CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND RELATED RESEARCH

This study highlights the effects of the pre-, while- and post-reading questioning strategies on reading comprehension. Therefore, related literature and research on the following topics are reviewed.

1. Models of Reading Processes
2. Reading Comprehension
3. Stages in Teaching Reading Comprehension
4. Questioning Strategies in Teaching Reading
5. Related Research on Questioning Strategies

2.1 Models of Reading Processes

It is essential for reading teachers to understand the reading processes so they can teach a second/foreign language reading efficiently and effectively. Students, on the other hand, should be trained to make use of the reading processes appropriately to achieve proficiency in reading. Samuel and Kamil (1988) point out that a teacher should pay attention to each of the reading models to get a more comprehensive view of reading and eventually use them in developing reading skills. These models have been developed over time and now there are three of them.

2.1.1 Bottom –up Models

The first reading process is called "bottom up" models (Grabe, 1988; Eskey and Grabe, 1988; Samuels and Kamil, 1988) which is a reading process that mainly employs information already presented in the data (i.e. the words, sentences, clauses,etc.). Carrell

(1988:2) adds that earlier work in ESL readings view reading mainly a passive activity as:

> a decoding process of reconstructing the author's intended meaning via recognizing the printed letters and words, and building up a meaning for a text from the smallest textual units at the "bottom" (letters and words) to larger units at the "top" (phrases, clauses, intersentential linkages) (p.2)

According to bottom-up models, the reader constructs meaning from the smallest units (e.g. letters and words) to larger ones like phrases, clauses, sentences, and paragraphs. That is why they are also called "text-based" and "data driven" processing (Carrell and Eisterhold, 1988; Silberstein, 1994; Brown, 1994). These models require readers to focus more on language within the text in order to decode the meaning from the text and pay no attention to the role of prior knowledge of the reader. As a result, the reader read passively.

2.2.2 Top-down Models

Because of the weaknesses of the bottom-up models, Widdowson (1978) began considering ESL reading as a more active process. When reading, the readers not only need to rely on linguistics features, but also relate their knowledge to the texts to understand them. This process is referred to as "top-down models".

According to Samuel and Kamil (1988), top-down models begin with hypotheses and predictions and the readers attempt to verify them by working down to the written text. Wallace (1992:147) defines the top-down approaches as "the ways of reading texts which attend to global meaning and are activated greatly by existing knowledge of the world rather than the specific linguistic features of the text." This is why Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) view it as being "knowledge-based" or "conceptually driven" ways of processing information.

With regard to Goodman's view (1970), reading is "a psycholinguistic guessing game" involving the interaction between the reader's thought and language within the text." That means the reader constructs the meaning using textual clues: graphophonic, syntactic, and semantic. The act of building meaning is an ongoing cyclical process consisting of sampling from the graphic input, predicting, testing, and confirming or further revising those predictions and sampling. He further states that not all of the textual cues are utilized through the reading process because the reader selects and predicts a language structure which can only be decoded. However, Eskey (1988) points out that the top-down models concentrate on higher-level skills as the prediction of meaning by using context clues or background knowledge. Hence, it can cause a loss of details (Stanvich 1980, cited in Samuel and Kamil, 1988). For instance, the reader who makes too many predictions may encounter misinterpretation of the text.

2.1.3 Interactive Models

Due to the weaknesses in the top-down models, linguists searched for other models which may be more effective. The interactive models are then developed from the basis of Coady's model of EFL readers (Coady 1979, cited in Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983) which suggests that to comprehend any text, the readers should have three areas of knowledge: conceptual ability, process strategies, and background knowledge **(See Figure 1).**

Figure 1 Coady's (1979) Model of the EFL Readers
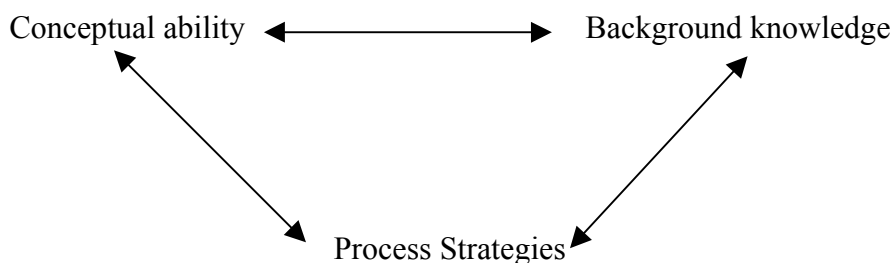
Source: Carrell and Eisterhold (1983: 555)

According to this model, conceptual ability refers to general intelligent capacity; process strategies involves a variety of sub-elements of reading ability consisting of knowledge of phonological, syntactic and semantic systems; and background knowledge refers to the reader's knowledge of the world.

Eskey and Grabe (1988), state that readers need to focus not only on their language knowledge, but also on their related knowledge to process and interpret the text simultaneously.

This model incorporates the implications of reading as an interactive process. That is, the use of background knowledge, expectations, context, and so on. At the same time, it also incorporates notions of rapid and accurate feature recognition for letters and words, spreading activation of lexical forms, and the concept of automaticity in processing such forms—that is, a processing that does not depend on context for primary recognition of linguistic units. (p.224)

In other words, in interactive processes both the top-down and bottom-up models are simultaneously called into use in processing a text. They are subsumed within a single model and take place at the same time in reading. For example, at the beginning readers can use top-down processes by employing their knowledge to make predictions about the text for global comprehension and; then, they move to the bottom-up processes to check their assumption and predictions by reading the details. In doing this, readers rely on their knowledge of language to recognize the linguistic elements—letters, words, and sentence structures— to better understand the construction of meaning (Chia, 2001).

Interactive models are widely accepted as effective processes in reading because they require readers to simultaneously use both bottom-up and top-down models (Eskey,1988, Semuels and Kamil, 1988, Silberstein,1994), making it possible to increase comprehension.

2.2 Reading Comprehension

According to Nuttall (1996:4), reading is defined as "a process to get meaning from a text". Sheng (2000:3) further elaborates that "reading is the process of recognition, interpretation, and perception of written or printed material; whereas, comprehension is viewed as the understanding of the meaning of the written material and covers the conscious strategies that lead to understanding". Moreover, Snow (2002:11) defines reading comprehension as "the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing the meaning through interaction and involvement with written language". This entails readers not only to use grammar and vocabulary knowledge, but also to facilitate understanding.

Teachers need to get a better understanding of the nature of reading comprehension and reading skills which are effective to help students develop their reading skills and comprehension. The more teachers know about the processes and issues involved in reading comprehension, the better they can prepare good reading lessons for their classes (Rubin, 1993).

2.2.1 Reading Comprehension Levels

Reading comprehension can be classified into different levels ranging from the lowest to the highest, which require different levels of reading and thinking abilities. Richard et al, (1992) and Rubin, (1993, 1997), and others, have proposed similar levels of classification in reading comprehension as follows:

a. **Literal comprehension** is reading to understand, remember, or recall the information explicitly contained in the passage.

b. **Interpretation comprehension** is reading to find out information which is not explicitly stated in a passage by employing their experiences and knowledge of the world. Hence, readers are required to think and go beyond what they have read. They need to organize, analyze, classify, summarize, and synthesize the information directly presented in the printed texts.

At this point, Rubin (1997) further elaborates that some of the reading skills in this level require readers to do things as follows:

- determining word meanings from context
- finding main idea
- reading between the lines or making inferences
- drawing conclusions
- making generalizations
- recognizing cause and effect reasoning
- recognizing analogies

c. **Critical or evaluative comprehension** is reading to compare information in a passage with the reader's own knowledge and values. This high-level of comprehension involves evaluation and making a personal judgment on the accuracy of values and truthfulness of what is read.

According to Rubin (1997), to be able to make judgment, a reader must be able to collect, interpret, apply, analyze, and synthesize the information.

d. **Appreciative comprehension** is reading to gain emotional or other kinds of valued responses from a passage. The readers are required to react and give emotional responses to the texts.

It can be seen that the four levels of reading comprehension ranging from the lowest to the highest encourage students to read for different purposes. Teachers should be aware of the range of these levels and plan their lessons according to the suitability of the text students are required to read so that they have chances to develop various skills of reading.

2.2.2 Types of Reading Questions

As can be seen, reading comprehension can be classified into different levels. Hence, to tap different levels of reading comprehension many linguists and reading specialists e.g. Pearson and Johnson (1978, cited in Davey, 1988), Nuttall (1996) and

Burns (1999) have studied and proposed different types of reading questions for comprehension assessment as follows:

Based on Richard et al (1992) and Rubin (1993, 1997), Burns, (1999) adapts and elaborates the four types of reading comprehension questions as follows:

a. **Literal questions** are questions that ask what the writer said or the explicit meaning of the text. In Pearson and Johnson's term (1978, cited in Davey, 1988), these questions can be called "text-explicit questions". That means answers to these questions can be found within a single sentence of the text. They are sometimes called "reading the lines" or "right there questions" The answers can be underlined or copied. These questions involve finding information about who, what, when, and where. Likewise, according to Nuttall's term (1996), these questions are also called "literal questions" which require answers that are directly and explicitly presented in the texts.

b. **Literal rearranged questions** are questions that require the entire answer which is in the passage, but not all in one location. This type of questions requires understanding of the relationships in the text such as cause and effect, sequence, comparison and contrast or topic and sub-topic. They can be called "think and search questions" because the answer has to be found in more than one place. The readers have to think about what is being asked and search for the answer.

c. **Inferential questions** are questions requiring readers to base their answers on the text and employ personal experiences, common sense or schema to find a reasonable answer to the questions. This type of questions can be called "author and me questions". However, Pearson and Johnson, (1978, cited in Davey, 1988) called them "text-implicit questions" or "script-based questions" while Nuttall, (1996) calls them "reinterpretation questions". This is because the answers are not stated in the text. Hence, readers need to read between the lines. They are required to combine the information across sentences and integrate the textual information with their knowledge to find answers that are implied. In other words, readers need to draw a conclusion from the texts.

d. **Critical questions** are questions which go beyond the text to ask questions of opinion or judgment. These questions ask learners to read beyond the lines and require the learners to think about and use their own experiences to make judgement, for example, What is right or wrong? What is more efficient? That is why they are called "on

my own questions" These types of questions can not only open up interesting and lively classroom discussion, but also provide learners an opportunity to participate in monitored practice at all the levels of comprehension.

Besides, these 4 types of questions, Nuttall (1996) further adds other 3 types to measure different levels of reading comprehension. However, they may also be subsumed in the 4 types mentioned above.

a. **Questions of evaluation:** These questions require the readers to make a decision about texts. For example, the readers may be asked to judge the writer's attitude towards his topic. For instance,

-What is the writer's attitude towards this topic? (The text does not mention his attitude towards the topic explicitly, but readers can infer it from the language he uses.

b. **Questions of personal response:** The questions require readers' reaction and personal response to the text. For example,

- Would you like to live in Y? (Y is a place which is stated in the text.)

These two types of questions may well fit into the critical questions category.

c. **Questions concerned with how writers say what they mean:** The questions aim to enable readers to be aware of skills of words and text attack and make them conscious of what they do when they interpret text. This type of questions can be grouped in inferential questions category.

For example,

- What does the word "he" (in line 2) refer to?

It can be concluded that reading questions can be grouped into three main types: literal, reinterpretation, and critical or evaluative questions

In order to enable students to effectively read and comprehend the text, teachers must be aware of the different levels of comprehension and questioning and encourage students to read beyond the text, and use their knowledge to help them think logically and critically when reading.

2.3 Stages in Teaching Reading Comprehension

To effectively teach reading, teachers should pay attention not only to the purposes in teaching reading, but also to the classroom procedures. Concerning the issues of the practical teaching of reading comprehension, teachers should be aware of the aims of each phase in the reading procedures to encourage students to develop their reading abilities and achieve proficiency in reading.

As stated by Williams (1994), reading procedures can be classified into three phases: pre-, while- and post-reading. And he also states the purposes of each reading phase as follows:

a. Pre-reading phase aims to introduce and to arouse students' interest in the topic, to motivate students by giving a reason for reading and to provide some language preparation for the text.

b. While-reading phase aims to help students understand the writer's purpose and the text structure and to clarify text content.

c. Post-reading phase proposes to consolidate or reflect upon what has been read and to relate the text to the students' knowledge, interests, or views.

Williams, (1994) further elaborates that the three phases of teaching reading not only help students use their knowledge of language, but also activate students to relate their knowledge to what they read. Readers are required to use these for involvement, motivation, and progress and to integrate the skills in a coherent manner. This is because the reading lessons cannot be taught in isolation.

However, many scholars e.g. White (1981, cited in McDonough and Shaw, 1993), Harmer (1983), Srivardhana, (2002) have provided the views of reading procedures which divided the teaching of reading comprehension into different stages in language classes. White (1981, cited in McDonough and Shaw, 1993), classifies procedures in teaching reading into 4 stages and Harmer, (1983) divided them into 6 stages. Srivardhana, (2002) further elaborates them and came up with seven.

However, all of their views share the same concepts of pre-, while-, and post-reading. Hence, the various stages proposed by them can be grouped under the three main stages, showing what can be done at certain stages of the lesson.

2.3.1 Pre-reading Stages

1. Arouse the students' interest and motivation by linking the topic of the text to their experiences or existing knowledge. Give or provide questions to activate or test students' knowledge of the topic (White, 1981, cited in McDonough and Shaw, 1993 and Srivardhana, 2002).

2. Introduce key vocabulary or expressions from the text (Srivardhana, 2002). Then, set a task that the students will have to perform as a pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activity. This will give them a purpose in their reading of the text. It also enables them to practice making predictions about what they will read (Harmer, 1983 and Srivardhana, 2002).

It is also possible to give students points to search for in the reading text, or ask the students to suggest the points, and then read (White, 1981, cited in McDonough and Shaw, 1993).

2.3.2 While-reading Stages

Have the students read silently and perform the task, e.g., answer the questions set beforehand and write their answers (Grellet, 1981; Harmer, 1983; and Srivardhana, 2002).

2.3.3 Post-reading Stages

1. Ask some students to read their answers aloud. The teacher's attention should be focused on the meaning of the text rather than on how the students express their answers (Srivardhana, 2002). Students are encouraged to discuss their answers (White,

1981, cited in McDonough and Shaw, 1993).Then, have one or two students write their answers on the board. This helps students see alternative answers and practice in monitoring written answers which can benefit their writing skills (Srivardhana, 2002). After that teachers give feedback on the students' performance (Harmer, 1983).

2. Develop students' writing by using the information gained for another purpose e.g Students are required to make a comment, express their ideas or react to what they have read (White, 1981, cited in McDonough and Shaw, 1993). Check the students' answers individually (Srivardhana, 2002).

As can be seen in the pre-reading stage, teachers arouse students' interest to the topic and provide students knowledge of language and contents. In the while-reading stage, students read silently and try to answer questions set beforehand. Then, in post-reading, teachers check the students' comprehension. Students are encouraged to relate the text to their knowledge to give their opinion or make a judgement of what they have read. Finally, teachers may provide extended activities for students to develop their speaking or writing skills.

2.4 Questioning Strategies in Teaching Reading

To achieve the aims of reading lessons, students need to be trained to be able to appropriately make use of reading skills in each phase of the reading. For this purpose, questioning strategies can be used in all pre-, while-, and post stages of reading to encourage students to be active in reading. The questions used need to be designed to serve the purpose of each teaching stage.

2.4.1   Pre-reading Questions

According to Grant (1987) and Srivardhana (2002), pre-reading questions provide the students a purpose for reading and also make reading activities more meaningful and interesting. Pre-reading questions are intended to activate students' knowledge, preview

key concepts, and set the purposes for reading. Shin (1992) further elaborates that pre-reading questions enable students to know the direction of the discussion about the important concepts before reading. Doff, (1993, cited in Kramut, 2000) notes that students will want to read if they are given pre-reading questions because they want to find the answers, to look for particular information, and to predict what they will read.

Moreover, Langer (1982, cited in Anthony and Raphael, 1996) points out that pre-reading questioning is essential for students with limited English proficiency because their decoding and comprehension abilities can be increased when appropriate background knowledge is activated. The following questions are examples of those that can be used as pre-reading questions.

- Do you know what the word "fable" mean?

- Have you ever read or listened to fables?

- What do you think this story is about?

- Can you guess what happened in the end?

2.4.2   While-reading Questions

Whereas, pre-reading questions are created to build or activate students' background knowledge, while-reading questions help students monitor their comprehension when reading (Paris and Winograd, 1990, cited in Anthony and Raphael, 1996). In addition, they can make students familiar with using questions to guide their reading, and eventually can formulate their own questions while reading at their own pace. Readers who formulate questions while reading have expectations of what is to come in the text and look for information that can confirm or reject their predictions. Thus, it is easy for them to check if the meaning they are constructing makes sense, and if the information they read is related to understanding (Anthony and Raphael, 1996).

2.4.3   Post-reading Questions

Post-reading questions is generally the most familiar component of teaching reading. It is important for students to remember and comprehend what they have read. Anthony and Raphael (1996) note that post-reading questioning not only increases students' comprehension, but also helps them integrate the textual information into their personal experiences. Hansen and Hubbard (1984, cited in Anthony and Raphael, 1996) suggest that inferential questions should be asked rather than literal questions in post-reading so that students will need to interpret the text by using their background knowledge and thinking critically.

As can be seen, questioning strategies are not only interrelated to stages of reading used for definite and different purposes which, in turn, can encourage readers to read a text more actively. Questions are not focused merely on the contents, but also used to integrate readers' background knowledge with the text and require them to react to the text as well. In addition, reading questioning strategies enable students to read and to think logically and critically.

2.5 Related Research on Questioning Strategies

Several studies have focused on the questioning strategies and found that questions influenced students' comprehension. They can be classified into three groups according to the aspects of questioning strategies being studied: self-generated questions, teacher-generated questions, levels of reading comprehension questions and the positions of questions.

Wong (1985) and Davey and McBride (1986), found from their studies that self-generated questions can enhance students' reading comprehension ability.

Wong (1985) investigated the effects of self-questioning instruction on reading comprehension. The subjects in the study were four groups of undergraduate students. The first group was trained to formulate five questions after reading every twenty lines;

the second group formulated five questions after reading the whole passage; the third group formulated five questions before reading the passage; and the last one read twice without formulating any questions. After the training, a reading comprehension test consisting of twenty-one items was administered to all the groups of subjects. The findings indicate that every group trained to formulate questions got higher reading scores than the group trained to read the passage twice without formulating questions.

Davey and McBride (1986) explored the effects of training in question generation on comprehension performance, on quality and form of generated questions, and on the accuracy of predicted comprehension. The subjects in this study were 250 sixth–grade students who were native English speakers. They were divided into five groups: question-training (QT), question-generation practice (GP), no-question control (NQC), literal question practice (LP), and inferential question practice (IP). The five experimental groups met for five 40 minute lessons over a 2-week period. During the five sessions, the subjects in each group were asked to read three of the fifteen 250-word passages per session.

The question-training group (QT) was trained to generate these two types of questions; those linking information across sentences and those tapping the most important information (literal and inferential questions). The subjects in this group were explicitly instructed in the following procedures: In the first session, they were introduced to the mechanics of generating a question stem for linking information in one part of the passages with information in another part of the passages. In the second session, the subjects were told to determine the important signal words and what an appropriate response would resemble. In the third session, they were instructed to generate questions related to the most important ideas presented in a passage and how to generate good questions to capture this information. In the fourth session, they were provided more practice in generating and answering these two types of questions (linking text information and identifying the most important information). In the last session of the training, a self-evaluated check list was provided for the students to assure that they can either link the text information or identify the most important information.

The question-generation-practice group (GP) read the same three passages per session and was instructed to generate the two good think-type of questions for each passage. Subjects were told that good questions assessed the most important ideas in the passage, make them think about what they read, and could not be answered by underlining parts of the passage. In other words, the subjects were trained to generate only the inferential questions; whereas, the question-training group (QT) was trained to generate both the literal and inferential questions.

The no-question control group (NQC) read the same passages, but completed a vocabulary activity instead of generating or answering questions. They were instructed to think of the meaning of certain underlined words in each passage, and then look up the definitions of the target terms in a dictionary. That means they were trained to sort out meaning of words from context, and then confirm their understanding by looking words up again in dictionary.

The question-practice (LP) and (IP) groups read the same passages and answered four free-response questions per passage. In other words, the literal question-practice group was asked to response only to the literal questions, while the inference question-practice group was required to response only to the inferential questions.

After the experiment, the subjects were directed to read two passages per session and to generate two inferential questions for each passage that tapped the most important information in the passage. After generating their two questions, they responded to the four inferential and four literal questions for each passage without looking at the passage.

The results of the study showed that the question-training (QT) have positive effects on sixth-grade students' reading comprehension as they out-performed the other four comprehension groups. The researcher also recommended that generated-question activities should be employed with elementary school students.

Students-generated questions and teacher-generated questions can also help improve students' reading comprehension ability as can be seen in the following studies.

Kramut (2000) experimented the extent to which schema-activating pre-reading questions affected the English reading comprehension of M. 5 students at Prince of Songkla University Demonstration School in terms of their comprehension level and comprehension time. Fifty-nine students were selected based on their reading proficiency

test scores. Then, they were divided into the control group and experimental group with similar ability. The study consisted of two stages: training and testing. In the training stage, both groups read six passages in three one-hour periods (2 passages per periods). The experimental group was trained to read using schema-activating pre-reading questions while the control group was trained to read without pre-reading questions. In the testing stage, both subjects read four passages in two hours. The experimental group received a slip of paper containing schema-activating pre-reading questions before reading each passage while the control group read the passage and did the post reading questions. All subjects were required to record their starting and finishing time of each passage. The findings were concluded into three aspects as follows: (1) The experimental group read better than the control group. (2) The experimental group spent less time in reading than those in the control group. (3) There was a tendency for the subjects in the experimental group's reading comprehension level to rise and their reading time to reduce. The findings indicate that pre-reading questions should be employed for teaching reading for better achievement in reading comprehension.

In addition, several studies, e.g. Boker (1974), Shayle (1982) and Ellen (1984) have shown that questioning in each reading phase and level of reading questions had positively affected students' comprehension ability.

Boker (1974) investigated the effects of pre-, while-, and post-questions on the delayed retention of question-relevant and question-incidental prose material. In other words, the investigation aimed to study the short- and long-term retention effects of viewing testlike factual questions in conjunction with reading a written instructional passage. This study was conducted with 108 college undergraduate students who were randomly assigned to one of the three experimental treatments: the pre-questioned, interspersed and post-questioned groups. Subjects in pre-questioned and post-questioned groups received instructions to answer directly on the page any questions that were encountered during the reading of the passage; whereas, the interspersed group was not provided with any instructions. The subjects received the delayed retention test one week later. The results of this study revealed that the post-questioned group retained more question-incidental content than either the pre-questioned or the interspersed groups on both retention tests.

Shayle (1982) investigated the effects of adjunct questions on ninth-grade students' comprehension of and attitudes toward short stories. In particular, the effects of question placement and the conceptual level of the questions on students' comprehension and attitudes toward short stories were studied. Subjects for the study were 163 ninth-graders. The short stories used in the study were selected from the materials designed for low-ability ninth-grade students. Subjects were randomly assigned within each of the ten classrooms to one of seven treatment condition: literal pre-question, literal post-question, inferential pre-question, inferential post-question, evaluative pre-question, evaluative post-question, or rereading (control). On the first and the second day, all subjects received the treatment to which they have been assigned. Subjects read a story, responded to a treatment condition, took an attitude inventory on the story, and completed a comprehension test and an evaluation of the moral dilemma question test for the study. On the third and the fourth day, all subjects repeated the procedures as described in the first and second day, but with a second story. The findings of the study were as follows: 1) Question location did not significantly affect students' text comprehension, attitudes and abilities to answers evaluation of the moral dilemma questions. 2) Higher-level questions did not significantly improve students' comprehension, attitudes, and abilities to answer moral dilemma evaluation questions compared to the effects produced by lower-level questions.

Ellen (1984) studied the effects of various types of adjunct questions, the position of the questions, and student proficiency on recall measures of reading comprehension. The question variables consisted of three levels: meaningful-learning questions, conceptual questions and factual questions. There were two types of question position (pre-questions versus post-questions) and two levels of student proficiency (proficient and non-proficient). One dependent variable was used in the study which was the total number of valid propositions students included in their recall summaries. Two hundred twenty subjects from 17 classes of beginning college French students participated in the study. Each student received three segments of French text either preceded or followed by one example in English of the appropriate question type for each treatment group. A control group read the text segments without any accompanying questions. The study

reported that students who were proficient in French performed well in all three questions condition. For non-proficient students, however, meaningful-learning and conceptual questions produced significantly more recall than factual questions.

Moreover, non-proficient students given either type of higher-order question (meaningful-learning or conceptual) were not significantly different in recall performance from proficient students, regardless of the treatment the latter group received.

According to the studies mentioned above, questioning plays a vital role in teaching reading, but the studies which deal with elementary level are scarce. However, as found by Davey and Mcbride (1986), question-training in the form of student-generated questions have positive effects on the elementary students who were native English speakers. Then, it is interesting to find if questioning strategy work well with Thai students in the elementary level. However, as English is only a foreign language in the Thai context, student-generated questions might not be applicable to especially elementary school students. In this case, teacher-generated questions might be more appropriate as it was found by Kramut (2000) that teacher-generated questions can enhance Thai secondary school students' reading comprehension ability and they spend less time reading. Hence, it is interesting to conduct the study on Thai elementary school students using teacher-generated questions to find if questioning strategies would enhance their reading comprehension ability.