found that comprehension was enhanced during activities that required students to become actively engaged in reconstructing a story, such as retelling tasks. This finding is consistent with Gambrell et al. (2015), who found that retelling improves comprehension because it requires students to reorganize information.

2.6  Oral Reading

Oral reading is a teaching technique frequently employed for instruction in English language classrooms. This is a method of assessment to increase the comprehension of the students. Hill (2010) states that oral language provides a framework for phonological, and semantical production of the ability to speak, write, and read. In the same vein, Brooke (2017) claims that there are various components to oral language: phonology, grammar, morphology, voice, and pragmatism. Through
oral reading, students acquire the sound of a language, so that syllables can be put into words. Oral reading is a vital competency that helps students to understand various types of writing genres for example narrative, descriptive and expository text, and how they are written. The value of oral language can be seen in the way it serves students’ communication capacity in both oral and written form (Reeder & Baxa, 2017). Bayetto (2015) states that as students learn to read, they draw upon their existing knowledge of the oral language, making connections between written texts and developing an understanding of the different uses of words in a written context. Oral language skills enable students to communicate with each other, allowing them to acquire skills through learning that contribute to improved comprehension, and communicating experiences with others (Lawrence & Snow 2011). Researchers find that comprehension skills of the students are strengthened as the oral reading increases. Additionally, students’ knowledge of grammar develops, students understand the combination of words and phrases into sentences and how sentences are combined into paragraphs (Brooke, 2017). Students benefit from oral reading as they can build the confidence and resilience needed to attain a high level of academic and language learning.

3. METHODS

3.1 Research Design

A qualitative approach was used to collect data. Miscue analysis and retelling were conducted with the students. Miscue analysis measured oral reading accuracy at the word level by identifying how students deviate from the literary text while reading aloud (Goodman, 1996). This analysis provided information on the reading strategies used to comprehend texts. Types of patterns analysed for each student were substitution, insertion, omission, self-correction, repetition, and hesitation (Goodman et al., 2005). The in-depth procedure proposed by Goodman et al. (2005) was used to analyse the miscues as it can identify how students make use of miscues to construct meaning during the reading process. In conjunction with oral reading, retelling was conducted. Each retelling was judged by comparing the content of retellings using the criteria developed by Irwin and Mitchell (1983), a 5-point scale. This scale provides a holistic evaluation in which it assesses students’ ability to identify overall text structure, main ideas, relevant details, summarize, and generalize beyond the text.

3.2 Research Samples

The research sample of this study was a total of six Form One (i.e. seventh grade) students from a secondary school in the Manjung district in Perak state, Malaysia. The students were selected based on purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is a form of non-random sampling whereby the samples are chosen from the population with a specific purpose in mind (Creswell, 2013). They were 13-years-old students with an intermediate level of English language proficiency.
3.3 Research Instruments

A passage from the short story, “Fair’s Fair” by Dhami (2014, pp. 26-32) was used to code the reading patterns of the students. This short story is chosen because it is prescribed as the literature textbook for the lower secondary students by the Malaysian Education Ministry and students have access to this textbook. Additionally, five comprehension questions were addressed to check on students’ text comprehension which are:
1) What happened at the beginning of the story?
2) Where did the story happen?
3) What was (insert character’s name) problem in the story?
4) How did (character’s name) try to solve his/her problem?
5) How did the story end?

3.4 Data Collection Procedures

Data collection procedures for reading patterns involve the recording of students’ oral reading and coding of the miscues in the coding sheets. Each line in the code sheet was numbered so that miscues are identified as to where they occurred. The coding system used in this session was adapted from Argyle (1989). For example, the codes for:
• omission (the old tree)
• insertion (the old ^ tree)
• substitution (the old tree – Dray), and
• inversion (the old tree).

In conjunction with the readings for miscue patterns, students were asked to answer five wh-questions based on the passage to assess their comprehension level of the passage read. The retelling was tape-recorded and a tape script was developed. The tape script was assessed based on the criteria set by Irwin and Mitchell’s (1983), 5-point scoring scale. It provided a holistic evaluation of the students’ ability to identify overall text structure, main ideas, relevant details, summarize, and generalize beyond the text. Each retelling assigned a score ranging from a low of 1 to a high of 5.

3.5 Data Analysis

Data analysis for reading patterns were analysed in the form of percentages. As for substitution miscues, the accepted and unaccepted miscues are analysed in the three aspects of grapho-phonetic, semantic, and syntactic cueing systems. The calculation for the percentages of accepted and unaccepted substitution was calculated by the total number of accepted substitutions divided by the total number of substitutions that occurred and multiplied by 100. The same calculation was applied for unaccepted substitutions and the rest of the miscues committed by students. Each miscue was calculated by the total number of each miscue that occurred divided by the overall total number of the miscues and is multiplied by 100 (percentage of miscue patterns = total of each miscue patterns ÷ overall total miscues x 100 %). This calculation is adapted from Janan (2011). As for the retellings, the scores for the students assigned using the
criteria set by Irwin and Mitchell’s (1983), 5-point scoring scale, were counted and analysed using descriptive statistical analysis in the form of percentages

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Students’ Reading Patterns in Literary Text Comprehension

Students were analysed for their reading patterns which revealed their reading strategies in text comprehension. Substitutions, insertions, omissions, and inversions are prevalent among the students in the reading activity, particularly to understand the literary text. The following sub-sections explain the students’ use of patterns in their oral reading.

4.1.1 Substitution

The substitution was made by all students except for Student 2. Student 1 made use of six substitutions. The student substituted the word ‘won’t’ with ‘don’t’, in the sentence “And my dad won’t give us anymore”. In this example, the substitution of ‘won’t’ for ‘don’t’ showed that the student used the middle consonant ‘o’ as well as the ending blend, possibly recognizing the ‘on ‘t’ pattern in the word ‘don’t’. In the graphic cueing system, the word substituted, showed some graphic similarity because both of the words look alike at the ending pattern. It means that there are some graphic similarities with the words. Phonically, the word pronounced corresponded a little to the written text, especially at the ending part. Therefore, there is some phonetic similarity. This partially reflected the student’s strength.

In the sentence, “Something fell out of her bag”, the preposition ‘of’ was substituted with the preposition ‘from’, the same parts of speech. The student had made use of the consonant ‘F’, the ending initial in the word ‘of’, possibly to recognize the word ‘from’ for ‘of’. The pronunciation of the substituted word was unacceptable in the phonetic cueing system because there was no phonetic similarity. Even graphically, there was no similarity between the word substituted and the original word in the literary text.

Therefore, it exhibited the student’s weakness. Grammatically, the word substituted fits correctly into the sentence and it makes sense within the whole passage. The meaning was not changed either syntactically or semantically. Hence, the cue was coded as a student’s strength.

In the sentence, “It must be that woman’s purse,” said Sam, the word ‘it’ which is used to describe a thing in the sentence was substituted with a personal pronoun ‘I’ by Student 1. In this example, there was a high possibility that the student made use of the vowel ‘I’ in the beginning blend and omits the consonant ‘T’. In the graphic cueing system, there was some similarity but no phonetic similarity. Therefore, the strategy used was the student’s weakness. In the aspect of grammar, the substituted word did not fit in the sentence nor does it make sense within the whole passage. There was a change in the meaning, and the sentence became ungrammatical. This was considered as a weakness in the students’ reading strategy.

Additionally, in the sentence, “Wow! There’s a lot of money in her purse”, the article ‘a’ was substituted with the verb-to-be ‘are’ by the student. Student 1 most
probably made use of the vowel ‘a’ at the beginning blend to come up with the word ‘are’, a verb-to-be. There is some graphic similarity, but no phonic similarity. The pronunciation did not match the written word. Hence, it is the student’s weakness. Grammatically, the word substituted does not fit in the phrase as there will be two verbs-to-be, ‘is’ and ‘are’ in the sentence. Therefore, syntactically and semantically the substituted word was unaccepted. The cue showed the student’s weakness.

In the sentence, “You could keep it”, said Raj, Student 1 substituted the modal verb ‘could’ to another modal verb ‘should’, which is the same parts of speech. The student had used the middle consonant ‘ou’ and the ending blend ‘ld’ to recognize the word ‘should’. This suggests that there is a high graphic similarity as well as some phonic cueing system similarity. This was coded as the student’s strength. The word substituted was acceptable and fit in the sentence grammatically although the degree of certainty between the two modal verbs differs. Within the whole passage, the word did not change the meaning either in the sentence. It was considered a strength for the student.

Moreover, Student 2 did not make any substitutions. Student 3 made two substitutions. Firstly, in the sentence, “She walked on up the street”, the preposition ‘up’ was substituted by ‘ap’ which is not a word. There is some phonic and graphic similarity between ‘up’ and ‘ap’. The student had probably used the ending of consonant ‘P’ in the word ‘up’ to recognize the non-word ‘ap’. This reflected the student’s weakness. The substitution of non-word did not make any sense neither in the sentence nor within the whole passage. It was also unaccepted syntactically. Therefore, the miscue was coded as a weakness.

Next, in the sentence, “gave me five pounds! Now I can”, the word ‘gave’ in the phrase was substituted by the word ‘give’. The student made use of the beginning consonant ‘G’ and the ending pattern ‘VE’ to recognize the word ‘give’. There is a high graphic and phonic similarity in the word substituted with the word in the print. This exhibited the student’s strength. The word substituted does not change the meaning of the phrase. Syntactically, the substituted word was accepted. It was the student’s strength. However, the word ‘give’ is a present form of the word ‘gave’ which does not fit grammatically in the phrase because the story is in the past tense. There was no attempt made by the student to correct the mistake. Semantic wise, this was coded as a weakness.

Furthermore, Student 4 made use of four substitutions. In the sentence, “Wow! There’s a lot of money in here.”, the student substituted the word ‘there’ for ‘here’. This showed that the student used the word ‘here’ to recognize the word ‘there’. There is a high graphic and phonic similarity in the ending pattern. The miscue was coded as the student’s strength. In this sentence, the word ‘there’ fits grammatically within the sentence and the whole passage. It makes sense because the meaning was not distorted. As such, it was coded as the student’s strength.

In the sentence, “He saw the woman standing at the bus stop”, the preposition ‘at’ was substituted with the preposition ‘of’. The two words are of the same parts of speech. However, there are no graphic and phonic similarities between both of the words. It was coded as the student’s weakness. The substitution which changes the meaning of the sentence was unaccepted both syntactically and semantically. Hence, it was coded as a weakness.

Additionally, in the sentence “And we can eat lots of candy floss”, the initial ‘s’ was added to the word ‘eat’. In the grapho-phonetic cueing system, there is a high
graphic and phonic similarities. It was coded as the student’s strength. The addition of the initial ‘s’ did not distort the meaning of the sentence. However, it was incorrect semantically because a modal verb always follows a base form of a verb. There were no attempts made by the student to correct the mistake. Therefore, it exhibited a weakness.

Student 5 made two substitution miscues. In the sentence, “That’s what fell out of her bag.”, the word ‘fell’ was substituted with a present tense word of ‘fall’. In this example, the student made use of the consonant ‘F’ in the beginning as well as ‘LL’ in the ending blend, possibly recognizing the ‘ll’ pattern in the word ‘fall’. In the grapho-phonetic cueing system, there is a high graphic similarity and some phonetic similarity. It was coded as a strength for the student because the substituted word did not change the meaning of the sentence. However, semantically it was ungrammatical because the substituted word was in the present form and within the whole passage, it was unacceptable. As such, it was coded as the student’s weakness.

Student 6 made use of one substitution in the sentence, “What shall we do?” asked Raj. The personal pronoun ‘we’ was substituted with ‘I’ which is a personal pronoun, too. In the grapho-phonetic cueing system, there is no graphic or phonetic similarity. At the sentence level, the meaning was not distorted and was grammatical. Within the whole passage, it was ungrammatical because there were three characters involved, not one. Therefore, the mistake was the student’s weakness.

Similar substitutions occurred in the oral reading among Students 1, 4, and 5 which was in the sentence “Lee ran back to Raj and Sam”. The past form of the word, ‘ran’ was substituted with the present form ‘run’. Probably these students made use of the consonant ‘R’ in the beginning and ‘N’ in the ending to recognize the word run. In the grapho-phonetic cueing system, there is a high graphic similarity and some phonetic similarity. It was a strength for the students. At the sentence level, the substituted word did not distort the meaning. As such, it was accepted syntactically. It was a strength for the students. Within the whole passage, the substituted word was unacceptable because the passage is in the past tense. Therefore, semantically, it was ungrammatical and was coded as the students’ weakness.

In the analysis of the reading pattern which was on substitution, it was found that Student 1 made six substitutions in which three of them were accepted in the grapho-phonetic cueing system and considered a strength while three were unacceptable (weaknesses). In the grammatical aspect, three of them were accepted syntactically (strengths) and three others were unacceptable (weaknesses). Semantically, four of the miscues were accepted (strengths) and three were unacceptable (weaknesses). Therefore, Student 1’s percentage of strength was 45% (11/24/ x 100%) and weaknesses were 29% (7/24 x 100%).

It was enlightening to note that Student 2 did not produce any substitutions. Student 3 produced two substitutions. Both of the substitutions were accepted in the grapho-phonetic cueing system. In grammatical relation, only one substitution was accepted syntactically and the other was unacceptable semantically. Hence, the percentage of strengths was 62% (5/8 x 100%) and weaknesses were 37% (3/8 x 100%).

Student 4 produced four substitutions in which three of the miscues were accepted in the grapho-phonetic cueing system and the syntactic system. Semantically, four of the miscues were unacceptable. The percentage of strength is 56% (9/16 x 100%) and weakness is 44% (7/16 x 100). Student 5 made three substitutions. All the miscues
were accepted in the grapho-phonic cueing system. Syntactically, two were accepted but none was accepted semantically. The percentage of strength was 66% (8/12 x 100%) and weakness was 33% (4/12 x 100%).

Student 6 made one substitution. It was unaccepted in the grapho-phonic cueing system. Grammatically, it was accepted in the syntactic system but not semantically. The percentage of strengths is 25% (1/4 x 100%) and the weaknesses is 25% (3/12 x 100%).

4.1.2 Insertion

Insertion miscues occurred among Students 1, 3, and 5. Insertion miscues were made when a word is added in between two words. For Student 1, in line 12: “Something fell out of her of bag.” The preposition ‘of’ inserted in the sentence between ‘her’ and ‘bag’ did not distort the meaning. However, semantically it was unacceptable because two prepositions in a sentence are ungrammatical. The strategy used showed the students’ weaknesses.

Student 3 inserted the preposition ‘in’ between the word ‘on’ and ‘the’ in the sentence, “We can go on in the ghost train”. The addition of the word ‘in’ formed an ungrammatical sentence as it was redundant. It was coded as the student’s weakness. Finally, Student 5 added the word ‘out between the word ‘dropped’ and ‘your’ in the sentence “You dropped out your purse,” said Lee. This was unnecessary and formed an ungrammatical sentence.

In summary, the insertion strategy used in reading activity by the three students affected the meaning of all sentences. This was coded as the students’ weaknesses. When students are nervous, they tend to insert words in the sentences. Student 1, 3, and 5 were responsible for the insertion miscue. The miscue showed 100% (3/3 x 100%) of each student’s weaknesses.

4.1.3 Omission

The word omission happens when reading is done too quickly (Goodman, 1996). However, as students become proficient, they tend to omit known words that are unnecessary for understanding rather than omitting unknown words. In this study, as observed by the researchers the occurrence of omission miscues was due to the students’ fast reading. Thus, this supports Goodman’s (1996) findings on omission miscues. For example, Student 1 omitted the verb ‘got’ in the sentence, “My mum hasn’t got any jobs for us”. This omission led to an incorrect sentence. Meanwhile Student 3, in the phrase “Then you could have a really good”, omitted the word ‘really’. The omitted word ‘got’ by Student 1 in the sentence “My mum hasn’t got any jobs for us” did not affect the meaning syntactically, and the omitted word ‘really’ by Student 3 in the phrase “Then you could have a really good” did not affect the meaning syntactically the sentences and phrase do not affect the meaning syntactically. Nevertheless, the strategy used by the students did not change the meaning of the sentences. Hence, it reflected the student’s strengths. It was found that Students 1 and 3 made an omission miscue. They were accepted syntactically and semantically, showing 50% of both the students’ strengths.
4.1.4 Inversion

Inversion miscue may indicate fluent reading, where the reader is used to what is written in a form close to familiar speech. Inversion occurs when the students have a lack of focus and sometimes out of nervousness, they may inverse words when they read. Only one inversion miscue occurred among the Form One students.

Student 1 made inversion in the sentence, “Here it is”. The words ‘it is’ was reversed to ‘is it’. The inversion miscue did not make a drastic change in meaning. Hence, it was regarded as the students’ strength.

An inversion made by student 1 showed 100% of the student’s strength because it did not change the meaning in the sentence.

4.2 The Impacts of Students’ Reading Patterns on Their Literary Text Comprehension

In conjunction with the oral reading analysis, unaided retellings were carried out to assess the students’ text comprehension. All of the students answered five comprehension questions based on the short story “Fair’s Fair” by Dhami (2014). The students’ retellings ability was judged by using the Irwin and Mitchell’s (1983) retelling scale. Each retelling was assigned with a score ranging from a low level of one to a high level of five. At level 1 the students were only able to relate details, level 2 the students were able to relate a few major ideas. At level 3, the students were able to relate major ideas. In level 4, students were able to make a summarizing statement and at level 5, the students were able to generalize beyond the text in which they relate the content of the story to their daily life. Students’ retellings were short and precise on the questions asked. Their score for each question is shown in Table 1. The description of students’ retelling scores follows the order from students 1 to 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Percentage (Total score/30 x 100)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>Q2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on Table 1, the students’ scores on retellings showed an average understanding of the text. Student 1 scored, 68%. On the five questions asked, Student 1 achieved level 3 for questions 2, 4, and 5, which means that for these questions the student was able to include some main ideas and details; understand text organization; and managed a fairly, complete retelling. For questions 1 and 3, Student 1 achieved level 4. This shows that the student’s retellings for these questions were cohesive and complete on Irwin and Mitchell’s (1983) retelling criteria.

Next, Student 2 achieved level 4 for questions 1, 2, 3, and 5. This means for these questions Student 2’s retellings were cohesive and complete. For question 4, Student 2
achieved level 3, meaning that the student, was able to relate to major ideas in the literary text. The total score for Student 2 is 63%. Besides, Students 3 and 4 achieved level 4 for all the questions. So, these students’ retellings were cohesive and complete. Their score reached 66%. Students 5 and 6 scored level 4 for questions 1 and 3, level 3 for questions 2, 4, and 5. The total score for both the students is 57%. None of the students was able to infer beyond the text and relate the text to one’s own life, which in fact did not influence the students’ text comprehension.

With reference to oral reading analysis and retelling, there was a contrast in the findings. Students who performed well in oral reading did not perform well in the retelling. This indicates that the students were unable to construct maximum meaning from the literary text to perform well in the retellings. In the earlier research, Goodman (1996) found that there are times when the student’s understanding of the material as determined by the retelling score does not complement the comprehension pattern profile. Specifically, some students demonstrated a good understanding of the literary text but whose reading patterns indicate a large percentage of comprehension loss. In contrast, some students demonstrated a minimal understanding of the passage, but whose reading patterns indicate a minimal loss in comprehension. In this study, Student 2 did not commit any miscues during oral reading but her score for retelling is 63%. Additionally, Student 6 only committed a miscue which was a substitution but she achieved 57% for her retelling. Therefore, there may be differences in the way the students interacted with the texts, which might have caused the different comprehension results. Nevertheless, the literary texts catered for Form One students were at their level of understanding.

5. IMPLICATIONS

Reading patterns are strategies formed by students to understand what they read. Students’ strengths and weaknesses in reading could be revealed through their reading patterns. Therefore, students need teachers who understand the reading process and the patterns they apply in text comprehension, particularly to make them comfortable when oral reading activity takes place in the classroom. In addition, teachers must accept the students’ weaknesses in the application of the students’ reading patterns in text comprehension. Teachers could correct the students’ mistakes whenever necessary but should be at the appropriate time. This is because the inappropriate times, when teachers interrupt in between to correct the students’ mistakes, could affect the students negatively such as loss for words and focus on the storyline of the literary text. As a result, during retelling, the students could not answer the questions well. Nevertheless, teachers can expect positive changes in the students’ oral reading, when oral reading is practised in the English language classroom. The students could understand a literary text if oral reading and retelling instructions are conducted daily in English language classrooms. These two instructions complement each other to gauge students’ understanding of literary texts. There is no doubt that oral reading and retelling are time-consuming but are effective assessment tools in getting to know how students understand a literary text. It will be wise for teachers to adjust their teaching and learning activities within their time limit and have patience in conducting both these classroom instructions to obtain effective results on the students’ text comprehension.
6. CONCLUSION

The findings of the study revealed that the students who performed well in their oral reading did not perform well in their retelling. In understanding a literary text, the students’ reading patterns varied. These pattern variations were due to different sets of experiences that the students brought to the text, their level of language proficiency, as well as the surrounding environment where the oral reading took place. Therefore, the meaning interpretation of the text differs according to the students. The meaning of the text should not be viewed as an absolute entity (Endley, 2016). Therefore, teachers should not expect the students to understand a text in the same way as they do. Changes in reading patterns can be seen as the students’ grow with their reading experiences that will pave way for them to be proficient readers.

This study is subject to limitations. This present study is only conducted with six students. Therefore, the findings are not generalizable to a larger population. When more students participate in this study varied reading patterns could be explored. This will provide teachers to more valuable insights on students’ strengths and weaknesses in reading literary texts. The information on students’ reading ability could help teachers to conduct effective literature classroom instruction. In the future researchers may want to conduct studies on the exploration of reading patterns among multiracial students to find out the differences that exist in reading patterns of literary texts. A comparative study could also be conducted between literary texts, fictional and non-fiction to showcase the differences in reading patterns among students of different age levels, gender and language abilities.

REFERENCES


